

DSpace7 Instance

Leadership culture in Latin American universities

Item Type	Text
Authors	Moss, Benjamin Taylor
Download date	2025-02-06 19:49:50
Link to Item	https://repository.tcu.edu/handle/116099117/25378

LEADERSHIP CULTURE IN
LATIN AMERICAN UNIVERSITIES

by

BENJAMIN TAYLOR MOSS

Bachelor of Education, 2013
Baylor University
Waco, Texas

Master of Spanish, 2015
Baylor University
Waco, Texas

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
College of Education
Texas Christian University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

May 2019

Copyright by
Benjamin Taylor Moss
2019

Abstract

LEADERSHIP CULTURE IN LATIN AMERICAN UNIVERSITIES

by Benjamin Taylor Moss, Ph.D., 2019
College of Education
Texas Christian University

Dissertation Advisor: Dr. Donald Mills, Distinguished Professor of Educational Leadership

Dr. Gabriel Huddleston, Assistant Professor of Curriculum Studies

Dr. Steffen Palko, Associate Professor of Professional Practice

Dr. Catherine Wehlburg, Dean of the School of Sciences

This study seeks to learn about and understand what constitutes successful leadership cultures in Latin American universities. The research calls attention to one national university rector and subordinate members of his leadership team, as well as students at the university in order to understand the values and actions needed to fulfill the role of rector. While many researchers have examined the role of president at American universities, few studies have focused on higher education leadership in Latin America, furthering the need to discuss the role of the rector. Results from the study show important links between Latin American culture and leadership style as well as culturally contingent leadership principles critical for fulfilling higher level leadership positions in Latin American universities.

Dedication

To my wife, Charlotte Moss. You have been the steadiest encourager in my life, constant source of joy, and best friend. This project would not have been possible without your caring attitude, wisdom, and support. Thanks for being there always.

Acknowledgements

First, I would like to thank the members of my committee and Dr. Donald Mills, my advisor and mentor. From the beginning of this project, Dr. Mills has enthusiastically embraced my dedication to Latin American higher education. I appreciate his encouragement, patience, and wisdom along the way. I would also like to thank the other members of my committee for offering their scholarly expertise and thoughtful advice: Dr. Catherine Wehlburg, Dr. Gabe Huddleston, and Dr. Steffen Palko. Dr. Cecilia Silva also played an integral role in overseeing the bilingual aspects of the study. Thank you to my parents, Dr. Ron Moss and Deb Moss, for instilling within me a passion for teaching, learning, and higher education; to my brother, John Moss and his wife Chelsi, for being steady friends in my life; to Dr. Jamey Miller for his mentorship and guidance while working on his dissertation at the same time; and to Jimmy Seibert, for his support and counsel over the years.

Several of my friends have provided support and encouragement along the way. Without them this project would not have been possible: Micah Scharchburg, Joe Notoli, Zach Woods, and the entire Antioch community.

Special thanks to my colleagues Jill Gerloff and Katie Beaulieu for their countless hours spent working on projects together.

My hope is that this study will continue to help others in less fortunate areas to improve their lives through obtaining a quality higher education experience.

Table of Contents

Dedication	ii
Acknowledgements	iii
Table of Contents	iv
List of Figures	vii
List of Tables	viii
Chapter I	1
Introduction	1
Challenges of the Presidential Role	2
Purpose of Research	2
Major Research Questions	4
Significance	4
Conceptual Framework	5
Potential Risks	6
Definition of Important Terms	7
Summary and Transition to Chapter II	8
Chapter II: Literature Review	10
Introduction	10
Theories of Culture	10
Schein's Theory	11
Moua's Theory	12
Theories of Culture and Leadership	13
Expanding on Models of Culture and Leadership	15
Dorfman's Model	15
House's Model	16
Hofstede's Model	16
Theories of Latin American Culture and Leadership	17
Categorizing LA Culture and Leadership Using Schein's Theory of Culture	17
Categorizing LA Culture and Leadership Using Hofstede's Model	19
Latin American Influences	19
Summary	24
Challenges Facing Latin American Higher Education	24
Education Quality	24
Policy and Governance	26
Finance	28
Illiteracy and Dropout Rates	29
Research	30
Accreditation	31
Implications of the Literature Review to This Study and Transition to Chapter III	32
The Impact of History	33
The Impact of Culture	36
The Impact of Experience	37
The Impact of Observations	37
Chapter III: Methodology	38
Introduction	38

Research Design.....	40
Qualitative Strand	42
Introduction.....	42
Participants	44
Recruitment Procedure	45
Consenting Procedure	45
Data Collection	46
Observations and Positionality	47
Interviews	49
Timeline.....	52
Maintaining Credible Procedures	54
Data Analysis.....	56
Validity	57
Ethical Considerations	59
Quantitative Research	61
Participants	62
Sampling Design.....	63
Instrumentation	63
Validity, Reliability, and Variance	64
Data Collection	67
Data Analysis.....	68
Ethical Considerations	69
Summary and Transition to Chapter IV	70
Chapter IV: Results	71
Introduction.....	71
Culturally Contingent Leadership Principles	72
“Dar la Vuelta a la Ley” (“Going around the Law”)	73
Summary	85
Preference for Bureaucracy	86
“El Principio de Autoridad” (“The Principle of Authority”)	88
Individualism	91
Search for Identity	94
Summary	95
The Potential of the University	95
Community Development.....	95
Driver of Personal Character	97
Values	98
Integrity	100
Conviction.....	104
Teamwork.....	106
Academics.....	107
Discipline.....	108
Creative Thinking	109
Summary	109
Actions of the Rector	110
Administrative Actions	111
Academic Actions.....	114
Community Actions.....	116
Strategic Actions.....	118
A Special Note on Sacrifice.....	120

Summary.....	121
CHAPTER V: Conclusion.....	122
Introduction.....	122
Discussion of Findings.....	122
A New Conceptual Framework	123
Dar la Vuelta a La Ley vs. Ethics-Based Management	124
The Individual vs. Teamwork.....	127
Leadership Hierarchies vs. Decreasing Leader-Follower Gaps.....	129
Summary.....	131
Observations for Advancing the Latin American University.....	131
The Way Forward with Dar la Vuelta a La Ley vs. Ethics-Based Management.....	131
The Way Forward with the Individual vs. Teamwork.....	132
The Way Forward with Leadership Hierarchies vs. Decreasing Leader-Follower Gaps	133
Accreditation.....	135
Quality Enhancement.....	136
Generating Resources	137
Legal Reform.....	139
Education Reform.....	141
Addressing Racism	142
Unique Findings.....	143
Motivations	143
The Role of the Rector.....	147
The Potential of the University.....	148
Opportunities for Future Research.....	149
Limitations	150
Conclusion	151
References	153
Appendix A: Sample Letter to Rectors	176
Appendix B: Sample Letter to Leadership Team Members.....	177
Appendix C: Sample Letter to Students	178
Appendix D: Rector Consent Form.....	179
Appendix E: Leadership Team Members Consent Form	181
Appendix F: Student Consent Form.....	183
Appendix G: Observation Protocol	185
Appendix H: Rector Interview Protocol.....	186
Appendix I: Leadership Team Members Interview Protocol	188
Appendix J: Student Interview Protocol	189
Appendix K: Sample Student Survey: English Version.....	190
Appendix L: Sample Student Survey: Spanish Version.....	192

List of Figures

1. FIGURE 1.1 Relationship between Schein’s Theory and Pragmatic Theory	6
2. FIGURE 2.1 TERCE Exam Results	25
3. FIGURE 2.2 Universities in the ARWU Top 500 Ranking by Region	26
4. FIGURE 2.3 Public Expenditure (US Thousands) per Higher Education Student.....	28
5. FIGURE 2.4 Funds for Public Institutions in Latin America as Percentage of GDP.....	29
6. FIGURE 3.1 Mixed Methods Design	40
7. FIGURE 3.2 Mixed Methods Design Expanded	41
8. FIGURE 3.3 Qualitative Data Collection	47
9. FIGURE 3.4 Independent vs. Dependent Variables	62
10. FIGURE 3.5 Data Collection Process.....	67
11. FIGURE 4.1 Flow Chart of Findings.....	72
12. FIGURE 4.2 Characteristics Important for University Leaders	99
13. FIGURE 4.3 Ranked Characteristics	100
14. FIGURE 5.1 Original Conceptual Framework	123
15. FIGURE 5.2 New Conceptual Framework	123

List of Tables

1. TABLE 2.1 Schein’s Model and Latin American Leadership	18
2. TABLE 3.1 Research Time Frame	53
3. TABLE 3.2 Summary of Collection Process	53
4. TABLE 3.3 Timeline for Action.....	54
5. TABLE 4.1 Responses to Survey Question 5	73
6. TABLE 4.2 Administrative Attempts at “Dar la Vuelta a la Ley	74
7. TABLE 4.3 Responses to Survey Question 15	77
8. TABLE 4.4 Professor Attempts at “Dar la Vuelta a la Ley”	78
9. TABLE 4.5 Student Attempts at “Dar la Vuelta a la Ley”	81
10. TABLE 4.6 Government Leader Attempts at “Dar la Vuelta a a Ley	82
11. TABLE 4.7 Specific Responses Regarding a Preference for Bureaucracy	86
12. TABLE 4.8 Responses to Survey Question 7	88
13. TABLE 4.9 Responses to Survey Question 16	88
14. TABLE 4.10 Specific Responses Regarding Hierarchical Approaches to Leadership	89
15. TABLE 4.11 Responses to Survey Question 9	90
16. TABLE 4.12 Responses to Survey Question 13	91
17. TABLE 4.13 Specific Responses Regarding Individualism in LA	91
18. TABLE 4.14 Responses to Survey Question 8	92
19. TABLE 4.15 Responses to Survey Question 11	93
20. TABLE 4.16 Responses to Survey Question 14	93
21. TABLE 4.17 Responses to Survey Question 12	93
22. TABLE 4.18 Specific Responses Regarding Search for Identity in LA.....	94

23. TABLE 4.19 Specific Responses Regarding University-Community Partnerships	96
24. TABLE 4.20 Specific Responses Regarding the Impact of Study Abroad Programs	97
25. TABLE 4.21 Specific Responses Regarding Integrity in LA Universities	101
26. TABLE 4.22 Specific Responses Regarding Responsibility in LA Universities	103
27. TABLE 4.23 Responses Regarding Conviction-Based Leadership in LA Universities..	104
28. TABLE 4.24 Specific Responses Regarding Teamwork in LA Universities	106
29. TABLE 4.25 Specific Responses Regarding Academics in LA Universities	107
30. TABLE 4.26 Responses to Survey Question 18.....	110
31. TABLE 4.27 Administrative Actions	111
32. TABLE 4.28 Specific Responses Regarding Budget Spending in LA Universities.....	114
33. TABLE 4.29 Specific Responses About Addressing Students' Needs	115
34. TABLE 4.30 Responses to Survey Question 23	115
35. TABLE 4.31 Responses to Survey Question 24.....	117
36. TABLE 4.32 Responses to Survey Question 19.....	118
37. TABLE 4.33 Responses to Survey Question 20.....	119
38. TABLE 4.34 Responses to Survey Question 21	119
39. TABLE 4.35 Responses to Survey Question 22.....	120
40. TABLE 5.1 Dar la Vuelta a la Ley vs. Ethics-Based Leadership.....	126
41. TABLE 5.2 Individualsim vs. Teamwork.....	129

Chapter I

Introduction

A friend of the students, a colleague of the faculty, a good fellow with the alumni, a sound administrator with the trustees, a good speaker with the public, an astute bargainer with the foundations and the federal agencies, a politician with the state legislature, a friend of industry, labor, and agriculture, a persuasive diplomat with donors, a champion of education generally, a supporter of the professions (particularly law and medicine), a spokesman to the press, a scholar in his own right, a public servant at the state and national levels, a decent human being, and a good husband and father. Above all he must like traveling in airplanes, eating his meals in public, and attending public ceremonies. No one can be all of these things. Some succeed at being none. (Bourgeois, 2016, p. 13)

The role of the college president is perhaps one of the most demanding jobs in all of the professional work force today. As the primary overseer of the university's well-being, the modern presidential role can be as onerous as that of a CEO of a major corporation or organization. Presidents manage highly politicized environments that are full of talented students, faculty, staff, and alumni (Nelson, 2009). So what are the roles of today's university presidents and what actions taken by presidents lead to success? The proposed study seeks answers to these questions but with a unique emphasis. Through focusing on Latin America (LA), a region of over 650 million people, the study examines leadership through the lens of the college rector. Plagued by centuries of superpowers, crime, marginalization, poverty, war, economic crisis, and cultural disillusionment, LA is one of the most difficult places in the world to establish quality leadership (Gasparini, Sosa-Escudero, Marchionni, & Olivieri, 2013). Perhaps no other area in this part of the world has experienced this lack of leadership more than higher education (Browne & Shen, 2017). To truly understand leadership at an institution of higher learning in LA, one must first recognize the challenges facing college rectors in general. Once laying this foundation, one begins to understand the endless hurdles that must be overcome for LA rectors to be successful in their role. Studies linking culture and leadership are

exhaustive, but literature examining the role of the college rector in LA is limited. So how can one interpret and define what makes a successful leadership culture in Latin American (LA) universities and understand the role of a rector? This study examines these questions.

Challenges of the Presidential Role

Both the past and the future reveal a need for effective leadership in higher education. Society expects today's institutional leaders to set realistic expectations and goals for the university. As leaders, visionaries, and shapers of whole communities, presidents must speak eloquently and handle diversity flawlessly. These responsibilities, combined with leading governing boards, developing policy, and winning the trust of constituents, lead to fewer and fewer education professionals seeking the presidential role (Bowles, 2013). Competing issues make it tremendously challenging to direct higher education in the 21st century. At the center of these challenges is the institutional leader. Opening the *Chronicle of Higher Education* reveals multiple colleges and universities just moments away from a catastrophe (Wellmon, 2017). There is no place to hide. As Bourgeois (2016) notes, "The golden age of unparalleled academic leadership in higher education is over. The accountabilities of the modern university president are endless" (p. 14). As a result, the role of college president has become increasingly untenable and beyond the ability of any one person's capabilities (Bornstein, 2004). Instead of a leader, the president has gradually become more like a juggler, balancing the powerful social, economic, technological, and political forces affecting higher education (Bornstein, 2004). National standards require colleges and universities to perform at higher rates than ever before and with fewer resources to do it.

Purpose of Research

Although research examining the challenges facing today's university presidents is vast, only certain studies pay attention to the role culture plays in determining leadership behaviors.

Even fewer studies discuss how LA rectors actually assume responsibility and embrace their role. Overall, individual college presidents and other institutional leaders differ in the expected values required to lead an institution of higher learning. What college presidents sense about organizational life influences their daily agenda and the manner in which they perform their role. Perhaps the greatest contributor to these varied styles is culture. Certain studies have explored administrative styles within individual LA countries; however, few studies specifically describe culture's impact on university leadership (Davila & Elvira, 2012; Vassolo, De Castro, & Gomez-Mejia, 2011). Researchers give even less attention to expected behaviors. For example, a sense of family motivates one group in the organization, while another group may honor individual accomplishments. Most societies encourage leadership skills such as awakening enthusiasm in followers, but local cultures alter the expected behaviors a leader should personify. While American college presidents make important decisions in partnership with a large governing board of policy-makers, rectors of LA universities tend to be more autocratic, bureaucratic, and paternalistic (Pashiardis & Johansson, 2016; Muczyk & Holt, 2008; Leguizamon, Ickis, & Ogliastri, 2008). For this reason, researchers examining leadership in LA universities must stay closely connected to LA culture. Diverse theories about the presidential role make a study examining culture's impact on leadership relevant to today's modern university.

This study helps to identify what makes a successful leadership culture in LA by examining one national university president, members of the leadership team (LTMs), and students at that institution in order to understand the elements that comprise a successful leadership culture at LA universities. The study also includes an examination of the patterns of how rectors interpret their role and the values influencing their work. Uniquely, the study holds the opportunity to reveal the crucial role culture plays in affecting the leadership style of a

particular region. Indeed, different cultures require different leadership approaches tailored to cultural characteristics. The study explores this relationship through examining different models of culture and leadership.

Major Research Questions

As previously stated, the intent of the case study was to learn about and understand what makes a successful leadership culture in LA universities and shed light on the key role culture plays in determining the appropriate leadership style in the region. The study called attention to one national university rector, members of the leadership team, and students. The researcher developed the following research questions:

1. What elements comprise a successful university leadership culture in Latin America?
2. What are the actions required to fulfill the role of rector at a national university in Latin America?

Significance

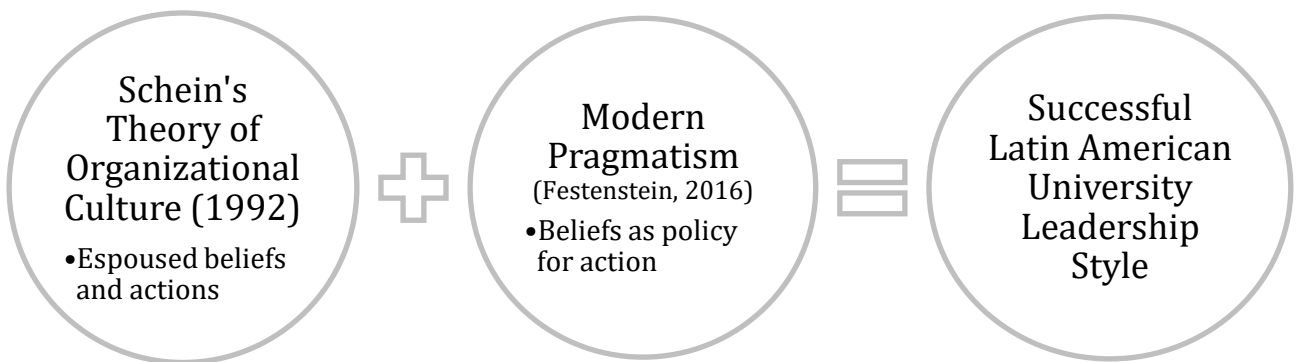
Through answering these research questions, the study will help leaders in LA higher education to better define and shape the reality of others (Orellana, 2015; Castro, Rodríguez-Gómez, & Gairín, 2017). The study adds to the field of successful leadership and cultural management. In addition, given the need for excellence in higher education, the study exposes values and actions that can better inform university leadership in one region of LA. Changing the negative perceptions of managerialism in the region requires leaders who are both competent and reflective. As institutions in LA evolve to the needs of a globalized higher education system, rectors will constantly face the pressures of redefining the identity and principles of the institution. Understanding the leadership styles of university rectors is crucial for impacting future generations of educational leaders and addressing the many educational challenges in LA.

Conceptual Framework

National universities are a critical part of higher education in LA. The term “national” is used to describe universities that receive federal funding. The current system contains approximately 20 million students, 10,000 institutions, and 60,000 programs (Ferreyra et al., 2017). Since higher education in the region has expanded dramatically in the last 15 years, it is important researchers understand how rectors in the region lead and guide the university (World Bank, 2017). Because the information gained from this study helps identify cross-cultural leadership principles, the prevalent theories on effective leadership behaviors across cultures are important. Dickson et al. (2003) noted, “It would be essentially impossible to prepare a single chapter that presented an exhaustive account of the research on cross-cultural issues and leadership” (p. 730). Geert Hofstede (1980, 2001) was one of the pioneers in noting that culture and leadership are two mutually shaping forces. Similarly, Schein’s (1992) Model of Organizational Culture, which originated in the 1980’s, serves as a foundation for understanding culture and leadership. In the last thirty years, there has been a growing body of literature examining culture and leadership as mutually dependent variables (Bartlett & Ghosal 1989; Dimmock, 2012; Kras 1989; Miller, 2016; Moua, 2011; Pashiardis & Johansson, 2016; Schuler et al., 1996). Dorfman (1996) proposed an early model describing this relationship. His culturally enveloping model of leadership considered national culture and leadership processes as two mutually shaping forces. Furthermore, a commonly cited example of a large research project on cultural issues is the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) Project proposed by House et al. (2004). According to these authors, successful leadership depends on the management of interrelated cultural constructs that co-exist with one another.

This particular study draws special attention to one of Schein's (1992) characteristics for organizational cultures: espoused beliefs and actions. Espoused beliefs and actions refer to the "strategies, goals, philosophies, and justifications of a society" (Schein, 1992, p. 26). A culturally-sensitive approach to LA universities includes an awareness of the espoused beliefs and actions taken by leaders. Pragmatic Theory helps support Schein's concept of espoused beliefs and actions. Describing modern pragmatism, Festenstein (2016) notes, "Pragmatism is a conception of beliefs and judgments. We respond with inquiry in order to arrive at beliefs and policies of action" (p. 42). Pragmatism helped the researcher take a narrower view on the beliefs and actions that contribute to successful leadership cultures in LA universities. Figure 1.1 displays the conceptual framework guiding the study.

Figure 1.1. Relationship between Schein's Theory and Pragmatic Theory



Potential Risks

Multiple risks exist in the study. First, as an American-based study, the researcher recognizes the imperialistic biases that may come into play when conducting research in a foreign country. A strong sense of superiority is at the bedrock of an imperial mindset. Atlas (2000) notes the negative impacts of imperialism: (1) Exploitation- control by the subjugating power over the people dominated. (2) Tutelage- the dominated people are considered a kind of

ward within a system. (3) Conformity- the subjugating power expects the governed people to conform to certain aspects of life, and (4) the imperialist power civilizes people under intellectual subjugation. As an American, the researcher recognizes the prejudices that could have impacted this study. The most pervasive risk is applying American culture and leadership to LA culture and leadership. As previously mentioned, culture and leadership are mutually dependent variables. It would be a mistake to assume that leadership traits and decisions made in LA institutions are inferior to decisions made in American institutions. The researcher wanted to honor the uniqueness of each culture and made every effort to remain objective. Second, because American-based study at a LA university is unusual, leadership may have been anxious about conducting interviews, increasing the likelihood of psychological harm. In order to minimize this risk, the researcher worked to establish trust with participants and affirmed that responses would remain confidential. Additionally, participants were able to terminate the interview at any time or withdraw from the overall study without penalty. Since Leadership Team Members (LTMs) participated, the study could have compromised their position at the university. The presence of the researcher in observing/shadowing the rector may also have impacted the rector's behavior toward other leaders on campus and the investigator's ability to assess actions accurately. Finally, digital files could have been hacked, so the researcher stored audio recordings and data in a secured file drawer in the principal researcher's office.

Definition of Important Terms

Multiple key terms exist for the study including culture, Latin America, national university, rector, leadership team member, *simpatía*, *caudillismo*, *machismo*, *el patrón*, *compadrazgo*, *personalismo*, and *paternalism*. As a point of clarification, the researcher used the terms "rector" and "president" synonymously.

- *Culture*- This study builds upon Hofstede's (1991), definition of culture as, "patterns of thinking, feeling and acting that underpin the collective programming of the mind which differentiates one group or people from another" (as cited in Dimmock & Walker, 2000, p. 308).
- *Latin America(n) (LA)*- The terms "Latin America" and "Latin American" are both abbreviated as "LA."
- *National university*- A LA university that is managed partially or fully by the government but can also have autonomous operation without direct control by the state.
- *Rector*- (From the Latin *regerre*, meaning "ruler"). The term used to describe the highest administrative or educational office at the university. The rector usually holds the final authority in making decisions.
- *Leadership Team Member (LTM)* - Position appointed by the rector. With the large size of universities in Latin America, positions are diverse but most often manage particular areas of the university such as research or undergraduate education.
- *Student (S)*- Undergraduate students at national universities in LA.
- *Simpatía*- Building on the value of relationships, Latin Americans value courtesy and respect in their jobs. Simpatía emphasizes the importance of being polite and pleasant in all situations.
- *Caudillismo*- A system of political-social domination, based on the leadership of a strongman, that arose after the wars of independence from Spain in 19th century (De Riz, 2015).
- *Machismo*- Standards of behavior displayed by men in LA culture. In machismo, there is often an exaggerated pride, perceived as power that results in a disregard of consequences. Panitz, McConchie, Sauber, and Fonseca (1983) refer to machismo as, "An ethos comprised of behaviors prized and expected of men in Latin American countries" (p. 32).
- *El Patrón*- "Boss," traditional Latin American leader, expected to be autocratic and directive. El Patrón uses formal top-down organizational hierarchy to communicate and is expected to be aggressive and assertive (Romero, 2004).
- *Compadrazgo*- A social relationship based on an informal contract among close relatives or friends in which a reciprocity system depends on giving and accepting of favors (Davila & Elvira, 2012).
- *Personalismo*- Term used to describe the value for interpersonal relationships in Latin America. Personalismo encourages the development of warm and friendly relationships (Santiago-Rivera et al., 2002).
- *Paternalism*- Defined as "a hierarchy within a group, by means of which advancement and protection of subordinates are expected in exchange for loyalty, usually to the father figure, or patriarch, who makes decisions on behalf of others" (Behrens, 2010, p. 21).
- *"Law"*- Term used synonymously to refer to rules, regulations, and policies created by the federal government impacting higher education in LA.

Summary and Transition to Chapter II

The role of the college president represents one of the most challenging professions both within the United States and abroad. Presidents must be leaders, visionaries, and shapers of

entire communities while developing and implementing a strategic plan as they spend time with faculty, students, and alumni. Understanding the crucial role culture plays in determining the required leadership behaviors of a particular region represented the primary focus of this study. In synthesizing the theoretical frameworks of Schein's Theory of Organizational Culture (1992) and Pragmatism (2016), the study exposes the need for quality leaders in LA higher education. The study also offers practical advice for professionals seeking leadership roles. Most importantly, the study utilizes a culturally-relevant approach to understanding leadership and confirms the idea that culture and leadership are mutually dependent variables. The following is a discussion about culture, leadership, and the relationship between the two in LA.

Chapter II: Literature Review

Introduction

Since the information gained from this study was intended for use in identifying cross-cultural leadership principles, the investigator discusses prevalent theories and current research on effective leadership behaviors across cultures (Simmons, 2006). For the purpose of this review, the search focused on how particular cultural elements impact leadership styles. Only in the last 25 years have researchers linked culture and leadership as mutually dependent variables. In the past, theories in the field fell into two main categories: divergent and convergent. Divergent leadership theories insisted that the effectiveness of leadership was dictated by culture, while convergent leadership strategies emphasized popular western leadership theories that could be applied to all cultures (Simmons, 2006). During the 1990's and the early 2000's, a wave of research entered the field connecting culture and leadership as mutually dependent. The first attempt at a comprehensive analysis of culturally based leadership was conducted by Dorfman (1996). Still, minimal studies exist examining the relationship between culture and leadership in Latin American (LA) universities. The following sections examine the literature for evidence of theories and practices in culturally based leadership. Synopsis of related research shows 1) theories of culture, 2) theories linking culture and leadership, 3) a summary of culturally-based leadership practices in LA, and 4) historical implications for LA.

Theories of Culture

Anthropologists, sociologists, and many others have debated a clear definition of “culture” for hundreds of years (Kumar, Anjum, & Sinha, 2011). Hofstede (1991) defined culture as, “patterns of thinking, feeling, and acting that underpin the collective programming of the mind which differentiate one group from another” (as cited in Dimmock & Walker, 2000, p.

308). For Baldwin (2012), culture builds upon the knowledge, beliefs, art, morals, customs, and other habits acquired by members of a society. In the same vein, Spencer-Oatey (2008) suggests that “culture is a frenzy, set of attitudes, beliefs, behavioral norms, and basic assumptions and values that are shared by a group of people and that influence each member’s behavior” (p. 4). Culture is an expansive topic that includes peoples’ backgrounds and traditions as well as their habits and beliefs (Maou, 2010). What follows is a discussion of important theories about culture. Through understanding these theories, one can begin to understand the important role culture plays in forming the leadership style of a given region.

Schein’s Theory

Schein’s Theory of Organizational Culture (1992) considers a social force anything that is invisible but powerful. Schein notes, “The only thing of real importance that leaders do is create and manage culture. The unique talent of leaders is their ability to understand and work with culture” (p. 5). Schein’s classic book *Organizational Culture and Leadership* (1992) defines culture as:

A pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved problems of external adaption and internal integration. These assumptions have worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to problems. (p. 17)

Schein divides organizational culture into three levels: artifacts, espoused beliefs, and basic assumptions and values. The three levels refer to the degree to which the different cultural phenomena are visible to the observer. “Artifacts” include what one sees, hears, and feels when encountering a new culture (environment, technology, creations, rituals, and ceremonies). Artifacts are the most explicit and observable characteristics of an organizational culture. “Espoused beliefs” refer to the “set of beliefs, norms, and operational rules of behavior” (p. 29).

This includes the group learning that occurs within an organization and the values and attributes of learning that take place. “Basic underlying assumptions” represent “the implicit assumptions that guide behavior and tell group members how to perceive, think, and feel about things” (p. 31). Assumptions are typically so integrated into the organizational culture they can only be identified by outsiders. These concepts hold true within all aspects of the organization and are difficult to change.

Moua’s Theory

Building on Schein’s Theory of Culture, Moua (2010) describes three different mediums through which culture expresses itself in a given society: values, assumptions, and symbols. According to Moua, “One needs to recognize that value systems are fundamental to understanding how culture expresses itself (p. 38). “Values” refer to the principles that guide peoples’ behaviors and actions (Moua, 2010). Values align with what one says and does and are rooted in stories told throughout time. Effective leaders understand that one’s interpretation and expression of values is ultimately what creates conflict. Moua explains, “Many people justify bias and discrimination on the grounds of values without realizing that it is not the values themselves but the difference between our expression and interpretation of those we come into conflict with” (p. 40). “Assumptions” form the foundation of values and represent the beliefs and ideas that one holds to be true and come about through repetition (p. 40). Repetition leads to habits that inform patterns of thinking and doing. Moua comments, “We do not realize our assumptions because they are ingrained in us at unconscious levels. We are aware of them when we encounter a value or belief that is different from ours” (p. 40). “Symbols” define culture. Culture is a system based on symbols. Symbols help to explain the world, express emotion, and are internalized through observation, experience, interaction, and learning. Moua observes, “We manipulate symbols to create meaning and stories that dictate our behaviors to organize our lives

and interact with others” (p. 41). Leaders recognize the tangible ways in which symbols are manifested in the organization through reactions and nonreactions (p. 42).

Theories of Culture and Leadership

Through understanding theories of culture, one can begin to make sense of important theories linking culture and leadership. Steers, Porter, & Bigley (1996) note, “No nation or culture has a monopoly on the best ways of doing something. This is especially so when it comes to understanding motivation and leadership at work” (as cited in Aycan, 2008, p. 423). Culture impacts the motivations of a given population, and these motivations impact leadership style. Culture is an essential prerequisite to investigating policies regarding leadership. Varying views exist in leadership literature regarding the extent to which researchers should take culture into account (Miller, 2016). Overall, experts believe the practice of leadership is culturally situated. Linked to this assumption is the belief that unique cultural features demand different leadership approaches in different nations (Dorfman et al., 1997). In a time of increased globalization, there is a greater need for leadership to incorporate culture both theoretically and practically. Theories, ideas, and practices derived from one culture should not be presumed valid in all cultures (Walker & Dimmock, 2002). These authors note, “When policy, theory, and practice are transported between education systems, there is a need to consider how societal culture may intervene to help or hinder the process” (Walker & Dimmock, 2002, p. 39). Each culture is unique, and effective leaders understand those nuances.

The literature linking culture and leadership is exhaustive. In 2003, Dickson et al. commented, “It would be essentially impossible to prepare a single chapter that presents an account of the research on cross-cultural issues and leadership” (p. 730). Over the years, leadership scholars have conducted studies about the leadership process and discovered that

culture matters (Moua, 2010). Haire, Ghiselli, and Porter's (1966) study found that cultural differences accounted for almost one third of the variance in how managers reported their behavior in leadership roles. Amplifying the previously mentioned study, Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell (1968) tried to develop comprehensive conceptualizations of culture's effect on school leadership. The Getzels and colleague's model suggested cultural values could impact the thinking and behavior of educational leaders. A wave of research conducted in the 1990's and early 2000's added to the field of culturally-based leadership (e.g., see Hofstede, 1993; Gerstner & Day, 1994; Bajunid, 1996; Cheng and Wong, 1996; Chung & Miskel, 1989; Heck, 1996, Walker, Bridges & Chan, 1996, Dorfman, 1997; Hallinger & Leithwood, 1996). These authors found a connection between management styles and unique cultural features. Gerstner and Day (1994) reported, "We do not expect differences in leadership prototypes to be completely random. Rather, they should be linked dimensions of national culture" (p. 123). In 1995, Cheng asserted, "the cultural element is not necessary but essential in the study of educational administration" (p. 99). Research linking culture and leadership continued in the 21st century. Walker and Dimmock (2002) observed, "The concept of national culture has not been rigorously applied as a basis for comparison in educational leadership or as a means of comparing individual schools" (p. 16). Furthermore, the authors claimed in a 2005 study, "Values, thoughts, and behaviors are the essence of leadership and therefore, culturally influenced" (p. 22). Moua (2010) concluded that "Understanding national cultures was critical to leadership development and organizations must accept differing perceptions of leadership" (p. 15). Moua also remarked, "Leadership and culture are like two pieces of rope. On their own, they can be used to bundle objects. When threaded and intertwined, they are much stronger and have a lower chance of being snapped" (p. 18). Moving the literature forward, Dimmock (2012) reported, "The concept

of leadership itself is complex, multi-dimensional, and inseparable from the social and organizational context and conditions in which it operates” (p. 6). A recent study conducted by Dorfman et al. (2012) suggests that cultural expectations are the most accurate predictors of leadership style in a region. Even more recently, the book *Exploring School Leadership in England & the Caribbean: New Insights from a Comparative Approach* (Miller, 2016) uses a common methodological framework to compare culturally-based leadership in England and countries throughout LA. Instead of applying theory to practice, the book draws on how educational professionals practice and experience culture. Miller (2016) uses a case study approach to explore multiculturalism and draws on first-hand accounts of educational leaders to show that, regardless of school size, culture impacts leadership. The author concludes that leadership is a continuous balancing act driven by uncertain environments and fast paced policy contexts. One additional book worth mentioning is Pashiardis and Johannsson’s (2016) *Successful School Leadership: International Perspectives*, which identifies important cultural factors impacting educational leadership in various regions of the world.

Expanding on Models of Culture and Leadership

Dorfman’s Model

The first comprehensive model describing culture’s influence on leadership was Dorfman’s Model (1996). Dorfman proposed that national culture influences the leader’s power and image, as well as leader-follower relationships. In this model, large power-distance cultures represent those in which a leader’s potential to influence others is extremely evident. Effective leader prototypes in a particular cultural context influence the practices of followers. The model also claims that resources and situational contingencies are important moderators of leadership effectiveness in all cultures (Dorfman, 1996). Overall, Dorfman’s Model believes culture impacts the leader’s ability to influence others in the organization.

House's Model

An additional model for culture and leadership is the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) Project (House, 2004). This highly cited project covered 60 countries and over 180 researchers and studied the relationship between leadership, societal culture, and organizational culture. Findings from the study served to help societies understand what makes a leader effective or ineffective in a particular culture (House, 2004). Moua (2012) mentioned, “No matter the cultural difference or society in which a leader is from, the GLOBE study showed there are specific leadership behaviors that are viewed as effective” (p. 50). Ultimately, six global leadership behaviors emerged from the study as a means of interpreting various cultures:

- *Charismatic/value-based*- Inspires others, motivates, expects high performance, visionary, self-sacrificing, trustworthy, decisive.
- *Team-oriented leadership*- Team-building, common purpose, collaborative, integrative, diplomatic, not malevolent.
- *Participative leadership*- Participative and not autocratic, inclusive of others.
- *Human oriented leadership*- Supportive, considerate, compassionate, generous, and modest.
- *Autonomous leadership*- Independent, individualistic, autonomous, and unique.
- *Self-protective leadership*- Ensures the safety and security of the leader and the group, self-centered, status conscious, and face-saving. (House, 2004)

Hofstede's Model

Of all the research on dimensions related to culture, perhaps the most referenced is Hofstede's work (1980, 2001). For Hofstede, culture is different from both the human nature and the individual's personality. Hofstede's (2001) study included 100,000 IBM employees in various countries around the world, and findings revealed five major dimensions on which cultures differ: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism-collectivism, masculinity-femininity, and long-term-short-term cultures (Hofstede, 2001). The project served as a benchmark for research on world cultures and the relationship between culture and leadership.

- *Uncertainty Avoidance*: The extent to which a society, organization, or group relies on established social norms, rituals, and procedures to avoid uncertainty.
 - *Power Distance*: The degree to which members of a group expect and agree that power should be shared unequally.
 - *Individualism–Collectivism*: In individualistic societies, individuals look after themselves and their immediate family. In collectivistic cultures, individuals belong to groups in exchange for loyalty to the group.
 - *Masculinity-Femininity*: The masculinity side represents a preference in society for achievement, heroism, assertiveness and material rewards for success. Femininity stands for cooperation, modesty, caring for the weak, and quality of life.
- Long-Term-Short-Term*: Every society has to maintain some links with its own past while dealing with the challenges of the present and the future. Societies prioritize these two existential goals differently. (Hofstede, 2001)

Theories of Latin American Culture and Leadership

When surveying theories linking culture and other important models, one understands the need for education professionals to be aware of the expectations and values related to LA culture (Castano et al., 2012). Leadership frameworks influenced by western paradigms restrict the shift necessary for interpreting leadership culture in LA. As a rapidly growing and changing region, researchers must investigate the unique demands placed on LA leaders. Having an appreciation for these unique characteristics may directly affect educational leaders and their ability to improve management skills (Romero, 2004). Moua (2010) refers to this cultural intelligence as “the ability to successfully adapt to unfamiliar cultural settings” (p. 59). Thomas and Inkson (2003) add that cultural intelligence means being skilled and flexible in understanding culture by learning from on-going interactions with different people.

Categorizing LA Culture and Leadership Using Schein’s Theory of Culture

To recap, Schein’s Theory of Culture holds that “basic underlying assumptions” refer to the “Unconscious, taken for granted beliefs, perceptions, thoughts and feelings” and “espoused beliefs and actions” refer to the “strategies, goals, philosophies, and justifications of a given society” (Schein, 1992, p. 26). Findings from various authors examining leadership behaviors in LA culture are categorized (Table 2.1) below using Schein’s theory of culture (Bartlett & Ghosal

1989; Centro 1994; Chesanow 1985; Joynt and Warner 1996; Kras 1989; Moran and Harris, 2000; Riding 1985; Schuler et al. 1996; Stephens and Greer 1995; & Derr, Roussillon, & Bournois, 2002).

