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Presidential Succession Planning for Governing Boards in Higher Education

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PRESIDENTIAL SUCCESSION PLANNING FOR GOVERNING BOARDS IN

HIGHER EDUCATION

A dissertation submitted to
the Graduate College of
Marshall University

in partial fulfillment of the
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Doctor of Education
in
Educational Leadership

by
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Marshall University
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DEDICATION

       This work is dedicated to my family. I could not have completed this without their never-ending support, understanding and encouragement. To my beautiful wife, Marsha, who was and is a ceaseless voice of support and encouragement. I appreciate you so much. To my wonderful sons, Garrett and Ethan, who consistently understood when Dad had to go "write." I hope this doctoral adventure has instilled in you my life-long love of learning. I would also like to thank my parents for their love and support throughout the years. My family is my solid foundation and my complete joy; thank you for your help and allowing me to fulfill this dream!

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ABSTRACT

Presidential Succession Planning for Governing Boards in Higher Education

This study examined desired characteristics presidents of colleges and universities exhibit through the perspective of the governing board chairperson. Three overarching characteristics investigated in this study were leadership ability, the ability to articulate a defined mission, and the ability to work with others. Comparisons were made between characteristic-determining questions to institution type and institution size. Participants were selected from a random sample of regional public colleges and universities and public community colleges that held membership in the American Association of State Colleges and Universities and the American Association of Community Colleges, respectively. Through the use of the Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5x), governing board chairpersons rated qualities they deem important for their campus leader. Data were examined through an analysis of variance (ANOVA) on individual questions and question groupings, and a comparative analysis was made of characteristic-based question groupings by institution type and size. Results showed that public community colleges and public four-year institutions value the same qualities, and that smaller schools were more likely to place a high value on leaders who display a strong sense of purpose, ethical leadership, voiced values and beliefs, and the ability to lead collectively toward a common goal. There was a strong correlation among the three characteristic groupings when compared with the other, non-grouped survey questions, showing that board chairs who value leadership skills are also looking for presidents who can clearly articulate a mission for the institution and who can work well with others.

PRESIDENTIAL SUCCESSION PLANNING FOR GOVERNING

BOARDS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION, OVERVIEW, PROBLEM STATEMENT

The selection of a college or university president "is one of [a governing] board's most important functions" (Nielsen and Newton 1997, pg. 34). It is important that the board have clear expectations of the type of individual they want to hire and the characteristics that the new president should possess. One obvious reason is the influence a "good" (effective) president or a "bad" (ineffective) president will have on the institution. A "good" president will leave a lasting impact on the institution in the form of strong enrollment, financial viability and increased stature of the institution. A "bad" president can do the very opposite and leave an institution in a vulnerable position.

A president must have a good working relationship with the board, especially the chairperson, in order to build a strong and viable institution.

"Together, the trustees and the president form the…college's leadership team. The team members challenge one another to see that every unmet need is filled, every resource wisely invested. To continue the rich tradition they have inherited, each member of the leadership team must find value in mutual support" (Nielsen and Newton, 1997, pg. 40).

This study will examine the qualifications governing boards seek in presidential candidates within three broad areas: ability to work with others, leadership ability, and the ability to articulate a clear mission or vision for the institution.

BACKGROUND

In early 17th century America, the president of an institution of higher education was an academic leader. Daily tasks for many presidents consisted of developing the curriculum and academic acumen of the faculty and students. In essence, the president was the chief academic officer. But the president, to be successful, had to understand the political aspects of the position in addition to the academic. "In short, the American college president from the start had to be an entrepreneur in the broadest and best sense of the word" (Thelin, 2004, p. 33). In this entrepreneurial spirit, early presidents understood the importance of board relations and how those relations impacted the college and the president.   For example, James Blair, an early president of the College of William and Mary, was able to convince his board of trustees to name him president for life. This lifetime appointment allowed Blair to interact with the early colonial government, whether positively or negatively, without fear of retribution from the board. With this freedom, Blair was able to convince political leaders to maintain and increase funding and advantages for his "beloved institution" (Thelin, 2004).

As presidents and boards began to realize the importance of board autonomy to make decisions for their respective institutions, the issue of board independence from governmental control was presented in the United States court system. In the landmark case of 1819, U. S. Supreme Court Chief Justice John Marshall decided *The Trustees of Dartmouth College versus Woodward* case and provided that "local sovereignty remained with the trustees of the corporation. They held the right to govern the institution and protect its autonomy, thereby rebuffing state intrusions into its very workings" (Goodchild, 2007, p. 38). The Dartmouth case was a result of the board removing the

sitting institution president, thus providing the New Hampshire legislature the potential to take control of the college and thereby appoint trustees. In essence, this action would make Dartmouth College a public institution. The case, as it was settled, gave the college, and by extension the private sector, the ability to maintain local control of their institution or corporation.

This case and others provided governing boards with the ability to hire the individual who would lead the institution on day-to-day operations without the intrusion of the government. With a shared vision the board and president could take the institution to a new level or new territory of learning. Today, this autonomy prevails in various aspects of operation, including the hiring of the president, for many institutions. This study addressed the characteristics that independent boards seek in their presidents and presidential candidates.

PURPOSE

The purpose of this study was to identify the leadership characteristics that governing boards seek in the office of the president at select two- and four-year institutions. The selection of a president can be a daunting task for all interested parties. To compound the difficulty of the selection process, diverse qualities and skill sets are needed to address the current expectations and challenges facing an institution. The skills a governing board seeks in a leader today may not be the skills sought in ten years and a standard job description is not applicable to the position of the president. For example, if the institution is challenged with funding issues, the new president must be a fundraiser. If the institution is facing academic integrity issues, a practicing academic may be the primary candidate. It is desirable to find a president who fills the needs currently

identified as important to the longevity and vitality of the institution. Additionally, stakeholders have a vested interest in selecting an individual who will provide vision and direction leading to prosperity for the institution. Faculty wish to find an individual who will provide a strong academic vision with an understanding of shared governance. Alumni want a president who will maintain the traditions of the university as well as having a plan to move the institution forward. Governing boards look for a president who will maintain the financial solvency of the institution, provide a strong vision for the institution and serve in an advocacy role. The question that must be answered is: Which leadership characteristics are most important for candidates to possess in order to attain the lofty goals of each constituency group?

PROBLEM

"More than half of college presidents plan to retire in the next six years" (Fain, 2010). According to the American Council on Education's seventh report on the American college presidency, the average age of current presidents is approximately 60 years of age as opposed to the 1986 reported average age of a president being 52 years of age (Cook, 2012). With this looming demand for a new chief executive on campuses across the United States, it is important to consider the type of individual that will fill the vacancies. "[P]residents will have been chosen for many reasons and to serve many purposes. They will have come from diverse worlds in higher education and from even more diverse worlds of human nature" (Kerr and Gade, 1987, p. 29). Governing boards are and will be in a position to select the individual that will lead the institution and thus make an impact on its history and future.

Many members of governing boards come from a corporate environment. This grounding in the business world gives them a different perspective on what necessary characteristics the leader of a multi-million dollar organization should have. "The past decade has been marked by an increasingly entrepreneurial and commercial approach to the management and finance of postsecondary institutions" (Pusser, Slaughter and Thomas, 2006, p. 747). A challenge arises when this dichotomy of business and academia collide. Constituencies on and off campus such as faculty, students and alumni believe they know what is best for the institution, but ultimately governing boards must make the decision about which individual to hire and to determine the characteristics the new president must possess. This situation may create tension between the governing board and campus constituency, which may be projected onto the new president.

Empirical research on governing boards' desired characteristics of postsecondary institution leadership is limited. This study will add to the body of knowledge as the United States faces a dramatic change in those who hold the highest position at colleges and universities. It is important to obtain the data that clarifies the leadership characteristics a president should possess.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study will examine factors and characteristics the president of a higher education institution is expected to have through the vantage point of the governing board chairperson. Following are the research questions that were examined:

1. To what extent, if any, does the type of institution affect characteristics governing boards seek in the office of president?

2. To what extent, if any, does the size of the institution affect characteristics governing boards seek in the office of president?