Table 2.1

Categorizing LA Culture and Leadership Using Schein's Theory

Basic Underlying Assumptions (Beliefs, perceptions, thoughts, and feelings)	Espoused Beliefs and Actions (strategies, goals, philosophies, and justifications about society)
Decisions are made by those in authority, others need not be consulted.	Tradition is revered.
Evaluations are conducted in ways so that no one "loses face."	Hierarchy provides stability.
Removing a person from a position results in loss of status and prestige.	Strong beginnings are valued, systematic follow-up is difficult and often not recognized.
Certainty is preferred over uncertainty and ambiguity.	Life follows a preordained course, and human action is largely determined by the will of God ("Si Dios quiere!").
Effective leadership is aggressive and decisive, masculine values predominate.	Education or family ties are the primary vehicles for upward mobility.
Employees fear to disagree with the boss.	Withholding information to gain or maintain power is acceptable.
Subordinates consider superiors as being of a different kind.	Powerful people should look as powerful as possible.
Other people are a potential threat to one's power and can rarely be trusted.	
Respect for leaders is required for effective teamwork.	
Expectation that people adjust to their environment, not change it.	

Categorizing LA Culture and Leadership Using Hofstede's Model

Of the models previously mentioned, Hofstede's model, in particular, relates important connections to LA leadership. Overall, Hofstede (2001) reported that LA was high in uncertainty avoidance, power distance, collectivism, and masculinity. Hofstede described power distance as "the extent to which a society accepts the fact that power in institutions and organizations is distributed unequally" (p. 45). Hofstede found that four out of six LA countries scored high on the masculine dimension, indicating that aggressiveness and assertiveness are valued in LA leaders. Making additional connections to Hofstede's Model, Derr, Roussillon, & Bournois (2002) note the following:

- A large gap exists between those who hold power and those who are expected to respond to power.
- Uncertainty and ambiguity create discomfort, resulting in resistance to change, low levels of risk taking, and a reluctance by employees to initiate action.
- Belonging and fitting in are important.
- Effective leadership is aggressive and decisive; the masculine values of taking charge and dominating are expected.

Latin American Influences

Other key aspects of the way practitioners handle leadership in LA help form the foundations of LA culture and leadership. Literature indicates key aspects such as a preference for autocratic, paternalistic, and bureaucratic leadership styles with relational and team-oriented dimensions.

Autocratic. In general, LA authority figures expect to be respected and are accustomed to making decisions without asking for the input of those under their authority. Research indicates that autocratic and paternalistic leadership styles are the most common in LA (Castano et al., 2015). Multiple studies have consistently found that LA cultures tend to show deference for hierarchy (Hofstede, 1980; Inglehart & Carballo, 2008; Ronen & Shenkar, 1985; Schwartz, 2006) and autocratic style (Camacho-Garcia, 1996; Majul, 1992; Muczyk & Holt, 2008; Riding,

1985; Rodriguez, Majluf, Abarca & Bassa, 1999; Romero, 2004). Autocratic leaders often have individual control over all decisions and make choices based on their own ideas and judgments. Managers communicate indirectly with subordinates in a top-down fashion. Muczyk and Holt (2008) maintain that autocratic leadership is “more appropriate for societies whose members have a high regard for hierarchy and are reluctant to bypass the chain of command” (p. 282). This type of structure sometimes causes LA leaders to be socially distant from their followers. Summarizing the prototypical LA leader, Romero (2004) records the following characteristics of “El Patrón:”

- Directive
- Seldom delegates work
- Formal, top-down communication
- Avoids conflict
- Expected to be assertive and aggressive

Connected to the autocratic leadership style in LA is a value for “respeto” (“respect”). “Respeto” implies deference for those in positions of authority and emphasizes the importance of setting clear boundaries and knowing one’s place in hierarchies (Santiago-Rivera et al., 2002).. Respeto can also cause relationships to be viewed as partnerships within an organization. As a result, families may defer to leaders instead of expressing their own sentiments.

Paternalistic. Autocratic forms of leadership are connected to a preference for paternalism. “Paternalism” is defined as “a hierarchy within a group, by means of which advancement and protection of subordinates are expected in exchange for loyalty, usually to the father figure, or patriarch, who makes decisions on behalf of others” (Behrens, 2010, p. 21). Marneffe (2006) builds on this definition by claiming that paternalism within organizations causes people in positions of authority to restrict the “needs, happiness, interests, and values” of subordinates to them (p. 71). In LA, paternalism is deeply embedded in the working

environment. Bass (1990) concludes, “Paternalism, featuring the autocratic patrón and compliant followers, takes a variety of forms in LA” (p. 790). One study conducted by Davila and Elvira (2008) discovered that the key reason for success in LA businesses is an emphasis on paternalism. Paternalism may also cause leaders to make decisions for employees in a parental way that engenders working relationships (Castano et al., 2015). According to Trompenaars and Hampden (1994), most LA managers consider the organization to be like a family. Castano et al. (2012) adds to the literature, “Paternalism refers to making decisions for employees in a parental way that engenders care and loyalty, as well as protecting working relationships” (p. 585). In return for job security, employees give loyalty and decision-making authority to managers (Castano et al., 2015). Latin Americans may also defer to higher up leaders in the organization and accept what authorities set in place, leading to a social distance between higher-ups and followers. Davila and Elvira (2012) observe, “Paternalistic leadership is characterized by centralizing authority and creating symbiotic relationships of superior-subordinate work that provokes dependability and mutual loyalties” (p. 2). As a result of paternalism, informal contracts emerge between the leader and followers that preserve the employment relationship.

Bureaucratic. Literature also indicates that educational system administration prefers bureaucratic leadership styles. Davila and Elvira (2012) note, “Bureaucratic favors consist of preferential treatment of an individual against the rights and priorities of a third party. These favors are used to obtain something easily and rapidly” (p. 550). Pashiardis and Johansson (2016) observe that the ingrained social history of LA, including the past succession of oligarchies and dictatorships, has resulted in leaders that dedicate the majority of their time to bureaucratic tasks. The same is true for educational organizations. Torrecilla and Carrasco (2013) show that primary school principals in LA dedicate an average of 80% of their time to

bureaucratic tasks and only 20% to pedagogical tasks. High power distance tendencies in LA can cause senior leaders to guide the group, regardless if their practices are unfair and inequitable. Leaders within the system often gain special privileges and use their positions for personal advancement.

Relational. Relationship valuations in LA are consistent with paternalism. Many scholars have highlighted the importance of relationships in LA (Albert, 1996; Amado & Brasil, 1991; Martínez & Dorfman, 1998; Recht & Wilderom, 1998; Osland, Franco, & Osland, 1999). In their study, Abarca et al. (1998) found that Chilean personnel valued low-conflict working relationships. Kras (1994) concluded that Mexican leaders tend to be relationally-oriented. Overall, cross-cultural studies describe Latin Americans who score high on group relation categories of leadership styles. “Personalismo” is the term used to describe the value for warm and friendly interpersonal relationships (Santiago-Rivera et al., 2002). Personalismo impacts the working environment in that employees and colleagues complete tasks based on their loyalty to one another. As Osland, De Franco, and Osland (1999) claim, “The positive side of personalismo is that once you have developed friendships, these relationships are not easily broken” (p. 111).

The importance of family and its role in impacting organizational decisions cannot be overlooked. In their book, *Managing Human Resources in Latin America*, authors Elvira and Davila (2005) claim that LA organizations use “familismo,” a term used to describe a preference for maintaining close connections to the family. According to Antonio (2014), kinship relations impact LA social structure and everyday activities. Bosses sometimes attend their subordinates’ family functions, and companies recruit workers based on familial ties. LA cultures generally have a low level of trust for people who are not family or close friends (Osland, De Franco, & Osland, 1999).

Building upon the value for relationships, Latin Americans emphasize the importance of “simpatía” (“warmth, friendliness”). As Osland, De Franco, and Osland (1999) conclude, “A large part of what draws one back to Latin America is the warmth of personal relationships” (p. 10). These relationships engender a strong sense of connection within the organization, and Latin Americans often take time to greet one another in an elaborate manner to show their genuine nature. Conversely, LA cultures tend to avoid conflict. Abarca, Mujluf, & Rodriguez (1998) note that good working relationships in LA are defined as those with low conflict. Relational approaches are so central to managerial styles that conflict hinders the ability of leaders to maintain control and peace in the organization (Ogliastri, 1998). Due to “simpatía,” some Latinos rarely disagree with a director or leader of an organization.

Team-Oriented. Connected to a value for relationships is a general emphasis on team-oriented cultures. Linked to Bolman and Deal’s (2003) human resource frame, LA culture would support the notion that “people and organizations need each other” (p. 115). In general, group loyalty is valued more than individuality. Examining five different countries in LA, Friedrich, Mesquita, and Hatum (2006) surveyed over 700 employees and found that “Organizational success was a direct result of the combined efforts of all employees” (p. 65). Respondents from the study believed that projects involving collaboration between parties were more successful than those without teamwork. Outstanding leaders in LA reflect group integration which includes building teams, coordinating teams, and communicating effectively with team members (Friedrich, Mesquita, & Hatum, 2006). Castano et al. (2012) remarked, “Effective leaders are perceived as those who build teams and manage them well through close relationships and personalized communication resulting in team cohesiveness” (p. 594). LA societies even view individual development through the lens of group support, including familial and communal ties.

Overall, LA leadership is expected to reflect group-oriented concerns and maintain a high value for relationships and people (Castano et al., 2015).

These key aspects of autocratic, paternalistic, and bureaucratic preferences, with an emphasis on relational and team-oriented cultures, impact the ways in which educational leaders handle their positions in LA. Current leaders in LA higher education should seek to understand these culturally contingent leadership principles and their impact on the institution.

Summary

The literature describing theories of culture, theories of culture and leadership, and theories of LA culture and leadership is exhaustive. Understanding these theories and models helps lay the foundation for interpreting LA leadership style. In order to gain a more holistic understanding of the elements comprising successful leadership cultures in LA universities, these theories must be applied to the current challenges facing LA higher education.

Challenges Facing Latin American Higher Education

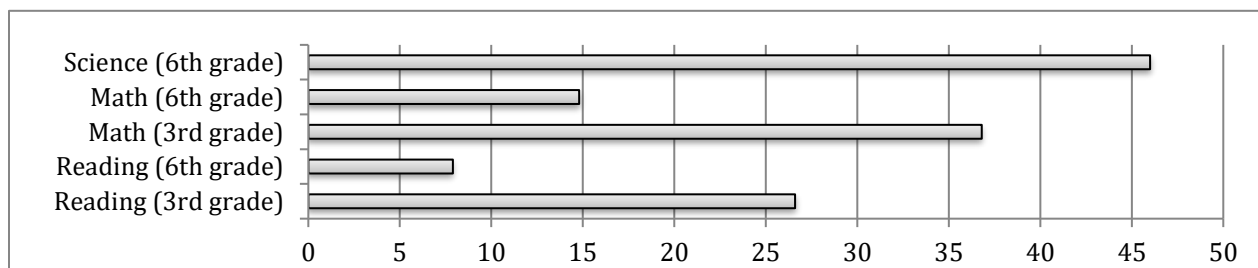
Building on the general challenges associated with the rector role discussed in chapter one, LA institutions face hurdles of various forms. Comprised of approximately 6,000 universities both public and private, the challenges in front of LA institutions are numerous. Approximately 22 million people are enrolled in higher education in LA (CIDNA, 2011). Universities are characterized by poor access, high levels of repetition, and low achievement rates (Guadilla, 2003). With a shortage of resources, low levels of foreign aid, costly materials, outdated teaching methods, and an overall lack of professional development, future leaders in the region have their hands full.

Education Quality

Quality higher education systems offer variety and equity to maximize students' post-graduation success (Deming & Figlio, 2016). In many parts of LA, higher education is still

underdeveloped, and universities face challenges not common to college presidents in other parts of the world. Bernasconi & Knobel (2016) note, “Not only is higher education in the region not improving at the same pace, but large parts of it seem to deliberately want to go against global trends” (p. 1). Perhaps the greatest challenge facing quality enhancement in LA is meeting the changing objectives policymakers enact over time. In the past two decades, many LA countries have adopted a model for national educational assessment that measures programs, but these agencies struggle to find a clear set of standards to define quality (<http://www.uis.unesco.org>). Ferrer (2006) notes, “One of the greatest concerns expressed by those responsible for designing assessment instruments is that national curricula lack clear definitions of what students are expected to be able to do with the conceptual knowledge contained in the curricula” (p. 20). Jorge Familiar, World Bank Vice President for LA, states, “In order to ensure equity of opportunities, the region has to enhance quality of education and provide students with better information on programs, financing options, and connections to the labor market” (World Bank, 2017, p. 1). Primary and secondary education quality levels are also low. The Third Regional Comparative and Explanatory Study (TERCE, 2013) showed that primary students performed significantly below established standards in language, math, and science. No more than 13.7% of students across the region performed in the top achievement levels in any subject area (Fiszbein & Stanton, 2018). Figure 2.1 displays this data.

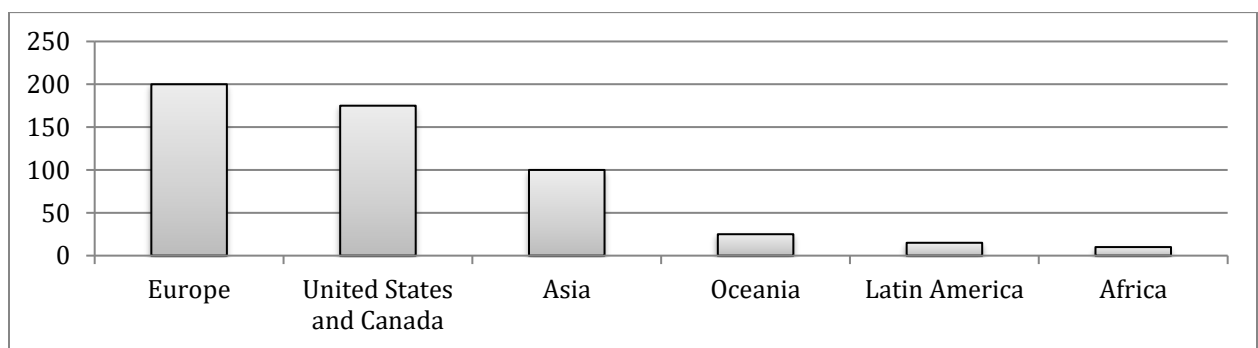
Figure 2.1. Percentage of Students Achieving at a Level 1 or Below on TERCE Exam



Source: UNESCO, 2016

Additionally, ten countries in LA—Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Mexico, Peru, Trinidad and Tobago, and Uruguay—participated in the PISA Assessment (2015). Compared to the rest of the world, results showed lower national averages in math, reading, and science (OECD, 2016). As a result of low educational quality at the primary and secondary levels, higher education systems in LA are suffering. Participants from the OECD (2016) study found increasing numbers of first-year students uninformed about college programs, financially illiterate, and academically unprepared. Researchers estimate that teaching, training, and out-of-date materials are the primary contributors to students’ limitations in entering college (Melguizo, Velasco, & Sanchez, 2017; Shavelson et al., 2016). Of the top 500 institutions in the world, LA and the Caribbean have 10 (World Bank, 2017). The Dominican Republic and Peru consistently place in the 10 lowest-performing countries across all subject areas (OECD, 2016). Quality faculty, laboratories, and up-to-date technology are simply out of reach for many LA countries. Africa is the only world region with fewer institutions in the top 500 (Academic Ranking of World Universities, 2014) (Figure 2.2).

Figure 2.2. Universities in the ARWU Top 500 Ranking by Region



Source: Academic Ranking of World Universities, 2014

Policy and Governance

Policy and governance problems also plague LA higher education. According to Schwartzman (1993), “Policy problems can be summarized in two areas: given its current size

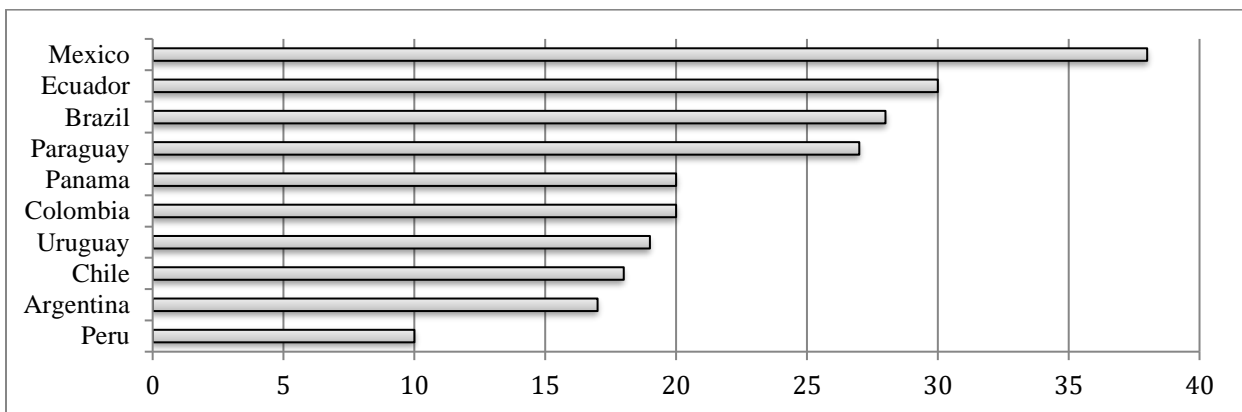
and composition, how can higher education be financed, and in the context of dwindling public resources and unrelenting pressures for higher expenditures, how can quality be assured?”

(p. 14). An additional policy issue is that unions often select LA university rectors. These unions control administrative decisions and have their hand in almost every sector of the educational system. For example, in certain areas, teachers represent approximately half of all government workers. As Pavon (2008) concludes, “Teachers have become a political powerhouse within Honduran politics. Easily organized for political action, they are important beneficiaries of distributional politics” (p. 197). The unions often push agendas that defend their own interests and influence hiring decisions. As Schwartzman reported, “Administrators are elected sometimes by a one-man-one-vote method” (p. 15). The pursuit for power is so embedded in LA culture that corrupt politicians are willing to take extreme measures to maintain their grasp on higher education policy and practice. Party loyalty and union connections tend to determine the longevity of most rectors. Administration offices become receptacles for the ruling party and the unions to deposit their supporters and activists (Altschuler, 2013). Ministry of Education departments often supervise the writing and publication of textbooks. Federal education officials make visits to ensure that syllabi and textbooks standards are properly followed. This centralization of power makes it difficult for rectors to make autonomous decisions regarding curriculum and instruction. Overall, policy initiatives and governance shift management power away from rectors. The greatest challenge for higher education in the region will continue to be the establishment of a just educational system focused on empowering presidents to lead their institutions.

Finance

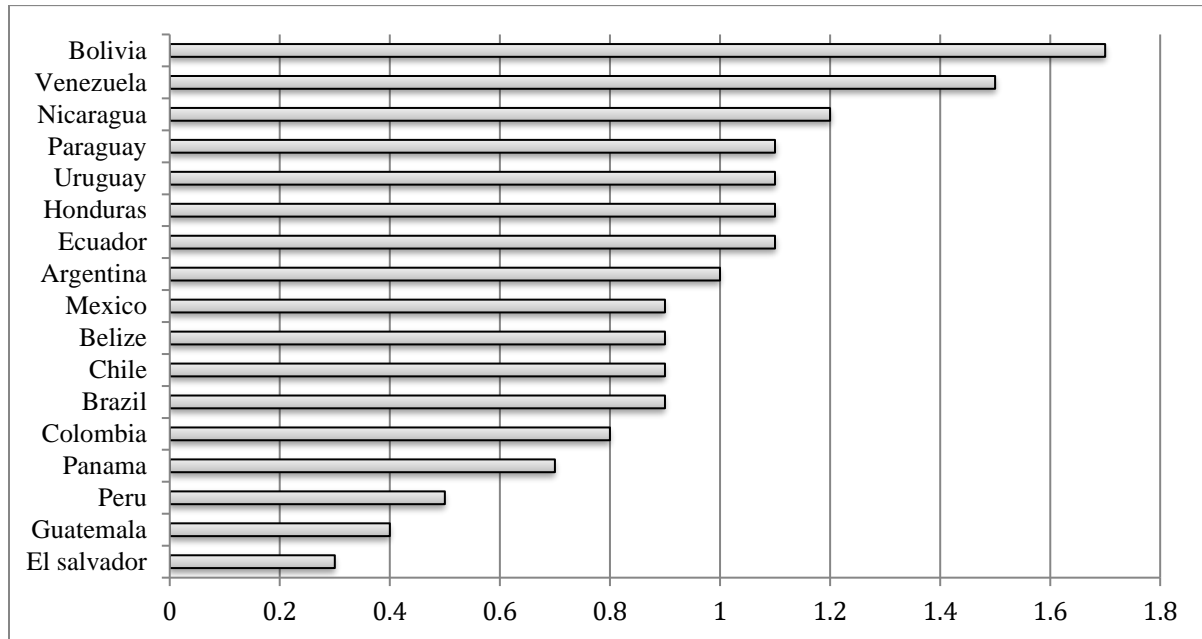
An additional challenge facing LA institutions is the overall lack of financial resources and the limited control administration has over budgeting. According to Brunner and Hurtado (2011), the majority of higher education funds come from state budgets, and most universities rely heavily on student-based funds. The Inter-American Development Bank Group explicitly regards higher education as a “secondary priority” (IADB, 2016). Few LA countries (only 7 out of 25) have higher education at the highest levels of government (Ferreira, 2017). LA government leaders spend much less per student when compared to those of developed countries in East Asia and the Pacific. LA countries with the highest levels of per-student spending (Mexico and Chile) spend less than USD \$8,000 per student (Ferreira, 2017). Figure 2.3 shows the amount of public spending (current and capital) in public institutions expressed as a percentage of GDP, and Figure 2.4 shows the allocation of funds for public institutions in LA as a percentage of GDP.

Figure 2.3. Public Expenditure (US Thousands) per Higher Education Student as Share of GDP per Capita in Selected Latin American and Caribbean Countries



Source: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, UNESCO

Figure 2.4. Allocation of Funds for Public Institutions in Latin America as Percentage of GDP



Source: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, UNESCO

Large investments for institutions are rare and usually allocated by central authorities partnering with international agencies. This process leaves most of the university's budget outside the control of the administration (Schwartzman, 1993). As Romeo (2003) notes, "Latin American countries have fragile economies and are victims of the globalization of the world economy. They are highly vulnerable to changes in the world over which developing countries have little control" (p. 47). Lower resources in LA higher education also lead to adverse education outcomes (Bianchi, 2016; Bound, Lovenheim, & Turner, 2012). The *Commission for Quality Education for All Report* (2016) found that Honduras (2.33% of GDP), Mexico (2.24%), and Paraguay (2.09%) will soon have unsustainable shares of the countries' financial resources spent on higher education.

Illiteracy and Dropout Rates

Institutions also face the pressures of high illiteracy and dropout rates. Illiteracy is the main expression of educational vulnerability in the region. High regional dropout rates delay

graduation decreasing the likelihood students will enter the workforce. Illiteracy is usually concentrated in rural areas, and the large number of indigenous people groups make it necessary to seek alternative strategies for educating the populace. Studies of functional literacy in LA have shown those with seven years or less of schooling have not learned the basic communication skills necessary to participate in work and social life (Martinic, 2003). Dropout rates are on the rise in post-secondary education causing university rectors to think critically about developing policies for boosting retention. As Orellana (2015) states, “Latin America carries an important problem in the form of early drop outs for post-secondary education” (p. 4). On average, about half of the population ages 25–29 have not completed their degrees (Fiszbein & Stanton, 2018). Student graduation rates are also at all-time lows. For countries with available data, time-to-degree is 36% higher than the allotted time (Fiszbein & Stanton, 2018). The World Bank (2017) believes low attendance rates and poor school quality are the most important factors causing dropout in post-secondary education. In the poorest areas of LA, participation in higher education fluctuates between 2% and 27% (Orellana, 2015; Bernasconi & Knobel, 2016). This evidence explains why LA universities struggle with low admission rates. During harvest season especially, the cost of attending a university may outweigh the benefits of working because the expected gains are greater than the associated costs. This results in variable attendance patterns and withdrawals.

Research

Lack of research at various institutions represents an additional threat to LA higher education. Talented individuals are unable to engage in research due to problems in curricula, teaching materials, and outdated technology. Research is also limited by low qualifications for teaching staff. Few university professors in the region hold doctoral degrees. Less than 4% of professors in Colombia and Mexico have doctorate degrees (Wit, 2005). Because government

officials rarely offer grants, professors lack resources for conducting original research. Many universities have a shortage of computers and laboratories. As Orellana (2015) observes, “A great challenge for Latin American higher education is to generate capacities for scientific advancement and production” (p. 10). Thorn (2006) adds, “The quality of research in Latin American universities is not universally good, particularly considering the funds allocated to research efforts” (p. 11). Data indicates that researchers in LA produce one peer-reviewed article every five years (Thorn, 2006). Research production and quality are due to the insufficient qualifications of academic research staff within the institution. Linked to the research problem is the absence of library services. Thompson and Adkins (2012) share, “Most librarians in LA do not consider their work to be professional and believe little knowledge is needed beyond housekeeping skills” (p. 254). Where libraries do exist, they tend to be outdated (Romeo, 2003). Romeo (2003) maintains, “Research laboratories are obsolete and help only a small number of people” (p. 47). The region also lacks research in science and engineering (Lederman, Messina, Pienknagura, & Rigolini, 2014).

Overall, socioeconomic and cultural status are the most important factors influencing students’ research efforts, especially in a continent with social inequalities. As Pashiardis and Johansson (2016) note, “The challenge for school leaders of the region is to raise the quality of basic education with the objective of improving social equity and reducing the regional differences both between countries and within the countries themselves” (p. 203).

Accreditation

Accreditation in LA institutions is diverse. Similar to the United States, there is wide variation in the level of development of national policies which depend on operational and financial capacities and the political contexts in which they operate (<http://www.uis.unesco.org>).

Due to the vast expansion of higher education in LA since 2000 (gross enrollment rates doubled from 2000 to 2010), higher education leaders have experienced an increased need to develop quality assessment standards and collaborate with regional agencies supported by local governments. As new programs and institutions opened their doors, students coming from the poorest 50% of the population rose from 16% to 25% between 2000 and 2013 (Ferreyra, Avitabile, Álvarez, Paz & Urzua, 2017). This type of expansion has created two unique problems for university leadership. First, there is difficulty in standardizing accreditation policies. Second is the creation of unregulated and unsupported accrediting agencies. Many institutions lack access to basic information about agencies that offer certification. A few LA accrediting agencies are listed below:

- ICFES (National Ministry of Education and the Bogota Education Secretariat) - Made significant efforts to create definitions that facilitate better interpretation of results and assessments; Defined a complex set of learning skills to interpret results based on specific achievement levels (Ferrer, 2006).
- COPAES (Council for Accreditation of Higher Education) - Provides accreditation to upper level academic programs.
- CONEAU (National Commission for University Evaluation and Accreditation) - Carries out external institutional evaluation for national and private universities, institutional accreditation for the provisional recognition of new private universities, follow-up and final recognition of universities that are under provisional recognition, accreditation of graduate programs, and accreditation of undergraduate programs (Lamarra, 2003).

Implications of the Literature Review to This Study and Transition to Chapter III

The purpose of this study was to determine what makes a successful leadership culture in LA universities. In order to accomplish this, the researcher considered various methods for understanding culture before conducting research in the field. Developing a baseline understanding of LA culture was critical to all aspects of the study. More importantly, the investigator developed an awareness of key cultural elements affecting universities in the region. Listed below are tips for helping investigators not steeped in a particular culture to gain an

awareness of the beliefs and behaviors that impact a region. Following this discussion is an overview of the mixed-methods study design and a summary of all phases of research.

The Impact of History

Over the past three centuries, LA higher education has experienced drastic change. Since the turn of the 20th century, Central and South America have made significant strides in the way practitioners structure and deliver education (Noel, 2009). In 1839, Horace Mann opened the first US public school and maintained that education should impact the Americas (Cremin, 1957). In 1847, Domingo Sarmiento, a well-respected Argentinean educator met Horace Mann (Moure, 2001). A two-day meeting led to the establishment of public education in Argentina. Sarmiento started building teacher colleges and schools in Argentina, Chile, and Paraguay and influenced policy for the establishment of public education in those areas (Noel, 2009). Sarmiento went on to mentor a young sociologist and politician, José Pedro Varela, who began advocating for free public education in Uruguay (Spinak, 1977). Many years later, reformers like José Vasconcelos and Alberto Giesecke changed the landscapes of public education in Mexico and Peru. Other countries such as Costa Rica, Venezuela, and Cuba soon experienced similar reforms. Vanguardists of higher education movements throughout LA trail blazed reforms and believed in education as the “great equalizer” of society. An analysis of successful LA higher education leadership is incomplete without learning from the efforts of these pioneers. As Pickering (2014) notes, “The most important works in cultural studies are informed by thinking in historical terms” (p. 193). Major prominent features shared by LA countries are due to their colonial history, mutual language, and religion. Smith et al. (1999) note, “During the colonial period, Spanish culture authorities maintained a complementary relationship between the Catholic church, economic leaders, and government. A collective identity with the national church and respect for an integrated hierarchy became more accepted” (p. 113). Institutional traditions such as

authoritarian and paternalistic leadership played a key role in determining common leadership behaviors in the region. Researchers attribute this style of leadership to the “old hacienda” (privately owned large farm) in which the patrón (owner-boss) looked out for workers by providing food, housing, and supplies for the family (Davila & Elvira, 2012). As a result of this familial system, the community living in the hacienda developed strong bonds. Davila and Elvira (2012) write, “This paternalistic relationship fulfilled both the hacienda’s need to secure its workforce and the workers’ needs for protection in multiple aspects of their lives” (p. 550).

Other studies have also highlighted emerging themes that represent the social bonds developed in LA and these hierarchical relationships (Gill-Hopple & Brage-Hudson, 2012). “Compadrazgo,” one of the many types of LA hierarchies, represents a social relationship based on informal contracts among close relatives or friends that depends on a system of giving and receiving favors (Davila & Elvira, 2012). In pre-Hispanic times, social norms dictated that community members worked for the common good, and governance depended on group accountability family (Davila & Elvira, 2012). Another type of hierarchical leadership is the role of the “caudillo,” (leader) or the LA military dictator. In the beginning of the 19th century, LA experienced various independent movements that led to the emergence of charismatic men who overpowered armed followers. As Titei (2013) notes, “Through this complex political, social, and economic phenomenon, caudillos emerged as highly personalistic and quasi military leaders whose party mechanisms, administrative procedures, and legislative functions controlled mediating officials” (p. 285). The Spanish word, “caudillo,” was used to describe the head of irregular forces who ruled politically distinct territories (De Riz, 2015). These forces were governed through an informal system of sustained obedience based on a paternalistic relationship between the subordinates and the leader (De Riz, 2015).

These historical trends toward hierarchical leadership styles also impact the way professionals handle higher education in the region. One method for understanding LA culture is to study the history and purpose of LA universities. Schwartzman (1993) notes, “Latin American universities have always been Napoleonic, which means they are strictly supervised by the central government” (p. 9). Markham (1995) references that, in the 1840’s, Chile and Uruguay implemented an educational model that incorporated centralized Napoleonic lines. This autocratic approach to leadership directly impacted the governance of LA higher education. Established by the Spanish crown and under the supervision of the church, higher education also often functioned under the central authority of royal charters (Schwartzman, 1993). Autocratic leaders took advantage of their dominance in the legislative branch and emphasized the use, abuse, and non-use of the law to achieve results (Corrales, 2015). In general, leaders from the past solved problems without discussion, and subordinates rarely questioned decisions. Despite these influences, history reveals that positive reform in LA universities is both possible and necessary. Past reformers of LA universities were both young and motivated by a desire to achieve real change. The story of Albert Giesecke is worth discussion.

In the early 20th century, the president of Peru, Augusto Leguia, invited Albert Giesecke, an American economist and political scientist, to review and analyze the state of the National University of Cuzco (UNSAAC). Within months, President Leguia asked Giesecke to assume the position of rector at the university. Over the next ten years, Giesecke transformed the university into a modern institution focused on the past, present, and future of the region. Giesecke led student trips to the recently discovered Machu Picchu (1911) and started a journal, *Revista Universitaria*, which served as a foundation for university reform. The journal called for changes in attendance requirements, student fees, faculty standards, new degrees, enrollment procedures,

and the creation of an advisory committee. Giesecke enhanced student life by opening admissions to women, inviting students to dinner, and introducing an extracurricular sports program (Gade, 2006). He eventually went on to establish a geographical society and an academy for indigenous Quechua people. By the end of his rectorship, university enrollment had tripled (Gade, 2006). Speaking to Giesecke's efforts, one historian noted, "It was a total reform; from being a colonial university to a modern university. Everything was changed, from the subjects to the professors to the courses" (Gade, 2006, p. 12). Giesecke's life and efforts served as one example of a leader who revolutionized education in LA. His driven mindset, charismatic nature, and willingness to risk revealed a commitment to creating a modern university. As Schugurensky (2000) notes, "The difficulty lies not so much in the developing new ideas, as in escaping from old ones" (as cited in Howe, 2000, p. 51). Understanding the historical contexts of LA higher education lays the foundation for making sense of current cultural behaviors.

The Impact of Culture

To enable higher education professionals to develop more culturally sensitive approaches to leadership, it is necessary to understand culture's impact on the institution (Walker & Dimmock, 2002). The concept of culture is essential for a comprehensive approach to understanding educational administration. Because people, organizations, and countries share similarities and differences, it makes sense to utilize culture as a comparative tool (Walker & Dimmock, 1998). In education, culture affects the values and beliefs that underpin leaders' processes, behaviors, and practices. Walker and Dimmock (2002) note, "Since culture is reflected in all aspects of school life, it appears particularly useful and appropriate for comparing influences and practice endemic to educational leadership and management" (p. 16). A growing body of research focuses on the multidimensionality of culture and its impact in all aspects of the university life.

The Impact of Experience

Experience is central to cultural studies. As Pickering (2014) states, “Attending to experience as a product helps to understand how social worlds are inhabited and understood” (p. 28). Experience serves as an important category of analysis for higher education, and researchers should consider ways to learn from the experience of different educational leaders in LA. Tapping into leadership experiences connects researchers to individual stories revealing insight into the role culture plays in institutional leadership. Stories serve as valuable cultural resources through which outsiders understand the lived experiences of professionals. Many countries in LA have leadership boards dedicated to the advancement of higher education. Researchers might try to interact with these boards and learn from their experiences.¹

The Impact of Observations

Observations of current educational leaders in LA may also help researchers not steeped in the culture to decipher whether or not decisions made by educational leaders uphold the mission of the institution. As Pickering (2014) notes, “Observational research involves interacting with research participants and finding ways to transform their ideas and images into forms the researcher can observe, record, document, and analyze” (p. 105). Observing LA university leaders might reveal important information about the structure, organization, and decision-making culture of the institution. This type of research also empowers the investigator to engage in self-reflexivity. In studying a different culture, self-reflection helps the researcher recognize previous stereotypes toward a particular culture—an important practice for unbiased research.

¹ Argentina - National University Council (CIN); Bolivia - Executive Committee of Bolivian Universities (CEUB); Brazil - Brazilian Rectors' Conference (CRUB); Chile - Council of Rectors of Chilean Universities (CRUCH); Colombia - Association of Colombian Universities (ASCUN); Costa Rica - National Council of University Presidents (CONARE); Honduras - Higher Education Headquarters of Honduras; Mexico National Association of Universities and Higher Education Institutions (ANUIES); Panama - Panama Rectors' Council (CRP); Paraguay - National Higher Education Council of Paraguay; and Peru - National Rectors' Assembly (ANR).

Chapter III: Methodology

Introduction

The purpose of this case study was twofold. First, to understand the elements that comprise a successful leadership culture in Latin American (LA) universities. Second, to identify the actions required to fulfill the role of rector at a national university in LA. To begin, the researcher used a mixed methods design, including both qualitative and quantitative data. Mixed methods research evolved into a popular methodology for studies seeking answers to complex problems (Brewer & Hunter, 1989; Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989). As Creswell and Clark (2011) note, “Both forms of data are necessary today. A combination of both forms provides the most complete analysis of problems” (p. 21). Barbour (2008) adds, “Mixed methods are often employed in order to compensate for the perceived shortcomings of stand-alone methods, with the aim of either providing a more complete picture or enhancing coverage” (p. 151). Similar to the way in which mixed methods research has a chronicled history, it also holds philosophical underpinnings that provide a foundation for conducting research. As Creswell and Clark (2011) remark, “All research has a philosophical foundation, and inquiries should be aware of the assumptions they make about gaining knowledge during their study” (p. 38). Philosophical assumptions in mixed methods research consist of a basic set of beliefs that guide the inquiry (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005).

Pragmatism served as the primary worldview for this study. Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) suggest that at least 13 different authors embrace pragmatism as the best paradigm for mixed methods research. According to Creswell (2013), “pragmatism focuses on the outcomes of the research- the actions, situations, and consequences of inquiry” (p. 28). Instead of focusing on methods, pragmatic research is mostly concerned with the problem and questions about the

problem. This reason for conducting this study was to extend LA culture and leadership studies to universities. Seeking to understand what constitutes a successful leadership culture, the study called attention to “what works” in LA universities. The investigator aligned the research questions for this study with the purpose of the research. Two primary questions guided the study:

1. What elements comprise a successful leadership culture in Latin American universities?
2. What are the actions required to fulfill the role of rector at a national university in Latin America?

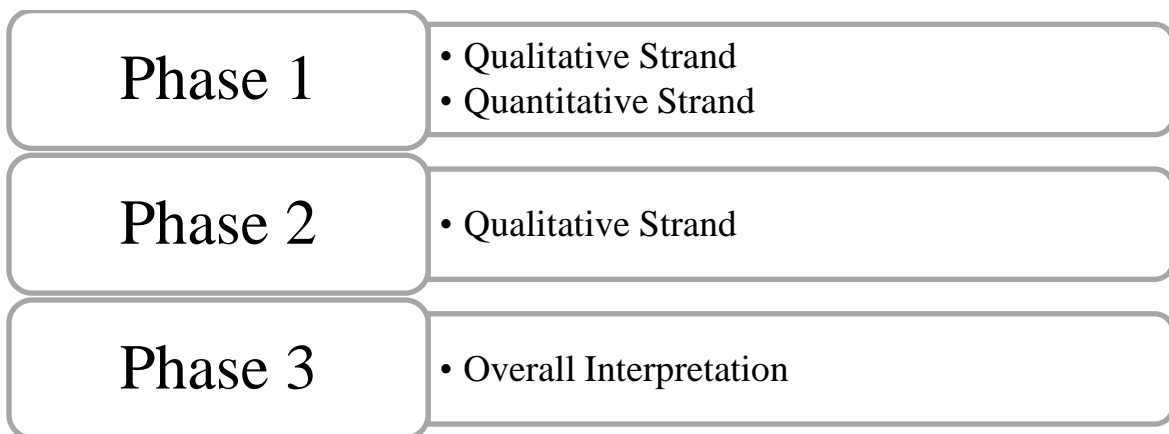
Through its emphasis on outcomes and actions, the pragmatic worldview provided an excellent framework for this mixed methods study. The researcher constructed procedures that combined qualitative and quantitative databases to answer the research questions.