3. To what extent, if any, does a candidate's ability to work with others affect hiring decisions?

4. To what extent, if any, does a candidate's leadership ability affect hiring decisions?

5. To what extent, if any, does a candidate's ability to articulate a defined mission or vision affect hiring decisions?

This study examined whether the type and size of the institution--baccalaureate or community college--have an effect on the kind of leader the governing board seeks. Additionally, individuals considered for the highest office bring innate characteristics to the position. By examining the importance of leadership qualities, the ability to work with others, and having an articulated and defined vision, a clearer picture may evolve on leadership boards' expected qualities.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

With the impending shortage of college and university presidents across the United States (Fain, 2010), it is important to have documented research on the type of individuals that will fill the positions. As leaders emerge from the ranks of academia, fundraising and private business, this study may help leadership boards understand the characteristics that are essential for potential successful presidents and perhaps fill gaps within the literature on leadership qualities desired by governing boards. Studies have been completed researching the qualities that faculty, students and alumni desire in a president, but little research has been conducted to ascertain what qualities are important

to governing boards. As institutions of higher education, with governing boards as primary decision makers, begin to repopulate the ranks of presidents, this study assists in the identification of important commonalities found in the search to fill a campus' highest office. This study also adds to the literature important data that support a board's need for qualified individuals, based on three characteristics: working with others, leadership ability, and articulation of a common goal.

LIMITATIONS AND ASSUMPTIONS

This study focused only on two types of public higher education institutions, community colleges and regional comprehensive four-year undergraduate institutions. Additionally, each institution chosen has a leadership board that selects the president and has a direct relationship with the president. This study included select member institutions from the American Association of Community Colleges and select member institutions of the American Association of State Colleges and Universities, chosen at random from all colleges that met the aforementioned criteria. This study may not be applicable to private institutions or institutions that are part of a state university system where a governmental committee, as opposed to a local institutional board, chooses the president.

The following are further limitations to this study:

1. This study used a self-reporting questionnaire survey and was limited to the accuracy of the participants' responses (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000).
2. This study was limited to the governing board chairs and, as such, may not have captured the intent of individual board members.

3. It was assumed that the respondents answered questions truthfully. Further, it may have been possible that some respondents discarded the survey because of concern over exposing institutional inadequacies.

4. The survey instrument was adapted from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire 5x as published by Mind Garden, Inc. (Avolio and Bass, 2004). This leadership questionnaire has been used in multiple academic research activities but was modified for this study to capture demographic information and to define questions to better suit the participants.

5. The survey instrument was sent to chairs of leadership boards of identified schools. Due to some surveys being mailed directly to the institution address instead of the individuals' addresses, the total number of returned surveys may have been reduced if the recipient addressed was not on campus to receive the mail in a timely fashion. It is assumed that all reasonable efforts were taken to procure the highest number of returns.

6. Even though the surveyed institutions are located around the United States, the results may not be generalizable to specific institutions.

METHODS

The data for this study were collected using a modified version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire as published by Mind Garden, Inc. (Avolio and Bass, 2004). Efforts were made to ensure the anonymity of the respondents and their respective institutions. The instrument, a 50-question survey, was administered to governing board chairs in a random sample of 150 regional university member institutions of the American Association of State Colleges and Universities with an emphasis on teaching

and scholarly work. A random sample of 150 members of the American Association of Community Colleges was also surveyed. The instrument was modified to obtain basic demographic information and was delineated into three broad categories: how a presidential candidate works with others; leadership ability; and the candidate's ability to clearly articulate a mission or vision.   The instrument was distributed and collected online as well as through the traditional U.S. Mail system method.

The data were received and compiled, and regression and correlation tests were run to analyze the data for potential significance as related to the research questions.

SUMMARY

The study of characteristics that boards seek in presidential candidates is increasingly important as the looming shortage of chief leaders for America's institutions of higher learning becomes a reality. Answering the questions of whether size and type of institution require differing leadership characteristics, and whether specific characteristics have an effect on the decision of who will fill the office, is vital to the decision making process for board leaders. According to Masterson's article in *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, "Opportunities for new presidents will open up in the coming years, as 92% of current college presidents are in their mid-50s to mid-70s" (Masterson, 2009). Having empirical evidence of specific characteristics in leaders is valuable to those in the decision making process as they attempt to fill the positions vacated by experienced leaders.

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

The college or university presidency has historically adapted to the standards of

society in a way that invariably draws public scrutiny to the institution and its leaders. In

nearly 400 years of existence, the American college presidency has evolved into a

complexity of interrelated roles (Fleming, 2010). As the ranks of the college and

university presidents continue to age, it can be expected that a wave of retirements is

imminent and turnover is fast approaching (Stripling, 2013). A set of common

characteristics for examining higher education leadership does not exist. Because

leadership is so complex and individual to the leader and the institution, it is challenging

to ascertain what characteristics a strong leader must exhibit. Whereas a general

understanding of a standard set of leadership characteristics needed for the college or

university president is apparent, the weight or a hierarchy of the characteristics falls to

the governing board for their determination based on the needs of the institution at the

moment when a new presidential search has begun. An institution is reflective of those in

its highest ranks. As such, a positive affirmation of a university's mission can be attained

through positive leadership. As Davis (2006) contends, "We can feel it when it occurs

[and] we know when it is not there" (p. 3).   For this reason governing boards decide the

qualities they desire in their presidential candidates that are important to the institution

based on the current needs of that institution.

A governing board is generally reflective of its presiding officer, and this study

collected data from the board leader's perspective on desired characteristics they would

seek in a new campus president. Based on three broad characteristics groups —working

with others, leadership ability, and visioning—the board's need for qualified individuals for the highest position on many campuses is becoming increasingly important in light of an impending shortage of candidates. A 2008 study completed by Iowa State University indicates that a shortage of community college presidents is looming. According to the study, 79% of presidents were eligible to have retired by 2012 and 84% by 2016 (Ferlanzzo, 2008). Furthermore, Hammond supports the number of retirees in 2012 to be substantially higher than previous years indicating the beginning of the exodus of college and university presidents either through retirement or moving to other positions to include presidencies at other institutions or a return to faculty (Hammond, 2013).

The ability to work with others, to lead, and to articulate a mission/vision were selected for this study due to their importance in the presidency of an institution regardless of size or scope of curriculum. Sergiovanni (2007) asserts that when collegiality among shared participants is high, a culture is created that provides the ability to share in success and each contributes toward commitment exhibited by the leader. In other words, when a member of the faculty/staff team feels valued their productivity will increase and a better educational experience for the faculty and students will result. Maxwell (1999) maintained that the ability to work with other people and develop relationships is absolutely indispensable to effective leadership. As Maxwell pointed out, the ability to work with others entails the development of a relationship, one that requires mutual trust and understanding. A leader must have followers or the act of leadership is not present (Davis 2006). Therefore, without the ability to build relationships a leader cannot recruit followers and is, in essence, not leading. Furthermore, the president must be able to gather a team of senior administrators to help lead the institution and to

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articulate a vision to the team and to the community at large in order to provide a positive direction for the institution.

The well-being of an institution rests primarily on the president's ability to lead and the possession of distinct leadership qualities. Davis (2006) states that educational leadership is more difficult now than it has ever been (p. 5). The challenge that this study faced was how to define the leadership qualities desired in a president and what qualities are important to a given institution. Barnes (2007), Maxwell (1999), Davis (2006) and Blank (2001) all agree, in broad terms, on qualities that are vital to leaders: character, charisma, team building, communication, decision making, attitude and problem solving. Each of these qualities is important alone but when bundled together as a leadership package, a leader emerges. Leadership is challenging to pinpoint because characteristics that provide success for one individual may not provide success for another. With this said, the use of analytical testing and prior work experience can provide a window into the possibilities for any individual and what they may be able to accomplish as a president.

The ability of a presidential candidate to look beyond the present and see a dream of what could be is vital to institutional growth. Maxwell (1999) maintained that a leader must have a vision because the vision leads the leader. In *John F. Kennedy on Leadership: The Lessons and Legacy of a President* Barnes (2007*)* defines vision as a means to present an idealized view of what can be the future. It looks beyond the immediate future to what an organization can be in a given period of time. It gives employees something toward which to strive (p. 10).