In addition to the philosophical underpinnings of the research, investigators recognize the theoretical foundations of mixed methods studies. Creswell and Clark (2011) note, “A theoretical foundation is a stance taken by the researcher that provides directions for many phases of the mixed methods project” (p. 47). For the purpose of this study, the researcher used an explanatory framework known as “Schein’s Leadership Theory” (1992). In his classic book, *Organizational Culture and Leadership* (1992), Schein defines “culture” as “a pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learns as it solves problems of external adaption and internal integration. These assumptions have worked well enough to be considered valid and taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel” (p. 17). Schein divides culture into three levels: artifacts, espoused beliefs, and basic assumptions and values. In this mixed methods study, the researcher used Schein’s theory by analyzing the espoused beliefs and actions that inform the way leadership is carried out in LA universities.

Research Design

Research designs are procedures for collecting, analyzing, interpreting, and reporting data in research studies (Creswell & Clark, 2011). In this study, the researcher used a fixed mixed methods design (predetermined quantitative and qualitative components (Figure 3.1). Greene, Caracelli, and Graham (1989) note that one of the primary reasons for mixing methods is to use the results from one method to help develop or inform the other method. Mixing methods also provides “completeness” to the study by bringing together a more comprehensive view of the inquiry (Bryman, 2007).

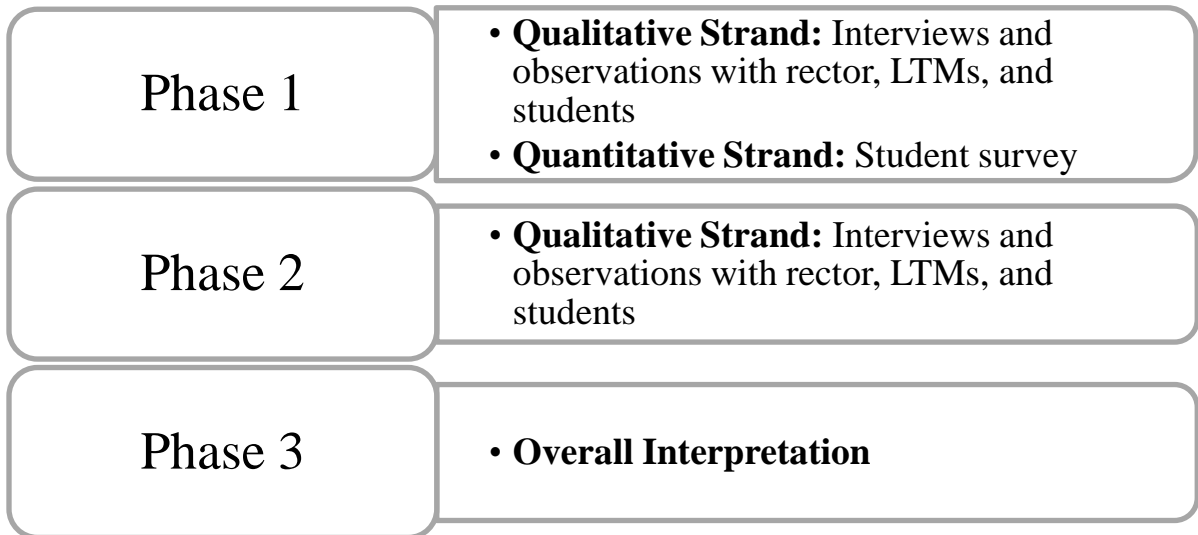
Figure 3.1. Mixed Methods Design



In Phase 1, the researcher used both qualitative and quantitative methods. Qualitatively, the researcher conducted interviews and observations with the rector of one national university, corresponding members of the leadership team, and six students. Interviews consisted of a semi-structured protocol, with open-ended and follow-up questions designed to better understand the leadership culture of LA universities. Observations and shadowing also occurred with the rector. Quantitatively, the researcher created a student survey intended to better understand leadership culture from students’ perspectives. In Phase 2, the researcher used findings from Phase 1 to

conduct a second round of interviews with the rector, leadership team members (LTMs), and students. In Phase 3, the researcher made overall interpretations of the data (Figure 3.2).

Figure 3.2. Mixed Methods Design Expanded



An important decision to make in mixed methods research is the level of interaction between the qualitative and quantitative strands. Creswell and Clark (2011) note, “The levels of interactions is the extent to which the two strands are kept independent or interact with one another” (p. 64). This study made use of an “interactive” level of cooperation (Creswell & Clark, 2011). The investigator mixed methods before the final interpretation, and the design of one strand impacted the results of another. The first round of interviews and the student survey (Phase 1) helped to create the questions in the second round of interviews (Phase 2).

Researchers also make decisions about the importance of each strand in the study. According to Creswell and Clark (2011), “priority refers to the relative importance or weighting of the strands for answering the study questions” (p. 65). The investigator placed a greater emphasis on qualitative methods than quantitative methods. Two-thirds of the study used qualitative strategies, while one-third used quantitative strategies. The justification for this design was to capture the lived experiences of participants. Merriam and Tisdell (2016) note,

“Qualitative research makes clear how people interpret their experiences and construct their worlds” (p. 15). The investigator wanted to understand how leaders in the region made sense of and interpret their roles. A qualitative priority enabled the researcher to take this approach.

Timing is also an important aspect of mixed methods studies. According to Creswell and Clark (2011), timing refers to “the temporal relationship between the quantitative and qualitative strands and the order in which the researcher uses the results” (p. 65). In this study, the researcher used multiphase combination timing with concurrent and sequential components. In Phase 1, concurrent timing occurred with the qualitative interviews/observations and the quantitative student survey. In Phase 2, sequential timing occurred, because Phase 1 results impacted data collection in Phase 2. Overall, the research design represented a “multiphase design.” The purpose of the multi-phase design was “to examine a problem or topic through an interaction between quantitative and qualitative strands that are aligned with each new approach building on what was learned previously to address a central objective” (p. 101). Deeply embedded in this multiphase design was the central objective of understanding successful leadership culture in LA universities. The investigator addresses the relationship between the qualitative and quantitative instruments in the following discussion.

Qualitative Strand

Introduction

Qualitative research represents a “situated activity that locates the observer in the world of the participants” (Creswell, 2013, p. 43). Studying qualitative problems requires the researcher to conduct the study in the field site where participants experience the issue (Creswell, 2013). Qualitative strands highlighted the stories, acknowledged the voices, and interpreted the reality of LA university leaders. Basic philosophical assumptions also impact qualitative research. According to Creswell, “Philosophy shapes how we formulate our problem and research

questions to study how we seek information to answer the questions” (p. 18). In this study, the researcher used an epistemological approach, getting as close as possible to the participants under study (Creswell, 2013). In this approach, the researcher assembled evidence based on individual views and constructed knowledge through the lived experiences of people. The epistemological approach also enabled the researcher to obtain first-hand information.

In addition to the philosophical assumptions of qualitative research, it is important to understand the interpretive framework embedded within the study. As previously stated, one of the primary theories guiding the study was pragmatism. Pragmatists define reality as that which is useful, practical, and works (Creswell, 2013). All qualitative elements of the study contributed to identifying the useful responsibilities of leaders in the region.

After laying the philosophical and theoretical foundation, the researcher used a case study approach to qualitative inquiry. According to Creswell (2013), “case study research begins with the identification of a specific case that is bounded or described within certain parameters, such as a specific place” (p. 98). Similarly, Merriam and Tisdell (2016) note, “Case study research is an intensive, holistic description and analysis of a single, bounded unit” (p. 232). The bounded case in this study was one national university with 10,000+ students located in LA. More specifically, the researcher used a single-instrument case study lens that focused on a single issue and selected one case to illustrate the issue (Stake, 1995). To achieve this purpose, the investigator combined all information including interview logs, transcripts, and field notes. Yin (2014) calls this process creating the case study database, “a systematic archive of all the case study report” (p. 238). Patton (2015) adds, “The case database pulls together and organizes the voluminous case data into a comprehensive resource package” (p. 537). The study did not extend beyond the rector, LTMs, and students of the selected university.

Although case study research examines real-life situations and results in holistic accounts of the case, the approach is not without limitation. Guba (1981) notes, “Case studies can oversimplify or exaggerate a situation, leading the reader to erroneous conclusions about the actual state of affairs” (p. 42). With over 1,000 national universities in the region, the researcher needed to avoid generalizing results to other universities. Studying one national university is not indicative of all universities in LA. Conducting the study also required time, money, and energy for travel between the US and LA. Another challenge with qualitative case studies is they are often “limited by the sensitivity and integrity of the investigator” (Merriam, 1998, p. 42). Since the researcher served as the primary instrument of data collection and analysis, the final report was largely dependent on the ethics of the researcher.

Overall, the purpose of the qualitative strand was to help understand what makes a successful leadership culture in LA universities through interviews and observations with the rector, LTMs, and students at one national university in the region. What follows is a discussion of the key qualitative elements including participants, data collection, instruments, and data analysis.

Participants

The rector of a large national university in LA served as the primary focus of the study. In order to participate, the rector needed to have two years minimum experience, an international educational background, and currently be serving at a national university. The researcher selected subordinate members of the leadership team based on the institution of the rector. After recruiting the leadership core, a small group of students received invitations to participate. The final question on the student survey asked students if they would be interested in participating in further research. From the students who agreed to participate, the researcher selected six students based on recommendations from their peers as leaders on campus. All students were 18 or older.

The investigator made no exclusions based on race or ethnicity, and subjects received no direct benefit from participation.

Recruitment Procedure

The researcher obtained mailing lists of national university rectors from the International Network for Quality Assurance and Accreditation in Higher Education (INQAAHE) and the National Ministry of Education and the Bogota Education Secretariat (ICFES). The researcher also examined lists of accredited national universities provided by the Ministry of Education in each country. Once the researcher narrowed the study to several universities, the researcher developed a formal letter asking for participation from the university rectors (Appendix A, B, C). Emailed expressions of interest sent by the rector served as the letter articulating that the researcher could conduct research at the site. The researcher appended documentation after obtaining agreement from the institution's leadership team. Once identifying universities that met this criterion, the researcher arranged a formal meeting and selected the institution for the study.

Consenting Procedure

The investigator sought permission from the human research subjects review board at Texas Christian University. The campus committee reviewed the research study for its potential risks and provided the following recommendations:

1. Broaden the definitions of LTMs to be more inclusive and increase the likelihood of having a university that fits.
2. Mitigate the risk of de-identification for participants who prefer to use pseudonyms.
3. Include a process for participants who choose to withdraw from the study in the middle.
4. Clarify how the university will select and contact students for participation.
5. Revise consent to participate in research documents by the role of the person and not the type of data collected.
6. Mention de-identified raw data to provide protection.

The researcher submitted the formal proposal to the board detailing the procedures in the project and provided a “Consent to Participate in Research” document to the rector, LTMs, and students (Appendix D, E, and F). The documents also requested consent to use the information from the study in the findings (Johnson & Christensen, 2012; Patton, 2015). Additionally, the researcher reminded participants of their right to withdraw from the study before, during, or after interviews. If the researcher perceived distress in any form, research was halted immediately. No awards of any form were granted for participation. The investigator sent transcripts to participants after interviews. Once received, participants had two weeks to make modifications or remove themselves from the study without penalty. Participants could withdraw from the study via a phone call, email and/or in-person conversation with the investigator. No subjects withdrew themselves from the study. Furthermore, to establish rapport, the researcher informed the rector, LTMs, and students about the primary benefit of the study: to better understand leadership culture at LA universities.

Data Collection

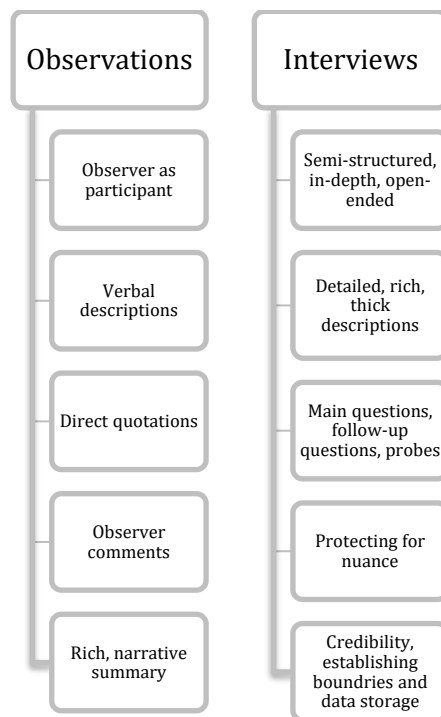
A logical approach to thinking about qualitative data collection is narrowing on the types of data and the procedures for gathering information. Creswell (2013) visualizes data collection as a series of interrelated activities aimed at gathering information to answer emerging research questions. To recap, the research questions for this study were:

1. What elements comprise a successful leadership culture in Latin American universities?
2. What are the actions required to fulfill the role of rector at a national university in Latin America?

Initially, the researcher engaged in a purposeful sampling strategy. According to Creswell, “The concept of purposeful sampling means that the inquirer selects individuals and sites for study because they can purposefully inform an understanding of the research problem and central phenomenon in the study” (p. 156). The individuals for this study included the rector, LTMs, and

six student leaders. The researcher selected these participants because of the different perspectives they offer about successful leadership. More specifically, the researcher used criterion-referenced sampling to recruit the participants. According to Creswell, in criterion-referenced sampling, “All cases must meet certain criterion” (p.158). The university of the rector defined the majority of the criterion for the study. Primary methods of data collection for the qualitative strand of inquiry were observations and interviews. Figure 3.3 displays a summary of qualitative data collection methods.

Figure 3.3. Qualitative Data Collection



Observations and Positionality

Creswell (2013) notes, “Observation is one of the key tools for collecting data in qualitative research. It is the act of noting a phenomenon in the field setting” (p. 166). Merriam and Tisdell (2016) add, “Observations offer first-hand accounts of the situation under study and, when combined with interviewing, allow for a more holistic interpretation of the phenomenon

being investigated” (p. 161). Observations are also systematic and make it possible to record behavior as it is happening (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Most importantly, observations supported the research purpose and helped answer the research questions. Returning to the purpose of the study, the researcher conducted observations and shadowed the rector in order to understand leadership culture in LA universities. Observations occurred on two different occasions and lasted one to four hours each. Merriam and Tisdell (2016) note, “Just as there is a range of structure in interviewing, there is also a range of structure in observation” (p.140). In this study, the researcher selected an “observer as participant” stance in which participants knew all activities. The researcher also undertook a “peripheral membership role” in which the investigator observed and interacted closely enough with members to establish an insider’s identity without engaging in activities that constitute group membership (Lincoln & Denzin, 1998). As an outsider to the group, the researcher watched, recorded field notes, and obtained data without directly interacting with others.

After determining the role of the researcher, an observation protocol was developed (Appendix G). According to Creswell (2013), the protocol is a “predesigned form used to record information collected during an observation” (p. 168). The protocol for this study included descriptive and reflective note-taking. LeCompte and Schensul (2013), comment, “Field notes constitute the basis for data upon which the study is based.” (p. 20). The investigator took field notes during the observation and recorded additional detail afterward. Field notes included the time, place, and purpose of the observation. The researcher also documented details regarding the environment, allocation of space, objects, activities, interactions, conversations, quotes, symbolic meanings, and nonverbal communication. Reflection is also an essential component of field notes. The investigator reviewed insights, ideas, feelings, and interpretations at the

conclusion of each observation by writing down reflections in a research journal. During data analysis, the researcher filtered findings through the research journal. Comments in the journal described experiences that were unique or information the researcher wanted to further investigate. It is important to note the researcher's journal commentary represents one interpretation of his experiences. The reason for selecting this topic was the researcher's fluency in the Spanish language, general interest in LA higher education, and desire to establish a K-12 school in the region. Despite this dedication, additional researchers conducting a similar study in LA higher education might arrive at different conclusions.

In sum, the content of the field notes included verbal descriptions of the setting, people, and activities, direct quotations of at least the substance of what people said, and observer comments (Taylor and Bogdan, 1984). Once complete, the researcher slowly withdrew from the observation and immediately prepared comprehensive notes by providing rich descriptions of the people and events.

Observations in qualitative research are not without their challenges. Merriam and Tisdell (2013) note, "The researcher must be sensitive to the possible effects one might have on the situation and account for those effects" (p. 148). In this study, the researcher faced the challenge of guarded behavior from the participants. To account for this risk, the researcher remained as objective and detached as possible from the normal routines of the leadership core. Observations remained natural in order to capture the actual experiences of leaders. Observations were also time-consuming and costly (Johnson & Christensen, 2012). This last point is crucial as the researcher traveled to LA and requested funding from the sponsoring university.

Interviews

The first and second phases of data collection consisted of semi-structured, in-depth, open-ended interviews with the rector, LTMs, and six student leaders at the university. Since the

goal was to apply LA culture and leadership theories to the university, interviews addressed information gaps in the existing literature. After receiving confirmation of interest for participating in the study, the researcher conducted interviews on-site. During the first trip, the researcher administered the first round of interviews with the rector, LTMs, and students in order to gain a baseline understanding of the topic. During the second trip, the researcher conducted a second round of interviews with the rector, LTMs, and students. During the third trip, the researcher completed interviews with a few students. Interviews with the rector lasted 90 to 120 minutes. Interviews with the LTMs lasted 45 to 60 minutes, and interviews with students lasted 20 to 30 minutes. The researcher digitally recorded all interviews and resent to participants for accuracy. Interview protocols are shown in Appendix (H, I, J). An interview protocol is more than a list of interview questions—it also extends to the procedural level of interviewing and includes a script of what the researcher says before the interview, during the interview, and at the conclusion (Jacob & Ferguson, 2012). The investigator informed participants about the purpose of the research, the interview structure, their protection of identity, and an explanation of potential benefits. On the protocol, the investigator made space between questions for taking notes about responses. The protocol concluded with information about ending the interview and a statement of appreciation for participating.

An assumption made going into research was that participants would communicate honest accounts of their experiences. A drawback to this approach is participants may have embellished their dialogue to convince the researcher of certain actions (Rossman & Rallis, 2017). In order to uphold confidential records, all persons with access to data committed in writing to confidentiality. The researcher did not use names to identify participants, transcripts

were not available to non-project members, and data files had an identification number for each respondent.

Structuring the interview. The strength of in-depth, open-ended interviews is allowing for natural and purposeful conversation. Rubin and Rubin (2005) note, “If what you are looking for is a new approach to a practical problem, in-depth interviewing is appropriate” (p. 48). Because this study sought practical answers to practical questions, the in-depth approach was appropriate. Responsive interview structure provided detailed, rich descriptions of leadership behaviors. In order to preserve depth and detail, the interviewer designed questions that evoked vivid descriptions and included anecdotes that captured the intellectual and emotional interests of interviewees. Semi-structured interviews increased salience and uncovered hidden learning opportunities (Patton, 2015; Rossman & Rallis, 2017). The researcher divided the structure of the interviews into three sections: main questions, follow-up questions, and probes. Main questions focused on the research questions. Follow-up questions asked for additional explanation of particular themes or concepts related to the research purpose. Probes managed the conversation by asking for examples or clarification.

Main questions, follow-up questions, probes. Questions utilized in the interview process accounted for nuance. According to Rubin and Rubin (2005), “nuance” refers to “the ability to show that things are not always true or not true, that they may be true in part, or true in some circumstances or at some times” (p. 132). Nuance required the researcher to obtain precise descriptions and highlight subtlety in meaning. By avoiding simple “yes” or “no” answers, the investigator accounted for nuance. The researcher conducted each interview in a fluid manner and began with open-ended questions about what it means to be a university leader. Starting with broader questions helped to begin the conversation in a non-threatening manner and build a

foundation for the remainder of the interview. The open-ended questions also allowed for broad interpretation of the topic. Since each participant differed in age and experience, responses varied. Main questions provided the scaffolding of the interview and ensured a thorough examination of the research problem. Prior to the interviews, the investigator determined the needed information to address the research problem and then ascertained the research questions. Main questions were formed from various experts in the field of LA culture and leadership (Behrens, 2010; Bolman & Deal, 2003; Castano et al., 2012; Davila & Elvira, 2012; Dorfman, 1997; Hofstede, 2001; House, 2004; Muczyk & Holt, 2008). For the rector, main questions centered on leadership style, the impact of culture, strategy, interactions with students, challenges, and job fulfillment. For LTMs, main questions focused on essential characteristics of university leadership and values influencing leadership. Main questions for students highlighted student perspectives about successful leadership culture and crucial relationships between students and leaders. The overall goal of the questions was to translate the research topic into terms participants could discuss.

Follow-up questions were specific to participant responses (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). The researcher listened intently to the meaning of what participants said and asked additional questions to explore themes. These points of interest aided in obtaining nuanced answers. The investigator also paid attention to new ideas or perspectives that contradicted previous authors in the field. Going even deeper, probing elicited greater detail without changing the focus of questioning. Verbal and nonverbal probes also kept the conversation on topic and regulated the length of responses.

Timeline

Tables 3.1, 3.2, and 3.3 display the research time frame, a summary of the data collection process, and the timeline for action.

Table 3.1

Research Time Frame

Travel to Latin America	Interviews with Rector	Observations	Interviews with LTMs	Interviews with Students	Student Survey
Duration	60-90 min	1-4 hours	45-60 min	20-30 min	10-15 min
1 st Trip	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
2 nd Trip	✓	✓	✓	✓	
3 rd Trip		✓		✓	

Table 3.2

Summary of Collection Process

	Trip #1	Trip #2	Trip #3	Total
Rector	2 interviews, 2 observations	1 interview, 1 observation	1 observation	3 interviews, 4 observations
LTM 1	1 interview	1 interview		2 interviews
LTM 2	1 interview	1 interview		2 interviews
LTM 3	1 interview	1 interview		2 interviews
S1	1 interview	1 interview		2 interviews
S2	1 interview	1 interview		2 interviews
S3	1 interview		1 interview	2 interviews
S4	1 interview	1 interview		2 interviews
S5	1 interview		1 interview	2 interviews
S6	1 interview			1 interview
Mayor's Representative		1 interview		1 interview
University Historian		1 interview		1 interview
Journal Entry	3 entries	6 entries	1 entry	10 entries
Survey	✓			

Note: LTM= Leadership Team Member; S= Student

Table 3.3

Timeline for Action

Timeline for Action	
Months 1-3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Contacted potential participants and coordinated schedules with the rector, LTMs, and students. • Developed an understanding of the campus climate at the selected university: leadership structures, campus organizations, and other basic demographics. • Conducted first round of interviews with rector, LTMs, and students. • Sent student survey.
Months 3-6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Transcribed first round of interviews. • Sent transcripts to participants. • Organized data from student surveys. • Adjusted second round of interview questions for rector, LTMs, and students. • Continued gathering background information and reviewing the literature on the role of LA university rectors.
Months 6-9	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conducted a second round of interviews with the rector, LTMs, and students. • Transcribed second round of interviews. • Sent transcripts to participants.
Months 9-12	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conducted final round of interviews with students. Transcribed final round. Sent transcripts to participants. • Analyzed data for themes and patterns in the experiences of the participant population. • Wrote the research report, summarized findings, and made recommendations.

Maintaining Credible Procedures

Designing credible qualitative interviews begins with anticipating the analysis. Only by anticipating what will eventually occur with the data can the researcher obtain needed information (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). The qualitative strand in this study focused on gaining an

in-depth understanding of university leadership culture in the region. Making the research credible began by identifying interviewees who were experienced and knowledgeable about the topic. In addition, quality was enhanced through interviewing individuals who reflected a variety of perspectives. The most experienced professionals in higher education are those who actually work inside the university. Two accompanying aspects of developing credibility are believability and transparency (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). Believability means demonstrating that what the researcher has heard is not fabricated. The researcher protected for believability by making participation optional and protected for transparency by maintaining careful records of what the investigator saw and felt during interviews.

Establishing boundaries represented an additional aspect of maintaining ethical procedures. Developing a positive conversational partnership is essential for responsive interviewing. The personality and emotions of the researcher can affect the conversational exchange (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). During interviews, the investigator arrived early and made himself comfortable. During the dialogue, the interviewer maintained a high level of concentration through listening intently and refraining from expressing his point of view or feelings toward the topic. The researcher also took the role of a novice. Rubin and Rubin write, "In cultural research, the most effective role is that of novice. This shows you are willing to accept the culture and want to learn about it" (p. 86). At the beginning of the interviews, the researcher casually explained his role as a novice and the group's role as practitioners in higher education.

Storing data in an ethical manner represented the final element of maintaining quality procedures. The researcher developed backup copies of data on computer files and used a high-quality audio-recording device to protect the anonymity of participants. Finally, the researcher

created a master list of the types of information gathered to provide easy access for locating information in the study.

Data Analysis

Developing a system for organizing and managing data occurs early in the study (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). According to Creswell (2013), the data analysis involves “conducting a preliminary read through of the database, coding and organizing themes, representing the data, and forming interpretations” (p. 179). The goal of all data analysis is to consolidate, reduce, and translate what people have said. Building upon the tested approach of Miles, Huberman, and Saldana (2011), the researcher followed these steps: wrote margin notes on interview/observation transcripts, composed reflective passages on notes, drafted a summary sheet of field notes, developed codes/memos, noted patterns and themes, made connections between variables, and built a logical chain of evidence. The researcher read transcripts and observations in their entirety multiple times to get a sense of the whole and smaller parts. All documents in the database had identifiable notations to easily access information in the final write-up. After scanning field notes, the researcher identified major categories in the whole database.

Moving from reading and memoing, the researcher classified and interpreted the data. Merriam and Tisdell (2016) believe coding is nothing more than assigning shorthand designations to the data in order to retrieve specific pieces of information. Creswell (2013) builds on this definition by stating, “Coding involves aggregating the text data into small categories of information and assigning a label to each code” (p. 184). Similarly, Saldaña (2011) notes, “A code is a word or short phrase that symbolically assigns a summative, essence-capturing, and/or evocative attribute for a portion of language-based data” (p. 3). During the coding process, the investigator created detailed descriptions, developed themes, and provided interpretations. If

certain pieces of information were not necessary, the researcher engaged in “winnowing” (Wolcott, 1994). The investigator created a list of 30 total codes. In line with Miles, Huberman, and Saldana (2011), the researcher made preliminary counts of data codes. Prefigured codes emphasized the existing literature, the purpose of the study, and pragmatic inquiry (Crabtree & Miller, 1992). Emergent codes arose from findings.

After completing the coding, the researcher selected segments that could be used for developing themes and grouping codes into various categories (Corbin & Strauss, 2014). According to Creswell (2013), “Themes in qualitative research are broad units of information that consist of several codes aggregated to form a common idea” (p. 186). The researcher visualized and placed segments of data into “buckets” (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). University leadership themes emerged from participant responses. Data sets were organized and combined into one electronic copy to provide easy access for the researcher. Computer software organized and stored data for the researcher (Gibbs, 2015). With each round of interviews and observations, the same data analysis process occurred.

Finally, the researcher established a logical chain of evidence through making inferences and developing models to summarize the data. Miles, Huberman, and Saldana (2014) refer to this process as “moving from the empirical trenches to a more conceptual overview of the landscape” (p. 215). Making categorical aggregations, the researcher combined themes and demonstrated how the categories worked together. Through analyzing the relationships among categories, overall interpretations were made about the elements that comprise successful leadership cultures in LA universities.

Validity

Qualitative inquiry concerns the production of valid and reliable knowledge in an ethical manner (Merriam, 1998). More specifically, “The applied nature of educational inquiry makes it

imperative that researchers have confidence in the conduct of investigation and results” (Merriam, 1998, p. 199). The researcher considered the validity of interviews, field documents, and conclusions. Validation requires “judgment of the trustworthiness or goodness of a piece of research” (Angen, 2000, p. 387). Angen (2002) also calls “validation” providing practical answers to practical questions. This study focused on finding answers to how LA university leaders make sense of and interpret their roles. Internal validity increased due to the emphasis placed on reality and capturing findings that authentically reflected the lived experiences of college leaders. The investigator continued validation by spending time in the field and maintaining a close proximity with participants. Prolonged engagement and persistent observation also helped the researcher to build trust and learn the culture.

Additional steps to protect for validity included triangulation, peer debriefing, member checking, and accounting for research bias. Triangulation added validity through using multiple methods to confirm findings (Merriam, 1998). Peer debriefing occurred through an external reviewer providing a check of the research process by asking questions about the methods and findings (Creswell, 2013). The researcher engaged in member checking by soliciting participants to assess the credibility of findings (Ely, 1991; Erlandson, 1993). Lincoln and Guba (1985) believe member checking is the most important technique for establishing credibility in qualitative research. With the rector, LTMs, and students, the researcher sent interview transcripts to check for accuracy and credibility. Participants examined the researcher’s work and provided interpretations if results were inaccurate. Rich, thick descriptions also increased the validity of research through “enabling the reader to transfer information to other settings because of shared characteristics” (Erlandson, 1993, p. 32). Finally, the investigator accounted for potential research bias by entering the study acknowledging biases toward LA culture.

To conclude, “reliability” refers to “the extent to which research findings can be replicated” (Merriam, 1998, p. 205). In educational research, reliability can be problematic because human behavior constantly changes. Many interpretations exist about the way educational administrators should handle leadership in LA universities. Merriam notes, “Because what is being studied in education is assumed to be in flux, multifaceted, and highly contextual, achieving reliability in the traditional sense is not possible” (p. 207). As a result, Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggest thinking about the “dependability” of results (p. 288). To ensure dependability, the investigator described the collected data, established themes/categories, and made decisions throughout the inquiry.

Ethical Considerations

Researchers must consider the ethical issues that might surface in qualitative research. Ethics is involved in each step of the research, from conception to execution to reporting (Creswell, 2013, Johnson & Christensen, 2012; Patton, 2015; Rossman & Rallis, 2017). Ethical issues may occur prior to conducting the study, at the beginning of the study, during data collection, in data analysis, in the reporting of data, and in publishing the study (Creswell, 2013). When research deals with human subjects, researchers must act with care in order to reduce the risk to the participants.

The researcher weighed the costs of the study versus the potential benefits. No study is completely free from risk or harm, but the investigator took active steps to ensure ethical research practices. Prior to conducting the study, the researcher gained university approval from the institutional review board. This protocol outlined the research proposal, addressed ethical concerns and highlighted the study benefits (Johnson & Christenson, 2012). Federal regulations and AERA guidelines required this procedure. In launching the study, the researcher obtained the

appropriate consent and identified important differences in LA culture (Creswell, 2013). During the data collection phase, the researcher took steps to minimize risk as much as possible.

Because American-based study at an LA university is unusual, participants may have been anxious about conducting interviews with a foreigner. In order to minimize this risk, the researcher worked to establish a trusting relationship with participants and maintained that all responses would remain confidential. The investigator de-identified raw data from the final project to protect the institution and participants. Additionally, participants were able to terminate interviews at any time and withdraw without penalty.

Participants also conducted interviews in their language of choice (English or Spanish). Since professional jargon exists in both languages, the possibility existed for both the researcher and interviewees to misinterpret one another. To minimize risk, the researcher selected professionals in the target language to transcribe interviews. There is always a risk associated with the hacking or stealing of digital data that could result in compromising participant responses. Audio recordings and data were kept in a secured file-drawer, and a password-protected computer. The researcher destroyed audio recordings within three years of the research completion.

Since LTMs participated in the study, their responses could have impacted their standing at the university. To account for this risk, LTMs had the option to withhold certain information about the university in order to protect their standing. The researcher did not expect LTMs to share information that could compromise their position. Furthermore, the investigator invited all personnel to participate separately to avoid inadvertent identification. Because the participant pool was small (one university), direct quotes used in the final project could have resulted in the identification of participants. In order to account for this risk, the researcher replaced all names

with pseudonyms, and names never appeared on study documents. To protect students from potential retribution, the researcher selected students based on recommendations by their peers. In reporting findings, the researcher used appropriate APA guidelines for research writing and remained open to reporting all findings (Creswell, 2013). Finally, in publishing the study, the investigator provided copies of reports to participants and refrained from using the same material for more than one publication.

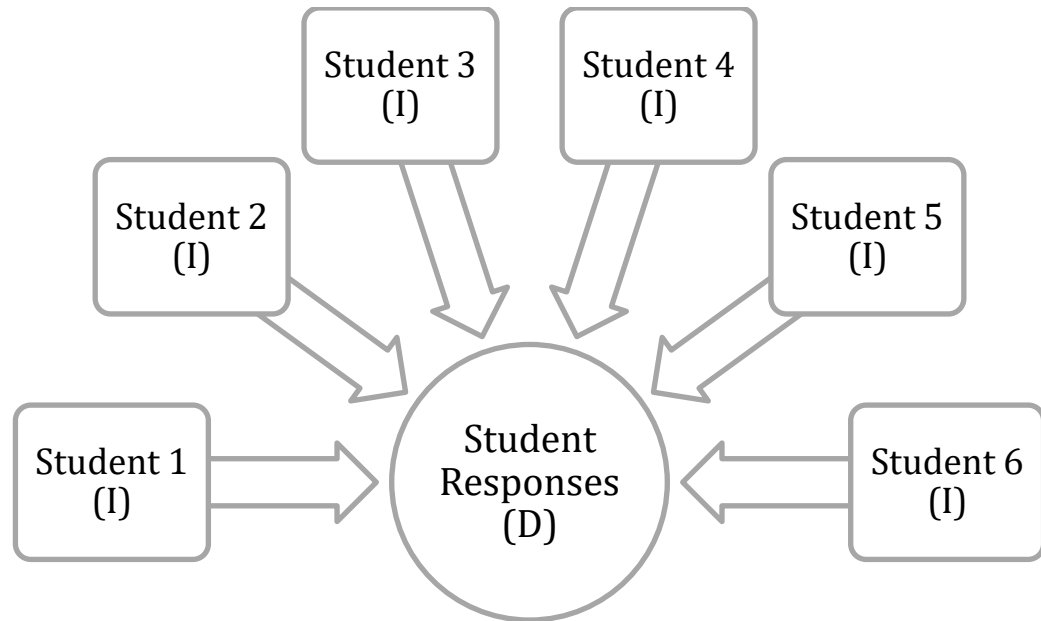
Quantitative Research

According to Fowler (2009), survey research provides a quantitative or numeric description of trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population. With the intent of generalizing findings, surveys focus on generating knowledge about a specific population (Floyd & Fowler, 2009; Alreck & Settle, 2004). The purpose of the survey was to understand successful university leadership culture from student leaders' perspectives. According to Alreck and Settle (2004), surveys with a focus on respondents' "attitudes" have multiple parts: (1) what the person knows or believes about the topic, and (2) how the person feels about the topic or how it is valued. The purpose of the quantitative strand was to include what students knew, believed, and thought about the topic.

Before discussing quantitative methods, an understanding of variables is important. According to Thompson (2006), variables represent measurable attributes of an individual or an organization that vary based on group characteristics. Independent variables cause, influence, and affect outcomes, while dependent variables show the outcomes from the independent variables (Creswell, 2014). For the purpose of this study, the independent variable represented the group of student leaders who participated in the survey. The dependent variables represented

students' responses to the survey and attitudes toward university leadership culture in LA (Figure 3.4).

Figure 3.4 Independent vs. Dependent Variables



I = Independent Variable; D = Dependent Variable

Participants

Before the investigator began constructing the sampling design, the population was identified. According to Alreck and Settle (2004), the sample unit is “the smallest entity that will provide one response” (p. 56). In this study, the sample units were students attending the university. The only criterion for participating in the survey was enrollment at the university and being eighteen years of age. The researcher specified in the heading portion of the survey, “In order to complete the survey, you must be currently enrolled as a student at the university and above the age of eighteen.” Of the students currently enrolled at the university, the investigator obtained 153 completed surveys. “Response rate” refers to the proportion of the selected sample who completed the questionnaire (Punch, 2003). In order to boost the response rate, the

investigator carefully planned gaining access to respondents, provided pre-notification about the survey, and addressed the appearance, layout, and readability of the questionnaire.

Sampling Design

In this study, the investigator made use of a simple random sampling strategy and based the sampling scheme on students who attended the university. Following Fowler's (2009) model of simple random sampling, the researcher selected members of the student population one at a time, independent of one another and without replacement. The questionnaire was random in the sense that every student in the population held an equal chance of participating (Alreck & Settle, 2004). In the data analysis phase, the researcher selected a series of sub-samples for further investigation. The investigator obtained consent by stating the following:

By completing the survey, you are affirming your consent to participate. No awards of any form will be granted for participation, and you are not required to participate. If you choose to participate, your name will remain anonymous. Completing the survey will help the researcher to further understand the leadership culture of Latin American universities.

The investigator generated the questionnaire online by using Google Forms and sent the questions through the university's homepage and email database. Respondents self-administered the survey in Spanish, leading to no additional interaction between the researcher and participants (Appendix K- English version, Appendix L-Spanish version).

Instrumentation

Alreck and Settle (2004) note, "A detailed description of the intended instrument should be composed to guide the project plan" (p. 45). The researcher designed the instrument for this study from the findings of various authors examining leadership culture in LA (Behrens, 2010; Bolman & Deal, 2003; Castano et al., 2012; Davila & Elvira, 2012; Dorfman, 1997; Hofstede, 2001; House, 2004; Muczyk & Holt, 2008). The header of the survey provided an introduction to the study, explained the study's purpose, and outlined the required tasks. The questionnaire

congregated by topic: (1) general characteristics of successful leaders in LA universities, (2) specific actions taken by university leadership to ensure success, and (3) questions examining the role of the rector. The justification for this order was to gain a baseline understanding of general elements applicable to successful university leadership culture. The language on the survey was approachable to students. Questions were close-ended meaning that participants responded by checking a box or circling the proper response from a given set. A structure built around open-ended questions eased response and maximized return. The survey was self-administered (Punch, 2003). Students first provided their age and gender, enabling the researcher to detect differences in the data based on certain demographics. In the first question, students checked all leadership characteristics that applied to LA university leaders. In the second question, the participants viewed fourteen characteristics and selected their five most important characteristics for successful leadership. In the third question, participants provided an additional characteristic applicable to university leadership. In the second section, students responded to a series of statements based on their understanding of university leadership in LA. Each statement addressed different aspects of the actions and values of leaders in the region. The final section on the questionnaire asked students to respond to a series of statements based on their understanding of the role of the rector. In conclusion, the investigator thanked students for participating in the survey and asked if they would like to engage in further research by participating in an interview. In sum, the researcher collected 153 responses, including 94 males and 59 females. Ages ranged from 17 years old to 44 years old, and 117/153 responses were between the ages of 18 and 25.

Validity, Reliability, and Variance

A measurement is valid to the degree it measures what it is intended to measure (Alreck & Settle, 2004). Fowler (2009) notes, “Validity is the term that psychologists use to describe the relationship between an answer and some measure of the true score” (p. 15). Currently, an

instrument extending leadership studies to LA universities does not exist. As a result, the researcher developed an instrument based on the findings gathered from the literature review. The risk associated with developing an instrument is whether or not the statements on the survey actually reflect the intended measurement. In order to account for this risk, the researcher piloted the survey with students on campus and asked for feedback if statements were misunderstood. Pre-testing the questionnaire helped the researcher estimate the validity of the instrument before sending it out to the student body. Fowler notes, “The purpose of the field pretest is to find out how the data collection protocols and the survey instruments work under realistic conditions” (p. 123). Since the instrument used in the study was an instrument designed by the researcher, pilot testing helped increase comprehension and clarity (Punch, 2003). After piloting the survey, the investigator led a discussion about the survey. Topics included whether or not the instructions were clear, if students understood the questions/statements, and whether there were problems understanding the type of expected answers (Presser, 2004). Evaluating the wording on the survey was essential for obtaining consistent and reliable results. While students piloted the survey, the researcher conducted observations to determine the manner in which students interacted with the questions. After completing the pilot, the investigator received feedback and made adjustments. One of the most positive outcomes from the pilot was ascertaining the amount of time it took to complete the questionnaire. Alreck and Settle add, “The advantages of a pilot survey are simplicity, speed, and economy” (p. 70). Following the pilot, the researcher notified students of the survey’s posting on the university’s homepage.

Reliability refers to the stability of responses (Punch, 2003). Alreck and Settle (2004) add, “Reliability means free from random error” (p. 59). The most fundamental test of reliability is “repeatability” which refers to “the ability to get the same data values from several

measurements made in the same way” (p. 59). Although the study offered minimal control over the consistency of student responses, the researcher took steps to assess the reliability of survey questions. Statements on the survey remained focused, brief, and clear: focused in that every question highlighted a single issue related to university leadership, brief in that respondents were likely to remember the whole question, and clear in that participants made similar interpretations about the meaning of each question. The weakness of this approach was overgeneralizing certain statements/questions. The nature of the field of leadership studies is that it changes over time. Student responses may also have been dictated by their views of the past or expectations of the future. In order to account for this risk, the researcher asked participants to focus on their current understanding of university leadership.

Variance is also an important contributor to obtaining valid results. In this study, there was the possibility for the sample to include atypical individuals of the student body, who may have held strong positive or negative opinions toward university leadership (self-selection bias) (Alreck & Settle, 2004). The extent to which those who were available, unavailable, willing, or unwilling to complete the survey could also bias the results (Fowler, 2009). This threat increased because the survey included responses from students of different ages. Demographic groups may have responded in a certain manner because of their lived experiences. Still, providing information about age and gender enabled the investigator to compare and contrast subpopulations in data analysis.

The researcher also accounted for two types of response bias: social desirability and prestige (Alreck & Settle, 2004). The investigator emphasized the importance of responding to questions based on one’s individual understanding of university leadership. “Prestige” refers to “a response that is intended to enhance the image of the respondent in the eyes of others”

(p. 102). To account for this bias, the researcher offered no awards for participation in the survey. Because the only criteria for participation was enrollment at the university, students held an equal chance of selection.

Data Collection

Figure 3.5. Data Collection Process



Data collected for each question/statement included two sections. The first section used a multiple-response format, in which participants checked all characteristics that applied to university leadership in LA. The adjective checklist allowed the researcher to ascertain descriptive adjectives or phrases applicable to university leadership (Alreck & Settle, 2004). In the first section, participants also responded by using an ordinal scale designed to rank university leadership characteristics. The second section made use of a Likert scale in order to determine the values and actions carried out by university leaders in the region. The strength of the Likert scale is displaying the respondents' level of agreement or disagreement with the topic. Data from Likert scales are also numerical, enabling the investigator to assign a total value to each question.

All data collection occurred online. The term “online data collection” refers to data collected by a questionnaire published on the Web (Alreck & Settle, 2004, p. 181). The reasons for selecting this method are numerous: broad access to the internet, reduced costs, international reach, potential rate of return, and the availability of web survey services. Using sophisticated software helped the researcher engage in “real-time” processing through monitoring the number of responses and the degree of variance in the data (Fowler, 2009). In addition, the software program generated descriptive statistics and identified outliers (Fowler, 2009). Once the survey timeframe was complete, the investigator began to process the data. The most serious limitation

in the online approach was the potential for a low response rate, because not all students had access to the internet. Finally, the self-administered surveys required careful design by the researcher.

Data Analysis

Once collected, data must be translated into a form appropriate for analysis. Before undertaking the analysis itself, the survey data needs preparation and cleaning (Punch, 2003). After preparation, the investigator analyzed questionnaire responses separately and input them into the computer for electronic processing. In the first question, data analysis consisted of developing bar graphs that displayed the frequency of each leadership characteristic and an adjective checklist chart that displayed the number of times each participant selected leadership characteristics (Alreck & Settle, 2004). This enabled the researcher to gain a basic understanding of student opinions.

For the second question, the investigator analyzed data through developing bar graphs. These graphs provided a model for portraying leadership characteristics that were “more important” or “less important.” One strength in bar charts is the ability to make comparisons between survey items. The researcher utilized these comparisons to display the order and frequency of leadership characteristics. The final two sections of the survey used nominal scales. Scales assigned numerical values to each question ranging from 5-strongly agree to 1-strongly disagree and generated descriptive statistics to confirm or refute existing literature about LA leadership styles. Bar graphs were generated to display the distribution of responses. Analyzing data to make statistical estimates required the researcher to weigh items and adjust for different probabilities of selection (Fowler, 2009). Weighting also helped make the demographic composition correspond to characteristics of the whole population.

After compiling the data and generating descriptive statistics, the researcher created a summary report. The report included a listing of the major highlights from the survey with a bulleted list of the most important characteristics for successful leadership. The purpose of the summary was two-fold: first, to help answer the research questions, and second, to impact question design in the second round of interviews with the rector, LTMs, and students.

Ethical Considerations

As with most research involving human subjects, the survey investigator needs to be attentive to ethics. Fowler (2009) states, “A basic guideline is that the researcher should make sure that no individual suffers any adverse consequences as a result of the survey” (p. 163). In addition to the normal requirements of TCU’s IRB committee, the researcher informed respondents about the survey for which they were volunteering. Since survey research involved enlisting volunteers, respondents provided detailed information before completing the questionnaire. The questionnaire included an introduction that notified participants of the following: (1) the organization conducting the research, (2) a brief description of the purpose of the study, (3) an accurate statement of the extent to which answers would remain confidential, (4) an explanation of associated risks and/or benefits, and (5) an assurance that respondents could skip questions they did not want to answer. Completion of the survey demonstrated respondents’ consent to participate. The researcher assured sample persons that no adverse results would come from participation. Maintaining confidentiality represents the greatest concern of survey research. In order to uphold confidential records, all persons who had access to data committed to confidentiality, provided pseudonyms, and data files had an identification number for each respondent. This approach was consistent with ethical procedural guidelines for survey research. The only benefit for completing the survey was helping the researcher understand the leadership culture of LA universities.

Summary and Transition to Chapter IV

Understanding what it truly takes to lead a university in LA represented the primary focus of this study. The mixed methods approach addressed the leadership culture at LA universities and examined the values and actions needed to fulfill the role of rector. The multiphase design included three phases conducted over the course of a year. Phases included Phase 1 (qualitative and quantitative), Phase 2 (qualitative), and Phase 3 (interpretation). The types of data collected in each phase were: Phase 1 (interviews, observations, and student survey), Phase 2 (interviews and observations), and Phase 3 (none). The data from each phase occurred concurrently: (Phase 1), sequentially (Phase 2), and none (Phase 3). The reason for using a multiphase design was that the qualitative and quantitative data and their subsequent analysis from Phase 1 provided a general understanding of the research problem. The second set of data and its analysis built on, refined, and further explained those results by exploring participants' views in greater depth. The final phase combined these findings into overall interpretations. What follows is a discussion of the results obtained from all phases of research.

Chapter IV: Results

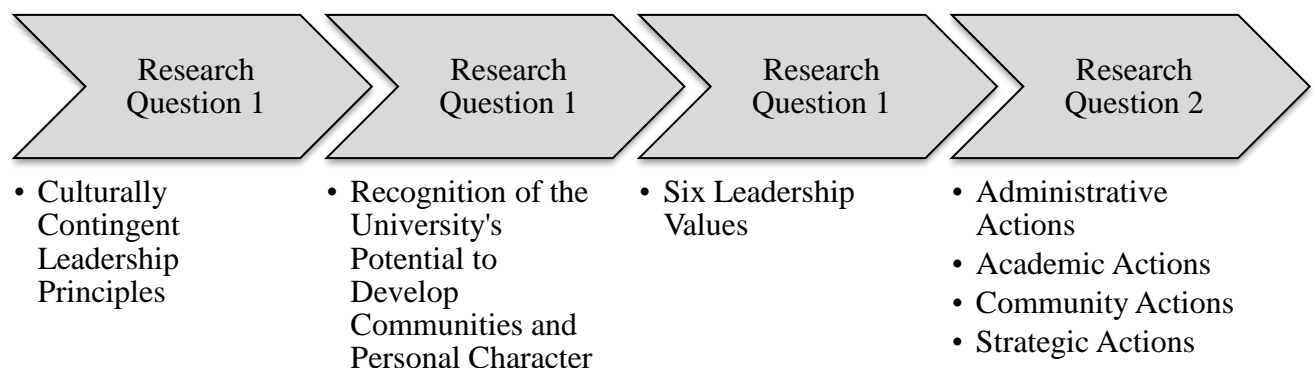
Introduction

To review, the purpose of this case study was twofold: first, to understand the elements that comprise a successful leadership culture in Latin American (LA) universities, and second, to identify the actions required to fulfill the role of rector at a national university in LA. The investigator aligned questions for this study with the purpose of the research: (1) What elements comprise a successful university leadership culture in Latin America? (2) What are the actions required to fulfill the role of rector at a national university in Latin America? Qualitatively, the researcher conducted interviews and observations with the rector, leadership team members (LTMs), and students. Quantitatively, the researcher created a survey designed to measure student opinions toward successful leadership in the region. Basing survey design on the findings of various authors in LA culture increased reliability (Behrens, 2010; Bolman & Deal, 2003; Castano et al., 2012; Davila & Elvira, 2012; Dorfman, 1997; Hofstede, 2001; House, 2004; Muczyk & Holt, 2008). Data collected from the survey helped to create questions for the second round of interviews. The design of the study combined items from the qualitative and quantitative strands to answer the research questions. The study compares and contrasts the perspectives of the rector, LTMs, and students.

The conceptual framework in the study combined two important theories. First, Schein's Theory of Organizational Culture (1992), which defined "espoused beliefs and actions" as the "strategies, goals, philosophies, and justifications of a society" (Schein, 1992, p. 26). Second, the study used Pragmatic Theory to further understand Schein's "espoused beliefs and actions" (Festenstein, 2016). The researcher assumed the combination of Schein's Theory and Pragmatic Theory would help develop a culturally sensitive approach to identify successful leadership

characteristics in LA universities. Data analyses from all phases of research showed numerous important relationships that helped answer the research questions. In answering research question one, results indicate that successful leaders first have an understanding of culturally contingent leadership principles; second, an awareness of the university's potential to develop communities and personal character; and third, specific values that increase the leader's ability to direct the university. In answering the second research question, participants summarized the actions required to fulfill the role of rector in four main categories: administrative actions, academic actions, community actions, and strategic actions. Findings may aid professionals in higher education to understand leadership attributes valued in one region of LA. The flow chart displayed below helps guide the findings: (Figure 4.1).

Figure 4.1. Flow Chart of Findings



Culturally Contingent Leadership Principles

Research confirms the inseparable link between culture and leadership. All other findings from the study are irrelevant without first understanding the crucial role culture plays in the everyday decisions of university leaders. Cultural norms and customs impact how leaders assume responsibility and embrace their roles. My research showed that culturally contingent concepts such as “dar la vuelta a la ley,” bureaucratic preferences, “el principio de autoridad,”

individualism, and the search for identity laid the foundation for interpreting every other finding from the study. These Spanish terms will be explained and expounded below. Question 5 on the student survey asked respondents to provide an opinion to the following statement, “Hay una conexión entre la cultura y la forma en que alguien lidera en una región.” (“There is a connection between the culture and the form in which one leads in a particular region.”) Results show that the majority of students believe this statement to be true: (Table 4.1).

Table 4.1

Responses to Survey Question 5

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Undecided
Students	26	92	20	2	13
Percentage	17%	60.1%	13.1%	1.3%	8.5%

According to respondents, LA culture directly impacts the type of leadership and the way decisions are made by university leaders in the region. What follows is an analysis of the five most important culturally contingent principles mentioned by participants: “dar la vuelta a la ley,” a preference for bureaucracy, “el principio de autoridad,” individualism, and the search for identity.

“Dar la Vuelta a la Ley” (“Going around the Law”)

The concept of “dar la vuelta a la ley” serves as the most important culturally contingent leadership principle impacting leadership in the region. The literal translation of this phenomenon means, “to go around the law.” All participants called attention to this principle and discussed its implications in higher education leadership. “Dar la vuelta a la ley” assumes that those in positions of authority will achieve results most effectively by working around the law. To this end, if “Law A” prohibits drivers from running a red light, “dar la vuelta a la ley” might encourage drivers to identify ways to still run the red light without getting in trouble. Since laws

protect people from those who fail to uphold them, the results of “dar la vuelta a la ley” can be far-reaching. My research shows that this principle is a part of the general culture of LA universities. Administrators, faculty, students, and government leaders all transgress the law in various forms. For example, the rector of the university commented, “Otra característica es que cuando sale una ley, la gente está buscando como no cumplir la ley. Es decir, como nosotros decimos en español, como ‘dar la vuelta a la ley.’ En otros lugares buscan el mejor modo para cumplir la ley. Aquí es al revés.” (“Another characteristic is that when a law is enacted, people are looking to not comply with it. As we say in Spanish, it is ‘going around the law.’ In other places, people look for the best way to comply with the law. Here it is the opposite.”) In the same way, LTM2 reported, “Nosotros no cumplimos con nuestras propias leyes. ¿Entonces, que hay que hacer? Hay que sacar la vuelta a la ley. Entonces el buen líder es aquél que saca la vuelta a la ley.” (“We don’t comply with our laws, so what do we do? We betray the law. The good leader is the one that works around the law.”) Overall, when a new law arrives, the custom is to say, “This law is new, so I don’t need to comply with it.” What follows are examples of “dar la vuelta a la ley” illustrated by administrators, faculty, students, and government leaders.

Administrators. Administrators engage in “dar la vuelta a la ley.” When asked to provide examples of administration transgressing the law, participants mentioned the following: (Table 4.2).

Table 4.2

Administrative Attempts at “Dar la Vuelta a la Ley”

Administrative Attempts

1. Engaging in regular strikes
2. Scrutinizing the rector for not giving raises
3. Unions receiving financial favors
4. Absent administration at university events
5. Violations of university procedures

6. Preference for hiring family members
 7. Outstanding lawsuits
-

Engaging in regular strikes. On one particular occasion, the researcher attempted to enter the rector's office, but a large group of striking administrators had blocked access. The excerpt shown below from the research journal highlights the regular strikes that occur on campus.

I went to interview the rector this afternoon but ended up in the middle of an administrative strike. I saw around 30 students and 100 workers standing outside the rector's office. The administrators were striking because they wanted higher salaries, while the students were striking because they wanted administrators to be on campus.

Administrators participate in regular strikes that shut down the university for 2 to 3 days. I also witnessed administrators "dar la vuelta a la ley" by scrutinizing the rector for not giving raises at their request. Dissatisfied with their salaries, administrators band together to place pressure on the rector. Although university laws outline the requirements for obtaining raises, administrators still sidestep these precepts and threaten to strike.

Unions. Unions, led by administrators, represent a strong force working to uphold the opinions of deans at the university. S4 described the power of unions, "No se enfocan en asuntos laborales. Tratan de presionar a ciertas autoridades para favorecer a su gremio." ("They don't focus on their function of defending work rights. They try to influence authorities to favor their union.") The rector cited specific occurrences of union officers receiving financial favors from business partners to boost their status with various political groups. During a second observation, the rector hosted a meeting to hear the complaints of union officers. These officers pressed the rector for raises that were outside of their current contracts.

Absent administration. LTM3 emphasized another mechanism for "dar la vuelta a la ley" in administrators who leave on vacation without notifying their supervisor. This practice

sidelines students' needs. S1 commented, "Administrators have been on strike for a month. Students want to graduate, but the administrative part is not working, so students wait, unable to pass a career and unable to change their courses." The language from this quote captures the sentiments of many students toward administrators who transgress the law. Students also expressed frustration toward administrators who visited the university for only one hour a day, thereby preventing students from obtaining the paperwork needed for graduation. Finally, administrators are absent from university council meetings, a practice strictly prohibited by university bylaws.

Violations of university procedures. A third observation of the university council revealed additional efforts by administrators to "dar la vuelta a la ley" by violating university procedures. The university council represents the top decision-making entity at the university and includes the rector, vice rectors, deans, and student representatives. University laws supply a blueprint for the proper procedures in each council gathering. During this observation, the researcher detected many deviances from university bylaws. Administrators breached protocol by arriving late, engaging in phone calls during the meeting, having side conversations, falling asleep, signing diplomas, reading books, and leaving early. Due to these distractions, the council meeting lacked a clear direction. After three hours, administrators finally started debating the first item on the meeting agenda. To compound the issue, once the rector moved an agenda item forward, administrators regressed to previous items. During the four-hour meeting, the council only addressed three of six items.

Preference for hiring family members. Equally important, the practice of "familismo" frequently occurs at the university and represents another example of "dar la vuelta a la ley." Question 15 on the student survey indicates a preference for hiring family members and friends

over non-family members and friends. “Los líderes reconocen que sus relaciones familiares pueden influir el proceso de ofrecer un puesto laboral.” (“Leaders recognize that familial relationships can influence their hiring decisions.”) (Table 4.3).

Table 4.3

Responses to Survey Question 15

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Undecided
Students	19	58	28	16	28
Percentage	12.4%	37.9%	18.3%	10.5%	18.3%

Although university bylaws specifically state favoritism should not be shown toward family members in hiring decisions, participants called attention to seven family lines holding the majority of power at the university. The rector verified the use of “familismo,” “Los líderes reconocen que sus relaciones familiares pueden influir en el proceso de ejercer un puesto laboral. Hay familias enteras dentro de la universidad tanto en administrativos y también docentes.” (“Leaders recognize that their family relationships can influence the process of obtaining a job. There are entire families within the university, both administrators and professors.”) The rector also disclosed the removal of multiple employees because they illegally hired nephews and other relatives. LTM2 thought generations of families had controlled the university dating back to the 19th century. S1 thought managers made 80% of their hiring decisions based on family ties and gave favors to certain students based on their family line. Overall, research shows “familismo” to be a common practice negatively impacting the university.

Outstanding lawsuits. 400 outstanding lawsuits and 300 employees currently on trial for various crimes also exemplify “dar la vuelta a la ley.” Lawsuits paralyze the university’s ability to move forward, and nearly 100% come from financial disputes. Some view the university as a charity for handing out monetary favors. At one point, a local newspaper attempted to blackmail

the rector. The media outlet demanded the rector pay a hefty bribe to avoid it writing an article against the university.

Professors. Professors also engage in “dar la vuelta a la ley.” University bylaws specify requirements for faculty to be employed at the university, but various instructors undertake means to transgress this law. Table 4.4 provides a summary of these attempts.

Table 4.4

Professor Attempts at “Dar la Vuelta a la Ley”

Professor Attempts
1. Opposing evaluation
2. Avoiding securing a degree in their field
3. Failure to bring new perspectives
4. Contracting outside the law
5. Academically unprepared
6. Tardiness

Opposing evaluation. According to some interviewees, faculty oppose evaluation. The rector commented, “Escuchar la palabra “evaluación” es lo peor que puede escuchar un profesor.” (“The worst thing that could happen to you as a professor is hearing the word “evaluation.”) Evaluation often leads to conflict between professors and administration. LTM3 pointed out the bond created between department chairs and professors to avoid evaluation. Instructors forbade students from entering the classroom on evaluation days and also limited evaluation to colleagues within the university. One professor noted, “¿Por qué, uno de afuera, evaluarme, a mi?” (“Why does an outsider have to evaluate me?”)

Avoiding securing a degree in their field. Professors also “dar la vuelta a la ley” through not obtaining a degree in their field. Bylaws require faculty to acquire a degree within their specialization. Professors paid third party companies without attending courses to acquire their degrees. One aspiring leader copied the doctorate of another professor and presented a

counterfeit document to the university. The mayor's representative shared examples of professors hanging falsified degrees in their offices. The rector confirmed these practices, "De acuerdo con sus papeles que sabía inglés. Un comando en inglés y de computación, tradúzcame, no sabía nada. Mucha gente tiene documentos, pero no tiene los conocimientos, eso ocurre muy frecuentemente en Latinoamérica." ("According to his papers he knew English. When I asked him to translate a command from English to Spanish, he didn't know how. Many people have documents but lack the knowledge. It happens very frequently in Latin America.") The rector also mentioned a time when an administrator offered him a falsified diploma, "¿Quiere un diploma del curso de proyectos de tal administración de proyectos? Solamente tiene que pagarme, no tiene que asistir al curso." ("Do you want a diploma in the project management course? You only have to pay me. You don't have to attend the course.") Paying for false certifications from a variety of third party companies creates unique problems for leaders attempting to distinguish between qualified and unqualified faculty. Similar issues occur when professors receive financial favors for signing off on graduation requirements for students.

Failure to bring new perspectives. A smaller finding from the study shows that professors fail to bring new perspectives to their classrooms. After purchasing falsified diplomas from third party companies, professors often claim that these degrees come from regions outside of LA. In addition, many professors receive their bachelors, masters, and doctorate degrees from the same LA university, creating a cycle adverse to change and new ideas. In the rare case instructors study in regions outside of LA, the university usually fails to meet national accreditation standards.

Contracting outside the law. Compounding the issues of "dar la vuelta a la ley," contracting outside the law occurs frequently. Older faculty receive permanent contracts from

administration, leading interviewees to believe that temporary employees are more dedicated to their work. The rector commented, “Otro profesor ha sido condenado por delito doloso, y de acuerdo con la ley debió ser separado, pero lo cubrieron porque el grupo que estaba en el poder era de su movimiento.” (“There is the case of a professor who was convicted of a fraudulent crime, and according to the law that professor should have been fired but they covered him up because the group in power was from his union.”)

Academically unprepared faculty. Another example presented of “dar la vuelta a la ley” was academically unprepared faculty. Students expressed their frustration with faculty’s level of preparedness, “La universidad está hecha para educar, para desarrollar nuestras habilidades. Los problemas a los que nos enfrentamos es la educación que no muchos estudiantes están conformes con la educación. Los profesores no son competentes.” (“The university is made to educate and develop our skills. The problems we face are that few students are satisfied with their education. Teachers are not competent.”) Students described outdated teaching methodologies and teachers who talked about personal issues during class time. A university historian called attention to obsolete curriculum and outdated methodologies from the early 20th century. Biased grading and preferential treatment toward family members also interfere with students’ education. LTM1 reported out of the 600 professors at the university, only 18 met current academic standards outlined by university bylaws. The unwillingness to obtain further education and older faculty represented the primary reasons for this issue. The rector noted, “Hay muchas personas que por un lado ya tiene bastante edad y no se prestan rápidamente al cambio. No ha ido dando espacio a otros jóvenes para que después pueden reemplazar.” (“There are a lot of people who are very old at the university and cannot adapt to change. They leave no room for people to replace them.”) Older faculty also struggle with basic computer skills, evidenced by the statistic showing only

20% of professors regularly check their university email. In some cases, students engage in research at higher rates than faculty, decreasing student respect toward professors. Thus, students are calling for a new generation of instructors with new ideas and strategies. S1 noted, “I had an amazing teacher last semester who wanted to stay in the university, but senior faculty did not like her. Finally, she surrendered and stopped teaching.” Overall, older faculty criticize younger faculty and view them as a threat instead of a solution to higher education challenges in the region.

Tardiness. Finally, teachers “dar la vuelta a la ley” by arriving late or missing class. Although arriving late is not a common theme among all participants, the rector noted, “Aquí se tolera mucho la demora, la tardanza. Uno puede haber llegado tarde y siempre te van a dar una razón.” (“Here, delay is tolerated. When people arrive late, they always give you a reason.”) The mayor’s representative agreed with this reality and believes tardiness starts in the early stages of primary education and continues through tertiary education.

Students. Students also engage in “dar la vuelta a la ley.” When asked to provide examples of students transgressing the law, participants mentioned the following: (Table 4.5).

Table 4.5

Student Attempts at “Dar la Vuelta a la Ley”

Participant	Spanish Excerpt	English Excerpt
S1	-	“Organizations on campus don’t listen to us. As a student, the only option we have is to strike.”
S1	-	“Putting chairs and tables in front of the door is not what we want, but it's the best option to solve difficult problems.”
Rector	“A veces los estudiantes vienen con su bombo, una marcha, aquí funciona así.”	“Sometimes students come with their drums, a march, here it works like that.”

During the researcher's first visit to the university, students transgressed the law by conducting a strike to protest bus fares. Students admitted the primary reason for elected student leaders on campus is to coordinate regular protests. S2 called for administrators to stop waiting for strikes to occur by becoming more proactive in solving student issues. S3 accused administration of limiting students' rights by restricting their ability to protest. Students also "dar la vuelta a la ley" by defying entrance exam requirements. During an informal conversation with the rector, I discovered this malpractice. Students captured photographs of test questions and sent them to their peers using sunglasses with built-in cameras. Although students pay large sums of money to obtain these answers, the practice poses a high risk to their academic future. Finally, students "dar la vuelta a la ley" by failing to comply with registration deadlines. According to the rector, an average of 80% of students fail to register for classes on time every year.

Government leaders. The concept of "dar la vuelta a la ley" is not limited to members of the university community but extends to government leaders. Participants called attention to government leaders who transgress the law: (Table 4.6).

Table 4.6

<i>Government Leader Attempts at "Dar la Vuelta a la Ley"</i>
Government Leader Attempts
1. Corruption
2. Highly politicized environments
3. Lack of funding
4. Lack of leadership

Corruption. According to respondents, the most pervasive evidence of "dar la vuelta a la ley" in government leaders is the overall climate of corruption. LTM1 commented, "El país está viviendo una situación muy crítica respecto al tema de la corrupción. Todos los candidatos y el actual gobernante están involucrados en actos de corrupción." ("The country is experiencing a

very critical situation regarding the issue of corruption. All the candidates and current president are involved in acts of corruption.”). S4 described politicians in this way, “Ahí siempre está la corrupción. Y aquí en nuestro país estamos asqueados con la corrupción. Siempre ha sido así.” (“There is always corruption. Here in our country, we are disgusted with corruption. It’s always been like that.”) S2 believes political groups generate more conflicts and increase extortion. S5 rejected various political groups, claiming each one forced their own ideology. Privatization of natural resources, such as minerals, oil, and lumber also represent ongoing corrupt practices. The rector provided examples of university employees receiving bribes from government officials in order to influence hiring decisions, and LTM2 described how these leaders are currently serving time in jail.

Another example of government corruption is the failure to provide free public higher education, a violation of federal law. S3 articulated, “Los mismos estudiantes tenemos que pagar muchas tasas educativas. Nosotros mismos estamos pagando nuestra parte académica. Si la Constitución dice que tiene que ser gratuita, debería ser así.” (“Students themselves have to pay so many educational fees. It’s as if we are paying for our own education. If the Constitution says it should be free, then it should be free.”) Students pay high fees and service charges to enter the university, leaving those from less affluent regions feeling anxious about paying for college.

A final example of corruption is attempts by government leaders to obtain financial favors. S4 stated, “Yo pienso que en lo general su motivación es lo económico.” (“The leader’s general motivation is economic.”) Similarly, the mayor’s representative stated, “Most leaders involved at the university are entrepreneurs who have a varied portfolio of investment.” This preoccupation with money produces universities focused on economic gain rather than education quality. The rector described the current stance of national leaders toward higher education, “La

educación lo han hecho un negocio.” (“Education has become a business.”) Convinced of this reality, wealthy politicians view students as customers of an enterprise called “the university.”

Highly politicized environments. According to respondents, the roots of corruption are found in the region’s highly politicized environment. LTM1 noted, “Las universidades en América Latina siempre han tenido un alto componente político. Hay muchos grupos que quieren manejar la universidad.” (“In general, universities in Latin America have always had a high political component. There are many political groups that want to run the university.”) LTM2 shared about the political motivations of past rectors and disclosed information about a colleague who jumped from one political group to another simply to gain power. The rector discussed “voluntad política,” “political will,” a common LA expression used to distinguish between leaders who follow through on commitments from those who do not. Politics consumes day-to-day activities within the university and provides opportunities for national leaders to “dar la vuelta a la ley.”

Lack of funding. Finally, LTMs discussed government leaders failing to uphold promises to provide resources for university laboratories and libraries. S4 commented, “La economía del estado se ha reducido bastante. No podemos adquirir equipos, herramientas, tecnologías de última generación.” (“Funds have been reduced a lot. We cannot acquire equipment, tools, and the latest technologies.”) Consistent budget cuts motivate students, teachers, and administrators to strike against the federal government. Inadequate funds also create crisis in university facilities. Out of 15,000 students, the cafeteria at the university in this study only serves enough food for 3,000 students. S5 noted, “Muchas veces los estudiantes no llegan a comer.” (“Many times students are unable to eat.”) Professors expressed feeling limited in their ability to conduct research due to low finances, and insufficient funds created large gaps between low-income and

wealthy students. Affluent parents also hold negative views of public higher education, and many decided to transfer their students to private universities.

Lack of leadership. Although not explicitly related to “dar la vuelta a la ley,” it is important to note many interviewees held government leaders accountable for not providing sufficient leadership in higher education. LTM1 said, “El otro problema de las universidades nuestras es la atención del gobierno a la educación universitaria. Ese es un problema muy serio.” (“The other problem of our universities is the attention of the government to education. It’s a severe problem.”) S3 expressed concern for government leaders failing to complete high school diplomas, “De ese tipo de personas estamos totalmente artos, y sé que en algún momento va a cambiar todo esto.” (“We are fed up with this type of people, and I know at some point this will change.”)

Summary

Overall, “dar la vuelta a la ley” represents the most notable culturally contingent leadership principle derived from this study. Administration, faculty, students, and government leaders undertake means to work around the law. One leader described the phenomenon in this way, “Líderes han gobernado la universidad y han mostrado mucho de corrupción y eso el profesional que egresa de ahí observa y cree que la corrupción es una cosa buena.” (“Leaders have governed the university and have shown plenty of corruption. Students who graduate observe and believe that corruption is a good thing.”) Community members shared similar sentiments and believe corruption epitomizes the culture of LA universities. The rector believes overcoming this type of corruption starts from within, “Muchos de los problemas de corrupción tienen que ver con la forma de como educamos en el nivel universitario.” (“Many of the corruption problems that exist are related to the way we educate students at the university.”)

“Dar la vuelta a la ley” impacts every decision made within the university and represents the most important culturally contingent principle derived from this study.

Preference for Bureaucracy

Continuing to answer research question one, bureaucratic preferences denote another culturally contingent principle important for understanding successful leadership culture in LA universities. When asked to describe this preference, participants mentioned the following: (Table 4.7).

Table 4.7

Specific Responses Regarding a Preference for Bureaucracy

Participant	Spanish Excerpt	English Excerpt
LTM2	“Nuestro sistema universitario está inmerso en el sistema de la administración burocrática.”	“Our university system is immersed in bureaucratic administration.”
S4	“Porque aquí yo veo que existe mucha burocracia, para pedir algo, se debe pasar por un administrativo, otro administrativo.”	“Here there is a lot of bureaucracy. To ask for something, one must go through an administrative worker, then to another administrative worker.”

Adding to these responses, the mayor’s representative described the current system as a “bureaucratic maze,” and students lamented the number of administrative workers required to receive answers to simple questions. Bureaucratic disputes form due to the inflation of university staff, causing leaders to postpone decisions for 2 to 3 years. The rector discussed the bureaucratic challenges associated with hosting numerous meetings to make decisions. Gatherings consumed the rector’s schedule seven days a week, 7am to 7pm, leading to mental and emotional stress. The rector stated, “Uno de los reclamos grandes que todavía hay en la universidad es la lentitud de los tramites.” (“One of the big problems that still exists in the university is the slowness of procedures.”)

The concept of “el papel manda,” “paperwork is in charge” serves as an example of the bureaucratic approach to leadership. In other words, unless the leader obtains written proof, decisions are not legitimate. All participants encountered “el papel manda” in its various forms. The rector confessed, “Hay mucho “paperwork here,” demasiado. Porque humanamente es imposible hacerlo.” (“There is a lot of paperwork here, too much. It’s humanly impossible to do it all.”) During observations, the researcher witnessed the rector sign a plethora of documents. At one point, the researcher asked the rector how he signed all the documents on his desk each morning. He simply replied, “I don’t.” Some students thought the primary responsibility of the rector was to receive, read, and sign university documents. Others suggested, “El rector no debe pasar la mayoría de su tiempo firmando documentos. Es muy insulso.” (“The rector shouldn’t spend the majority of his time signing documents. It’s a waste of time.”)

Indirect speech. Participants linked indirect speech with bureaucratic preferences. The rector stated, “En la cultura Latina no se dicen las cosas directamente. Si uno lo dice directamente aquí se va a tener un problema o se va a conseguir un enemigo. Vendo como rodeos decimos nosotros.” (“In Latin American culture we do not say things directly. If you say things directly, you will have a problem, or create an enemy. Here, we beat around the bush.”) To avoid offense, LTMs carefully provide feedback to faculty and believe direct speech represents one of the primary causes of strikes on campus. Survey results support this idea. Question 7 on the questionnaire stated, “El líder expresa lo que piensa y siente sin ofender a los demás.” (“A leader expresses what they think and feel without offending others.”) (Table 4.8).

Table 4.8

Responses to Survey Question 7

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Undecided
Students	58	62	13	3	3
Percentage	37.9%	40.5%	8.5%	2%	2%

Survey results also indicate students prefer low-conflict environments. Question 16 stated, “Los líderes tratan de crear ambientes tranquilos y de menos conflicto.” (“Leaders try to create peaceful, low-conflict environments.”) (Table 4.9).

Table 4.9

Responses to Survey Question 16

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Undecided
Students	35	94	11	1	12
Percentage	22.9%	61.4%	7.2%	0.7%	7.8%

An observation of the university council helped the researcher understand additional cultural formalities. When a student or administrator introduced a point, he/she first acknowledged everyone else in the room. Making a comment started something like this, “Good evening, rector, vice rectors, deans, distinguished guests, students...” Later, if someone wanted to speak, he/she would say, “Thank you again for the opportunity to speak, rector, vice rectors, deans, distinguished guests...” These formalities represent additional cultural norms fueling the bureaucratic culture.

“El Principio de Autoridad” (“The Principle of Authority”)

A third culturally contingent leadership principle derived from the study important for successful leadership is an understanding of “el principio de autoridad” and its role in creating hierarchical structures. This culturally contingent concept maintains that if an authority figure says something, it must be true, simply because it was said by an authority figure. The rector

stated, “Yo creo que aquí se necesita mano dura. Muchas cosas funcionan aquí de esa forma en nuestra cultura.” (“I believe that here a strong hand is needed. Many things work that way in our culture.”) Overtones of “el principio de autoridad” motivated university leaders to impose their will over subordinates to make decisions. The “principle of authority” also exemplifies a preference for hierarchical leadership. When asked to describe leadership hierarchies, participants mentioned the following: (Table 4.10).

Table 4.10

Specific Responses Regarding Hierarchical Approaches to Leadership

Participant	Spanish Excerpt	English Excerpt
Rector	“Solamente la potestad la tiene el rector. Es el que se responsabiliza todo lo que ocurre, lo bueno y lo malo.”	“The rector is the only person with power. He is the one that is responsible for everything that happens, the good and bad.”
LTM1	“La capital decide todo. Ahí vive el presidente y decide todo, incluyendo las políticas para la educación superior.”	“The capital makes all the decisions. The president lives there and decides everything, including policies for higher education.”
LTM3	“La gente dice, mejor vamos directamente al vicerrector porque él nos va a resolver el tema.”	“People say it’s better to go directly to the vice rector because he will be able to solve our problem.”
LTM3	“Los estudiantes ven al vicerrectorado como el centro de atención, y saltándose los niveles jerárquicos de los departamentos académicos.”	“Students view the vice-rectorate the center of attention. People skip over the hierarchical levels of academic departments.”
LTM3	“Aquí en América Latina hay una expresión popular. No quiero conversar con el payaso, sino con el dueño del circo.”	“Here in Latin America there is a popular expression. I don’t want to talk with the clown, but with the owner of the circus.”

These excerpts demonstrate participants’ understanding of hierarchical leadership structures in the region. Although leaders utilize “el principio de autoridad” to enact positive change, such as firing low-performing teachers, participants mostly described the negative outcomes. For example, the rector discussed the free nature of top leaders in the region who lack systems of accountability and make quick decisions. Leadership hierarchies also require the rector to sign all

university resolutions passed in the previous calendar year. Since the rector holds the final authority, delegation efforts deteriorate as those in auxiliary positions transfer their decision-making power upward. During various meetings, the rector was the only member of the leadership team taking notes.

Participants also described the difficulties with communication due to leadership hierarchies. LTM2 reported, “La comunicación es difícil tanto ascendente como descendente. Tenemos que comunicar al rectorado en la plaza de armas y otras sedes en otras partes.” (“Communication is difficult both ascending and descending. We have to communicate with the rectorate located in the Plaza de Armas and other offices that are located in other locations.”). Located in the downtown area of the city, the researcher traveled 30 minutes between the campus and the rector’s office to conduct interviews. As a result, Question 9 on the student survey showed that students prefer direct communication over indirect communication: “Los líderes deben comunicarse directamente con sus subordinados sobre la dirección de la organización.” (“Leaders should communicate directly with subordinates about the direction of the organization.”) (Table 4.11).

Table 4.11

Responses to Survey Question 9

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Undecided
Students	49	79	10	1	14
Percentage	32%	51.6%	6.5%	0.7%	9.2%

Hierarchical tendencies also mean leaders in the capital control many decisions related to higher education. According to respondents, past government resolutions fail to account for the diverse needs of universities in other parts of the country. University leaders have to travel long distances to conduct meetings with government officials, who rarely pay on-site visits to

universities. Speaking against hierarchal forms of governance, the rector shared about a previous rector at the university, “En el momento de la votación, la gente pensaba, él no va con nosotros, porque él nos mira de arriba abajo. Tenemos diferentes responsabilidades, pero como seres humanos, somos iguales.” (“At the time of the election, people thought, “He doesn’t look after us because he looks at things from a top-down perspective. We all have different responsibilities, but as human beings, we are all equal.”). Overall, participants understood the negative effects of hierarchical tendencies and hoped to see decreases in leader-follower gaps. Question 13 on the survey stated: “Los mejores lideres delegan responsabilidades.” (“The best leaders delegate responsibilities.”) (Table 4.12).