BACKGROUND: HIGHER EDUCATION GOVERNANCE

The administration of a college or university or that of the community college has

changed dramatically over the four centuries that the United States has had an established

higher education system. With the chartering of Harvard (1636) and William and Mary

(1693), the precursor to the current system of governing was put in place. With each of

these, institution fellows and academic leaders were appointed to a governing board that

was charged to oversee the well-being of the institution, including the appointment of a

president. These governing boards were composed of internal constituencies that worked

in tandem with externally appointed leaders. These boards worked to advance the

institution and provide oversight to the business of the fledgling colleges, but left the

academic curriculum to the appointed presidents and fellows. This model was primarily

the English model, comparable to their contemporary chartered universities of Oxford

and Cambridge. In fact, the wording of the charters of all four schools was substantially

similar in organizational structure (Duryea, 1973).

In 1701 Yale College was established with a derivative of the English system.

The new system incorporated a complete external board to oversee the business of the

college. Based on the system used in the universities of northern Italy, Yale became an

independent corporation. In addition to the introduction of an external board, Yale also

provided the foundation for allowing internal academic control of the curriculum

(Duryea, 1973). The system of external controlling boards having oversight of nearly all

aspects of university operations has continued to the present.

Prior to the Civil War, many American colleges were small compared with

today's standard. The president was employed to maintain virtually all day-to-day

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business and curriculum of the college. The only divergence from their sole authority was the hiring of part-time professors to help with administrative tasks, such as registrar, bursar, and librarian. The president's primary responsibility was to use the curriculum as a mode to develop the individual character of the students (Duryea, 1973). Following the Civil War, colleges began to grow and organize their learning and curriculum in terms of departments or schools (Thelin, 2004).

In response to the increase in the number of students and the number of faculty, college presidents began to hire vice presidents to oversee various aspects of administration. In 1878, due to the pressure of travel, office work, employee relations and overseeing construction, President Andrew White of Cornell University appointed a professor to the position of vice president to help with running of the institution. That same year Harvard President Charles Eliot appointed a professor to be the dean of the college faculty (Duryea, 1973). These two appointments began the expanding administrative structure in the colleges and universities of the United States.

Today the administrative structure of colleges and universities has expanded to include a multitude of vice presidents and a host of administrative personnel to oversee the day-to-day business of the college as well as student support. Regardless of the vastness of many college and university administrative structures, little has changed in regard to finding a president. External boards appoint a president who can lead the institution, hire individuals who will provide oversight of the various campus business affairs, and select and retain faculty to maintain the academic integrity of the institution.

ORIGINS AND ROLE OF THE REGIONAL INSTITUTION PRESIDENT

Since the founding of Harvard College and the College of William and Mary, the office of university college president has been steeped in tradition. The term regional reflects the service area in which the university operates. According to "An Overview of U.S. Accreditation," a report by the Council for Higher Education Accreditation, each baccalaureate institution used in this study has undergone a process to assure students and the public that the institution meets a standard of quality (Eaton, 2011).

The job description for college president has evolved over the centuries from chief academic officer to chief executive, and the nuances of these two titles have changed to reflect variable meanings. From pre-Revolutionary times through the U.S. Civil War, the president of a university or college was expected to be an academic who championed the curriculum of the institution. As the chief academic officer, the president set the direction of learning for the students. Although the president's chief responsibility was the education of students, they were consistently thrust into the political arena. Due to the highly political environment of the colonial era, only one higher education institution per colony would receive a charter from the British government. It was vital that in addition to the academic responsibilities the president be politically in tune with the governing powers to allow continued growth and financial solvency of the institution. Because of the nature of such a political system, a president was required to spend an enormous amount of time on external relations (Thelin, 2004, p. 33). This requirement to adhere to external political forces is similar to the responsibilities of a president today.

Throughout the 17ᵗʰ and 18ᵗʰ centuries, governmental bodies (state and federal government as well as the church) maintained a level of control over American colleges and universities. Until the early 19ᵗʰ century the president served two masters—the faculty and students of their respective institutions and the governmental controllers. The challenges presented in this type of system provide for internal and external intrusion of business affairs as well as curriculum standards. As governmental control tightened their control over colleges and universities through political appointments to governing boards, the office of president became more susceptible to political pressures.

Chief Justice John Marshall's 1819 decision ultimately gave control of institutions to individual governing boards. Although members could still be appointed through a political process, the ultimate control of the operation lay in the hands of a volunteer board whose make up provided varying points of view. With this change the president was forever part of a political environment (Blackwell, 1966). The central premise of Marshall's opinion for *The Trustees of Dartmouth College v. Woodward* case was the contract that was established between the Dartmouth trustees and King George III in its initial 1769 charter. This charter provided the institution privilege to be private in nature and have self-governing control. This case was a result of the New Hampshire legislature taking control of Dartmouth following the deposition of the sitting president. In essence, the take-over gave the government control over the institution including naming the president and trustees making it, for all intents and purposes, a public institution. The court established that the initial charter constituted a contract between private parties and could not be superseded by governmental control.   Justice Marshall concluded in his opinion that as an established contract between private entities the government could not

intercede and create a public institution. Therefore, Dartmouth would remain a private

institution under the control of its own appointed trustees and, in the larger scope, the

government could not interfere with private contracts which created legal precedence and

a foundation for the free enterprise system in the United States (Marshall, 1819).

Moreover, this case, through self-governing leadership bodies, provides a president the

opportunity to continue to be part of a political setting regionally and nationally to further

the mission of their institution and to procure funding for its research, which is essential

for many institutions' survival.

The presidency has changed throughout history, but, arguably, one of the most

productive times to be a president was during the late 1950s and early 1960s. Through

this time period, unprecedented growth of student enrollments as a result of the baby

boom generation created opportunities for more than 1,000 new colleges and,

subsequently, new leaders. Not since the period of 1865 to 1910, with the founding of

land-grant universities, had the United States seen the building of infrastructure and labor

markets for education. This growth of new institutions of the 1960s, labeled by some as

the vintage period for higher education, required leaders that had vision for the new

educational landscape and the role their institutions would play. This growth also

required leaders who worked well with the faculty and faculty leadership to provide a

stable and rigorous curriculum. In sum, colleges of this time needed presidents who

could lead the campus with personality traits that invited cooperation among colleagues

to build a new educational frontier (Kerr and Gade, 1986, p. 81). The presidents in the

1960s tended to follow one of two options in leadership style: a president could choose to

lead the institution in a new direction, or manage the institution based upon the status quo

of a stable financial picture. Based in part on this stable financial picture, the college

presents, along with the governing boards, helped perpetuate Americans' belief that a

university or college education was paramount and attainable for most.

This picture of health and vitalization was dashed as the civil unrest of the late

1960s and early 1970s started to take hold on American campuses. In May and June of

1970, at least 1,000 campuses witnessed unrest by students and faculty (Kerr and Gade,

1986, p. 82). As a result, many presidents were removed from office for failure to

maintain decorum of students and faculty or in an effort to prove that the governing board

was working to correct a perceived injustice. In essence, these firings were often used a

sitting president as a scapegoat to placate students and faculty. Regardless of the

president's characteristics or leadership style, the vulnerability of the person in office was

spotlighted against the backdrop of the time.

In the late 1980s a new change in presidential leadership was needed because of

an improved student enrollment picture, due primarily to the children of the baby boom

generation coming of age. The leadership of this time period can be characterized as

either a managing style or a survival style, in contrast to leadership creating new

initiatives on campuses. Some leaders of the late 1980s chose to maintain the current

vision that developed a sense of stability based, in part, on the uncertainty of the

economy as the managerial style. The "managing style" was indicative of maintaining

the status quo without the need for new initiatives or programs. Other leaders chose a

"survival leadership" style that focused on campus and institutional survival. In the wake

of the economic challenges of the time, college leadership worked in this survival mode

to endure financial realities. Programs became difficult to maintain due, in part, to a changing society and workforce needs (Thelin, 2004)

Presidents had to begin adjusting and adapting leadership models to build stability for their institutions and to provide more time for external relations. The expectation for the president was to be an academic leader, political expert and community leader; however, the position had become more political in nature and influenced by corporate structures. Due to the need for external relations, the presidents relinquished academic and faculty oversight to the provosts.