Table 4.12

Responses to Survey Question 13

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Undecided
Students	39	82	14	3	15
Percentage	25.5%	53.6%	9.2%	2%	9.8%

Individualism

Continuing with research question one, a fourth culturally contingent principle is an understanding of the prominence given to individuals over the group. Respondents articulated the impacts of a culture that emphasizes the individual: (Table 4.13).

Table 4.13

Specific Responses Regarding Individualism in LA

Participant	Spanish Excerpt	English Excerpt
LTM1	“Desde nuestra cultura, somos individualistas.”	“In our culture, we are individualists.”
LTM2	“Históricamente, nosotros tenemos una cultura individualista. No hay, digamos, ese espíritu mancomunado.”	“We have historically been an individualistic culture. We don’t have a spirit of cooperation.”

LTM2	“Se hace muy difícil lo que es el trabajo en equipo, porque tiene que haber algo para mí.”	“Teamwork is very difficult here, because there must be something in it for me.”
LTM3	“En este momento, aún tenemos el interés personal que no concuerda con las políticas institucionales.”	“At this time, we still have personal interests that are not in line with institutional policies.”
S4	“Estamos en un tiempo o en una cultura en el que la cultura tiene la expectativa de ser más independiente. Buscamos más nuestros intereses que el de los demás.”	“We are in a time when the culture expects people to be more independent. We seek our interests more than those of others.”

According to the results, LA culture values personal goals and interests over group aspirations. While observing the university council meeting, the investigator listened carefully to the type of messaging utilized by students, administrators, and the rector. All parties utilized the pronoun “I” and not “we” when making a point. The rector referenced how faculty and administration boost their self-image through duplicitous actions such as taking personal advantage of university resources, speaking negatively about colleagues behind their backs, and participating in blackmail. Survey results on Question 8 reveal that students believe in the importance of working together: “Los líderes hacen decisiones y reciben retroalimentación de los miembros del grupo.” (“Leaders make decisions and receive feedback from group members.”) (Table 4.14).

Table 4.14

Responses to Survey Question 8

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Undecided
Students	49	76	13	3	12
Percentage	32%	49.7%	8.5%	2%	7.8%

Similarly, Question 11 on the survey reveals that students aspire to see the interests of the group valued over the individual: “Los líderes entienden que la lealtad al grupo es más importante que

expresar su propia individualidad.” (“Leaders understand that loyalty to the group is more important than expressing one’s individuality.”) (Table 4.15).

Table 4.15

Responses to Survey Question 11

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Undecided
Students	49	76	13	3	12
Percentage	32%	49.7%	8.5%	2%	7.8%

Students also believe teamwork is an essential component for university success: “El trabajo de equipo es esencial para el éxito de la universidad.” (“Teamwork is essential for organizational success.”) (Table 4.16).

Table 4.16

Responses to Survey Question 14

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Undecided
Students	94	52	3	1	3
Percentage	61.4%	34%	2%	0.7%	2%

Finally, students believe individualistic cultures limit collaboration and restrict the organization’s ability to move forward: “Los líderes reconocen que las personas y las organizaciones se necesitan mutuamente para tener éxito.” (“Leaders recognize that people and organizations need each other to be successful.”) (Table 4.17).

Table 4.17

Responses to Survey Question 12

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Undecided
Students	47	79	5	2	20
Percentage	30.7%	51.6%	3.3%	1.3%	13.1%

Although individualism marks the culture at the university, students want to engage in activities oriented toward partnership and group work. This relationship marks an intriguing contradiction in the findings.

Search for Identity

The final culturally contingent principle used for answering research question one is understanding the search for identity prevalent in LA culture. Responses surrounding this phenomenon included: (Table 4.18).

Table 4.18

Specific Responses Regarding Search for Identity in LA

Participant	Spanish Excerpt	English Excerpt
LTM1	“Mucha gente no entiende de que él, al mirarse en un espejo entiende se que si es o no es. Ese es un problema probablemente social más importante en América Latina.”	“Many people do not understand what they are when they look in a mirror. Identity is probably the most important social problem in Latin America.”
LTM1	“El problema de identidad es un problema de todo el país.”	“The identity problem runs throughout the whole country.”
LTM3	“Nos vemos como un mendigo sentado en un banco de oro. No descubrimos nuestras capacidades internas para podernos desarrollar y seguimos mirándonos como un pobrecito. ”	“We view ourselves as a beggar sitting next to a gold bank. We don’t discover our internal capacities to develop, and we continue to view ourselves as poor.”
S2	“Creemos que lo de afuera es mucho mayor de lo que nosotros tenemos. Deberíamos identificarnos con nuestra cultura, fortalecer nuestra cultura, y incentivar nuestra cultura.”	“We believe that what comes from outside is much better than what we have here. We should identify with our own culture, strengthen our culture, and have pride in our culture.”

In analyzing the quest for identity, respondents discussed the role of European and American influences. S2 believes outside media, such as television shows, social media, and magazines cause students to abandon their heritages and assimilate to dominant cultures in other parts of the world. As students imitate the messages transmitted on international platforms, it decreases their

loyalty to origin. Racism also contributes to the search for identity. S5 commented, “En Latinoamérica hay bastante racismo, por el color de piel o por donde somos.” (“In Latin America, there is a lot of racism due to the color of your skin or where you are from.”) LTM3 believes racism leads to discrimination between genders, sexual harassment, and the abuse of women. Overall, participants feel current national policies fail to create programs for developing a positive sense of self and unity between races.

Summary

To summarize, participants believe five culturally contingent principles impact leadership culture at LA universities: “dar la vuelta a la ley,” bureaucratic preferences, “el principio de autoridad,” individualism, and the search for identity. An awareness of these principles lays the foundation for understanding all other components that contribute to successful leadership cultures in LA. The researcher provides additional findings that help answer research question one below.

The Potential of the University

In continuing to answer research question one, case study participants believe successful leadership cultures extend beyond culturally contingent principles and include an awareness of the university’s potential to develop communities and personal character. In this study, developing communities and character requires leadership focused on projects addressing local needs and study abroad programs.

Community Development

Participants highlighted the university’s potential to create projects oriented toward community development. When asked to describe the impact of the university on community, participants noted the following: (Table 4.19).

Table 4.19

Specific Responses Regarding University-Community Partnerships

Participant	Spanish Excerpt	English Excerpt
LTM3	“Los estudiantes están examinando los impactos que se tienen de la colonización de la selva por los migrantes de la sierra.”	“Students are examining the impact of jungle colonization and how native populations are adapting to these new realities.”
LTM3	“Mira, nosotros tenemos laboratorios y personal. Podemos estudiar el problema actual, buscar alternativas, y implementar soluciones.”	“Look, we have the laboratories and the personnel. We can study current problems, look for alternatives, and implement solutions.”
S3	“Cuando termino mi educación universitaria quiero servir a mi comunidad. No es solamente la parte académica.”	“When I finish my education, I want to serve my community. It’s not just the academic part.”

Interviewees maintain that individuals with college degrees are more likely to be community-minded and participate in public life. Leaders shared stories of students changing communities for the better and how educated workforces were central for laying the foundation of local economies. LTM1 shared about students utilizing university resources to research Andean crops. Findings from the study helped farmers in the region improve productivity and competitiveness in the market. Environmentally, students conducted a project to understand the negative effects of gold mining on wildlife, including the contamination of fish and other animals. In addition, the exploitation of gold generated high volumes of mercury leading to increased health risks for local inhabitants. Data from the project fostered more debate in the community surrounding environmental issues. University students also researched natural disasters such as earthquakes in mountainous regions, the pollution of rivers caused by acid rain, and the desilting of glaciers. Similar to the projects previously mentioned, LTM3 thought the university needed to tear down its walls and establish curriculum focused on reality, research,

and social responsibility. S3 discussed changing the mindset of students to helping local communities after graduation instead of pursuing personal interests.

Driver of Personal Character

LTM1s also calculated the university's potential for developing students' personal character. One LTM noted, "La educación es lo que va a ser que seamos mejores seres humanos. Estoy convencido que, si educamos mejor, vamos a tener mejores líderes, y esos mejores líderes harán un mejor país." ("Education is what makes us better human beings. I am convinced that if we educate people, we will have better leaders, and those leaders will make a better country.") As a platform for helping students to gain knowledge and skills to enter the workforce, respondents believe universities catalyze students toward a better future. LTM1 noted, "Yo vengo de familia de la zona rural. Pero gracias a la educación yo estoy acá. La educación me dio la oportunidad. ("I come from a family in the rural area. If it had not been for education, I would not be here. Education gave me this opportunity.") One of the primary ways universities achieve personal growth is through study abroad programs. Participants shared extensively about the benefits of study abroad programs: (Table 4.20)

Table 4.20

Specific Responses Regarding the Impact of Study Abroad Programs

Participant	Spanish Excerpt	English Excerpt
Rector	"Cuando yo hablé con ella parecía otra persona, o sea la experiencia le cambió completamente hasta su seguridad personal. Hablaba distinto, tenía más seguridad, y sabía cuáles eran sus metas al futuro."	"When I talked with her, she seemed like a completely different person. The experience completely changed her security. She spoke differently, had more confidence, and knew what her goals were in life."
LTM1	"Ahora, pueden salir cualquier parte del mundo a hacer una pasantía en una universidad o centro de investigación."	"Now, those who aspire to be researchers can go to any part of the world for an internship at a university or research center."

LTM2	“Ellos que participan en los programas tienen una mejor perspectiva que aquellos que se quedan.”	“Those who participate in programs have a better perspective than those who stay.”
LTM2	“Ya hemos puesto en el presupuesto más para las pasantías, para que puedan salir nuestros propios estudiantes.”	“We have already included in the budget more for internships, for our own students to leave.”
LTM3	“Ella era introvertida, o poco comunicativa. Cuando regresó, le vimos una transformación increíble de habilidades.”	“She was introverted and not communicative. When she returned, she had experienced an incredible transformation of abilities.”
LTM3	“A nivel personal, los estudiantes han regresado más sociables, asertivos, y resolver sus problemas personales cotidianos.”	“On a personal level, students have returned more sociable, assertive, and able to solve their daily personal problems.”
S3	“Los programas de intercambio a otras universidades ofrecen oportunidades para socializar y adquirir nuevas experiencias. Hacer la investigación en otras universidades, aprendes mucho y como es el manejo en otras sociedades.”	“Exchange programs with other universities provide opportunities to socialize and acquire new experiences. Doing research in other universities, you learn a lot about how management is handled in other societies.”
S6	“Convenios con universidades internacionales nos ayuda cumplir nuestros objetivos y entender otras realidades.”	“Agreements with international universities help us reach our goals and understand other realities.”

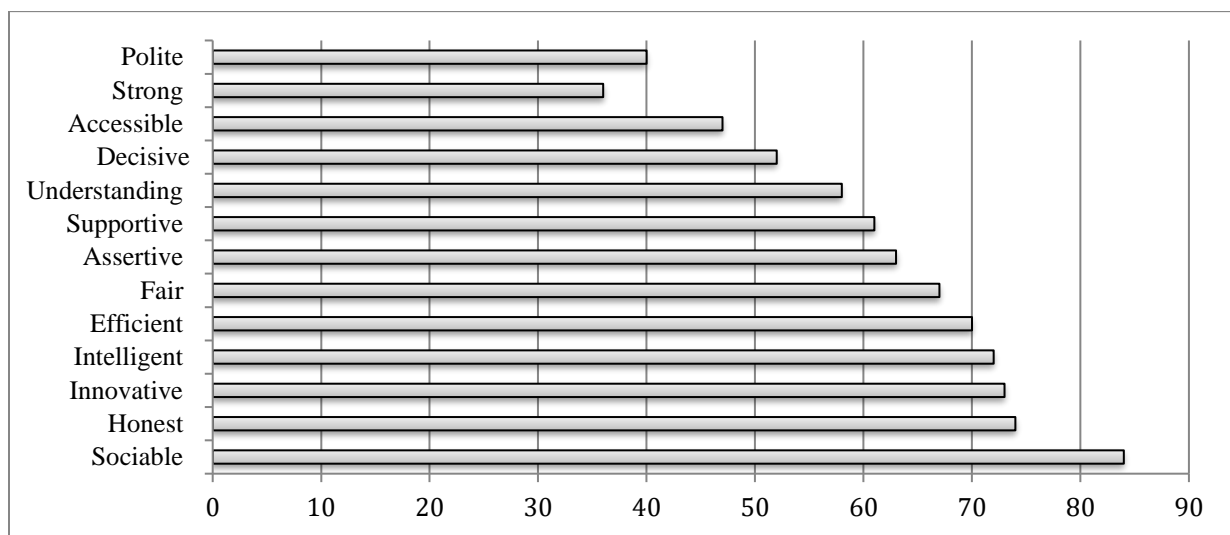
LTM3s think study abroad programs give students a more amplified vision of seeing the scientific world, whereas students view study abroad programs as pathways for conducting research that impact society. Seeing the benefits of international experiences, LTM3s also called for an increase in scholarships and merit-based systems to fund overseas programs in Europe.

Values

The last finding critical to answering research question one is an analysis of the leadership values useful for creating successful cultures in LA universities. The data presented does not provide an exhaustive list of every value deemed important for university leaders but gives an overview of important values mentioned by participants. Results from the student survey (shown below) help lay the foundation for leadership values perceived as effective but

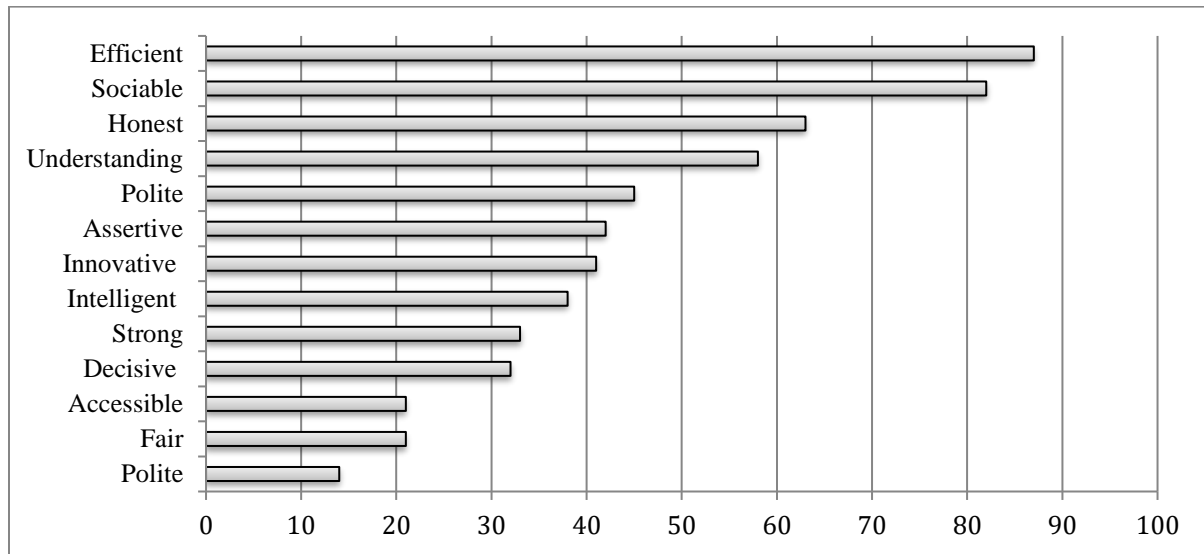
they do not compare to the more important results derived from interviews. Question 1 of the student survey asked students to select leadership values perceived as effective: “Varias personas han usado estos adjetivos para describir el liderazgo en la universidad. En su opinión, elija todas las características que apliquen.” (“Various individuals have used these adjectives to describe university leadership. In your opinion, check all characteristics that apply.”) The investigator analyzed all 153 survey responses and found the following: (Figure 4.2).

Figure 4.2. Characteristics Important for University Leaders



From these results, “sociable” ranks as the only characteristic valued by more than half of the students who participated in the survey. Question 2 on the survey asked students to rank these values: “A continuación, hay una colección de adjetivos que describen un líder efectivo universitario. Elija las cinco características que usted cree que son importantes. (1) representa la característica más relevante. (5) representa la característica menos relevante.” (“Following is a collection of adjectives that describe an effective university leader. Choose your top five characteristics that you believe are important. (1) is the most important characteristic and (5) is the least important.”) Figure 4.3 displays a weighted bar graph:

Figure 4.3. Ranked Characteristics



Overall, these survey findings show students' perspectives about certain leadership values perceived as effective for creating successful cultures but fail to reflect the more in-depth opinions derived from interviews. During interviews, participants summarized the most important leadership values into six categories: integrity, conviction, teamwork, academics, discipline, and creative thinking. They are discussed below.

Integrity

Integrity in the university leader represents the most far-reaching value critical for creating cultures of success. All participants reported integrity, in its various forms, as an indispensable component for leadership. When asked to describe the importance of integrity, participants mentioned the following: (Table 4.21).

Table 4.21

Specific Responses Regarding Integrity in LA Universities

Participant	Spanish Excerpt	English Excerpt
Rector	“Creo que una cuestión fundamental es que se pueda trabajar honestamente. La mejor forma de enseñar y cambiar es con el ejemplo.”	“I think it is essential to work honestly. The best way to teach and change is by setting an example.”
Rector	“La honestidad es la palabra que tendrá que ir en mi lápida. ”	“Honesty is the word that will have to go on my gravestone.”
Rector	“Hay que alinear lo que hago con lo que digo.”	“My words have to be aligned with my actions.”
Rector	“Si el rector es la persona que primero miente, hay una desconfianza en toda la cultura. Tenemos que actuar honestamente y con la mano firme, aunque eso genera anticuerpos.”	“If the rector lies first, there is distrust in the entire organizational culture. We have to act honestly and with firmness, even if it creates enemies.”
LTM1	“Un líder en una universidad debe predicar con el ejemplo.”	“A leader in a university should preach by example.”
LTM1	“Ser auténtico es importante, decir la verdad es importante. Si no obro con el ejemplo, no puedo alcanzar los objetivos.”	“Being authentic and saying the truth are important. If I do not act with my example, I cannot achieve objectives.”
LTM2	“Si ser honesto y no se aprovecha de otros, entonces, esos aspectos están siendo valorados.”	“If someone is honest and does not take advantage of others, these are the aspects we value.”
LTM3	“La honestidad es fundamental, porque como en toda institución hay gente muy deshonesto que predica con corrupción.”	“Honesty is fundamental, because at any institution there are dishonest people who preach with corruption.”
S1	“Yo creo que un líder no es nada sin su gente, si no hay gente, a quien lideras, a nadie. Si está liderando a esa gente, tienes que ser leal a esa gente si no, no existiría el liderazgo.”	“I believe a leader is nothing without his people. If you are leading these people, you have to be loyal, otherwise, leadership would not exist.”
S1	-	“Nowadays it’s pretty important to be honest because we are tired of cheaters and liars.”
S4	“Todo el mundo grita por las cosas justas, que las personas sean honradas.”	“The whole world screams for right things and that people be honest.”
S5	-	“Leaders must be an example so they can call someone out who is wrong. It’s better to teach with actions than words.”

S5	“Tienes que pensar más en tus compañeros que en ti mismo.”	“You have to think more about your colleagues than yourself.”
S6	“Tenemos que decir la verdad. No podemos exagerar lo que se puede decir.”	“We have to tell the truth. We can’t exaggerate what we say.”

University administration highlighted the importance of running fair leadership campaigns by staying clear of coercive behavior and aligning speech with action. For example, university administrators explained that the rector withdraws the exact per diem for travelling expenses to set an example for students, faculty, and staff. Since administrators overuse their per diem, the rector feels this practice inspires others to act with integrity and leads to the development of a more honest university culture. Auxiliary staff believe integrity also leads to greater cohesion, sustainability, and commitment to university goals. Students praised university leaders who maintained transparency in their managerial styles. During one observation, the researcher witnessed the rector’s willingness to remain transparent by sharing financial data about salaries with union representatives.

Humility. Interviews with the rector equated humility with integrity. One example of humility was the rector’s insistence on other leaders using his first name. LTMs in the region viewed this practice as unusual. On the final evening of the second research trip, the rector invited the researcher to dinner. The investigator assumed the meal would be at a high-end restaurant. Instead, the rector invited the researcher to his house for pizza. This food choice showed the rector’s humility. The rector also lives in a modest apartment outside of the downtown area, which reflected his standing in the middle class. Another example of humility was the rector’s journey to the presidency. Growing up in a middle-class home, the rector experienced poverty at a young age. Historically, presidents at the university came from prestigious families with strong government ties. This rector’s father was a taxi driver. The rector

learned English by sitting in the back of his father's cab and conversing with tourists. After becoming rector, he started his five-year run by rejecting bribes from the local press- a huge feat compared to past rectors. During one trip, the rector's chauffer intentionally ran a stop sign, and the rector told the driver never to do this again. These small actions showed a commitment to ethical leadership. The rector also rejected the idea of using his position to obtain future government jobs, "Cuando termino de ser rector, voy a volver a ser profesor." ("When I finish my time as rector, I will return to be a professor.") Although opportunities for higher-paying jobs abounded, the rector remains committed to his humble beginnings. It is possible this type of integrity helped the rector build trust with constituents.

Responsibility. As another form of integrity, interviewees carry a value for responsibility. Forms of responsibility include following through on commitments, coordinating large groups of people, and arriving on time to meetings. Participants define responsibility in the following ways: (Table 4.22).

Table 4.22

Specific Responses Regarding Responsibility in LA Universities

Participant	Spanish Excerpt	English Excerpt
Rector	"Cuando yo comienzo algo, lo tengo que terminar. Nunca dejo nada a medias."	"When I start something, I have to finish it. I never leave anything partially completed."
LTM1	"La gente responsable no puede ser uno que se vaya metiendo en problemas por allí. Tiene que ser alguien respetable y con dignidad."	"Responsible people cannot get into trouble. They have to be someone respectable and with dignity."
LTM3	"La responsabilidad es el cumplimiento de todas las metas y las actividades que te planteas. Hay un correlato con lo que dice una persona."	"Responsibility is the fulfillment of all the goals and activities one proposes. There is correlation in what that person says."
S5	"Ahora, ser un líder es comprometerse académica y políticamente."	"Now being a leader means taking academic and political responsibility."

Conviction

Participants believe the ability to lead with conviction constitutes an additional value for creating cultures of success. The type of conviction valued by participants included authenticity, family/home life, and empathy/tolerance. When asked to describe conviction-based leadership, participants mentioned the following: (Table 4.23).

Table 4.23

Specific Responses Regarding Conviction-Based Leadership in LA Universities

Participant	Spanish Excerpt	English Excerpt
Rector	“Se pueden hacer muchas cosas si es que hay la voluntad y la convicción. Aquí las cosas se hacen por obligación, no por convicción.”	“You can accomplish many things if there are will and conviction. Many times things are done here by obligation and not conviction.”
Rector	“Uno no trata de cambiar las cosas. Es tal y cual como es.”	“You shouldn’t try to change things. You are who you are.”
Rector	“Yo soy muy perseverante. Desde joven, mi madre me enseñó a ser perseverante.”	“I persevere. Since I was young, my mom taught me to be perseverant.”
LTM1	“Tengo que decir las cosas tal cual son, aunque puede costarme mucho decir eso.”	“I have to say things as they are, even though it comes at a great cost.”
LTM1	“Es muy delicado el rol que tiene la universidad. Tiene que formar líderes que tengan valores éticos.”	“The role of the university is very delicate. You have to train leaders who have ethical values.”
LTM1	“El éxito significa que te has realizado como persona, como esposo, hijo, amigo, abuelo, y padre. Todo eso, es éxito.”	“Success means you experienced personal fulfillment, as a husband, a son, a friend, a grandfather, and father. All of this is success.”
LTM2	“Indudablemente, yo creo que uno se mantiene con sus valores. No es una formación del entero sino de familia.”	“Undoubtedly, I believe one has to stay within one’s values. Formation does not come from those who surround you but from family.”
LTM3	“Este mundo es muy diverso, y todo tipo de dogmatismo y escepticismo hace daño.”	“The world is very diverse, and every type of dogmatism and skepticism hurts.”
LTM3	“La gente busca un modelo, un referente que guarde los valores básicos de tolerancia y respeto.”	“People look for a model, one who keeps basic values of tolerance and respect.”
S1	-	“If a leader has enough courage, we will follow them.”

S2	“Los líderes respetan la opinión de los demás y consideran la opinión de los demás.”	“Leaders respect the opinion of others and consider the opinion of others.”
S2	“Un líder es aquel que sea una persona ética, moral, una persona empática que pueda sentir a través de otros.”	“A leader is a person who has ethical and moral values, an empathetic person who can feel what others feel.”
S4	“También, considero importante la parte de la ética moral, porque en América Latina creo que estamos dificultando.”	“I also consider morality and ethics to be an important part of leadership, because in Latin America we have difficulties in this area.”
S5	“Les diría a mis autoridades que no se olviden de dónde venimos.”	“I would tell my authorities to not forget where they came from.”

Authenticity. Respondents render authenticity as a primary type of conviction. Students postulate authenticity as the ability to avoid hypocrisy and maintain a realistic knowledge of one’s ability to lead. Interviews showed that more than experience, students value committed leaders willing to stand up for their beliefs. Students described this type of behavior as possessing “sincerity,” and stressed avoiding duplicitous speech by following through on commitments. LTMs believe authenticity means staying true to one’s values and being motivated by a sense of fulfillment in the workplace.

Family and home life. Participants indicated that maintaining a close connection to family and home life constitutes another dimension of conviction-based leadership. LTMs provided personal narratives about family members who raised them with values such as punctuality, respect, perseverance, and self-confidence. At the end of his life, LTM1 wanted others to remember him as someone who loved his family well. LTM2 stated, “Sobre todo, elegiría paz a mis hijas, amor a la familia.” (“Above all else, I would choose peace for my daughters and love for my family.”) Speaking about the family nucleus and preserving one’s roots, LTM3 lamented not having enough time to strengthen bonds with his wife and children.

Empathy and tolerance. Empathy and tolerance represent two more components of conviction-based leadership. Students praised leaders willing to descend hierarchical ladders to

relate with those of lower status. Tolerance meant holding an unbiased attitude, listening carefully to both sides of an argument, and connecting with multiple ethnicities on campus. S2 believes tolerance is the key to unlocking respect, winning trust, and reducing skepticism toward others. Administration and students also feel leaders should pursue new ideas, new opportunities, and new challenges that create new solutions. Overall, interviewees see conviction-based leadership as a solution to the “power = corruption” mindset in LA culture and believe those who lead with conviction create environments of mutual respect.

Teamwork

Participants perceive teamwork an additional key value for successful cultures. Table 4.24 provides an overview of responses related to teamwork.

Table 4.24

Specific Responses Regarding Teamwork in LA Universities

Participant	Spanish Excerpt	English Excerpt
Rector	“Hay que resolver los problemas en forma conjunta. Solo una persona no puede, tiene que haber un equipo.”	“You have to solve problems by working together. One person cannot do it alone, there has to be a team.”
LTM1	“Nosotros hemos hecho un equipo, una colaboración. Hay una cohesión entre nosotros, y somos uno.”	“We have made the team, we collaborate. There is cohesion between us, and we are one.”
LTM3	-	“We need to create strategic alliances with other universities to solve problems. I’m working with other vice rectors to solve some of the problems we share.”
S2	“El líder necesita a otras personas para que puedan ayudarlo en su trabajo. No es solo el líder, sino el trabajo en grupo.”	“The leader needs to have other people to help them in their work. It’s not just the leader but group work.”
S2	“Tiene que saber trabajar en grupo.”	“One must be able to work in groups.”
S4	“Finalmente, trabajar en equipo. Tenemos que saber trabajar en equipo.”	“Finally, work on a team. We have to know how to work on a team.”

LTM3 believes teamwork leads to improved planning and execution of goals. LTM2 thinks new teaching and modeling strategies in primary schools will lead to a more collaborative culture in higher education. LTM3 shared an example of leaders from various public colleges in LA coming together to discuss resolutions for boosting student engagement. Students also expressed a desire to see university leadership increase partnerships with student organizations and socialize with students at university-wide events. During one interview, I talked with the university leadership team together about teamwork. All four members mentioned the importance of creating a unified vision to mobilize action.

Academics

Respondents also believe successful leadership cultures are closely linked to academics. When asked to describe the importance of academics, participants mentioned the following: (Table 4.25).

Table 4.25

Specific Responses Regarding Academics in LA Universities

Participant	Spanish Excerpt	English Excerpt
Rector	“He estudiado en América Latina y en Europa.”	“I have studied in Latin America and completed degrees in Europe.”
Rector	“Siempre paro ordenado que hagan cualquier cosa para atender a los jóvenes. El estudiante es la razón de ser de la universidad.”	“I always give orders to take care of students. Students are the reason the university exists.”
LTM1	“En nuestra educación actual, la investigación es fundamental para desarrollar el país.”	“In our current educational system, research is fundamental to the development of the country.”
LTM1	“Tiene que predicar con el ejemplo. He hecho investigación. Hago investigación.”	“You have to preach by example. I have done research. I do research.”
LTM2	“Tenemos que tener una visión panorámica respecto a lo que es la educación y valorar el conocimiento.”	“We have to have a panoramic view of what education is and value knowledge.”

LTM2	“Tenemos que siempre estar involucrados en la parte académica de la investigación.”	“We have to always be involved in the academic part of research.”
LTM3	“Ser autoridad significa el saber, tener el conocimiento sobre el tema.”	“Being an authority means having the knowledge of a subject.”
S2	“Un líder tiene que tener conocimiento sobre el tema de lo que se está trabajando.”	“A leader must have knowledge of the subject he/she is working on.”

In all interviews, respondents shared the importance of championing academics over political aspirations and view the primary goal of an institution as the responsibility to intellectually develop its students. Leaders motivated by academics were more willing to develop initiatives for improving the university. Bringing knowledge about the subject matter and a belief in the power of academics to create positive change represent important criteria for students voting for or against a leader during election season. Overall, participants view academically minded leaders as those capable of improving equality in society. LTM1 commented, “La educación es fundamental, fundamental para que estemos en el mismo nivel.” (“Education is fundamental, fundamental for all of us to be on the same level.”)

Discipline

Administration and students view discipline as a fifth category important for university leaders. Participants commented on discipline in these forms: perseverance, dedication, openness, persistence, courage, confidence, and commitment. LTM1 views himself as a hardworking and disciplined leader, “Soy bastante disciplinado, y yo estoy siempre atendiendo las cosas.” (“I am very disciplined and always take care of things.”) Growing up in an extremely low-income family, LTM2 shared how he taught himself to read and created his own pathway to higher education, “Desde muy bajo he subido hasta aquí para poder ocupar estos importantes cargos.” (“I climbed from very low to be able to occupy this important position.”) Students

believe leaders with a value for discipline are more courageous, assertive, and trustworthy in their leadership approach.

Creative Thinking

Lastly, participants value the leader's ability to think creatively and provide solutions to current issues in LA higher education. LTMs discussed new creative ideas: tailoring entrance exams to meet the needs of incoming students, developing incentive programs to keep high-performing students, and tutoring for lower-performing students. LTMs also recognized the problems associated with creating homogenous tests for all students that frame questions in a way which benefits higher-income students. LTM1 commented, "Las pruebas de ingreso a la universidad tienen que basarse en conocer cuál es el perfil de los estudiantes de zonas rurales." ("The entrance exams need to be based on the profile of the students from rural areas.") LTMs aspire to create new tutoring programs that will empower all student groups. LTMs believe programs like these will boost student retention and decrease pedagogical gaps in learning. LTMs also considered ways to keep high-performing students at the university post-graduation. One concern of study abroad programs is that students never return to their country of origin to work. LTM1 commented, "Los que tienen maestrías o doctorados de nuestro país están siendo contratados ahora, porque esos son los que van a darle mayor velocidad a los cambios que hay que superar." ("The students who have masters and doctorate degrees from our country are now being hired because they can speed up the changes that must be overcome."). Participants also mentioned the importance of hiring new staff in the counseling department. Many students experience high levels of stress and need more mental health care.

Summary

In summation, my findings reveal various insights for answering research question one. Establishing successful leadership cultures in LA universities require leaders to have an

understanding of culturally contingent principles such as “dar la vuelta a la ley,” bureaucratic preferences, “el principio de autoridad,” individualism, and the search for identity. Of these, “dar la vuelta a la ley” impacts every other culturally contingent principle. Without an awareness of a culture built on working around the law, it is difficult to understand other leadership patterns. In addition, participants believe successful leaders recognize the university’s potential to create positive change through developing local communities and personal character. Student-driven environmental projects help lay the foundation for local economies, while study-abroad programs help students obtain a more amplified view of the world. Finally, participants believe certain leadership values are more critical to success than others. These values include: integrity, conviction, teamwork, academics, discipline, and creative thinking. All these findings combine to answer research question one. Research question number two is addressed in the following section.

Actions of the Rector

The second research question from the study was: What actions are needed to fulfill the role of rector at a national university in Latin America? The researcher made the decision to highlight the most frequent actions mentioned by participants. Question 18 on the student survey asked: “El rector tiene la capacidad de impactar positivamente la educación superior en una región.” (“The rector has the ability to positively impact higher education in the region.”) (Table 4.26).

Table 4.26

Responses to Survey Question 18

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Undecided
Students	37	79	15	2	20
Percentage	24.2%	51.6%	9.8%	1.3%	13.1%

These results emphasize the crucial role of the rector in creating change. Students and administrators believe the future prosperity of the institution hinges largely upon the rector's ability to orient action toward change. Daily actions of the rector disclosed by participants and discussed in this section include: administrative actions, academic actions, community actions, and strategic actions.

Administrative Actions

According to respondents, fulfilling administrative duties represents the most time-consuming part of the rector role. Below is a summary of administrative actions mentioned by participants: (Table 4.27).

Table 4.27

Administrative Actions

Administrative Actions
1. Enforcing the law
2. Delegating tasks
3. Communicating with faculty and students
4. Promoting debate
5. Accreditation and quality enhancement
6. Overseeing the budget

Enforcing the law. Respondents hoped for the development of leaders who enforce the law. The rector commented, “Una de las principales funciones y responsabilidades que tiene el rector es hacer cumplir la ley.” (“One of the main functions and responsibilities of the rector is to enforce the law.”) The rector also stated, “En mi caso, trato de estar siempre pegado a la norma. Si actuamos dentro del marco de la ley no habría muchos problemas.” (“I try to always be on the side of the law. If we act within the framework of the law, there would not be so many problems.”). Students view the rector as the primary authority responsible for upholding the law and directing others to do the same. LTM2 thought, “Estamos en la admisión pública y es hacer

cumplir la ley.” (“In public admissions, everything must be done according to the law.”)

Complying with the law enabled LTMs to maintain a fair and balanced perspective when handling complex lawsuits against the university.

Delegating tasks. Delegating tasks represents another responsibility of the rector. S4 commented, “Líderes tienen que saber descender y saber guiar.” (“Leaders have to know how to descend the ladder and guide others.”) During a meeting with municipality officials, the rector delegated actions to those present and established deadlines for completing tasks. The rector asked members of the group to provide progress reports before the next meeting. While on a business trip, the rector delegated control of university decisions to one of the members of the leadership team. This nominated official worked in the central administration building in the rector’s absence. The researcher also observed this appointed official sitting to the right of the rector at all meetings. Following meetings, the rector would speak with this representative about follow-up tasks. Tasks included advancing the university’s infrastructure, increasing globalization, establishing more study-abroad programs, and looking after university facilities, such as dining halls, libraries, and technology centers.

Communicating with faculty and students. Excellent and constant communication with faculty and students represent other responsibilities of the rector. LTM3 believes clear communication lines are essential for all members of the university community, especially when making enrollment decisions. Students believe frequent communication with university leaders helps reduce confusion and increases clarity about university initiatives.

Promoting debate. Insight from students reveals that an auxiliary administrative action of the rector is managing highly politicized environments through promoting debate. S3 concluded, “Donde existe debate, hay mejores soluciones.” (“Where there is debate, there are

better solutions.”) S3 believes promoting debate among students and faculty leads to increased communication from within the university. This type of communication requires consistent leadership to create opportunities for open dialogue.

Accreditation and quality enhancement. Case study participants revealed a sixth important administrative action of the rector is to seek out accreditation and increase quality enhancement. The rector mentioned, “Para mi el mayor reto es la acreditación. Si espero que ellos la hagan, de repente nunca la hacemos.” (“The greatest challenge I have is the accreditation. If I wait for others to do it, it will probably never happen.”) Talking about the administrative tasks associated with evaluation, the rector noted, “Hay que evaluar, comenzando por los profesores. A los profesores no les gusta que se evalué, pero hay que evaluar. Los concursos también tienen que ser los más transparentes posibles.” (“You have to evaluate, starting with the professors. They don’t like evaluation, but you have to do it. Evaluation processes also have to be as transparent as possible.”) A new software program at the university enables the rector to increase evaluation as the institution progresses toward providing additional compensation for faculty who meet quality standards. The rector noted, “Acreditamos las escuelas profesionales y dar un monto adicional. (“We accredit professional schools and offer additional financial incentives.”) According to respondents, rewarding performance increases accountability and encourages excellence in teaching. Overall, participants believe quality enhancement and accreditation create new expectations for professors, provide a platform for corrective action, and help the university identify weaknesses and appropriate remedies.

Overseeing the budget. A final function of the rector is managing the budget, including distributing individual budgets of departments on campus and creating a master budget for each calendar year. In partnership with other administrative leaders, the rector allocates funds for a

variety of university services on a monthly basis. The rector also works closely with faculty and staff to spend all funds given by the federal government. Table 4.28 provides a summary of responses regarding budget oversight.

Table 4.28

Specific Responses Regarding Budget Spending in LA Universities

Participant	Spanish Excerpt	English Excerpt
Rector	“Antes, la ejecución del presupuesto era menos del 50%. El año pasado había una meta de 70%, y nosotros llegamos a 77.7%. Este año la meta es 85%, y lo tenemos que alcanzar.”	“Before, the overall use of the budget was less than 50%. Last year there was a goal of 70%, and we reached 77.7%. This year the goal is 85%, and we have to reach it.”
Rector	“Primero es la ejecución presupuestal que tiene la universidad, que tiene que ver con los servicios que prestamos.”	“The most important result is the execution of the budget, which has to do with the services we provide.”
Rector	“La primera preocupación que tengo es ejecutar el presupuesto.”	“The first concern I have is the execution of the budget.”
LTM3	“Hemos visitado a cada facultad a recoger las necesidades que tienen, y luego plantearles el presupuesto que tenemos.”	“We visit each faculty, collect their needs, and later share the budget we have.”
S3	“Necesitamos urgente elevar el presupuesto de la educación. El presupuesto nacional para nuestra universidad es 3.7%, y debe ser por lo menos 6%.”	“We urgently need to raise the budget for education. Our national budget is 3.7% and it should be at least 6%.”
S4	“Líderes deben estar preparado para manejar la parte económica de la universidad. Hay un presupuesto que está destinado, y eso se tiene que terminar de usar en lo posible hasta el último centavo.”	“Leaders must be prepared to handle the economic part of the university. There is a designated budget that should be used as much as possible to the last cent.”

Academic Actions

Continuing to answer research question two, academic responsibilities represented actions required to fulfill the role of rector at a national university. Participants called special attention to the significance of addressing students’ academic needs. Table 4.29 provides a summary of these responses.

Table 4.29

Specific Responses about Addressing Students' Academic Needs

Participant	Spanish Excerpt	English Excerpt
Rector	“El estudiante es la razón de ser de la Universidad. El resto estamos para coadyuvar a su formación.”	“The student is the reason the university exists. The rest of us are here to contribute to their formation.”
S2	“Un líder tiene que ser capaz de afrontar la problemática de los estudiantes.”	“A leader has to be able to face student problems.”
S4	“Lamentablemente, se ve que algunas autoridades no están comprometidas con los estudiantes o con la institución. Están comprometidos con sus bolsillos.”	“Unfortunately, some authorities are not committed to students or the institution. They are committed to their pockets.”
S5	“El rector es como el padre del hogar. Aquella persona protege, resguarda, y está al pendiente de muchas cosas.”	“The rector is like the father of the home. He is the person that protects, takes care of, and sees how things are going.”

Interestingly, multiple students viewed the rector as a father figure whose primary purpose was to look out for students. The rector of this particular university hosts regular meetings with students to understand their unique needs. Results from Question 23 on the survey confirm the responsibility of the rector to address students' opinions “Escuchar las opiniones de los estudiantes es una de las responsabilidades del rector.” (“Listening to the opinions of students is one of the responsibilities of the rector.”) (Table 4.30).

Table 4.30

Responses to Survey Question 23

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Undecided
Students	74	64	5	2	8
Percentage	48.4%	41.8%	3.3%	1.3%	5.2%

Students presume the rector's role extends beyond just listening to their opinions to holistic student development. One student believes the rector should help students develop the necessary skills for success in the global market, create bridges with businesses, and provide advice for life

after college. Respondents also talked about the rector's role in promoting research to boost the university's profile. S2 postulated guiding faculty toward research in their field should represent a primary action of the rector. The rector also discussed the importance of providing resources for faculty to conduct original research and publish their findings. Setting an example in research, the rector recently published two articles in science and engineering. In this study, respondents felt the university president should have the responsibility for providing feedback to faculty. Professors who sought regular mentorship from LTMs were more satisfied with their jobs. Overall, university leadership believes regular faculty assessment is necessary for creating cultures of continual improvement.

Community Actions

Research showed that community actions are also important for the rector's success at the university. An observation of the rector with representatives of the municipality revealed the positive outcomes of close ties between the university and the community. During the observation, participants created a proposal for a city-wide parade honoring various publishers in the country. The support of university faculty and community members made the event a huge success. Students, too, see the positive effects of close bonds between the university and community (Question 24): "El rector debe colaborar con la comunidad y los líderes gubernamentales para impulsar el perfil de la institución." ("The rector should collaborate with the surrounding community and government leaders to boost the profile of the institution.") (Table 4.31).

Table 4.31

Responses to Survey Question 24

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Undecided
Students	54	79	3	1	16
Percentage	35.3%	51.6%	2%	0.7%	10.5%

LTM2s view community action as understanding the unique customs and traditions of local societies and generating technologies that support communal needs (parks, bridges, neighborhoods). LTM2 provided an example of the rector participating in a debate with community members about the construction of a new airport. Some residents believed the new construction would increase traffic and crime, while others viewed the project a turning point in the city's recession. The rector participated in these debates and voiced his opinions about the positive and negative effects of the airport's construction. In a similar way, students petitioned the rector to lobby with state representatives to increase the flow of money between the federal government and the university. One student hoped to strengthen partnerships with other universities around the world and create more international internships. S3 summarized students' passions for working with community leaders, "Toda la universidad debe estar comprometida con las comunidades aledañas a la universidad, porque en nuestra universidad hay futuros enfermeros, médicos, abogados, ingenieros, y arquitectos que van a contribuir a la sociedad." ("The entire university must be committed to communities surrounding the university because there are future doctors, lawyers, engineers, and architects that will contribute to society.") Finally, respondents mentioned the rector's role in serving as the face of the university to the public through participating in interviews and serving as a legal representative. S1 announced, "The rector is our representative to the community, the face of our faculty and students."

Strategic Actions

A final aspect of the rector's role discovered in the research was strategic actions. Participants believe the complexities associated with higher education in LA require university leaders to act strategically. Respondents think the ability to act strategically leads to an increase in employee morale, productivity, and commitment to the university. Survey respondents deem casting vision an important part of strategic action. Question 19 stated: "La capacidad de movilizar a personas para apoyar una visión es una característica importante para el rector." ("The ability to mobilize others to support a vision is an important characteristic for the rector.") (Table 4.32).

Table 4.32

Responses to Survey Question 19

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Undecided
Students	23	87	13	1	29
Percentage	15%	56.9%	8.5%	0.7%	19%

Keeping with these results, LTM1 sustained, "La visión es fundamental. Es lo que quiero que sea mi universidad en 5, 10, o 20 años." ("Vision is fundamental. It represents what I want the university to be in 5, 10, or 20 years.") Students hold the view that a leader with a clear and compelling vision can help solve parts of corruption in LA higher education. LTM2 supposed that true leadership hinges upon the leader's ability to inspire and mobilize followers toward sustainable solutions. For LTM3, a compelling vision incorporates three essential components: strategic goals, indicators for goals, and evaluation of goals. According to students, goal attainment signifies the actualization of the university's vision. Respondents also challenged university leaders to think beyond the status quo and imagine new ideas to liberate the university from old ways of thinking. Survey responses confirmed the rector's role in goal setting: "El

diseño de metas y cumplimiento de metas es esencial para el rector. (“Designing goals and meeting goals is essential for the rector.”) (Table 4.33).

Table 4.33

Responses to Survey Question 20

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Undecided
Students	43	81	9	0	20
Percentage	28.1%	52.9%	5.9%	0%	13.1%

Respondents believe that the rector should work closely with other university leaders to develop a strategic plan for the university. Survey results on Question 21 reinforced this idea: “Desarrollar un plan estratégico es una de las principales responsabilidades del rector.” (“Developing a strategic plan is one of the primary responsibilities of the rector.”) (Table 4.34).

Table 4.34

Responses to Survey Question 21

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Undecided
Students	45	78	8	1	21
Percentage	29.4%	51%	5.2%	0.7%	13.7%

The rector explained, “Un plan estratégico que es multianual no solamente para un año sino para 3 años. El que estamos haciendo ahora es para el 2018, 2019, y 2020.” (“The strategic plan has to be designed not only for one year but three. The plan we are looking at now is for 2018, 2019, and 2020.”) According to research, keeping the strategic plan visible to faculty and students is essential for advancement because it enables members of the university community to have greater clarity about the future of the university.

Lastly, participants believe problem solving is an important part of the rector’s ability to act strategically. During observations, the researcher contemplated the academic and administrative expertise needed to solve issues related to LA higher education. Over the course

of the study, the investigator witnessed the rector dialogue with students and faculty in a cordial manner and handle problems in a timely manner. Question 5 on the survey highlighted the need to have a level of emotional maturity: “El rector debe tener la capacidad de ser flexible cuando se enfrenta a situaciones difíciles.” (“The rector should have the ability to be flexible when confronting stressful situations.”) (Table 4.35).

Table 4.35

Responses to Survey Question 22

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Undecided
Students	42	75	11	1	32
Percentage	22.2%	49%	7.2%	0.7%	20.9%

A Special Note on Sacrifice

One surprising finding from the research was that sacrifice represented an essential component of the rector’s role. Reflecting on the responsibilities of leading an institution, the rector talked about sacrifice. He grieved the amount of time he could not spend with his family: “Mi esposa es la que más sufre. Tiene medicación permanente porque es ansiosa cuando la deajo en mi casa gran parte sola. Ella solo está tranquila cuando yo estoy ahí. El compromiso no nos permite estar con ella.” (“My wife is the one who suffers the most. She has permanent medication due to the anxiety of being alone at the house. She is only calm when I’m there. This job does not allow me to be with her.”) While sharing a meal with the rector’s family, the researcher learned about the wife’s anxious feelings about going outside because of past crimes committed against former rectors’ wives. A close friend of the wife once told her, “You won’t see your husband in five years.” The sacrifice of not seeing his wife, coupled with other challenges, made the job overbearing at times. During one interview, the rector broke down

expressing the price paid to be a rector. Still, he viewed his position as an opportunity to create positive change in LA higher education.

Summary

In summation, findings reveal multiple elements that help answer the research questions: (1) What elements comprise a successful university leadership culture in Latin America? (2) What are the actions required to fulfill the role of rector at a national university in Latin America? When answering the first research question, the investigator found that an understanding of culturally contingent principles such as “dar la vuelta a la ley,” bureaucratic preferences, “el principio de autoridad,” individualism, and the search for identity create the foundation for establishing successful leadership cultures. In addition, an awareness of the university’s potential to create positive change and values such as integrity, conviction, teamwork, academics, discipline, and creative thinking contribute to future success. When answering research question two, academic, administrative, communal, and strategic responsibilities filled the rector’s schedule. All of these findings represent the subconscious, taken for granted beliefs, thoughts, and feelings illuminating the way leaders made decisions in LA universities (Schein, 1992). What follows is a discussion of the findings and implications for higher education leaders in LA.

CHAPTER V: Conclusion

Introduction

This study sought to answer two research questions: (1) What elements comprise a successful university leadership culture in Latin America? (2) What are the actions required to fulfill the role of rector at a national university in Latin America? The researcher wanted to discover the unique challenges associated with higher education in Latin America (LA) and highlight behaviors perceived as effective to achieve success. These findings can aid leaders in higher education to develop a clearer perspective of leadership attributes valued in one region of LA and the actions required to fulfill the role of rector at national universities. This chapter provides a discussion of findings from this research, connects findings to previous literature, and provides observations for LA higher education leaders.

Discussion of Findings

Findings from the study confirmed existing scholarship regarding cross-cultural leadership principles (House, 2004; Hofstede, 2001). Research affirms the models of these scholars by reaffirming the uniqueness of LA leadership styles compared to other parts of the world and the need for leaders in higher education who can effectively lead people within a LA cultural context (Castano et al., 2015). Respondents from the study also agree that societal values and societal practices influence people's shared beliefs about leaders and that countries with similar values have similar perceptions of what constitutes effective leadership (Castano et al., 2012). Overall, participants expressed a desire to see change in the shared schemas emphasized by LA culture and value systems that have become indigenous to leadership. Responding to these shared schemas lays the foundation for what participants believe creates successful leadership cultures in LA universities.

A New Conceptual Framework

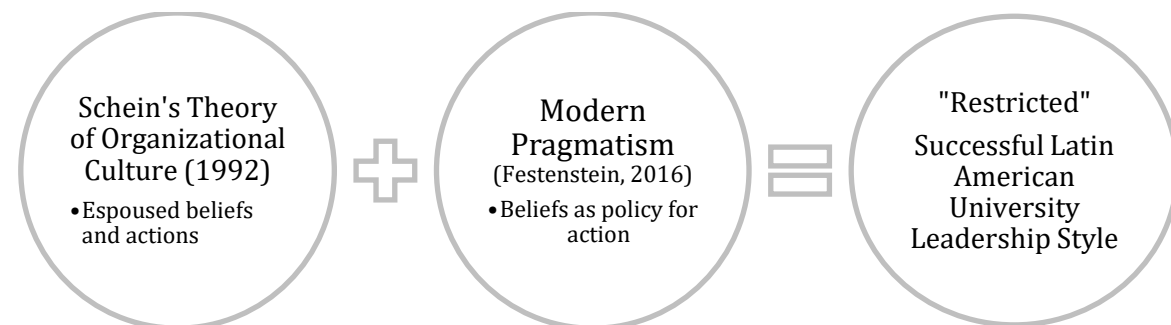
During data analysis, a consensus began to emerge surrounding the elements that impact leadership culture in LA universities. Originally, the researcher posited that the combination of Schein's Theory of Organizational Culture (1992) and Pragmatic Theory of Truth (2016) would result in an in-depth understanding of the elements that comprise successful leadership cultures in LA universities. The conceptual framework guiding the study presented in chapter one indicated: (Figure 5.1).

Figure 5.1. Original Conceptual Framework



After using these two theories to interpret results, the researcher found this equation to be inaccurate. Findings show that the combination of Schein's Theory of Organizational Culture and Pragmatic Theory of Truth lead to an understanding of the behaviors critical for success, but these behaviors cannot be fully embraced due to the restrictions placed on leaders by culture. A more accurate diagram might be: (Figure 5.2).

Figure 5.2. New Conceptual Framework



Drawing special attention to one of Schein's (1992) characteristics for organizational cultures, "espoused beliefs and actions," the study reveals strategies, goals, philosophies, and justifications of LA society that are inherent to university leadership. What the researcher failed to account for was how culture limits the leader's ability to embrace behaviors critical for success. Leaders were unable to fulfill their own "espoused beliefs and actions," due to the prioritization of culture's influence on behavior. In the researcher's opinion, most participants in the study have an awareness of the goals, objectives, and values that would bring about positive reform in LA higher education, but critical components of LA culture generate more questions than answers. Through combining Schein's Theory and Pragmatic Theory to understand the behaviors of LA university leaders, the researcher began to make sense of how cultural restrictions lead to contradiction. While these subgroups want progress, culture causes these groups to contradict values with behavior. A discussion of the restrictions created by culture and resulting contradictions is provided below. This analysis also helps to answer research question one.

Dar la Vuelta a La Ley vs. Ethics-Based Management

Perhaps the most far-reaching restriction created by culture is "dar la vuelta a la ley." This restriction results in leaders taking means to subvert the law while simultaneously desiring to see an increase in ethical leadership. LA culture encourages administrators, faculty, and students to subvert the law and engage in "dar la vuelta a la ley." Administrators participate in illegal strikes, request raises outside of their contracts, receive favors from local governments, and violate university procedures. Professors oppose evaluation, obtain false degrees, contract outside of the law, arrive late to class, and provide favors to students. Students engage in strikes, illegally capture photographs for exams, and overstep university boundaries. Stolen resources from education budgets means overcrowded classrooms, outdated facilities, and old teaching

materials. Students purchase grades. Faculty buy degrees. Administrators hire family members. Local and national government leaders set the culture of working around the law. As one university leader noted, “All the candidates and current president are involved in acts of corruption.” Those looking to shift culture through principled-based leadership are faced with the constant pressures of a society bent on working around the law. In LA higher education, it is difficult to consider moving the university forward when various members of academia take advantage of the precepts authorities have set in place. Every action, every decision, and every conversation is impacted by the idea that ignoring the law might help one get ahead. In the researcher’s opinion, participants from the study fail to recognize how they fuel this culture. Instead of taking personal responsibility, these administrators and students criticize other subgroups for the lack of progress. Students blame LTMs and the rector. LTMs blame students and the rector. This “blame game” creates a system built on faultfinding and contradiction. One participant stated, “Everybody criticizes, but no one proposes a unified solution.” This finding supports the pervasive sense of impunity evident in LA higher education (Ungar, 2013).

Contrast this reality with a desire to see an increase in ethics-based leadership. The same subgroups that subvert the law to get ahead, hope for the development of ethical individuals who work for the common good of the university. Time and time again, participants aspired to see a universal set of values affect the way leaders make decisions in the university. In this study, the set of values included an emphasis on integrity, conviction, teamwork, academics, discipline, and creative thinking. As the most far-reaching value, “integrity” meant leading with honesty, responsibility, and humility. One participant noted, “Nowadays it’s pretty important to be honest because we are tired of cheaters and liars.” Findings show that students are more likely to follow university leaders who respect others, show integrity in various forms, and act unselfishly toward

subordinates. According to students, earning the admiration of one's peers begins with leading by example and developing environments of trust, fairness, openness, and compassion. Students, administrators, and the rector all believe ethical leadership contributes to a more positive working environment leading to better communication and increased productivity. Personal development, teamwork, and achieving the goal of the organization all increase through ethical leadership. In this study, ethics-based leadership also led faculty and administration to have more job satisfaction and commitment to the university's vision. Leaders who cared for followers set higher standards which led to higher self-efficacy and stronger leader-follower relationships. This in turn motivated followers to refrain from unethical behavior. Finally, followers were more likely to report wrongdoings because ethical leaders created more psychologically safe environments. According to respondents, uniform sets of values help the country move forward by creating environments of respect and equal opportunity.

Despite all these benefits, participants contradicted belief with action. The same students who called for environments of trust and fairness created protests and undertook means to subvert the law. The same administrators who opposed evaluation, obtained false degrees, and arrived late to class called for environments of respect, integrity, and humility. This contradiction created by a culture emphasizing “dar la vuelta a la ley” cannot be underestimated. Excerpts from students and LTMs help summarize this tension: (Table 5.1).

Table 5.1

Specific Responses Regarding Dar la Vuelta a la Ley vs. Ethics-Based Leadership

Participant	Dar la Vuelta a la Ley	Ethics-Based Leadership
LTM1	“Administration has been on strike for a month, so the administrative part is not working.”	“Being authentic and telling the truth is important. If I don’t act with my example, I cannot achieve objectives.”
LTM2	“We betray the law. The good leader is the one that betrays the law.”	“If someone is honest and does not take advantage of others, these are the

		aspects we value. Undoubtedly, one has to stay within his values.”
LTM3	“If you study the university, you will find seven families in power.”	“Honesty is fundamental because at any institution there are dishonest people who preach with corruption.”
S1	“Putting chairs and tables in front of the door is not what we want, but it’s the best option to solve difficult problems. As a student, the only option we have is to strike.”	“The whole world screams for right things and that people be honest. If a leader has enough courage, we will follow them.”
S2	“We are a university where we need to strike in order to make ourselves noticeable.”	“A leader is a person who has ethical and moral values, an empathetic person who can feel what others feel.”

The Individual vs. Teamwork

Another restriction created by LA culture is the importance of the individual over the group. Pragmatic Theory helps to make deeper sense of this idea. To review, pragmatism focuses on the practical consequences of an action, in other words, the difference an action makes in human experience. By emphasizing “what works,” pragmatism assumes that people should behave not according to what they think should be done but based on what is practical. In this study, all subgroups participated in pragmatism by believing in what works. The difference is LA culture causes a shift toward what works for the individual. Participants were willing to discuss reconciliation only to the extent it positively affected their own lives (Hofstede, 2001). Once decisions negatively impacted an individual, criticism abounded. This paradox caused the researcher to believe that while progress is necessary, LA culture only welcomes progress to the extent it benefits the individual. If a new initiative, plan, or idea negatively influenced the individual, change was opposed. Conversely, if a new policy made life easier or more positive for the individual, the policy was widely accepted. One participant summarized the paradox this way, “Within the university, everyone is looking to save their own skin.”

On the opposite side of individualism, participants simultaneously expressed a desire to collaborate. The long history of “strong-arm” leaders in the region caused certain respondents to hope for the development of a more team-oriented culture. Participants believe effective teamwork helps increase institutional performance, student retention, and graduation rates, and leads to healthy conflict resolution, problem-solving, group brainstorming, improved listening skills, more diverse perspectives, increased accountability, and an established identity. Participants mentioned the positive results from team-oriented projects that increased engagement and led to improved outcomes and ideas. Students, in particular, enjoyed working on projects with their peers and felt teamwork helped to breakdown complex tasks into smaller steps. Participants also thought leaders who arrived on time and delivered on commitments built overall trust and increased collaboration. Results from the survey also showed that students valued loyalty to the group over expressing one’s individuality and believed that people and organizations need one another.

The tension created by a culture that emphasizes individuality while simultaneously embracing teamwork is unique. While administrators believe cohesion helps to improve the planning and execution of university goals, and students perceive effective leaders as those who understand collaboration, these subgroups still permit culture to influence their decisions. When faced with a major decision, administrators and students deferred to what benefited the individual. The individualistic influences of LA culture were strong to overcome. Excerpts below help summarize this paradox: (Table 5.2).

Table 5.2

Specific Responses Regarding Individualism vs. Teamwork

Participant	Individualism	Teamwork
LTM1	“In our culture and training, we are individualists.”	“We have made the team, we collaborate. There is cohesion between us, and we are one.”
LTM2	“I have climbed from a very low place to occupy the second most important position in the region. I have shown others it can be done.”	“There is no such thing as teamwork.”
LTM3	“We have personal interests that are not in line with institutional policies.”	“We need to create strategic alliances with other universities to solve problems.”
S4	“We seek our interests more than those of others.”	“Finally, work on a team. We have to know how to work on a team.”

Leadership Hierarchies vs. Decreasing Leader-Follower Gaps

A final restriction created by LA culture worth discussing relates to leadership hierarchies and leader-follower gaps. Linked to “el principio de autoridad,” all participants discussed the hierarchical structures created by a culture that places a high value on those in positions of authority. The “mano dura” approach to leadership caused authorities to impose their will over subordinates to make decisions. Students, administrators, and the rector confirmed the realities of a culture that runs against the grain of decentralizing power through clinging to organizational hierarchies. Participants painted a picture of a university system built on vertical communication structures in which information flows top-down. This reality, combined with the fact that subordinates avoid confrontation, leads to even greater conflict. Overall, students and administrators provided very few examples of horizontal relationships. Results indicated that LA universities have high power distance cultures that widely accept unequal distribution of power (Moran, Abramson, & Moran, 2014). In particular, students and administrators share the value of high-power distance by transferring their decision-making power to the rector. These subgroups

assume the rector knows best in making decisions and guiding the university forward. This results in a decision-making culture that endorses a “follow the leader” mentality, rejects feedback, and discourages questioning. Unfortunately, many participants simply accepted high power distances and supported charismatic leaders who maintained their position through hardline authoritarian politics.

While participating in leadership hierarchies, these same subgroups called for decreases in leader-follower gaps. Participants wanted to see a reduction in autonomous leadership behaviors by pushing decision-making power downward and increasing delegation efforts. This included a restructuring and increasing of power differentia throughout all university departments. Participants view shifting toward a more flat-line leadership structure as a way to speed up communication, improve coordination, and ease decision-making. Respondents also believe this type of structure would empower students and university employees to solve problems usually addressed by the rector. According to participants, a decrease in bureaucratic tasks would also increase the adaptability of the university community when facing undesirable circumstances. Results showed that lower leadership gaps could also improve communication between departments and increase collaboration. Students and administrators indicated that, if leaders and subordinates were on a more level playing field, they would be more willing to take responsibility. Of particular note, survey results showed that students believe university leaders should communicate directly with subordinates about the direction of the institution, delegate responsibilities, make decisions by receiving feedback from a group, and recognize that people and organizations need each other to be successful.

Despite all these ideas regarding the benefits of decreasing leader-follower gaps, administrators and students avoided taking responsibility for how their own behavior fuels

individualism. Instead, when given opportunities to own projects, administrators transferred their decision-making power to the rector. Similarly, when given increased representation on campus and at university council meetings, students deferred to the opinions of higher up administrators. Both groups contradicted their belief in collaboration with actions that supported individualism.

Summary

Through using Schein's Theory and Pragmatic Theory to understand the impact of LA culture on leadership, the researcher began to make sense of apparent contradictions in behavior. These contradictions are critical not only for analysis but for understanding the significance of this research within the context of existing literature and for providing observations for leaders in LA higher education.

Observations for Advancing the Latin American University

From its beginnings, higher education has been an irreplaceable form of discovering new perspectives and reducing societal problems. LA university leaders face the unique challenge of protecting the structure and function of their institutions. Combining existing literature with findings from this study, the researcher provides several observations for leaders of LA universities. These observations are intentionally general, as all observations must fit within the cultural contexts of LA societies (Romero, 2004).

The Way Forward with Dar la Vuelta a La Ley vs. Ethics-Based Management

The researcher wants to acknowledge that, as an American, certain biases may exist toward LA culture. Still, the investigator believes the concept of "dar la vuelta a la ley" represents the greatest limiting factor for progress in LA universities. Until the region learns to develop trust for one another, the path to move forward is difficult. A culture with a practice of going around the law restricts progress more rapidly than any other factor. Positive, lasting change will require open dialogue between members of the university community and

recognition of the negative impacts of “dar la vuelta a la ley.” Building ethical behaviors into LA leadership culture will take time. Although there is still much unknown about the roots of corruption, findings indicate that solutions must be narrowly focused on moral reform. This raises important questions for LA institutional leaders. For example, how will dialogue about moral reform lead to actual cultural change? Change will not occur without leaders developing methods to institutionalize the recognition of their need for moral reform. A common belief in ethics-based leadership might create momentum and serve as a solution to the decades of corruption plaguing LA higher education (Charoensukmongkol & Sexton, 2011). From national education ministries to university leaders, ethics-based management represents the top contributor to future success (Mayer, Kuenzi, Greenbaum, Bardes, & Salvador, 2009; Walumbwa et al., 2011; Schaubroeck et al., 2012). Establishing this type of trust begins with members of the university community exposing underlying fears that create distance between one another. The university might begin by taking steps away from a philosophy of blaming and shaming to one of encouragement and empowerment. Such steps would recognize individual accomplishments, help leaders see the strengths in others, and encourage taking individual responsibility when mistakes occur. Top leaders might also bring change by talking about the value of trust at university-wide meetings, brainstorming ways to role model appropriate behaviors to followers, and creating accountability programs for subordinates. These institutional-wide changes could help leaders address “dar la vuelta a la ley” openly and honestly.

The Way Forward with the Individual vs. Teamwork

Given LA’s long history of military dictators, the researcher believes the way forward for some LA institutions is to increase teamwork and collaboration (Bolman & Deal, 2003; Friedrich, Mesquita, & Hatum, 2006, Castano et al., 2012). Rectors of LA institutions might

increase collaboration by: (1) encouraging members of the university community to socialize outside of work settings, (2) setting defined goals for collaborative projects, (3) praising the efforts of others to increase confidence and morale, (4) mediating conflict quickly and efficiently, (5) allowing constituents to take part in higher level decision-making, (6) avoiding micromanagement, and (7) taking time to celebrate university accomplishments together.

Administrative teams with diverse and complementary strengths might also help to combat against individualistic tendencies. Future leaders in LA higher education should take time to understand the motivations and strengths of team members. This would lead to environments being more vulnerable and open to new ideas. Embracing disagreement and engaging in open dialogue can help create these types of environments. Overall, teamwork in LA universities will begin by looking past individual aspirations and finding ways to agree on what success looks like together. Rectors should outline the tasks, roles, and responsibilities needed for creating unity and achieving success. Ultimately, the leader is responsible for knowing each team member's talents and finding ways to leverage a wide variety of abilities.

The Way Forward with Leadership Hierarchies vs. Decreasing Leader-Follower Gaps

As previously discussed, “mano dura” or “strongman” policies represent a preference for hardline, authoritarian approaches to law and order. Overcoming this cultural tendency in LA higher education is not a simple task. The way forward requires an even greater transparency between leaders and followers. The investigator made the decision to use the current rector in this study as an example of a leader filling in gaps created by leadership hierarchies.

Despite the conflicting viewpoints from participants, research showed that the classic “caudillo” figure (the independent strongman who intercedes to rescue the country) is becoming a less effective leadership model in LA (Vassolo, De Castro, & Gomez-Mejia, 2011). The rector's efforts to include students' perspectives in the planning and direction of the institution

impressed the researcher. Through displaying lower levels of ego-centrism, the rector was a better fit with students' expectations than past leaders by becoming more concerned about others' well-being. The rector developed a special counsel to represent students and held the first purely democratic elections at the university. These efforts represented a clear shift toward including students in the governance of the university. Perceiving the primary purpose of an institution to be the support students' goals, the rector also strove to support initiatives that developed the whole student. This came in the form of funding community projects, study abroad programs, and research initiatives that developed personal character. These initiatives also extended beyond acquiring discipline-specific knowledge to linking the pathways between graduation and employment. The rector shared numerous stories of supporting students' post-graduation aspirations. Of particular note, the rector lowered leadership gaps by participating in friendly soccer matches with students on campus and insisting that students refer to him by his first name. This evidence confirmed leader-follower gaps are decreased by engaging with students on more informal levels (Derr, Roussillon, & Bournois, 2002; Chhokar, Brodbeck, & House, 2007; Ogliastri, 2007; Martinez, 2005; Filden, 2008). Through being less concerned about status and more concerned about students, the rector was able to address some of the negative opinions about leadership hierarchies.

Structurally, the rector was also working to more clearly define the roles and responsibilities of subordinates. This helped delegate authority and eliminate centralized decision-making. Equally important, the rector commented that true delegation came from embracing accountability among subordinates through energy, effort, and reinforcement. The rector provided examples of dividing various departments at the university into teams in order to eliminate managerial layers and speed up collaboration. Through decreasing intervention, the

rector believes this strategy can help LA universities flatten leadership hierarchies. In addition, by focusing on actual tasks the rector sustained that employees would have greater autonomy and feel more empowered to produce quality work.

Of all the participants, the rector displayed the highest levels of self-awareness in taking responsibility for decreasing leadership gaps. Rather than undergoing an entire personality overhaul, the rector learned how to address his own blind spots and maintain the trust of constituents. The rector understood that an awareness of one's own weaknesses enables one to more easily accept the notion that other leaders may have more competency in a certain area. This type of self-knowledge is irreplaceable in leading the university. Without self-awareness, members of the university community are blind to personal biases that influence decision-making. The rector regularly self-assesses his strengths, shortcomings, and gaps in perception. This practice helps set an example for administrators, faculty, and students to focus on their own growth before blaming others. Throughout the interviews, the rector took personal responsibility for problems associated with administrative strikes, student protests, and a university system built on going around the law. This personal responsibility was refreshing and provided an example of someone attempting to break down the long history of gaps created by culture between leaders and followers.

Accreditation

Moving beyond culturally contingent leadership norms, the researcher also suggests increasing accreditation efforts. Multiple times the rector in this study mentioned the importance of increasing accreditation in LA. "Accreditation" refers to public recognition of certain institutional programs based on a self-assessment and an external evaluation (Ferreira, Avitabile, Alvarez, Haimovich, & Urzua, 2017). Although only a few countries in the region lack higher education accreditation mechanisms, the specific purpose of assessment systems in the region

remain unclear. In light of the expanding needs with standardizing accreditation policies and unregulated accrediting agencies, university leadership might consider obtaining international accreditation through international agencies. Both The National Autonomous University of Mexico and the University of Guanajuato, Mexico have both completed the Internationalization Quality Review Process established by the International Management of Higher Education Program (Wit, 2005). International accreditation provides status and recognition both internally and externally. The growing demand for status and recognition from foreign universities has caused areas like the United States to pay more attention to overseas accreditation. International agencies have aided in establishing minimum input requirements of faculty, curricula, and infrastructure. For example, The Commission of Colleges of the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools (SACSCOC) has granted accreditation to several universities in LA: NACE Business School, Costa Rica; Fundación Universidad de las Américas Puebla, Instituto Tecnológico y de Estudios Superiores de Monterrey, Mexico; Universidad de la Américas, Mexico; and Universidad de Monterrey, Mexico. International leaders might take steps toward networking with these agencies to boost their university's profile.

Quality Enhancement

While there has been substantial progress with enrollment numbers in LA (rising 20% from 2000 to 2010), quality enhancement has not kept pace (World Bank, 2017). University leaders should begin to think creatively about developing quality enhancers that include self-evaluation, peer review, and performance indicators placing a greater emphasis on learning outcomes and acquired competencies. These types of programs might help standardize student learning and faculty evaluation. World Bank Vice President, Jorge Familiar, summarized the need for quality enhancement in this way: “The region has to enhance the quality of education and provide students with better incentives, financing options, and connections to the labor

market. Better regulation of higher education institutions is also needed to improve accountability for the services they provide” (World Bank 2017, p. 1).

Generating Resources

LA leaders can also help advance the university through considering the relative possibilities of generating additional resources for higher education. The demands of a globalized, market-driven higher education sector have put pressure on leaders to use resources efficiently. Central authorities usually allocate large investments for institutions. Estimates suggest that more than half of public spending on higher education in LA goes to the richest 20% of the population, while less than 2% goes to the poorest 20% (Goodspeed, 2007). With enrollment numbers doubling since the turn of the millennium, spending practices fail to meet the increased demand (Fiszbein & Stanton, 2018). How might university leaders develop platforms for increasing university resources? One solution is to think about new programs and new partnerships with local communities. For example, university rectors might consider leasing facilities to smaller education programs such as language schools, primary and secondary schools, prep schools, and other academic academies. Leaders might develop programs for night classes that would enable adults with full-time jobs to obtain a four-year degree. With the overall lack of science and engineering advancement in the region, leaders might also consider developing new professional schools aimed at these fields. One project, “Hatun Nan,” created by the Ford Foundation (2005), provides scholarships for low-income students and finances career development opportunities for LA universities. This international foundation has developed affirmative action for underrepresented and indigenous populations to account for absences in federal funding. Leaders of institutions might seek partnerships with international NGO’s similar to the Ford Foundation.

Leaders might also consider funding primary and secondary schools due to their large-scale effects in tertiary education. Organizations such as USAID (United States Agency for International Development) help provide children a strong academic start, so they can acquire the skills and knowledge necessary for success in higher education. USAID helps college-age students obtain workforce skills in some of the roughest areas of LA. Similar to USAID, the IADB (Inter-American Development Bank) directs 99% of their funds toward LA primary and secondary schools in order to address the needs of younger students and combat against unemployment and violence.

Holistic reform efforts might also require university leaders to identify methods for increasing foreign aid. According to Fiszbein and Stanton (2018), “Virtually every country in LA receives foreign aid or assistance in some form, whether via bilateral development, government loans from multilateral development agencies, or technical assistance grants” (p. 33). International funds can help institutions (1) concentrate resources, (2) increase support for education programs, and (3) provide inputs that enhance quality (Fiszbein & Stanton, 2018).

A final solution is to partner with existing advances in federal government spending for higher education in the region. Federal governments in LA are increasing their commitment to higher education. Since 2000, all but five countries in the region (Antigua and Barbuda, Guyana, Panama, St. Kitts, and St. Vincent) have increased the percentage of their GDP dedicated to education (Fiszbein & Stanton, 2018). Several countries in the region have also established funding targets for GDP expenditures (Brazil (10% of GDP), Colombia (7%), Ecuador (6%), Argentina (6%), Panama (6%) and the Dominican Republic (4%) (Commission for Quality Education for All, 2016). Leaders of institutions should begin advocating with local and national governments about the importance of increasing higher education spending. One study estimates

that LA countries achieve only 87.6% of the coverage and learning results that would be possible if they increased educational spending efficiency (Fiszbein & Stanton, 2018). Countries lack strategies for reproducible spending practices and spend most of their education budget on salaries for teachers and administrators. Leaders might network with important decision-makers in the federal government who value higher education and work on collaborative projects together. Overall, these efforts could help widen the network of supporters for higher education initiatives and reduce inefficiencies in spending. Public universities in the region also have the unique benefit of being more closely connected to federal government funds than private institutions and should capitalize on this opportunity.

Legal Reform

Overcoming the issues associated with “dar la vuelta a la ley” requires leaders in LA higher education to think critically about creating laws that dismiss those who work around the law (Adelman & Székely, 2016; Bellei, Poblete, Sepulveda, Orellana & Abarca, 2015; Bos, Elias, Vegas, & Zoido, 2016; Cumsille, 2016; Ferrer & Fiszbein, 2015; Ferreyra, Avitabile, Botero Alvarez, Haimovich, & Urzua, 2017; Gazzola & Didrilsson, 2008; Hanushek & Woessmann, 2012; MacLeod et al., 2017; Melguizo et al. 2017; Sekiya & Ashida, 2017; Shavelson et al. 2016; Williams, 2016). Even though researchers examine reforms in LA countries locally, comparative work across nations is scarce (Bernasconi & Celis, 2017). Universities need motivated reformers focused on improving the current system that allows people to work within the law freely. One solution to improving “dar la vuelta a la ley,” might be to look at examples of successful legal reform taking place in neighboring countries. New legal reform has fostered mechanisms to intervene and produce practical results for improving higher education in countries such as Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, and Brazil (Bhandari & Blumenthal, 2011). Efforts focus on reforming entry policies, financing, assessment and accreditation, and

degree designation (Gazzola & Didrilsson, 2008). Looking forward, institutional leaders might consider modeling their own legal reform after successful cases. For example, Peruvian Law 30220 (2014) redefined institutional governance by giving the Ministry of Education full responsibility for higher education and creating a superintendent in charge of quality control (World Bank, 2017). The law established standards for teaching and graduation, reformed the accreditation system, and created universal suffrage for the designation of university authorities (World Bank, 2017). The law also strengthened research by mandating the existence of a research institute at all public universities (Ferreyra, 2017). Analogous to the Peruvian Law, Colombia Law 124 (2014) granted the Ministry of Education power to oversee higher education and intervene in cases of malpractice or crisis (World Bank, 2017). The Ministry holds power to suspend programs and create budget-administering trusts (Ferreyra, 2017). University leaders might collaborate with government leaders to enact similar legislation that provides greater clarity and direction for the institution.

Additional legal reforms might aim at the adoption of policies designed to increase social coverage and combat against existing inequalities of access to higher education. A recent study conducted by Gini Index found that LA countries have some of the highest levels of inequality in the world: Honduras (57.0), Colombia (55.9), and Brazil (54.7) (Lustig, Lopez-Calva, & Ortiz-Juarez, 2013). New laws might integrate traditionally excluded sectors of the population through affirmative and compensatory programs to provide more scholarship opportunities. These laws could help overcome shortcomings in harsher conditions where inequality and poverty prevail. Other laws might seek to improve training programs for faculty or increase funding for new technologies and virtual learning environments. Overall, legal reform should seek to promote innovation and push the boundaries of knowledge and research. One group, the IADB (Inter-

American Development Bank), recommends using technology to implement new policies aimed at (1) establishing higher learning goals, (2) hiring quality teachers, (3) resourcing schools, and (4) ensuring success after college.