The provostship has increased in influence, partly by default and partly by intent. The default has been that of the president, who has been drawn more into external affairs, or who has preferred concentration on external affairs, or both. Boards and presidents have often delegated, in theory or in practice or in both, most or even all academic authority to the faculty—authority over the curriculum, over research, over grades and over student discipline, over selection and promotion of faculty members, and over teaching loads (Kerr and Gade, 1987, p. 32).

In light of the increasing internal and external requirements of the office, the presidents began to develop leadership teams to provide better administration services for the many aspects of a university or college campus and the provost was just one example of broadening administrative responsibility. This new administrative approach, in turn, changed the type of leader needed for higher education—an individual who could create a vision, articulate it in a way that garnered support, and lead the campus into new arenas or improve the status quo. In other words, it became important to have a leader who, as

an individual, had the ability to work with his or her team and others to achieve a new set of common goals and could inspire the institution, and the team, to new realms of possibilities (Kerr and Gade, 1987).   In addition to the development of an outstanding leadership team, communication between the board and their chosen leader, the president, was and is vital to the well being of the institution. The president today must wear many hats and be able to clearly communicate with the board, through the board chairperson, the great things happening with the institution as well as challenges that will inevitably arise. The communication between the board and the president provides for a dialogue that will help strengthen the good times as well as provide for collective thought process in challenging times.

The board was once the main cheerleader for the institution that went about their work to raise funds and friends for the institution, leaving the fiduciary and operational activities to the president. Whether intended or not, the potential results of this separation of roles can be negative as exemplified in the Pennsylvania State University athletic scandal of 2011, in which the board provided "corporate-style deference to the CEO" (Legon, Lombardi & Rhoades, 2013, p. 31). The president must have consistent communications with the board and the faculty to be a well functioning organization. This triangulation of leadership (board, president and faculty) results in a shared governance that provides for the success of an academic institution.

As the research of Legon, Lombardi and Rhoads in their article, *Leading the University: The Roles of Trustees, Presidents, and Faculty* (2013) indicates, universities are complex collections of talents and possibilities. As an example, neither boards nor central administrators are Leonard Bernsteins who can get all members of the production

to follow a single score. Universities are better conceived as configurations of jazz musicians engaged in improvisation. In this context, mindless imitation of quite different universities promises little benefit—as does mindless acceptance of an administration's assurance that all is well (p. 31). It is important for boards to maintain the mission of the university and work with a president who will share in the vision.

COMMUNITY COLLEGES: HISTORY AND PRESIDENTIAL LEADERSHIP

The community college has also witnessed change in the century of its existence. From the beginnings of the movement with Joliet Junior College, founded 1901, the emphasis was on general liberal arts studies (American Association of Community Colleges, 2013) and the leadership maintained a mission to help students attain education beyond public K-12.   As businesses needed a workforce with more defined education, the community college mission began to add a vocational function. Even though the mission of a community college is different than that of a baccalaureate institution, their histories are intermingled and parallel. The community college, a distinct American invention, is the bridge between secondary and higher education. In addition to traditional-aged students, 18-21 years old, the community colleges help adults attain higher education where they may not have found a place in a university. Furthermore, a community college is charged with industrial training and formal technical education to prepare individuals for immediate entry into the work force. The community colleges serve a population that otherwise may not have the opportunity to further their education in a meaningful and structured way. They attract students who live in geographic proximity and who seek low-cost postsecondary education options (Ratcliff, 2011).

Many community colleges are based on the Jeffersonian philosophy of education for the masses, open to anyone with a desire to learn.

Early community colleges were founded on the urging of baccalaureate university and college presidents. William Rainey Harper, then president of the University of Chicago, influenced the first independent community college, Joliet Junior College. But the idea of two-year institutions predated this occasion by eight years. In 1894, Reverend J. M. Carroll, president of Baylor University, convened the Baptist colleges in Texas and Louisiana. The assembly's purpose was to reconcile that there were insufficient finances and students to support the numerous small Baptist institutions in the two states. Carroll pragmatically proposed that the smaller colleges reduce their curriculum to the first two years of study and rely on Baylor to provide their students with the third and fourth years of baccalaureate degree (Ratcliff, 2011). The forward thinking of many American university presidents such as Henry Tappan of the University of Michigan, Alexis Lange of the University of California, David Starr Jordan of Stanford University, William Watts Folwell of the University of Minnesota and, of course, William Rainey Harper of the University of Chicago, provided the foundation for the community college in order to strengthen the first two years of the collegiate learning experience and prepare students for higher levels of learning.

The leadership structure of a community college is very similar to that of a baccalaureate college or university. A president, selected by a governing board, has a number of vice presidents and deans reporting to him who oversee the educational enterprise. The vice presidents and deans are configured differently based on the needs of the individual institutions and are responsible for various areas of the curriculum as

well as specific leaders for designated vocational areas specific to the institution. These leaders are generally trained academics or vocationally trained individuals and are charged with the ultimate expectation of educating students. The American Association of Community Colleges contends that community colleges "pride themselves on providing educational marketplaces where student choices and community needs influence course offerings (American Association of Community Colleges, 2013). In this light the administrative structure of a community college is more market-driven than that of a baccalaureate college or university. Regardless of the mission of the institution, the administrative functions are quite similar.

Today's community college leadership has been challenged with adaptation to twenty-first century skills to provide students with the appropriate education and training for immediate entry into the workplace or to further their education at a baccalaureate institution. In reaction to the challenges facing community colleges, President Barack Obama announced in 2012 an additional $500 million investment in community colleges across the United States to help community colleges that will "work directly with companies to develop training programs that respond to the real needs of employers" (Solis, 2012). Solis continues to describe how it is important for community colleges to provide students with learning opportunities to prepare them for jobs that require more education than high school but less than a bachelor's degree.

According to Kahlenberg in "Defining Community Colleges Down", 81.4% of students entering community colleges for the first time indicate a desire to continue their studies at a baccalaureate institution (2012, p. 1). The reality is that only 11.6% of the students actually continue on within a six-year period. Community college leadership

must be poised to address the needs of the students and the community at large as they review the curriculum and mission of their respective institutions. In a 2012 report by the American Association of Community Colleges titled "Reclaiming the American Dream: Community Colleges and the Nation's Future," the authors reiterate the decline in the potential leadership pool at the presidential level and the potential for a crisis level in regard to the lack of leadership candidates. According to the report, three areas are listed as potentially challenging for the community college and, by extension, to the four-year institutions as well.

- The pool of current leaders is graying and approaching retirement;

- The pool of potential presidents, as well as vice presidents and deans, is shrinking and may ultimately affect the pipeline of available candidates;

- The continuous rotation and recomposition of governing boards means that at any given time, a significant number of board members are relatively new to their responsibilities (p. 17).

Understanding the needs of the student is critical to potential leaders in community colleges. Where it is important to maintain traditional vocational and associate degree curriculum, new leaders need to be responsive to mission of the institution. The report continues that community colleges "have been developing leaders to maintain the inherited design. They need now to develop leaders to transform the design" (p. 17).

According to de la Teja, core competencies for community college leaders include organizational strategy, communication, resource management, collaboration, community college advocacy, and professionalism. She contends that these key characteristics are important to future leadership of both community colleges and regional colleges and

universities. The basic leadership standards of communication skills, working with others and collaboration of a vision are important in the presidential role of the community college as well as the baccalaureate colleges and universities (de la Teja, 2010).

SELECTION OF PRESIDENTS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Universities and colleges have relied on many professions as training grounds for their presidents. In a review of early leaders, a study completed in 1928 by Kruse and Beck reviewed how presidents gained their positions. They found that university presidents often gain their positions by promotion and that teacher college (institutions whose primary role was to train individuals to be public school teachers) presidents seldom came into their positions from less responsible positions in the same institution. The study compared presidents of teacher colleges with university presidents. The findings parallel many of the attributes of current sitting presidents.   At the time of the study, 96% of presidents of universities came to their position either from promotion within or from other colleges, whereas at teacher colleges only 28% came from those two pools. The majority of teacher college presidents, 70%, had previously worked in state departments of education or as city superintendents. The average age was 59 for all presidents and the average length of service for universities and teacher colleges was 7.2 years and 11.2 years respectively. Additionally, only two of the 95 presidents surveyed came to the position from outside of academia (Krusé and Beck, 1928).

Harvard University, America's first college, has had 28 presidents in its 370-plus years of existence. The president's office has been held for an average of 13.31 years with the longest serving president serving 40 years and the shortest for only two years.

Three of the presidents came to the position from outside of academia or the clergy (Harvard University, n.d.).

The trend in these two examples indicates the strong influence academia has on the selection of presidents. According to Ezarik's article "Paths to the Presidency" (2010), today's college president is likely to be a white, married male approximately 60 years of age. With exceptions, today's search committees, as well as search agencies, look for individuals that meet the traditional profile of a president as well as the expected criteria set out by the committee. In a well-planned presidential search the governing board will achieve more than a new president. The governing board will establish the strengths of the institution as well as the weaknesses currently challenging the institution. Additionally, the board will have the opportunity to develop a new direction for the university or college through reevaluation of the vision of the institution. These opportunities will be achieved through determination of leadership qualities the board, and interested constituencies, deem important in their next leader (Association of Governing Boards Leadership Roles, 2013). Often the determination of the new president is based on these predetermined expectations and can provide a suitable candidate from internal ranks or those outside of academia. The hiring of a president outside of an academic experience is rare and "it's frankly a factor of both the committees' wariness of people outside of the academy and the inability of these candidates to fully understand and appreciate the culture of a campus" (Ezarik, 2010, p. 48). Yet, it is equally unusual to have presidents come from within a college's own faculty or administrative ranks. Today, presidents are usually recruited from similar types of institutions or those with a perceived better reputation to help build the

reputation of the hiring institution. Furthermore, the contemporary need for accountability and political acumen has led recruiting committees to hire from outside academia, thus changing the traditional model.

Colleges' and universities' search committees often use executive search firms to provide leadership in naming potential candidates for the presidential position.   The use of search firms or consulting firms is a common practice in higher education and is becoming increasingly common for positions other than president such as key administrators and deans (Kiley, 2012). These firms help institutions attract what boards consider to be a better pool of talent than may be possible to achieve without their services. Consulting firms screen potential candidates and provide institutions with a short list of viable prospects who match the board's list of desired characteristics from the pool of individuals who have expressed an interest in the position of president or are sitting presidents at other institutions. Boards are generally comprised of business leaders who often use consultants for various projects in their own environment and, as such, feel comfortable spending college or university funds for consulting services. Atwell (2009) indicates that the majority of presidential searches now involve search firms, with the costs to institutions running into the five and six figure dollar amount. Out of consideration for such financial impact, many institutions are reserving the use of consulting firms for only presidential searches. This action is a result of external pressure for financial restraint as budgets are tightened. In 2012 Illinois Governor Pat Quinn signed into law a bill that prohibits the use of an external hiring search firm for public college and university searches for positions other than president unless the board can demonstrate need for a firm (Kiley, 2012).

As the ranks of college and university presidents are being repopulated the career path to the presidency is not always clear. Especially in todays job market. Hammond (2013) indicates that the American Association of State Colleges and Universities witnessed 109 presidential transitions among its 420 members in the time period of April 2011 to August 2012. In contrast, the association generally observes only about 40 presidential transitions per year. The study was developed to determine where college and university presidents were employed prior to their current appointment, and found that the vast majority of the new appointments came from academia.

Figure 1. *Path to the Presidency*

Path to the Presidency: New Leaders' Previous Jobs
Of new presidents named in 2012, nearly a fifth came directly from another college presidency. Eighty-one percent moved up from positions at colleges of dean or higher.

Most-recent previous position

Position	Percent
President or chancellor	19%
Interim chief	9%
Provost/vice president for academic affairs	16%
Other college vice president	25%
Dean	12%
Other college position	11%
Noncollege position	8%

Note: Figures are based on the most-recent previous positions listed in 250 announcements of presidential appointments that were submitted to *The Chronicle* or found through Internet searches in 2012.

(Hammond, 2013)

As figure 1 indicates, only 8% of the 250 newly appointed presidents came from other than a college position and the remaining came from a position in academia. Muriel A. Howard, president of the state-colleges association states that she found the association's data interesting in that it shows a larger increase of new presidents coming from the dean level (Hammond, 2013).

Deans are obvious candidates for provost and president due to their experience leading a college within the university. Many colleges of a university are larger than

some smaller independent colleges and universities, and the experience gained in the dean's position provides for similar experiences as the chief academic officer or the president (González, 2010, p. 7). The challenge for most search committees and the governing board is finding a strong pool of applicants that will fill the characteristics sought to lead the day-to-day operation of the institution as well as the immediate needs of external fundraising, community relations and political involvement at the state and federal level that will ensure the financial stability and capital improvement projects needed for aging campuses.

THE GOVERNING BOARD AND THE PRESIDENT

Few other roles in American society make such day-to-day demands on an individual as that of a university or college president. They are not simply problem-solvers but are also expected to meet a governing board's need for impartial and expert counsel; inspire faculty and staff in matters pertaining to curriculum and instruction; serve as a model of ethical behavior; and provide, as conditions warrant, vision for the entire community (Pierce and Pedersen, 1997, p. 13). Therefore, a strong line of communication is needed between the president and the board as they set a shared vision for the institution.

Members of governing boards consist largely of individuals who, whether appointed through a political process or selected by a board's nomination committee, come primarily from outside of the institutions. New board members come to this volunteer leadership position with self-derived expectations of what a board member's role is and varied views of what the institution is and can be. Notable exceptions are alumni elected to the board. These individuals view the college or university as it once

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was and not as it may currently stand. This dichotomy can create challenges for the college or university president when our current society believes in more oversight by leadership boards. Helping new board members understand their role is vital to the health of the organization (Legon, Lombardi & Rhoades, 2013, p. 25). Presidents and board chairpersons need to communicate to new members clearly and early the expectations and roles of the board. Many will likely encounter a transition in campus leadership in their board term and will be asked to participate in vision building for the university as well as identifying the type of individual that will be needed for presidential appointment.

The governing board of any institution will encounter the arduous task of hiring a new president and this is typically the most important decision a college board makes (Stripling, 2013). This challenge should "be looked at as an opportunity to rededicate the college" and set a new direction for the institution. The board, and primarily the chair of the board, must be the first to open lines of communication with any serious candidate for the position of president and such communication should continue through the president's tenure. The board must communicate to the new president clearly the expectations that it holds for the position. This expectation of communication should transcend all other relationship tools. Through communication trust is built and "true teams operate on trust." Governing boards and presidents are a team, and as such, must trust that each contributing team member is acting with integrity in the best interest of the group, the organization and toward decision making (Nielsen and Newton, 1997, p. 34-37).

As highlighted in two recent public episodes between the board and the president, the board can determine a president's contractual continuation based purely on perfunctory information. In June of 2012 the University of Virginia Board of Visitors, the politically appointed governing board of the institution, abruptly dismissed the sitting president, complaining their belief that the institution was not moving fast enough on technological changes to the curriculum and new initiatives. As a well-respected administrator, the president was reinstated, in part, because of the outcry from student and faculty, and the discovered procedural error by the board chairperson. The board, led by an individual with substantial business acumen, initially reacted in what could be deemed an appropriate action for business board leadership. The board chairperson's apparent challenge was the failure to understand the concept of shared governance inherent in a college or university setting that requires a different approach from board leadership.

Conversely, the University of Illinois board of trustees removed the university president, also in the summer of 2012, for being too aggressive in changing the institution (Thornburgh, 2013). Although these two institutions are distinct in their reasoning for presidential dismissal, the underlying commonality is a lack of communication between the board and the president, and a lack of a mutual institution vision between the board and the president. "While presidents, ultimately, come and go, how they come and go has a profound effect on the institution and largely determines the difference between extended periods of failure and success" (Martin, Samuels & Associates, 2004, p. 20). In the world of business the dismissal of the chief administrator may have little to no impact

on the operation of the business, yet in higher education the removal of a president can have a lasting positive or negative impact on the institution.