Education Reform

Leaders in LA universities might also consider the reforms of various experts in the field (Adelman & Székely, 2016; Bellei, Poblete, Sepulveda, Orellana & Abarca, 2015; Bos, Elias, Vegas & Zoido, 2016; Cumsille, 2016; Ferrer & Fiszbein, 2015; Ferreyra, Avitabile, Botero Alvarez, Haimovich & Urzua, 2017; Gazzola & Didrilsson, 2008; Hanushek & Woessmann, 2012; MacLeod et al., 2017; Melguizo et al., 2017; Sekiya & Ashida, 2017; Shavelson et al., 2016; Williams, 2016). Authors Ferreyra et al., (2017) believe that quality higher education reform begins with leaders creating mechanisms for incentivizing students, increasing competition among institutions, and more effectively disseminating information. University leaders might focus on designing favorable loan programs for students who demonstrate academic progress. This would come in the form of reduced interest rates. Leaders could increase competition among HEIs by helping students identify the best institution for their education. Many students lack the means to exercise personal judgment about their institutional choice, especially low-income students who most often choose public universities. Education leaders might also consider developing new and innovative programs in order to advance higher education. Recent innovations in LA primary and secondary schools such as The Innova Schools Project, NAVE (Brazil's Núcleos Avançados em Educação), and SAT (Columbia's Sistema de Aprendizaje Tutorial) serve as excellent examples of innovative programs.

The Innova Schools Project. Designed by Carlos Rodríguez Pastor, the Innova Schools Project represents a human-centered approach to rethinking the education system in LA. The system takes into account the interests of students, parents, teachers, administrators, investors,

government leaders, and community members. Innova programs break the school day into two sections. Half the day students focus on problem solving and collaboration in small classrooms with little teacher input. Independent learning takes up the second half of the day. Each year students identify a social problem and present solutions to their classmates.

NAVE. An additional forward-thinking model is the NAVE (Brazil's Núcleos Avançados em Educação) public school system (Winthrop & Barton, 2018). NAVE, a network of public technical high schools, creates a relationship between state governments and local Brazilian companies. To prepare learners for advances in technology, NAVE complements academically rigorous postsecondary programming with hands-on digital skills (Winthrop & Barton, 2018). Relying on these specializations, NAVE uses project-based learning to help students design technical solutions for public consumption. NAVE schools scored first among all public schools in their respective states (Winthrop & Barton, 2018).

SAT. Originated in Colombia, SAT is an alternative secondary school program that offers flexible learning to young people in rural communities across LA (Winthrop & Barton, 2018). Trained tutors from the community guide students through lessons applied to rural life. For example, math lessons help students create surveys about local crops to help farmers. Learning is flexible, tailored to students' strengths, and tutors work around farming hours to facilitate group learning (Winthrop & Barton, 2018). SAT is active in Brazil, Colombia, Ecuador, Honduras, and Nicaragua. In Honduras, SAT participants scored 45% higher on national exams than peers in non-SAT areas (Winthrop & Barton, 2018).

Addressing Racism

A final category for reform is addressing the identity crisis and the impact of racism on LA college campuses. Comments made on social media increase racial tensions, isolate more impoverished communities, and lead to decreased loyalty to one's origin. This identity crisis

results in uncertainty and ambiguity about the future (Hofstede, 2001). Leaders of HEIs might consider ways to raise awareness of the negative impacts of racism on college campuses. This begins by first recognizing that racism does exist, and second by generating university-wide conversations that help combat stereotypes. One of the greatest challenges for LA leaders is addressing the legitimate pain students feel from racism. Listening to students, taking time to engage in honest reflection, and denouncing attempts by others to create harm are important steps for eradicating racism. Leaders might call on students in the college environment to look at themselves as resources for change.

Unique Findings

Unique data emerged from various aspects of the study, but three areas are worth further discussion: the motivations of administrators and students, the role of the rector as a father figure to students, and the potential of the university to develop communities and personal character.

Motivations

Motivation research attempts to determine what internally drives a person to action. Both administrators and students have different expectations that drive their actions within the institution. These expectations impact their desire to continue or discontinue with various parts of academia. In terms of this research, when administrators choose to enter higher education as a career or students choose to enter higher education as learners, what do they hope to get out of it? In other words, what is the value to these subgroups? Analyzing the motivations of administrators and students can also help answer research question number two which focuses on the actions required to fulfill high level leadership positions at LA universities.

Administrators. During data collection, it became clear that leadership team members are motivated by a desire to protect their position at the university. Administrators rarely made efforts to ease the workload of the rector. Instead of desiring academic progress, administrators

seemed more motivated to protect their position at the university. The researcher believes this desire comes from two primary motivating factors: power and recognition. First, in the researcher's opinion, positions of leadership so attract LTMs that they are limited in their ability to create common goals. Instead of utilizing their influence to improve the quality of academia within the institution, they seek prerequisites of position and power. This emphasis may result from a feeling of inferiority that sometimes drives administrators to control and micro-manage their surroundings. So how can power corrupt administrators in LA higher education? The researcher believes the answer is complex. The primary drivers of leadership are power and influence. In this study, administrators seemed less concerned with the interests of their followers and more concerned with using their power to obtain personal gain. One risk with this approach is that when personalized power dominates, it often comes at the expense of students. The more administrators focused on their own egocentric desires, the more students felt disempowered to share their perspectives. LTMs focused on problems and preferred to share those problems openly with others instead of solving those problems behind closed doors.

A second motivation connected to power is the need for recognition. During interviews, LTMs relied heavily on both written and verbal acknowledgement from the rector to boost their self-esteem. Regularly, LTMs mentioned individual accomplishments and efforts to gain the approval of the rector. These remarks led the researcher to believe that administrators allow their egos, not their own expressions of humility, drive them. More specifically, while discussing the challenges facing LA higher education, LTMs struggled to leave self-consciousness behind and regularly discussed how changes would impact their own lifestyle. The researcher believes this obsession with individual needs and desires leads to a tendency to use recognition as a strategy to boost self-belief. This tendency also left the researcher pondering whether or not LTMs could

make decisions without affirmation and confirmation from their peers. Administrators regularly discussed their current roles as platforms for obtaining higher-level leadership positions in government. Lacking self-awareness, LTMs view recognition as the key to unlocking successful career paths. This attitude caused LTMs to view followers as a means to an end, rather than co-laborers in improving the university. Valuing recognition above helping others also keeps LTMs from seeing leadership as a means for caring about other members of the university community. Overall, administrators in this study preferred the front seat and not the back seat. In the researcher's opinion, this preference caused LTMs to look outside themselves for assurance and created a leadership culture dependent on affirmation from others to build confidence.

Students. In examining students' motivations, the researcher found two types: intrinsic and extrinsic. Kim and Drumwright (2016) define "intrinsic motivation" as people voluntarily performing activities in the absence of reinforcement or reward because the person finds the activity itself enjoyable. "Extrinsic motivation" refers to a variety of behaviors in which people perform actions for an outcome separate from the activity itself, such as the pursuit of an external reward or the avoidance of punishment (Kim & Drumwright, 2016). In this study, students expressed both intrinsic and extrinsic motivators that impact their reasons for persisting in college.

Data from the study showed two extrinsic motivators: (1) the desire to obtain a career after graduation, and (2) the belief that unless students strike quickly, administrators will not hear their opinions. Through gaining exposure to a variety of professions and resources, LA students believe higher education helps them align interests with career paths. For students in this study, the drive for career status represents a key indicator for individual success and self-assurance. Due to the specialization of many jobs in LA, students mentioned the only means for obtaining

the necessary knowledge and practical skill was through obtaining a college degree. Obtaining degrees also led students to more competitive jobs and increased marketability to employers. Overall, students from this study believe a college education is a worthy investment that will be repaid over time in the form of earning more money and developing lifelong skills.

A second extrinsic motivator was the belief that unless students go on strike, their opinions will not be heard. Whether this pattern of fearful thinking is self-inflicted or caused by oppressive leadership behavior is beyond the scope of this study. What the researcher does believe is there are both surface-level and deeper causes for this distress. The surface level motivation for striking is that students feel they need to prove themselves to university leadership in order to rationally justify their opinion and show why leaders might be wrong. In the researcher's opinion, the subconscious need for validation causes students to rehearse strike plans they hope will frustrate campus leaders. In the researcher's opinion, the deeper, more crucial motivation for going on strike is students are experiencing a certain level of anxiety about the future. As previously mentioned, many students want change to occur in LA higher education, but students are unaware how change might impact their own lives. This leads to apprehension toward the unknown results of proposals that might create change.

Building upon the desire to clarify one's identity, the primary intrinsic motivation mentioned for students' persistence was a desire to answer the "Who am I" question. In leaving family, friends, and old relationships, students believe college experiences help them discover their true selves. According to respondents, a college experience affords the opportunity to clarify personal identity by fostering growth and exposing students to a variety of different subjects that help clarify their understanding of the world around them. Through acquiring greater depths of knowledge in multiple subjects, students believe college increases their ability

to think critically. This development of critical thinking skills also helps students express their thoughts clearly in speech and writing and make wise decisions. The combination of these skills empowers students to discover their unique passions and increases curiosity toward new fields of study. Students also mentioned college helps clarify identity by exposing them to a variety of social networks that broaden horizons and foster greater self-discovery. According to respondents, fellow students compel them to contribute to society in new ways and inspire them to become more global citizens. Overall, respondents believe a college education helps to clarify identity through increasing one's understanding of the world by exploring interests, discovering new areas of knowledge, and considering lifelong goals.

Analyzing these motivations of administrators and students helped the researcher respond to research question number two by revealing the factors that contribute to the actions taken by leaders in LA universities. Motivation research helped the investigator more deeply understand the decision-making patterns of leaders.

The Role of the Rector

A second unique finding from the study was the expectation students placed on the rector to serve as a father figure of the university. As previously discussed, LA cultures tend to emphasize family (Antonio, 2014). As the most basic and fundamental social support group, the LA family provides a link to the past and a pathway for the future socialization of its members (Villarruel & Chahin, 1997). Historically, patriarchal fathers with characteristics of machismo served as the backbone of Latino families. Fathers obtain respect and honor by being involved in multiple areas with their spouse, children, elders, and extended family. High levels of involvement in their students' education confirm the idea that Latino fathers are becoming more engaged, responsive, and attentive to their childrens' needs (Cabrera & Bradley, 2012). Interestingly, students recognized these relationships and expected university rectors to fulfill

fatherly responsibilities. Students view the rector as a central figure in providing wisdom and guidance throughout their collegiate experience. This includes modeling what it means to lead with dignity, courage, and passion. Findings confirm that students believe rectors' influences lead to higher levels of competence, better peer-to-peer relationships, and more positive adjustments after graduation (Cabrera & Bradley, 2012). These influences increased self-efficacy and decreased stress due to the rector's access to social capital. Similar to the role of a father, students perceive the rector's primary role is to influence, teach, provide love, and watch out for students' well-being. This involves creating environments of mutual respect and loyalty. Students want the rector to show warmth and attention to their needs and develop sympathy and solidarity for their concerns. Focusing on individual strengths and abilities, some students expressed a desire to create goal plans with the guidance and support of the rector. Because much remains uncertain about the link between productive paternal involvement and the role of the LA rector, this finding is worth further exploration.

The Potential of the University

A third unique finding from the study was the university's potential to develop communities and personal character. The benefits of a college degree extend beyond the classroom (Weller, 2017; Winthrop & Barton, 2018). According to respondents, universities are well positioned to offer holistic and independent assessment of societal issues. This study shows that graduates are more likely to partake in civic exercises and work toward solving issues if their professors emphasize the importance of community development within the classroom. Research also indicates that individuals with higher levels of education are more likely to contribute to causes that matter to society. Leaders highlighted their role in becoming allies with local governments to enact positive change in LA school design.

Findings also confirm literature in the field viewing the university as a primary driver of human development (Quinlan, 2011; Moir, 2009; Marti, 1999). In general, participants believe that higher education improves lives through enhancing self-knowledge, increasing employment opportunities, and promoting civic engagement. As primary sites of training, instruction, and knowledge, participants think universities play a vital role in developing the whole individual. One driver of personal character is study abroad programs. According to respondents, global citizenship starts when individuals travel abroad and return with new perspectives to create change. Literature discussing study abroad programs confirms the numerous benefits (Keese, 2013; Pugh, 2013; Tyner, 2013; Farrell, 2007). Pugh (2013) notes, “Study abroad programs allow for fulfilling personal relationships and a more globalized conception of one’s social network” (p. 794). According to students, this transnational social capital serves as a valuable professional resource during and after college. Students also gained more self-confidence, problem-solving skills, and tolerance due to study abroad programs. These experiences helped students acquire a more amplified vision of the world, and in some cases, a new life in a different part of the world.

Opportunities for Future Research

The most obvious future research which could result from this study would be the use of this same model for interpreting leadership characteristics at another LA university. Future studies might compare and contrast different components of the study. For example, comparing Central America and South America, private universities and public universities, universities of 5,000 or fewer students and universities of 20,000+, or secular universities and religiously affiliated universities. Since the landscape of LA higher education is so diverse, a comparative

study would provide further insight into the complexities associated with culturally contingent leadership principles.

Other studies might look at one dimension of LA culture and leadership. For instance, studies might examine the idea that LA authority figures are accustomed to making decisions without soliciting the input of others, or that hierarchical structures tend to protect followers in exchange for loyalty to the organization. Studies could monitor the amount of time spent on bureaucratic tasks or the crucial role family ties play in hiring decisions. Another study might further examine the interpersonal relationships of education leaders and their motivations for working at the university.

Limitations

Multiple limitations exist in the study. First, in focusing on the rector role, the researcher was not proposing that actions emanating from the rector's office provide a full picture of what is necessary to lead an institution of higher learning in LA. Instead, the researcher wanted to shed light on the topic and offer suggestions for educational professionals aspiring to become leaders in LA. Nevertheless, the researcher does assume the legitimacy and authoritative power of the rector and the critical role he/she plays as the leader of the institution. Second, the study focuses solely on one national university in one region of LA. If the ultimate goal of the research was to identify what makes successful leadership cultures in LA universities, the findings must remain within the scope of this study. A broader sample could have diversified the responses and increased the reliability of results. In no way was the researcher attempting to suggest that the results apply to every institution in LA. Although the opinions and insights gained from the leadership team at the university are valuable, the study only provides one perspective related to strategies for managing HEIs. Third, the study occurred over the span of one year. Distance,

time, and financial constraints limited the researcher's ability to travel for longer periods of time and become more immersed in the university culture. This limited the interactions with campus leaders and students. Fourth, although the researcher provided the opportunity for participants to conduct interviews in their native language (Spanish), a few participants responded in English and struggled to find the correct word or phrase. This could have limited the preciseness of interview responses.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to identify what makes a successful leadership culture in LA universities by conducting a case study about one national university. The combination of Schein's Theory of Culture and Pragmatic Theory helped the researcher develop a culturally sensitive approach to understanding the restrictions placed on university leadership by culture. These findings can aid leaders in higher education to establish principles vital for understanding LA university leadership and the actions required to fulfill the role of rector. The researcher laid the foundations of the study based on existing scholarship regarding cross-cultural leadership principles and proposed suggestions for future leaders to generate positive education reform.

The past decade in LA has been marked by an overall upward trend in many educational sectors. Expansion has increased at all levels and in all countries and socioeconomic groups. The current system of approximately 20 million students, 10,000 institutions, and 60,000 programs has made dramatic improvements (Ferreyra et al., 2017). Despite this progress, certain countries still face high dropout rates, inadequate levels of learning, and an overall lack of resources. This has resulted in growing indicators that higher education systems are not adequately preparing young adults to enter the labor market and become productive citizens. Vast expansion has created an even more complex landscape. Today, LA higher education is at a crossroads. How

will university leaders continue to expand the system and provide the necessary resources for growth? The need for reliable and capable leadership is urgent. LA institutions are at the center of reforming society. They provide the economic engines, research centers, global networks, entrepreneurs, innovators, scholars, and experts needed to create positive change. LA has high hopes for education as “the great equalizer,” and the region depends on the university’s ability to generate capable leaders to achieve this critical objective.

References

- Abarca, N., Mujluf, N., & Rodriguez, D. (1998). Identifying management in Chile: A behavioral approach. *International Studies of Management & Organization*, 28(1), 18–37.
- ARWU Academic Ranking of World Universities. (2015). Retrieved from <http://www.shanghairanking.com>
- Adelman, M. A., & Székely, M. (2017). An overview of school dropout in Central America: Unresolved issues and new challenges for education progress. *European Journal of Educational Research*, 6(3), 235.
- Ae Chung, K., & Miskel, C. G. (1989). A comparative study of principals' administrative behavior. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 27(1).
- Agar, M. (1980). *The professional stranger: An informal introduction to ethnography*. New York: Academic Press.
- Albert, R. D. (1996). Framework and model for understanding Latin American and Latino/Hispanic cultural patterns. In D. Landis & R. Bhagat (Eds.), *Handbook of intercultural training* (2nd ed., pp. 327–348). Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Alreck, P. L., & Settle, R. B. (2004). *The survey research handbook* (3rd ed.). Boston: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.
- Altschuler, D. (2013). How patronage politics undermines parental participation and accountability: Community-manged schools in Honduras and Guatemala. *Comparative Education Review*, 57(1), 117-144.

- Chhokar, J. S., Brodbeck, F. C., House, R. J., & Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness Research Program. (2007). *Culture and leadership across the world: The GLOBE book of in-depth studies of 25 societies*. Mahwah, N.J: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Amado, G., & Brasil, H. V. (1991). Organizational behaviors and cultural context: The Brazilian “Jeitinho.” *International Studies of Management and Organization*, 21(3), 38–61.
- Angen, M. (2000). Evaluating interpretive inquiry: Reviewing the validity debate and opening the dialogue. *Qualitative Health Research*, 10(3), 378-395.
- Antonio V. Menéndez Alarcón. (2014). Latin American culture: A deconstruction of stereotypes. *Studies in Latin American Popular Culture*, 32(1), 72-96.
- Arocena, R., & Sutz, J. (2005). Latin American universities: From an original revolution to an uncertain transition. *Higher Education*, 50(4), 573-592.
- Association of Governing Boards. (n.d.) Renewing the academic presidency: Stronger leadership for tougher times. Retrieved from <http://agb.org>
- Alatas, S.H. (2000). Intellectual imperialism: Definition, traits, and problems. *Asian Journal of Science*, 28(1), 23-45.
- Aycan, Z. (2008). Cross-cultural approaches to leadership. In P. B. Smith M. F. Peterson & D. C. Thomas. *The handbook of cross-cultural management research* (pp. 219-238). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

- Bajunid, I. A. (1996). Preliminary explorations of indigenous perspectives of educational management: The evolving Malaysian experience. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 34(5), 50-73.
- Baldwin, J. R. (2012). *Redefining culture: Perspectives across the disciplines*. New York: Routledge.
- Barbour, R. S. (2008). *Introducing qualitative research: A student's guide to the craft of qualitative research*. Los Angeles: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Bartlett, C. A., & Ghoshal, S. (1989). *Managing across borders: The transnational solution*. Boston, Mass: Harvard Business School Press.
- Bass, B. M., & Stogdill, R. M. (1990). *Bass & Stogdill's handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications* (3rd ed.). New York: Free Press.
- Bedi, A. S., & Marshall, J. H. (1999). School attendance and student achievement: Evidence from rural Honduras. *Economic Development and Cultural Change*, 47(3), 657–682.
- Behrens, A (2010). Charisma, paternalism, and business leadership in Latin America. *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 52(1), 21-29.
- Bellei, C., Poblete, X., Sepulveda, P., Orellana, V., & Abarca, G. (2015). *Situación educativa de América Latina y el Caribe: Hacia la educación de calidad para todos al 2015*. Santiago, Chile: UNESCO.
- Bernasconi, A., & Knobel, M. (2016). Enduring challenges for Latin America: Inside higher education. Retrieved from <https://www.insidehighered.com/blogs/world-view/enduring-challenges-latin-america>

- Bernasconi, A., & Celis, S. (2017). Higher education reforms: Latin America in comparative perspective. *Education Policy Analysis Archives*, 25(67), 67.
- Bhandari, R., & Blumenthal, P. (2011). *International students and global mobility in higher education: National trends and new directions* (1st ed.). New York Palgrave Macmillan.
- Bianchi, N. (2015). The general effects of educational expansion. *Stanford Institute for Economic Policy Research*, 15(8), 1-60.
- Bolman, L. G., Deal, T. E., & EBSCOhost eBooks. (2003). *Reframing organizations: Artistry, choice, and leadership* (3rd ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Bordas, J. (2007). *Salsa, soul, and spirit: Leadership for a multicultural age* (1st ed.). San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.
- Bornstein, R. (2004). The authentic, and effective, college president, Chronicle of Higher Education. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, 50(47), B16.
- Bos, M. S., Elías, A., Vegas, E., & Zoido, P. (2016). PISA Latin America and the Caribbean: How did the region perform? Retrieved from <https://publications.iadb.org/bitstream/handle/11319/7991/Latin-America-and-the-Caribbean-in-PISA-2015-How-Did-the-Region-Perform.PDF?sequence=4&isAllowed=y>
- Bound, J., M. Lovenheim, and S. Turner. (2010). Why have college completion rates declined? An analysis of changing student preparation and collegiate resources. *American Economic Journal: Applied Economics*, 2(3), 129–157.
- Bourgeois, S. (2016). The presidency in higher education. *Journal of Business and Management*, 22(2), 11.

- Bowles, K. J. (2013). Inside higher education. Retrieved from <https://www.insidehighered.com/advice/2013/07/01/many-roles-and-expectations-college-presidents-essay>
- Brewer, J., & Hunter, A. (1989). *Multimethod research: A synthesis of styles*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Browne, R. A., & Shen, H. (2017). Challenges and solutions of higher education in the eastern Caribbean states. *International Journal of Higher Education*, 6(1), 169.
- Bryman, A. (2007). Barriers to integrating quantitative and qualitative research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 1(1), 8-22.
- Cabrera, N. J., & Bradley, R. H. (2012). Latino fathers and their children. *Child Development Perspectives*, 6(3), 232-238.
- Camacho-Garcia, M. A. (1996). *Análisis organizacional de las Pymexas Metalmecánicas de Cochabamba*. Cochabamba, U. M. San Simon: FCEyS.
- Campbell, D. T., & Fiske, D. W. (1959). *Convergent and discriminant validation by the multitrait-multimethod matrix*. Indianapolis, IN: Bobbs-Merrill, College Division.
- Castano, N., de Luque, M., Wernsing, T., Ogliastri, E., Shemueli, R., Fuchs, R., & Robles-Flores, J. (2015). El jefe: Differences in expected leadership behaviors across Latin American countries. *Journal of World Business*, 50(3), 584-597.
- Castro, D., Rodríguez-Gómez, D., & Gairín, J. (2017). Exclusion factors in Latin American higher education: A preliminary analyze from university governing board perspective. *Education and Urban Society*, 49(2), 229.

- Centeno, M. A. (1997). *Democracy within reason: Technocratic revolution in Mexico* (2nd ed.). University Park: Pennsylvania State University Press.
- Centro Interuniversitario de Desarrollo [CINDA]. (2011). *Educación superior en Iberoamérica: Informe 2011*. Santiago de Chile, Chile: Ril Editores.
- Charoensukmongkol, P., & Sexton, S. (2011). The effect of corruption on exports and imports in Latin America and the Caribbean. *Latin American Business Review*, 12(2), 83-98.
- Cheng, K., & Wong, K. (1996). School effectiveness in East Asia. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 34(5), 32-49.
- Chesanow, N. (1985). *The world-class executive: How to do business like a pro around the world* (1st ed.). New York: Rawson Associates.
- Cook, W. B. (1994). *Courting philanthropy: The role of university presidents and chancellors in fund raising* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Texas at Austin, Austin, TX.
- Commission for Quality Education for All. (2016). Construyendo una educación de calidad: Un pacto con el futuro de América Latina. Retrieved from <http://www.thedialogue.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/03/Building-Quality-Education-Final-PDF.pdf>
- Corbin, J., & Strauss, A. (2014). *Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory* (3rd ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Sage Publications.
- Corrales, J. (2015). Autocratic legalism in Venezuela. *Journal of Democracy*, 26(2), 37-51.
- Crabtree, B. F., & Miller, W. L. (1992). *Doing qualitative research*. Newbury Park, Calif: Sage Publications.

- Cremin, L. A. (1957). *The republic and the school: Horace Mann on the education of free men*. New York: Teachers College.
- Creswell, J. W. (2013). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions* (3rd Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2011). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research* (2nd ed.). Los Angeles: SAGE Publications.
- Cumsille, B. (2016). Educación técnico vocacional secundaria: Beneficios y desafíos para los sistemas educativos. Retrieved from <https://www.thedialogue.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/01/Policy-Brief-ETV-Secundaria-Diagramado-FINAL1.pdf>
- Davidson, F., & SAGE Research Methods Core. (1996). *Principles of statistical data handling*. Thousand Oaks, Calif: Sage Publications.
- Dávila, A., & Elvira, M. M. (2008). *Best HRM practices in Latin America*. London: Routledge.
- Davila, A., & Elvira, M. (2012). Humanistic leadership: Lessons from Latin America. *Journal of World Business*, 47, 548–554.
- Deming, D. J., & Figlio, D. (2016). Accountability in US education: Applying lessons from K-12 experience to higher education. *The Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 30(3), 33.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2005). *The SAGE handbook of qualitative research* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Derr, C. B., Roussillon, S., & Bournois, F. (2002). *Cross-cultural approaches to leadership development*. Westport, Conn: Quorum Books.

- De Riz, L. (2014). "Caudillismo: Latin American politics." *Encyclopedia Britannica*. Retrieved from <https://www.britannica.com/topic/caudillismo>.
- Dickson, M., Den Hartog, D., & Mitchelson, J. (2003). Research on leadership in a cross-cultural context: Making progress and raising new questions. *Leadership Quarterly*, 14(6), 729-768.
- Dimmock, C., & Walker, A. (1998). Towards comparative educational administration: Building the case for a cross-cultural school-based approach. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 36(4), 379-401.
- Dimmock, C., & Walker, A. (2000). Globalization and societal culture: Redefining schooling and school leadership in the twenty-first century. *A Journal of Comparative Education*, 30(3), 303-312.
- Dimmock, C. A. J., Walker, A., & ebrary, I. (2005). *Educational leadership: Culture and diversity*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Dimmock, C. A. J., & EBSCOhost eBooks. (2012). *Leadership, capacity building and school improvement: Concepts, themes and impact*. Abingdon, NY: Routledge.
- Dorfman, P. W., Howell, J. P., Hibino, S., Lee, J. K., Tate, U., & Bautista, A. (1997). Leadership in western and Asian countries: Commonalities and differences in effective leadership processes across cultures. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 8(3), 233-274.
- Dykstra, L.D. (2009). Culturally speaking: Culture, communication, and politeness theory (2nd ed.). *The Modern Language Journal*, 93(4), 646-648.
- Elvira, M. M., & Dávila, A. (2005). *Managing human resources in Latin America: An agenda for international leaders*. London: Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group.

- Ely, M., & ProQuest Ebook Central. (1991). *Doing qualitative research: Circles within circles*. New York: Falmer Press.
- Erlandson, D. A. (1993). *Doing naturalistic inquiry: A guide to methods*. Newbury Park, Calif: Sage.
- Farrell, E. F. (2007). Study abroad blossoms into big business. *Chronicle of Higher Education*, 54(2), 1-49.
- Ferreira, M. M., Avitabile, C., Álvarez, J. B., Haimovich, F., & Urzua, S. (2017). *At a crossroads: Higher education in Latin America and the Caribbean*. Washington, D.C.: World Bank Group.
- Festenstein, M. (2016). Pragmatism, realism and moralism. *Political Studies Review*, 14(1), 39-49.
- Ferrer, G. (2006). *Educational assessment systems in Latin America: Current practice and future challenges*. Santa Magdalena, Chile: Corporation for Development Research.
- Fiszbein, A., & Stanton, S. (2018). *The future of education in Latin America and the Caribbean*. Washington, D.C.: Inter-American Dialogue.
- Friedrich, P., Mesquita, L., & Hatum, A. (2006). Beyond cultural and managerial homogeneity stereotypes of Latin America. *Journal of the Iberoamerican Academy of Management*, 4(1), 53-71.
- Fowler, F. J. (2009). *Survey research methods* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Gade, D. W. (2006). Albert A. Giesecke: A Philadelphian in the land of the Incas. *Expedition*, 48(3), 27.

- Gasparini, L., Sosa-Escudero, W., Marchionni, M., & Olivieri, S. (2013). Multidimensional poverty in Latin America and the Caribbean: New evidence from the Gallup world poll. *The Journal of Economic Inequality*, 11(2), 195-214.
- Gazzola & Didrilsson. (2008). Trends in higher education in Latin America and the Caribbean. Retrieved from <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0016/001620/162075e.pdf>
- Gerstner, C., & Day, D. (1994). Cross-cultural-comparison of leadership prototypes. *Leadership Quarterly*, 5(2), 121-134.
- Getzels, J. W., Lipham, J. M., & Campbell, R. F. (1968). *Educational administration as a social process: Theory, research, practice*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Gibbs, G. R. (2015). *Learning and qualitative data analysis with information technology: The role of exploration*. (Doctoral Dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Publishing. (10176114).
- Gill-Hopple, K., & Brage-Hudson, D. (2012). Compadrazgo: A literature review. *Journal of Transcultural Nursing*, 23(2), 117-123.
- Glesne, C., & Peshkin, A. (1992). *Becoming qualitative researchers: An introduction*. White Plains, N.Y: Longman.
- Gold, R. L. (1958). Roles in sociological field observations. *Social Forces*, 36(3), 217-223.
- Goodspeed, T. O. (2007). Latin America's education challenges call for concrete action. Retrieved from <http://www.focal.ca/fr/publications/focalpoint/258-june-2010-tamara-ortega-goodspeed>

- Greene, J. C., Caracelli, V. J., & Graham, W. F. (1989). Toward a conceptual framework for mixed-method evaluation designs. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 11(3), 255-274.
- Guadilla, Carmen (2003). Balance de la década de los 90' y reflexiones sobre las nuevas fuerzas de cambio en la educación superior. In Mollis, M. (Comp.) *Las universidades en América Latina: ¿Reformadas o alteradas? La cosmética del poder financiero*. Buenos Aires: FLACSO.
- Guba, E. G. (1981). *Effective evaluation*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Haire, M., Ghiselli, E. E., Porter, L. W., & University of California, Berkeley. (1966). *Managerial thinking: An international study*. New York: Wiley.
- Hallinger, P., & Leithwood, K. (1996). Culture and educational administration: A case of finding out what you don't know you don't know. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 34(5), 98-116.
- Hallinger, P., & Heck, R. H. (2010). Collaborative leadership and school improvement: Understanding the impact on school capacity and student learning. *School Leadership and Management*, 30(2), 95.
- Hanushek, E. A., & Woessmann, L. (2012). Do better schools lead to more growth? Cognitive skills, economic outcomes, and causation. *Journal of Economic Growth*, 17(4), 267-321.
- Harris, P. R., & Moran, R. T. (2000). *Managing cultural differences: Leadership strategies for a new world of business*. Houston (TX): Gulf.
- Harrison, J., MacGibbon, L., & Morton, M. (2001). Regimes of trustworthiness in qualitative research: The rigors of reciprocity. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 7(3), 323-345.

- Heck, R. H. (1996). Leadership and culture: Conceptual and methodological issues in comparing models across cultural settings. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 34(5), 74-97.
- Holm-Nielsen, L., Thorn, K., Brunner, J. J., & Balán, J. (2005). Regional and international challenge to higher education in Latin America. In H. De Wit, I. Jaramillo, J. Gacel-Ávila, & J. Knight (Eds.), *Higher education in Latin America. The international dimension* (pp. 39-69). Washington, DC: World Bank.
- Hofstede, G. H. (1980). *Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related values*. Beverly Hills, Calif: Sage Publications.
- Hofstede, G. H. (1993). Cultural constraints in management theories. *Academy of Management Executive*, 7(1), 81-94.
- Hofstede, G. H. (2001). *Culture's consequences: comparing values, behaviors, institutions and organizations across nations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Hofstede, G. H., Hofstede, G. J., & Minkov, M. (2010). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind: Intercultural cooperation and its importance for survival* (3rd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- House, R. J. (2004). *Culture, leadership, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Howe, K. (2000). Philosophical perspectives on multicultural education. In J. Noel (Ed.), *Notable selections in multicultural education* (pp. 31-37). Guilford, Connecticut: Dushkin/McGraw- Hill.
- Inter-American Development Bank. (2016). Education and early childhood development: sector framework document. Retrieved from http://idbdocs.iadb.org/wsdocs/getdocument.aspx?doc_num=40398589

- Inglehart, R., & Carballo, M. (2008). Does Latin America exist? A global analysis of cross-cultural differences. *Perfiles Latinoamericanos*, 16(31), 13–38.
- Jacob, S. A., & Furgerson, S. P. (2012). Writing interview protocols and conducting interviews: Tips for students new to the field of qualitative research. *Qualitative Report*, 17(1), 1-10.
- Johnson, B. & Christensen, L. (2012). *Educational research: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed approaches* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Joynt, P., & Warner, M. (1996). *Managing across cultures: Issues and perspectives* (1st ed.). Boston: International Thomson Business Press.
- Keese, J. R. (2013). Study abroad: Geography does it better. *Yearbook of the Association of Pacific Coast Geographers*, 75, 15-27.
- Kind, N., Colucci, E. (n.d) University associations in Latin America: A snapshot. *AlfaPuentes*, 1-54.
- Kim, E., & Drumwright, M. (2016). Engaging consumers and building relationships in social media: How social relatedness influences intrinsic vs. extrinsic consumer motivation. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 63, 970-979.
- Kotter, J. P. (1996). *Leading change*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Kras, E. S. (1989). *Management in two cultures: Bridging the gap between U.S. and Mexican managers*. Yarmouth, ME: Intercultural Press.
- Kras, E. S. (1994). *Modernizing Mexican management style: With insights for U.S. companies working in Mexico*. Las Cruces, NM: Edits Publishing.
- Kumar, R., Anjum, B., & Sinha, A. (2011). Cross-cultural interactions and leadership behavior. *Researchers World*, 2(3), 151-160.

- Lamarra, N. F. (2003). Higher education, quality evaluation and accreditation in Latin America and MERCOSUR. *European Journal of Education*, 38(3), 253-269.
- LeCompte, M. D., & Schensul, J. J. (1999). *Designing & conducting ethnographic research*. Walnut Creek, CA: AltaMira Press.
- LeCompte, M. D., Schensul, J. J., & ProQuest Ebook Central. (2013). *Analysis and interpretation of ethnographic data: A mixed methods approach* (2nd ed.). Lanham, MD: AltaMira Press.
- Lederman, D., Messina, J., Pienknagura, S., & Rigolini, J. (2014). *Latin American entrepreneurs: Many firms but little innovation*. Washington, D.C.: World Bank.
- Leguizamo, F., Ickis, J., & Ogliastri, E. (2008). San Nicolas pharmacy. In A. Davila & M. Elvira (Eds.), *Best HRM practices in Latin America*. Oxford: Routledge.
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.
- Lincoln, Y. S., Denzin, N. K. (1998). *Collecting and interpreting qualitative materials*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Lustig, N., Lopez-Calva, L., & Ortiz-Juarez, E. (2013). Declining inequality in Latin America in the 2000s: The cases of Argentina, Brazil, and Mexico. *World Development*, 44, 129-141.
- MacLeod, W. B., Riehl, E., Saavedra, J. E., & Urquiola, M. (2017). The big sort: College reputation and labor market outcomes. *American Economic Journal: Applied Economics*, 9(3), 223-261.
- Majul, L. (1992). *Los dueños de la Argentina*. Buenos Aires, Argentina: Ed. Sudamericana.
- Markham, J.D. (1995). *Napoleon*. New York: New American Library.
- Marneffe, P. d. (2006). Avoiding paternalism. *Philosophy & Public Affairs*, 34(1), 68-94.

- Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. B. (2011). *Designing qualitative research* (5th ed.). Los Angeles: SAGE.
- Martinic, S. (2003). Educational progress and problems in Guatemala, Honduras, and Mexico. *Education for All Global Monitoring Report*, 46, 1-20.
- Martínez, S. M., & Dorfman, P. W. (1998). The Mexican entrepreneur: An ethnographic study of the Mexican empresario. *International Studies of Management & Organization*, 28(2), 97–124.
- Mayer, D. M., Kuenzi, M., Greenbaum, R., Bardes, M., & Salvador, R. (2009). How low does ethical leadership flow? Test of a trickle-down model. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 108(1), 1-13.
- Melguizo, T., G. Zamorro, T. Velasco, and F. Sanchez. 2017. The methodological challenges of measuring student learning, degree attainment, and early labor market outcomes in higher education. *Journal of Research on Educational Effectiveness*, 10(2), 1–25.
- Merriam, S. B. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education*. Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Merriam, S. B., & Tisdell, E. J. (2016). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Miles, M. B., Huberman, A. M., & Saldana, J. (2014). *Qualitative data analysis: A methods sourcebook*. (3rd ed.). SAGE Publications.
- Miller, P. & Ebrary. (2016). *Exploring school leadership in England and the Caribbean: New insights from a comparative approach*. London, England: Bloomsbury Academic.

- Moir, J. (2009). Bolgna bytes: Higher education and personal development planning. *The International Journal of Learning: Annual Review*, 16(9), 367-374.
- Moua, M., & Business Expert Press eBooks. (2011). *Culturally intelligent leadership: Leading through intercultural interactions*. New York: Business Expert Press.
- Mounce, H. (2000). Pragmatism. *Nursing Philosophy*, 1(1), 80-81.
- Moure, O. (2001). Musical and poetical character of our people. Retrieved from <http://www.ompersonal.com.ar/shortstories/facundo.htm>
- Muczyk, J. P., & Holt, D. T. (2008). Toward a cultural contingency model of leadership. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 14(4), 277–286.
- Nelson, Stephen (2009). Success and failure in the college presidency. *The New England Journal of Higher Education*, 24(2), 26.
- Noel, B. (2009). Education reform in Latin America: Equal educational opportunity? *GIST Education and Learning Research Journal*, 3, 134.
- OECD. (2016). PISA 2015: PISA results in focus. Retrieved from <https://www.oecd.org/pisa/pisa-2015-results-in-focus.pdf>
- Ogliastri, E. (2007). Colombia: The human relations side of enterprise. In J. S. Chokar, F. C. Brodbeck, & R. J. House (Eds.), *Culture and leadership across the world: The GLOBE book of in-depth studies of 25 societies*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Orellana, V. (2015). Current situation and challenges of higher education in Latin America and the Caribbean. *Oficina de Santiago*, 6, 1-14.