College and university presidents face an increase in governmental and regulatory oversights at a time when society questions the value of higher education in relationship to the cost of attending an institution (Legion, Lombardi, & Rhoades, 2013, p 24). College and university board chairpersons, and by extension the board itself, approach external interference in a variety of ways. As the board attempts to navigate the challenges of external political interference, many rely solely upon the president to handle the challenge, whereas others want to take an active role in political involvement and campus leadership. The board must effectively engage the campus administration as well as the faculty to properly carry out their duties as appointed volunteers. These responsibilities include the necessity of the board understanding their role as board member and the importance of that role within the group. Individually a board member has little or no power and can only act when meeting as a group. Along with the president, the board is accountable to fulfill distinct roles in the institution that include fiduciary stability of the institution and promoting the mission as outlined in the institutional charter. The Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges outlines board responsibilities that include charging the chief executive with the task of leading a strategic planning process, and recruiting, appointing, supporting and evaluating the president (Association of Governing Boards, Board Responsibilities, 2013). These responsibilities include selecting the appropriate person for the position of president. Additionally, when the need for a new president presents itself it is imperative that the board take ownership of the process. This ownership includes developing the

leadership agenda and profile for the new president, determining assessment tools needed to help evaluate the final candidates, and seeking input from constituencies on campus that include faculty, students and alumni (Thornburgh, 2013).

Navigating through the hiring process of a new president can be a daunting adventure for most board members. The operational point of view for many board members is the world of business where, quite often, succession planning is a standard part of the operating procedures and where there is thus no need for an open employment search. In higher education, the thought of succession planning for the president's office as well as an internal search is often dismissed as not possible. According to Bornstein (2010) in "Succession Planning: The Time Has Come," corporations often focus on a systematic identification, training, evaluating and mentoring of internal candidates for the highest offices, whereas at colleges and universities faculty, alumni, and students all want to provide a voice in who will ultimately be named the president of "their" college or university and rail against the suggestion of an internal candidate (p. 30). Often an internal candidate can bring stability and consistency to an institution but the tradition of an external candidate bringing in new ideas and energy is slow to change for higher education (Lapovsky, 2012). With this in mind, and "given the looming shortages of sitting presidents and academic vice presidents to meet the projected presidential turnover" (Bornstein, p. 30), it is the right time to begin a culture change to consider internal candidates for the position.

Witt/Kieffer (2013), an executive-search firm, partnered with Hogan Assessment Systems in 2012 to develop a personality test for the specific purpose of determining leadership traits. The initial survey participants included 100 college and university

administrators, including presidents, provosts, and deans. This test instrument can be used in addition to the countless hours of on-campus interviews and is designed to help board members understand the natural talents each presidential candidate may have. As the developers indicate, this instrument is just another tool in the evaluation process. No presidential candidate comes to the table with all of the desired characteristics the board seeks, but this instrument can help to determine, for example, if the individual is outgoing. If so, the instrument provides leading indicators that the individual could be an outstanding presidential candidate if the institution is looking for a fundraiser or one who is needed to build consensus among splintered interest groups within or outside the institution (Stripling, 2013). One problem for higher education is that when a board views the bottom line at their own business it is about profit, whereas in the college and university setting the bottom line is excellence--a concept that is subjective and requires thoughtful consideration from those involved with succession planning. An internal candidate requires that a board consider fully the impact the candidate would have on the institution and invite input from faculty. "If the faculty are not involved in such a decision, the new president is likely to fail for lack of support" (Bornstein, p. 32).

The value of internal candidates often outweighs the charismatic external candidates that boards often wish to hire. Research shows that external candidates often leave within three years while internal candidates serve longer. Yet a survey conducted by the American Council on Education indicates that only 28% of sitting presidents came from their own institution (Bornstein, 2010, p. 32). It is often an expectation that a new leader from a more prestigious university or area of the country will bring new possibilities to the institution. At times, external candidates are viable and necessary

because they can effect change more quickly than an internal candidate could. Yet, an internal candidate can provide for the current needs of the institution and build upon the success of an outgoing president (González, 2010).

The Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges indicate in an article on presidential succession planning that components of a succession plan should address the following areas:

- Presidential transitions following the announcement departure of a sitting president as well as temporary presidential absences due to illness or sabbatical

- Processes for determining the stature of the presidential search

- Processes for appointing a search committee; developing an institutional profile and desired leadership profile; interviewing, referencing and selecting a president

- An assimilation plan for the new president

- A timeframe for these processes

- A process for identifying and developing potential internal candidates

  (Association of Governing Boards, Presidential Succession Planning, 2013)

Obviously this report provides for an external and internal search for presidential candidates. It is essential that the board, under the leadership of the governing board chairperson, provide for each of these steps, but primarily the development of a leadership profile for the new president that will include expected characteristics.

As board chairpersons begin to determine the qualities needed, careful consideration must be made concerning the needs of the institution and the type of leader. A broad range of leadership qualities have been identified in the literature. Pierce and Paderson (1997) list qualities they believe to be important in a president as adaptability,

role flexibility, and sound judgment. In *The 108 Skills of Natural Born Leaders* (2001), Blank details the following leadership skills as vital to the leadership process: expanded self-awareness; an ability to clarify expectations, set directions, and chart a course; a talent for developing others as leaders; credibility; influence; and motivation. Bainbridge and Thomas (2006) reveal in "Global Perspective on School Leadership" five truths about educational leadership:

1. Leadership is situational and varies with individuals and events. The situation usually helps make the leader, and at times the leader happens to be in the right place at the right time.

2. There is no single way to prepare leaders or to prepare for leadership. Leaders come from every segment of society and have a variety of styles. There is no set of characteristics that leaders possess, and there is no single educational program that will produce individuals who possess leadership qualities.

3. A leader is someone who has followers. Without followers there is no leadership act. The leader usually helps others attain the goals of the group. The leader guides them to where they wish to go. If no one is going anywhere, there is no need for a leader.

4. Leadership has ethical implications. Even the best intentions may have adverse consequences on others. Sometimes doing what one considers right hurts other people. At the same time, inappropriate leadership acts may have beneficial effects. The leader must always consider the moral validity of what is done or not done. In the behavior of people, the ethical dimensions are always present.

5. The study of historical figures helps us to understand leadership. Socrates teaches us how to make ultimate sacrifices by taking the hemlock; Martin Luther King Jr. and Mahatma Gandhi teach us passive moral resistance; and Thomas Jefferson instructs us on the imperatives of education (Davis, 2006, p. 3-4).

The president of a university or college must possess skills based on the needs of the institution. "Indicators of success vary among individuals, [but] the goal is ultimately the same—to be the best leader that one can be" (Davis, 2006, p. 93). According to Dyer's "Exemplary Leadership: A Process" (2006), it would appear that a formula of desire plus skill plus experience would equal success. Ultimately, the board of trustees must decide on the skills they require of the new president. This decision must have multiple stakeholders who provide input in the planning process. Even though the board is the hiring body, it is important that they listen and invite faculty, students, and alumni to be part of the process. Yet, the possibility of succession planning may help alleviate the stress of a national open search and produce an internal candidate that has demonstrated the skills needed to lead the institution to a higher level. Ultimately the board must help all constituencies welcome their new president and provide support to help foster a new era in their institutions.

SUMMARY

From the beginnings of higher education in the United States the position of college or university president has been, and continues to be, the primary leader of the institution. In essence, the president is the face of the institution to the many differing stakeholders: politicians, faculty, students, alumni, parents and communities.

From the early years as the principal academic officer evolving to today's chief executive officer the university and college president now assumes a multi-faceted role that requires characteristics distinct to the institution. The president is the leader of a selected team that will provide for the educational opportunities of the students in their charge. From student services, to advancement, to academic affairs, the president is the visionary that pulls these areas together in one cohesive package. In addition to leading a team, the president must continue the tradition as a political ally to many constituencies to foster relationships that provide for financial means in terms of scholarships as well as capital improvement needs. The qualifications to be a president for a university or college are based in history but are determined anew by each institutional governing board.

The governing board is an important link in the operation of a college or university. The role of the board must be as overseer and not operator of the campus, yet when a presidential vacancy occurs it is vital for the board chairperson to take ownership of the process and immediately set out to define the characteristics of the ideal president and hire the best candidate for the position. The characteristics that a governing board seeks in the institutional president are based on many factors, but all fit into the three broad areas this study has defined: leadership, ability to work with others and visioning.

A good succession plan will enable the board to act quickly and efficiently in determining the new campus leader. Succession planning may include the necessary qualifications, a recruitment plan and plans for an interim president, but it should also include the possibility for an internal candidate for the position of president. Often overlooked, internal candidates bring a wealth of college or university culture to the table that will often take external candidates up to a year to learn. An external candidate, on

the other hand, brings new energy, high expectations and a new vision for the institution.

Ultimately the board must consider all possibilities for the new chief executive and

identify the one who will help to move the institution forward in a shared vision that

supports the mission of the institution.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODS

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to identify the leadership characteristics that governing boards seek in the office of the president at select two and four year institutions. The selection of a president can be a daunting task for all involved parties. To compound the difficulties of the selection process, diverse qualities and skill sets are needed to address the current expectations and challenges facing an institution. The skills a governing board seeks in a leader today may not be the skills sought in ten years and a standard job description is not applicable to the position of the president. As institutions of higher education and their primary decision makers, governing boards, begin to repopulate the ranks of presidents, this study identified important commonalities found in the search for a campus leader. Based on the three characteristics of working with others, leadership ability, and visioning, this study provides data that support the boards' search for qualified individuals.

This study adapted a survey instrument that has been used in a multiplicity of settings to determine leadership styles and characteristics. The test instrument was the MLQ (5X-Short), available from Mind Garden Inc., which consisted of 45 questions to ascertain leadership qualities held by respondents (Avolio and Bass, 2004). This study maintained the original instrument with the addition of five demographic questions for a total of 50 questions. The five demographic questions helped to ascertain the type of institution, the size of the institution as well as whether the institution was in a rural or urban location.

RESEARCH DESIGN

This study examined characteristics that the president of a higher education institution would be expected to have through the vantage point of the governing board chair. The institution type and size was measured against the three broad categories of ability to work with others, leadership abilities and the ability to articulate a vision of the institution. In addition to measurement within like type and size, a cross comparison was made between each category of type and size.

The test instrument was administered to governing board chairpersons via a random sample from regional university member institutions of the American Association of State Colleges and Universities with an emphasis in teaching and scholarly work. A random sample of members of the American Association of Community Colleges was also surveyed through their board chairpersons. The following research questions guided this study:

1. To what extent, if any, does the type of institution affect characteristics governing boards seek in the office of president?

2. To what extent, if any, does the size of the institution affect characteristics governing boards seek in the office of president?

3. To what extent, if any, does a candidate's ability to work with others affect hiring decisions?

4. To what extent, if any, does a candidate's leadership ability affect hiring decisions?

5. To what extent, if any, does a candidate's ability to articulate a defined mission or vision affect hiring decisions?

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This study examined whether the size and type of institution, baccalaureate or community college, have an effect on the kind of leader the governing board seeks.

POPULATION

The population for this study consisted of individuals who held the position of chair of the board of trustees, or the equivalent, from two distinct types of institutions: four-year, primarily undergraduate universities and colleges; and two-year community colleges. One half of the sample was taken from universities and colleges that have a primary focus on teaching and scholarly work, thus excluding institutions where the primary focus is on research. The determination to only include teaching universities was based on their similarity to community colleges whose primary mission is to teach. The second half of the sample was taken from the community college setting. Each of these institutions is independent or has an independent board that has the primary responsibility of governing the institution and selection of the president. The distinction of independent board governance was made to remove from the population institutions that are governed by a central state system or institutions that serve as a branch or satellite institution to a main campus.

The surveyed random sample was comprised of governing board chairpersons from 150 regional university member institutions of the American Association of State Colleges and Universities with an emphasis in teaching and scholarly work and a random sample of 150 members of the American Association of Community Colleges. The entire sample was 300 institutions across the United States.

INSTRUMENTATION

Data were gathered to address the research questions contained in this chapter.

For this study, the third edition of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5x)

was slightly modified and demographic questions were added to gather data (Avolio and

Bass, 2004). The MLQ was first used in the mid-1980s and is now in the third edition.

The test instrument was divided into two parts: part one obtaining demographics

and part two consisting of descriptive statements to indicate the importance of various

leadership characteristics to the respondents. The first part solicited demographic data

that included questions detailing type of institution, size of institution, and general

institutional settings (urban, suburban, or rural). Beyond these five demographic items,

the MLQ has a total of 45 questions that are rated on a 5-point Likert scale on how the

respondents see themselves agreeing with each statement. Twelve of the questions were

determined to fit in one of the broad categories of leadership this study intended to

research: ability to work with others; leadership; and articulation of a mission/vision.

The Likert scale consisted of the following: 0 = not at all, 1 = once in a while, 2 =

sometimes, 3 = fairly often, and 5 = frequently or always.

The question of validity was an important concern with this study, and therefore

the MLQ 5x was chosen because of the reputation it has in industry as well as education.

Any questionnaire on leadership will have challenges because of the rater's bias on the

idealistic view of attributes a leader should possess. The MLQ 5x does not diminish this

challenge, and, as such, the validity of the MLQ has not been fully established.

The test instrument has been used in business, education, health care, and other

professional fields. According to the research conducted by Muenjohn and Armstrong

(2008) the MLQ adequately captures the full range of leadership factor constructs and should provide researchers with confidence in ascertaining leadership styles. Furthermore, the instrument was tested in a study conducted by Antonakis, Avolio and Sivasubramaniam (2003), which supported the assertion that the test instrument is reasonable in construction and useful in homogeneous situations. Many research studies have successfully used the test instrument (i.e., Bentley (2011); Ohman (1997); Omer (2005); Young (2011)). The population in the study at hand was a homogeneous group and, as such, research indicates the use of this test instrument was viable.

DATA COLLECTION

The study used a self-report questionnaire procedure (Johnson & Christensen, 2000). The survey instrument was administered through an online survey provider via a link provided through an email and then was followed up with a formal letter that also included the link to the survey. Respondents were asked to complete the survey within two weeks from the receipt of the invitation to participate.

Prior to mailing the instrument, approval was obtained from the Marshall University Institutional Review Board (see Appendix B). After the initial mailing, multiple mailings and contacts were made to increase the response rate. Follow-up was made through additional email invitations and letters during each of the three weeks following the initial two-week period to those who had not responded. Following the survey period a response rate of 34% was obtained.

DATA ANALYSIS

SPSS Version 20.0 software was used for statistical analysis of the data collected to determine the significance of the results. A simple linear correlation and regression analysis was used on the collected data, and an alpha level of .05 was used to determine statistical significance. Multiple tests were completed based on the three leadership questions in relationship to the institution type and size.

In addition to the linear correlation, ordinal data was collected to determine any consistencies across all participants, regardless of institution type or size, as it relates to the three overarching characteristic traits of this study.

SUMMARY

The statistical tests described in this chapter provided an opportunity to define consistencies in the characteristics sought by leadership boards when hiring a college president. By comparing data on ability to work with others, leadership, and ability to articulate a mission/vision in relation to institution type and size, this study provides a better understanding of characteristics generally accepted by board chairpersons as important when hiring a president. Furthermore, the data determine a statistical relationship between characteristics sought for the highest campus officer and characteristics of the institution.

CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to identify the leadership characteristics that governing boards seek in candidates for the position of president at select two and four year institutions. This study collected quantitative, non-experimental, descriptive data through a third party computer survey data collection website and standard postal service mailings. All respondents were chairpersons of governing boards of public two and four year institutions to which the office of college or university president reports.