- Osland, J. S., Franco, S., & Osland, A. (1999). Organizational implications of Latin American culture: Lessons for the expatriate manager. *Journal of Management Inquiry*, 8(2), 219–234.
- Panitz, D. R., McConchie, R. D., Sauber, S. R., & Fonseca, J. A. (1983). The role of machismo and the Hispanic family in the etiology and treatment of alcoholism in Hispanic American males. *The American Journal of Family Therapy*, 11(1), 31–44.
- Pashiardis, P., & Johansson, O. (2016). *Successful school leadership: International perspectives*. New York: Bloomsbury Academic, an imprint of Bloomsbury Publishing, Plc.
- Patton, M.Q. (2015). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Pavon, F. Y. (2008). Improving educational quality in Honduras: Building a demand-driven education market. *Woodrow Wilson School Journal of Public and International Affairs*, 19(0), 193-213.
- Pickering, M. (2014). *Research methods for cultural studies*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
- Presser, S. (2004). *Methods for testing and evaluating survey questionnaires*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.
- Pugh, J. D. (2013). The short-term “bridge model” study abroad program: Peace building in Latin America. *PS: Political Science and Politics*, 46(4), 791-796.
- Punch, K. F., & SAGE Research Methods Core. (2003). *Survey research: The basics* (1st ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

- Quilan, K. (2011). Developing the whole student: Leading higher education initiatives that integrate mind and heart. Retrieved from https://www.learning.ox.ac.uk/media/global/wwwadminoxacuk/localsites/oxfordlearninginstitute/documents/overview/research/publications/Quinlan_Developing_2011.pdf
- Recht, R., & Wilderom, C. (1998). Latin American's dual reintegration. *International Studies of Management and Organization*, 28(2), 3–17.
- Riding, A. (1985). *Distant neighbors: A portrait of the Mexicans* (1st ed.). New York: Knopf.
- Rodriguez, D., Majluf, N., Abarca, N., & Bassa, I. 1999. Aspectos culturales de la gestión en empresas Chilenas. In A. Davila & N. Martinez (Eds.), *Cultura en organizaciones Latinas: Elementos, injerencia Y evidencia en los procesos organizacionales*. (pp. 225-255). Monterrey, Mexico: Siglo Veintiuno Editores.
- Romeo, J.M. (2003). Higher education in Latin America. *Higher Education in Europe*, 38(1), 41.
- Romero, E. J. (2004). Latin American leadership: El Patrón and El Líder Moderno. *Cross Cultural Management*, 11(3), 25–37.
- Ronen, S., & Shenkar, O. (1985). Clustering countries on attitudinal dimensions: A review and synthesis. *Academy of Management Review*, 10(3), 435–454.
- Rossmann, G.B. & Rallis, S.F. (2017). *An introduction to qualitative research: Learning in the field* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Rubin, H. J., & Rubin, I. (2005). *Qualitative interviewing: The art of hearing data* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Saldaña, J., & ProQuest Ebook Central. (2011). *Fundamentals of qualitative research*. New York: Oxford University Press.

- Santiago-Rivera, A. L., Arredondo, P., & Gallardo-Cooper, M. (2002). *Counseling Latinos and la familia: A practical guide*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Schaubroeck, J. M., Hannah, S. T., Avolio, B. J., Steve W. J. Kozlowski, Lord, R. G...Peng, A. C. (2012). Embessing ethical leadership within and across organization levels. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 55(5), 1053-1078.
- Schein, E. H., & EBSCOhost eBooks. (2004). *Organizational culture and leadership* (3rd ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Schuler, R. S., Jackson, S. E., Jackofsky, E., & Slocum, J. W. (1996). *Managing human resources in Mexico: A cultural understanding*. Greenwich: Elsevier Inc.
- Schwartz, S. H. (2006). Value orientations: Measurement, antecedents and consequences across nations. In R. Jowell, C. Roberts, R. Fitzgerald, & G. Eva (Eds.). *Measuring attitudes cross-nationally—Lessons from the European social survey*. London: Sage.
- Schwartzman, S. (1993). Policies for higher education in Latin America: The context. *Higher Education*, 25(1), 9-20.
- Sekiya, T., & Ashida, A. (2017). An analysis of primary school dropout patterns in Honduras. *Journal of Latinos and Education*, 16(1), 65-73.
- Shavelson, R. J., B. Dominguez, J. Marino, A. M. Mantilla, J. A. Morales, & E. Wiley. (2016). On the practices and challenges of measuring higher education value added: The Case of Colombia. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, 41(5), 695–720.
- Simmon, J.C. (2006). *Differences in leadership behaviors among North American and Latin American continuing education practitioners*. Retrieved from ProQuest. (Access No. 3211359).

- Smith, P., Peterson, M., D'Amorim, M., Davila, C., Gamas, E., Malvezzi, S., & Saiz, J. (1999). Leadership in Latin American organizations: An event management perspective. *Revista Interamericana De Psicologia*, 33(2), 93-120.
- Soares, A. M., Farhangmehr, M., & Shoham, A. (2007). Hofstede's dimensions of culture in international marketing studies. *Journal of Business Research*, 60(3), 277-284.
- Spinak, S. (1977). Maestros de America. *Revista Punto*, 21(2), 1.
- Stake, R. E. (1995). *The art of case study research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Stephens, G. K., & Greer, C. R. (1995). Doing business in Mexico: Understanding cultural differences. *Organizational Dynamics*, 24(1), 39-55.
- Szwarcberg Daby, M. (2016). Institutions count: Their role and significance in Latin America. *Contemporary Sociology*, 45(2), 227-228.
- Tashakkori, A., Teddlie, C., & SAGE Research Methods Core. (2010). *Sage handbook of mixed methods in social & behavioral research* (2nd ed.). Los Angeles: SAGE Publications.
- Taylor, S. J., & Bogdan, R. (1984). *Introduction to qualitative research methods: The search for meanings* (2nd ed.). New York: Wiley.
- Thomas, D. C., & Inkson, K. (2004). *Cultural intelligence: People skills for global business*. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler.
- Thompson, B. (2006). *Foundations of behavioral statistics: An insight-based approach*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Thompson, K. M., & Adkins, D. (2012). Addressing information resource issues through LIS education in Honduras. *Journal of Education for Library and Information Science*, 53(4), 254.

- Thorn, K. (2006). *Latin American universities and the third mission: Trends, challenges, and policy options*. Washington D.C: World Bank.
- Titei, A. (2013). Caudillismo: Identity landmark of Hispanic American authoritarian political culture. *Philobiblon*, 18(2), 283-296.
- Torrecilla, J., & Carrasco, M. (2011). La distribución del tiempo de los directores de escuelas de educación primaria en América Latina y su incidencia en el desempeño de los estudiantes. *Revista de Educación*, 361(138), 141-170.
- Trompenaars F. & Hampden Turner C. (1998). *Riding the waves of culture*. (2nd ed.). London: Nicholas Brealey Publishing Ltd.
- Tyner, N. (2013). International cooperation: The study abroad experience. *Michigan Academician*, 41(3), 377-388.
- USAID. (2011). Education: Opportunity through learning (USAID education strategy 2011-2015). Retrieved from http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/Pdacq946.pdf
- Ungar, M. (2013). The rot within: Security and corruption in Latin America. *Social Research*, 80(4), 1187-1212.
- Vassolo, R. S., De Castro, J. O., & Gomez-Mejia, L. R. (2011). Managing in Latin America: Common issues and a research agenda. *Academy of Management Perspective*, 25(4), 22-36.
- Villarruel, F., & Chahin, J. (1997). Beyond the myths: Paternal values of Latino fathers. *Michigan Family Review*, 3(1), 17-30.
- Walker, A., Bridges, E., & Chan, B. (1996). Wisdom gained, wisdom given: Instituting PBL in a Chinese culture. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 34(5), 12-31.

- Walker, A., & Dimmock, C. A. J. (2002). *School leadership and administration: Adopting a cultural perspective*. New York: Routledge Falmer.
- Walumbwa, F. O., Mayer, D. M., Wang, H., Wang P., Workman, K., & Christensen, A. L. (2011). Linking ethical leadership to employee performance: The roles of leader-member exchange, self-efficacy, and organizational identification. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 115(2), 204-213.
- Weller, C. (2017). A Peruvian billionaire contracted a world-famous design firm to remake his country's private school system, and the results are stunning. Retrieved from <http://www.businessinsider.com/innova-schools-peru-education-2017-7>
- Wellmon, C. (2017). For moral clarity, don't look to universities. Retrieved from <http://www.chronicle.com/article/For-Moral-Clarity-Dont-Look/24092>
- Williams, R. J. (2016). Youth violence and citizen security in Central America's Northern Triangle. Retrieved from https://innovate.cired.vt.edu/wpcontent/uploads/2015/09/RJWilliams_violenceFINAL.pdf
- Winthrop, R., & Martin, A. (2018). Innovation to leapfrog educational progress in Latin America. Retrieved from <https://www.brookings.edu/research/innovation-to-leapfrog-educational-progress-in-latin-america>
- Wit, H.D. (2005). *Higher education in Latin America: the international dimension*. Washington, D.C.: World Bank.
- Wolcott, H. F. (1994). *Transforming qualitative data: Description, analysis, and interpretation*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Wolf-Wendel, L. E., & Ruel, M. (1999). Developing the whole student: The collegiate ideal.

New Directions for Higher Education, 1999(105), 35-46.

World Bank. Higher education expanding in Latin America and the Caribbean but falling short of potential. (2017). Retrieved from <http://www.worldbank.org/en/news/press-release/2017/05/17/higher-education-expanding-in-latin-america-and-the-caribbean-but-falling-short-of-potential>

World University Rankings. (2016). Retrieved from https://www.timeshighereducation.com/world-university-rankings/2017/world-ranking#!/page/0/length/25/sort_by/rank/sort_order/asc/cols/stats

Yin, R. K. (2014). *Case study research: Design and methods* (5th ed.). Los Angeles: SAGE.

Appendix A: Sample Letter to Rectors



Dear _____,

My name is Ben Moss, and I am a doctoral student at TCU studying Higher Education Leadership. I am contacting you to ascertain your interest in participating in a research project examining the elements that are evident in a successful leadership culture in Latin American universities. The study will examine the university rector role, leadership team members, and students in order to understand the leadership culture in Latin American universities. Through examining the methods, systems, structures and organizational behaviors of leadership at an institution of higher learning in Latin America, the research will call attention to the unique responsibilities of the rector. Your input could help us discover important insights and expand the field of leadership studies to Latin American universities. The data obtained from this research could also help inform future university leaders about the expectations required to be successful in Latin America. Your participation is completely voluntary. Interviews will last 90-120 minutes and if you agree to be shadowed/observed, you should allow for an additional four to eight hours on two different occasions. All personnel will be invited to participate separately. The scheduling of interviews will not run together, so participants will not be inadvertently identified to one another. If you are interested in participating in this study, please contact me at your earliest convenience at +1.214.883.3591 or ben.moss@tcu.edu. Please see the enclosed consent file containing more information about the study. I thank you in advance for your time in reviewing this letter.

Sincerely,

Ben Moss
Ph.D. Candidate
Ben.Moss@tcu.edu
+1-214-883-3591
Dr. Don Mills
Distinguished Faculty, TCU

Appendix B: Sample Letter to Leadership Team Members

Dear _____,

My name is Ben Moss, and I am a doctoral student at TCU studying Higher Education Leadership. I am contacting you to ascertain your interest in participating in a research project examining the elements that are evident in a successful leadership culture in Latin American universities. The study will examine the university rector's role, leadership team members, and students in order to understand the leadership culture in Latin American universities. Through examining the methods, systems, structures and organizational behaviors of leadership at an institution of higher learning in Latin America, the research will call attention to the unique perspectives of subordinate members of the leadership team. Your input could help us discover important insights and expand the field of leadership studies to Latin American universities. The data obtained from this research could also help inform future university leadership about the expectations required to be successful in Latin America. Your participation is completely voluntary. Interviews will last 60-90 minutes. All personnel will be invited to participate separately. The scheduling of interviews will not run together, so participants will not be inadvertently identified to one another. If you are interested in participating in this study, please contact me at your earliest convenience at +1.214.883.3591 or ben.moss@tcu.edu. Please see the enclosed consent file containing more information about the study. I thank you in advance for your time in reviewing this letter.

Sincerely,

Ben Moss
Ph.D. Candidate
Ben.Moss@tcu.edu
+1-214-883-3591
Dr. Don Mills
Distinguished Faculty, TCU

Appendix C: Sample Letter to Students

Dear _____,

My name is Ben Moss, and I am a doctoral student at TCU studying Higher Education Leadership. I am contacting you to ascertain your interest in participating in a research project examining the elements that are evident in a successful leadership culture in Latin American universities. The study will examine the unique perspectives of students regarding their view of Latin American leadership and specifically, the role of the rector. Your input could help us discover important insight and expand the field of leadership studies to Latin American universities. The data obtained from this research could also help inform future university leadership about the expectations required to be successful in Latin America. Your participation is completely voluntary. Interviews will last 45-60 minutes. All personnel will be invited to participate separately. The scheduling of interviews will not run together, so participants will not be inadvertently identified to one another. If you are interested in participating in this study, please contact me at your earliest convenience at +1.214.883.3591 or ben.moss@tcu.edu. Please see the enclosed consent file containing more information about the study. I thank you in advance for your time in reviewing this letter.

Sincerely,

Ben Moss
Ph.D. Candidate
Ben.Moss@tcu.edu
+1-214-883-3591
Dr. Don Mills
Distinguished Faculty, TCU

Appendix D: Rector Consent Form

Texas Christian University
Fort Worth, Texas



CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Title of Research: “Leadership Culture in Latin American Universities”

Funding Agency/Sponsor: N/A

Study Investigators: Donald Mills, Ben Moss

What is the purpose of the research? The intent of the proposed study is to learn about and understand what makes a successful leadership culture in Latin American universities and shed light on the key role that culture plays in determining leadership style. The study will examine the university rector’s role, leadership team members, and students in order to understand the leadership culture in Latin American universities.

How many people will participate in this study? 1 university rector, 2-3 subordinates on the leadership team, and 6 students.

What is my involvement for participating in this study? If you agree to this study, you agree to participate in interviews and observation/shadowing.

How long am I expected to be in this study for and how much of my time is required? The study will take place November 2017- September 2018. During each of the two trips, you will be asked to conduct a 60-90-minute interview. If you agree to be observed/shadowed, it will require an additional 4-8 hours during each trip.

What are the risks of participating in this study and how will they be minimized? Minimal risks have been identified for participation in this study. Emotional risks may include anxiety during interviews. To minimize this risk the researcher will work to establish a trusting relationship. You may also exit the study at any point. There are also minimal risks associated with native language, data collection loss, job security, and the possibility of names being identified. In order to account for these risks, the researcher plans to transcribe the interviews using professionals in the native language, allow participants to avoid language that would be detrimental to their position at the institution, store and transfer files to password protected flash drives, and replace all names with pseudonyms in study documents.

What are the benefits for participating in this study? There are two primary benefits to the study. Rectors have the opportunity to better understand the relationship between culture and leadership. Secondly, the study presents a similar benefit to society in the form of people gaining more

understanding of the connection between leadership and culture. The study will also unlock important insight and expand the field of leadership studies to Latin American universities.

Will I be compensated for participating in this study? No

What is an alternate procedure(s) that I can choose instead of participating in this study? None

How will my confidentiality be protected? The interviews will be recorded using a digital audio recorder, saved onto a password-protected hard drive, and stored in other areas to prevent data loss. Transcriptions will be conducted using a transcription service and locked in a filing cabinet along with the observation field notes and consent forms. Your name will be coded with a pseudonym and will not appear in the final research project. Appointments for the study will not be made back to back. The scheduling of interviews will not run together so that participants will not be inadvertently identified to one another.

Is my participation voluntary? Your participation in this research study is voluntary, and you may decide to withdraw at any time without penalty. If you decide to withdraw before the completion of the study, the entire process is not terminated for the institution. Each participant will be separately invited to participate.

Can I stop taking part in this research? Yes

What are the procedures for withdrawal? You may contact the researcher and ask to be removed from the study at any time. This contact information is provided below.

Will I be given a copy of the consent document to keep? Yes

Who should I contact if I have questions regarding the study? Dr. Donald Mills, Distinguished Professor, College of Education, 817-257-6938; d.mills@tcu.edu; or Ben Moss, Investigator, 214-883-3591; ben.moss@tcu.edu

Who should I contact if I have concerns regarding my rights as a study participant?

Dr. Cathy Cox, TCU Institutional Review Board, Phone 817-257-6418.

Dr. Tim Barth, TCU Research Integrity Office, Phone 817-257-6427.

Your signature below indicates that you have read or been read the information provided above, you have received answers to all of your questions and have been told who to call if you have any more questions, you have freely decided to participate in this research, and you understand that you are not giving up any of your legal rights.

Participant Name (please print): _____

Participant Signature: _____ **Date:** _____

Investigator Name (please print): _____ **Date:** _____

Investigator Signature: _____ **Date:** _____

Appendix E: Leadership Team Members Consent Form

Texas Christian University
Fort Worth, Texas



CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Title of Research: “Leadership Culture in Latin American Universities”

Funding Agency/Sponsor: N/A

Study Investigators: Donald Mills, Ben Moss

What is the purpose of the research? The intent of the proposed study is to learn about and understand what makes a successful leadership culture in Latin American universities and shed light on the key role that culture plays in determining leadership style. The study will examine the university rector’s role, leadership team members, and students in order to understand the leadership culture in Latin American universities.

How many people will participate in this study? 1 university rector, 2-3 subordinates on the leadership team, and 6 students.

What is my involvement for participating in this study? If you agree to this study, you agree to participate in interviews.

How long am I expected to be in this study for and how much of my time is required? The study will take place November 2017- September 2018. During each of the two trips, you will be asked to conduct a 60-90-minute interview.

What are the risks of participating in this study and how will they be minimized? Minimal risks have been identified for participation in this study. Emotional risks may include anxiety during interviews. To minimize this risk the researcher will work to establish a trusting relationship. You may also exit the study at any point. There are also minimal risks associated with native language, data collection loss, job security, and the possibility of names being identified. In order to account for these risks, the researcher plans to transcribe the interviews using professionals in the native language, allow participants to avoid language that would be detrimental to their position at the institution, store and transfer files to password protected flash drives, and replace all names with pseudonyms in study documents.

What are the benefits for participating in this study? There are two primary benefits to the study. Members of the leadership team have the opportunity to better understand the relationship between culture and leadership. Secondly, the study presents a similar benefit to society in the form of people gaining more understanding of the connection between leadership and culture. The study will also unlock important insight and expand the field of leadership studies to Latin American universities.

Will I be compensated for participating in this study? No

What is an alternate procedure(s) that I can choose instead of participating in this study? None

How will my confidentiality be protected? The interviews will be recorded using a digital audio recorder, saved onto a password-protected hard drive, and stored in other areas to prevent data loss. Transcriptions will be conducted using a transcription service and locked in a filing cabinet along with the observation field notes and consent forms. Your name will be coded with a pseudonym and will not appear in the final research project. The rector will not be made aware of which leadership team members are involved in the study. Appointments will not be made back to back. The scheduling of interviews will not run together so that participants will not be inadvertently identified to one another.

Is my participation voluntary? Your participation in this research study is voluntary, and you may decide to withdraw at any time without penalty. If you decide to withdraw before the completion of the study, the entire process is not terminated for the institution. Each participant will be separately invited to participate.

Can I stop taking part in this research? Yes

What are the procedures for withdrawal? You may contact the researcher and ask to be removed from the study at any time. This contact information is provided below.

Will I be given a copy of the consent document to keep? Yes

Who should I contact if I have questions regarding the study? Dr. Donald Mills, Distinguished Professor, College of Education, 817-257-6938; d.mills@tcu.edu; or Ben Moss, Investigator, 214-883-3591; ben.moss@tcu.edu

Who should I contact if I have concerns regarding my rights as a study participant?

Dr. Cathy Cox, TCU Institutional Review Board, Phone 817-257-6418.

Dr. Tim Barth, TCU Research Integrity Office, Phone 817-257-6427.

Your signature below indicates that you have read or been read the information provided above, you have received answers to all of your questions and have been told who to call if you have any more questions, you have freely decided to participate in this research, and you understand that you are not giving up any of your legal rights.

Participant Name (please print): _____

Participant Signature: _____ **Date:** _____

Investigator Name (please print): _____ **Date:** _____

Investigator Signature: _____ **Date:** _____

Appendix F: Student Consent Form

Texas Christian University
Fort Worth, Texas



CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Title of Research: “Leadership Culture in Latin American Universities”

Funding Agency/Sponsor: N/A

Study Investigators: Donald Mills, Ben Moss

What is the purpose of the research? The intent of the proposed study is to learn about and understand what makes a successful leadership culture in Latin American universities and shed light on the key role that culture plays in determining leadership style. The study will examine the university rector’s role, leadership team members, and students in order to understand the leadership culture in Latin American universities.

How many people will participate in this study? 1 university rector, 2-3 subordinates on the leadership team, and 6 students.

What is my involvement for participating in this study? If you agree to this study, you agree to participate in interviews.

How long am I expected to be in this study for and how much of my time is required? The study will take place November 2017- September 2018. You will be asked to conduct a 45-60-minute interview.

What are the risks of participating in this study and how will they be minimized? Minimal risks have been identified for participation in this study. Emotional risks may include anxiety during interviews. To minimize this risk the researcher will work to establish a trusting relationship. You may also exit the study at any point. There are also minimal risks associated with native language, data collection loss, and the possibility of names being identified. In order to account for these risks, the researcher plans to transcribe the interviews using professionals in the native language, store and transfer files to password protected flash drives, and replace all names with pseudonyms in study documents. In addition, to protect from potential retribution if your comments are seen as negative, the researcher will not involve the leadership team of the institution in the selection process.

What are the benefits for participating in this study? There are two primary benefits to the study. Students will have the opportunity to better understand the relationship between culture and leadership. Secondly, the study presents a similar benefit to society in the form of people gaining more

understanding of the connection between leadership and culture. The study will also unlock important insight and expand the field of leadership studies to Latin American universities.

Will I be compensated for participating in this study? No

What is an alternate procedure(s) that I can choose instead of participating in this study? None

How will my confidentiality be protected? The interviews will be recorded using a digital audio recorder, saved onto a password-protected hard drive, and stored in other areas to prevent data loss. Transcriptions will be conducted using a transcription service and locked in a filing cabinet along with the observation field notes and consent forms. Your name will be coded with a pseudonym and will not appear in the final research project. Appointments will not be made back to back. The scheduling of interviews will not run together so that participants will not be inadvertently identified to one another.

Is my participation voluntary? Your participation in this research study is voluntary, and you may decide to withdraw at any time without penalty. If you decide to withdraw before the completion of the interview, the entire process is not terminated for the institution. Each participant will be separately invited to participate.

Can I stop taking part in this research? Yes

What are the procedures for withdrawal? You may contact the researcher and ask to be removed from the study at any time. This contact information is provided below.

Will I be given a copy of the consent document to keep? Yes

Who should I contact if I have questions regarding the study? Dr. Donald Mills, Distinguished Professor, College of Education, 817-257-6938; d.mills@tcu.edu; or Ben Moss, Investigator, 214-883-3591; ben.moss@tcu.edu

Who should I contact if I have concerns regarding my rights as a study participant?

Dr. Cathy Cox, TCU Institutional Review Board, Phone 817-257-6418.

Dr. Tim Barth, TCU Research Integrity Office, Phone 817-257-6427.

Your signature below indicates that you have read or been read the information provided above, you have received answers to all of your questions and have been told who to call if you have any more questions, you have freely decided to participate in this research, and you understand that you are not giving up any of your legal rights.

Participant Name (please print): _____

Participant Signature: _____ **Date:** _____

Investigator Name (please print): _____ **Date:** _____

Investigator Signature: _____ **Date:** _____

Appendix G: Observation Protocol

Time:
Place:
Purpose:

Researcher Questions:

- 1. What elements comprise a successful university leadership culture in Latin America?
- 2. What are the actions required to fulfill the role of rector at a national university in Latin America?

General Notes:

Map of the Room:

Time	Observation Notes	Inferences

Appendix H: Rector Interview Protocol

Interview Protocol: Rector

INTRODUCTION: Hello, thank you for meeting with me today and agreeing to participate in the study. To facilitate my note taking, I would like to audio record our conversation. For your information, only professionals in the native language will transcribe these interviews. The Consent Document states that: (1) all personal information will be kept confidential (2) your name will be coded with a pseudonym and will not appear in the final research project (3) your participation is voluntary, and you may stop the interview or withdraw from the study at any time by notifying the researcher or the University IRB, and (4) the study does not present any more than minimal risk. If you agree to participate, please sign the consent document.

[Pause to allow participant to sign form, file/collect the signed form. Leave a copy of the letter with the participant.]

Thank you for agreeing to participate.

You have been selected to speak with me today because of your status as a university rector at a national university in Latin America. I am interviewing you today as part of the project: "Leadership Culture in Latin American Universities." The interview aims to understand the elements that contribute to a successful leadership culture in Latin American universities. The study will call attention to one national university rector, subordinates on his/her leadership team, and students at the university in order to understand the values and actions needed to fulfill the role of rector. I have planned for the interview to last no longer than 60-90 minutes. Just so you are aware, I have prepared some questions that are intended to guide our conversation. I might also take a few notes. Let us begin.

Questions: Rector

Introduction

1. What is the role of the rector?
2. How did you first become interested in this role?

Culture/History

1. How has history shaped university leadership style?
2. Today, how does culture influence university leadership?

Leadership Style

1. What is university leadership?
2. How did you acquire this unique insight?
3. How have your values shaped your leadership style?
4. Is there a particular leader you try to model? If so, who?
5. What style of leadership is most effective in your position?

Vision

1. What is your vision for the university?

2. How do you mobilize people to support your vision?
3. What impact can the rector and your office have on the quality of higher education in Latin America?

Strategy

1. In your position, how do you design a strategic plan?
2. How do you decide what to delegate versus what to manage yourself?

Students

1. What types of priorities do you place on students?
2. How do students influence the university?
3. How do you ensure that student opinions are heard?

Outside

1. What is the role of rector in work with other rectors in the region?

Challenges

1. Complete the statement...I know I am being challenged in my role when _____.
2. In your experience, how do you overcome obstacles?
3. What are the daily hurdles you face as a leader?
4. Recognizing that every leader has limitations, what characteristics or qualities might hamper your effectiveness as a leader?

Fulfillment

1. What is the most rewarding part of your role?
2. Any personal anecdote of when you positively impacted the university?

Appendix I: Leadership Team Members Interview Protocol

Interview Protocol: Leadership Team Members

INTRODUCTION: Hello, thank you for meeting with me today and agreeing to participate in the study. To facilitate my note taking, I would like to audio record our conversation. For your information, only professionals in the native language will transcribe these interviews. The Consent Document states that: (1) all personal information will be kept confidential (2) your name will be coded with a pseudonym and will not appear in the final research project (3) your participation is voluntary and you may stop the interview or withdraw from the study at any time by notifying the researcher or the University IRB, and (4) the study does not present any more than minimal risk. If you agree to participate, please sign the consent document.

[Pause to allow participant to sign form, file/collect the signed form. Leave a copy of the letter with the participant.]

Thank you for agreeing to participate.

You have been selected to speak with me today because of your status as a member of a university leadership team at a national university in Latin America. I am interviewing you today as part of the project: "Leadership Culture in Latin American Universities." The interview aims to understand the elements that contribute to a successful leadership culture in Latin American universities. The study will call attention to one national university rector, subordinates on his/her leadership team, and students at the university in order to understand the values and actions needed to fulfill the role of rector. I have planned for the interview to last no longer than 60-90 minutes. Just so you are aware, I have prepared some questions that are intended to guide our conversation. I might also take a few notes. Let us begin.

Questions: Leadership Team Members

1. What is university leadership?
2. What style of leadership is most effective in your position?
3. How have your values shaped your perception of university leadership?
4. What role does vision play in leading the university?
5. In your position, how do you design and implement a strategic plan?
6. What characteristics are essential in the role of rector at the university?
7. Can you relate a time when your leadership positively impacted the university?
8. Can you relate a time when your leadership negatively impacted the university?
9. Have you ever worked for another college rector in Latin America? If so, what insights have you gained from their leadership style?

Appendix J: Student Interview Protocol

Interview Protocol: Students

INTRODUCTION: Hello, thank you for meeting with me today and agreeing to participate in the study. To facilitate my note taking, I would like to audio record our conversation. For your information, only professionals in the native language will transcribe these interviews. The Consent Document states that: (1) all personal information will be kept confidential (2) your name will be coded with a pseudonym and will not appear in the final research project (3) your participation is voluntary and you may stop the interview or withdraw from the study at any time by notifying the researcher or the University IRB, and (4) the study does not present any more than minimal risk. If you agree to participate, please sign the consent document.

[Pause to allow participant to sign form, file/collect the signed form. Leave a copy of the letter with the participant.]

Thank you for agreeing to participate.

You have been selected to speak with me today because of your status as a university student leader at a national university in Latin America. I am interviewing you today as part of the project: "Leadership Culture in Latin American Universities." The interview aims to understand the elements that contribute to a successful leadership culture in Latin American universities. The study will call attention to one national university rector, subordinates on his/her leadership team, and students at the university in order to understand the values and actions needed to fulfill the role of rector. I have planned for the interview to last no longer than 45-60 minutes. Just so you are aware, I have prepared some questions that are intended to guide our conversation. I might also take a few notes. Let us begin.

Questions: Students

1. What is university leadership?
2. What qualities do you value most in a university leader?
3. How have your values shaped your perception of university leadership?
4. What do students perceive are the essential characteristics to lead a university?
5. At your university, what role do students play in the decision-making process?
6. Should the rector be engaged with the student body? If so, how?
7. Should the rector be engaged with the surrounding community? If so, how?

Appendix K: Sample Student Survey: English Version

Survey About University Leadership

This research project is sponsored by Texas Christian University. TCU is a private liberal arts institution located in Texas. The purpose of the study is to understand what elements contribute to a successful leadership culture in Latin American universities. The following survey is to help the researcher better understand this culture and the role of rector from students' perspectives. In order to complete the survey, you must be currently enrolled as a student at the university. By completing the survey, you are affirming your consent to participate. No awards of any form will be granted for participation, and no risks have been identified. You are not required to participate. If you choose to participate, your name will remain anonymous. Responses will remain confidential, guarded on a password-protected computer, and stored in a locked filing cabinet of the principle investigator. Completing the survey will help the researcher to further understand the leadership culture of Latin American universities. The survey has two sections and should take about 10 minutes. You are allowed to skip any questions you do not want to answer. There will be no adverse results should you choose to participate.

A. This part refers to general leadership.

Various individuals have used these adjectives to describe university leadership. In your opinion, check all characteristics that apply.

- | | | |
|--|--------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Sociable | <input type="checkbox"/> Strong | <input type="checkbox"/> Accessible |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Understanding | <input type="checkbox"/> Assertive | <input type="checkbox"/> Innovative |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Efficient | <input type="checkbox"/> Decisive | <input type="checkbox"/> Fair |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Supportive | <input type="checkbox"/> Polite | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Honest | <input type="checkbox"/> Intelligent | |

Here is a collection of adjectives that describe an effective university leader. Choose your top five characteristics that you believe are important. *One* represents the most important characteristic. Add a characteristic not mentioned in the list above that you view as relevant.

Sociable Understanding Efficient Supportive Honest Strong Assertive Decisive Polite Intelligent Accessible Innovative Fair	<div style="margin-bottom: 20px;"> (Most important) <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; margin-top: 5px;"> 1- _____ </div> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; margin-top: 5px;"> 2- _____ </div> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; margin-top: 5px;"> 3- _____ </div> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; margin-top: 5px;"> 4- _____ </div> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; margin-top: 5px;"> 5- _____ </div> </div> <div> (Own characteristic) <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; margin-top: 5px;"> 6- _____ </div> </div>
--	--

Respond to the following questions based on your understanding of university leadership. Choose between Strongly Agree, Agree, Neither Agree Nor Disagree, Disagree, and Strongly Disagree.

☐ Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Neither Agree Nor Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree

4. The history of our country plays an important role in the type of leadership that exists today.
5. There is a connection between the culture and the form in which one leads in a particular region.
6. The most effective leadership style is a top-down approach.
7. A leader expresses what they think and feel without offending.
8. Leaders make decisions and receive feedback from group members.
9. Leaders should communicate directly with subordinates about the direction of the organization.
10. Great leaders support followers in exchange for loyalty to the university.
11. Leaders understand that loyalty to the group is more important than expressing one's individuality.
12. Leaders recognize that people and organizations need each other to be successful.
13. The best leaders delegate responsibilities.
14. Teamwork is essential for organizational success.
15. Leaders recognize that familial relationships can influence their hiring decisions.
16. Leaders try to create peaceful, low-conflict environments.
17. The ability to overcome challenges is one of the signs of an effective leader.

B. This part refers to the role of the university rector.

Respond to the following questions based on your understanding of the role of rector at the university. Choose between Strongly Agree, Agree, Neither Agree Nor Disagree, Disagree, and Strongly Disagree.

☐ Strongly Agree ☐ Agree ☐ Neither Agree Nor Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Strongly Disagree

18. The rector has the ability to positively impact higher education in a region.
19. The ability to mobilize others to support a vision is an important characteristic for the university leader.
20. Designing goals and meeting goals is essential for the rector.
21. Developing a strategic plan is one of the primary responsibilities of the rector.
22. The rector should have the ability to be flexible when confronting difficult situations.
23. Listening to the opinions of students is one of the responsibilities of the rector.
24. The rector should collaborate with the surrounding community and government leaders to boost the profile of the institution.
25. The rector and other members of the university should share the responsibility of resolving conflicts.
26. A sense of fulfillment should motivate the rector.

Would you be open to participating in additional research examining the leadership culture at Latin American universities through conducting an interview? Mark ☐ Yes or ☐ No

The survey is now complete! Thank you for your participation.

Appendix L: Sample Student Survey: Spanish Version

Encuesta Sobre el Liderazgo Universitario

Este proyecto es una investigación de Texas Christian University. TCU es una institución privada de artes liberales ubicada en Texas. El propósito del estudio es comprender qué elementos contribuyen a una cultura de liderazgo exitosa en las universidades latinoamericanas. La siguiente encuesta es para ayudar al investigador a comprender mejor esta cultura y el papel del rector desde la perspectiva de los estudiantes. Para completar la encuesta, tiene que ser un estudiante en la universidad. Su participación en este estudio es voluntaria y no recibirá ninguna compensación por completar esta encuesta. Si elige participar, su nombre permanecerá anónimo. El completar esta encuesta confirma su consentimiento para participar en esta investigación. Si elija participar, su nombre permanecerá anónimo. Las respuestas se mantendrán confidenciales, protegidas en una computadora en un archivador del investigador principal. Hacer la encuesta ayudará al investigador a entender mejor la cultura del liderazgo de las universidades latinoamericanas. La encuesta tiene 2 secciones y debe tomar aproximadamente diez minutos. Usted puede omitir cualquier pregunta si no quiere responder. No serán resultados malos si decide participar.

A. Esta parte se refiere al liderazgo en general.

Varias personas han usado estos adjetivos para describir el liderazgo en la universidad. En su opinión, elija todas las características que apliquen.

- | | | |
|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Sociable | <input type="checkbox"/> Fuerte | <input type="checkbox"/> Accesible |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Comprensivo | <input type="checkbox"/> Asertivo | <input type="checkbox"/> Innovador |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Eficiente | <input type="checkbox"/> Decisivo | <input type="checkbox"/> Justo |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Solidario | <input type="checkbox"/> Cortez | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Honesto | <input type="checkbox"/> Inteligente | |

A continuación, hay una colección de adjetivos que describen un líder efectivo universitario. Elija las cinco características que usted cree son importantes. *Uno* representa la característica más importante. Añada otra característica no mencionada en la lista abajo que usted considera relevante.

Sociable Comprensivo Eficiente Apoyador Honesto Fuerte Asertivo Decisivo Cortez Inteligente Accesible Innovador Justo	(Más importante) (Característica suya)	1- _____ 2- _____ 3- _____ 4- _____ 5- _____ 6- _____
---	---	--

Responda a las siguientes preguntas según su entendimiento del liderazgo universitario. Elija entre Muy de acuerdo, De acuerdo, Ni de acuerdo/ ni desacuerdo, Desacuerdo, y Muy desacuerdo.

☐ Muy de acuerdo ☐ De acuerdo ☐ Ni de acuerdo/ ni desacuerdo ☐ Desacuerdo ☐ Muy desacuerdo

4. La historia de nuestro país tiene un rol importante en el tipo de liderazgo que existe hoy.
5. Hay una conexión entre la cultura y la forma en que alguien lidera en una región.
6. El estilo de liderazgo más efectivo tiene una jerarquía.
7. El líder expresa lo que piensa y siente sin ofender.
8. Los líderes hacen decisiones y reciben retroalimentación de los miembros del grupo.
9. Los líderes deben comunicarse directamente con sus subordinados sobre la dirección de la organización.
10. Los líderes que apoyan a sus seguidores lo hacen con la expectativa que recibirán lealtad a su universidad.
11. Los líderes entienden que la lealtad al grupo es más importante que expresar su propia individualidad.
12. Los líderes reconocen que las personas y las organizaciones se necesitan mutuamente para tener éxito.
13. Los mejores líderes delegan responsabilidades.
14. El trabajo de equipo es esencial para el éxito de la universidad.
15. Los líderes reconocen que sus relaciones familiares pueden influir el proceso de ofrecer un puesto laboral.
16. Los líderes tratan de crear ambientes tranquilos y de menos conflicto.
17. La capacidad de vencer los retos es una de las señales de un líder efectivo.

B. Esta parte se refiere al papel del rector universitario.

Responda las siguientes preguntas en función de su comprensión del rol del rector en la universidad. Elija entre Muy de acuerdo, De acuerdo, Ni de acuerdo/ ni desacuerdo, Desacuerdo, y Muy desacuerdo.

☐ Muy de acuerdo ☐ De acuerdo ☐ Ni de acuerdo/ ni desacuerdo ☐ Desacuerdo ☐ Muy desacuerdo

18. El rector tiene la capacidad de impactar positivamente la educación superior en una región.
19. La capacidad de movilizar a personas para apoyar una visión es una característica importante para el rector.
20. El diseño de metas y cumplimiento de metas es esencial para el rector.
21. Desarrollar un plan estratégico es una de las principales responsabilidades del rector.
22. El rector debe tener la capacidad de ser flexible cuando se enfrenta a situaciones difíciles.
23. Escuchar las opiniones de los estudiantes es una de las responsabilidades del rector.
24. El rector debe colaborar con la comunidad y los líderes gubernamentales para impulsar el perfil de la institución.
25. El rector y otros miembros de la universidad deben compartir la responsabilidad de resolver conflictos.
26. El sentirse satisfecho debe motivar al rector.

¿Le gustaría participar en investigaciones adicionales que examinarán la cultura del liderazgo en universidades latinoamericanas a través de una entrevista? Marque ☐ Sí o ☐ No

¡Ha completado la encuesta! ¡Gracias por su participación!