POPULATION DATA

The Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5x) survey was administered through a third party computer website (Survey Monkey) and through standard paper mailings via the U. S. Postal Service. Three hundred surveys were sent in the initial administration of the test instrument. Participants were randomly selected from the American Association of Colleges and Universities and the American Association of Community Colleges memberships. Once institutions were identified they were researched to ascertain the name of the current governing board chairperson. Once the chairperson was identified, an Internet search was launched to obtain a current email address. Email addresses were obtained for 192 (64%) of the participants.

The online email survey was administered three times in a five-week period for those with a valid email address and at the same time the paper surveys were administered twice to those without a valid email address within the same time frame. The surveys were coded so duplicate surveys were not sent on subsequent mailings. Those with paper surveys were given an option to log onto the website to complete the

survey. Ninety-one percent of the completed surveys were received through website collection. The total number of surveys returned was 116, which represents a 39% response rate. Of the 116 surveys returned 102, or 34% of the total surveys, were usable for this study.

Of those responding to the survey, 54.3% considered their institution to be a baccalaureate university/college and 44.8% considered their institution to be a community college. One respondent indicated that their institution fit within another category. The data from that survey was excluded from the final calculations for this study as well as the remaining 13 respondents that completed less than 10% of the survey

In Responses to the question regarding student population, most of the institutions had student populations between 5000 and 20,000. Very small colleges with less than 1,000 students were not represented in the sample. These numbers represent an aggregate of all respondents regardless of their classification as a regional college/university or a community college.

Figure 2. Student population at institutions represented by respondents.
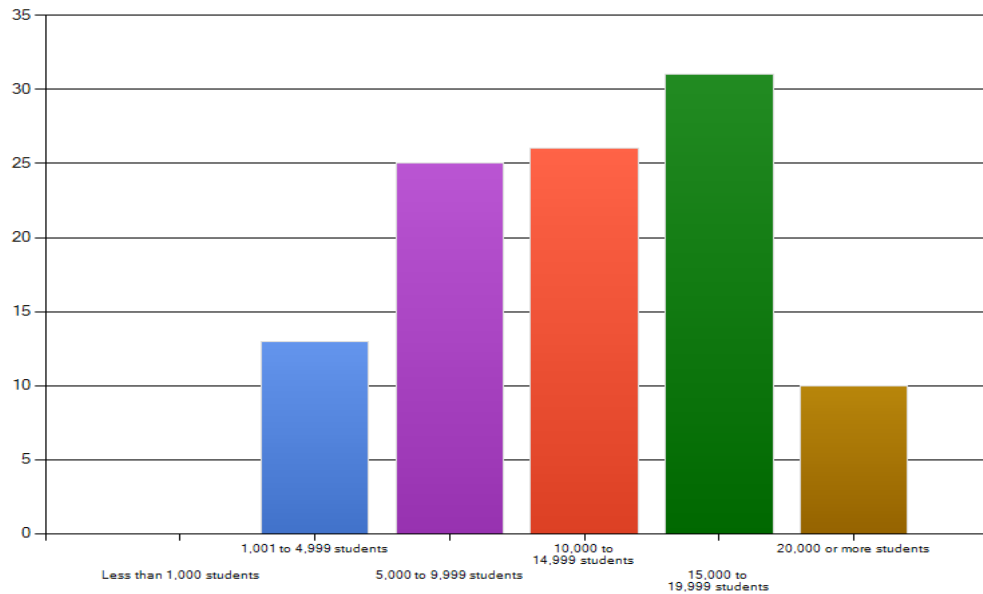
The question of institution location was delineated into three categories: urban, suburban and rural. The responses indicated that 32.4% (34) of institutions were urban, 40.0% (42) were suburban and 27.6% (29) served a rural location. These numbers represent an aggregate of all respondents regardless of their classification as a regional college/university or a community college.

RESEARCH VARIABLES

The survey instrument used to collect data for this study was the Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire, version 5x (MLQ 5x). The 45-item survey consisted of questions that, when considered in aggregate form, can give a picture of desirable characteristics a board chairperson seeks in an institutional president. Each of the three overarching characteristics used in this study (leadership, ability to articulate a defined vision or mission, and the ability to work with others) were investigated by four questions per characteristic. The remainder of the questions offered insight on additional leadership characteristics not examined individually in this study. However, the remaining questions provided for correlational analyses between them and the three broad characteristics trait groups used for this study. Five additional questions were included in order to ascertain basic demographics.

TEST INSTRUMENT QUESTIONS DEFINED

Each set of characteristics examined in this study were delineated through four questions per characteristic from the test instrument. The MLQ 5x can test for multiple types of leadership characteristics and attitudes, but for this study only 12, four for each characteristic, of the 45 were used to focus on leadership ability, ability to articulate a

defined mission and the ability to work with others. The remaining 33 questions will be used for future study.

Four questions on the topic of leadership gauged the respondents' sense of the importance of each of four topics, listed below:

Leadership 1: voiced values and beliefs;

Leadership 2: strong sense of purpose;

Leadership 3: ethical leadership;

Leadership 4: ability to lead collectively toward a common goal.

Four questions on the topic of the ability to articulate a defined mission the respondents' sense of the importance of each of four topics, listed below.

Mission 1: ability to discuss the future in a positive way;

Mission 2: eagerness about organization's future;

Mission 3: articulation of a clear vision;

Mission 4: authoritatively express institutional goals would be met.

Four questions on the topic of ability to work with others gauged the respondents' sense of the importance of each of four topics, listed below.

Working 1: spending time helping others;

Working 2: leader's relationship with employee;

Leadership 3: employees needs related to others;

Leadership 4: help develop employee's strengths.

RESEARCH QUESTION 1

To what extent, if any, does the type of institution affect the characteristics that governing boards seek in the office of president?

The data were analyzed to determine whether representatives from the two types of institution (regional colleges or universities and community colleges) viewed the three characteristics differently. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used for all questions to determine if any differences were apparent between the two types of institutions. Each of the three characteristics was examined through four questions in the test instrument to determine the importance of the chosen characteristic. There was statistically no significant difference between the two types of institutions for any of the characteristics addressed.

The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was calculated on participants' ratings on each set of questions used for the three characteristics as determined by institution size. The analysis did not show significance at the .05 level for any of the individual questions.

Following the results of the tests for individual questions, a parametric correlation analysis, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, was completed to determine if a correlation exists between the type of college and the three characteristics. In addition to the parametric correlation a non-parametric correlation, Spearman's Rho was run as well to observe if any difference existed between the two tests.

Both the parametric and the non-parametric correlational analysis showed that there was no significant relationship at the .05 level between college type and the characteristics board chairpersons were seeking in the office of institutional president.

As a final set of analysis, a one-way analysis of variance was completed using the characteristic questions as a set compared to the type of institution. As in the other analyses, the ANOVA indicates there was no significance at the .05 level in the type of institution compared to the three characteristics tested: leadership, ability to articulate a mission/vision and the ability to work with others.

<center>RESEARCH QUESTION 2</center>

To what extent, if any, does the size of the institution affect characteristics governing boards seek in the office of president?

The data were analyzed to determine whether respondents from different sizes of institution viewed the three characteristics differently. An analysis of variance was used to determine if any relationship was apparent between the five categories of institutional size and the leadership characteristics addressed by each question. The size was delineated as follows: 1= Less than 1,000 students, 2=1,001 to 4,999 students, 3=5,000 to 9,999, 5=10,000 to 14,999, 6= 20,000 or more. None of the returns for the study indicated a student population of less than 1,000 students.

The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was calculated on participants' rating of each set of questions used for the three characteristics by institution size. The analysis showed no significance at the .05 level for any of the individual questions.

Following the results for individual questions, a parametric correlation, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, analysis was completed to determine if a correlation existed between the size of institution and the three characteristics. In addition to the parametric correlation a non-parametric correlation, Spearman's Rho was run as well to observe if any difference existed between the two tests.

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Both the parametric and non-parametric correlational analysis used to examine if college size had an effect on the characteristics board chairpersons were seeking in the office of institutional president showed no significance at the .05 level.

As a final analysis, a one-way analysis of variance was completed using the characteristic questions as a set compared to the size of the institution. Table 1 includes the descriptives of the set and is followed by the ANOVA in Table 2.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics for leadership characteristics desired by boards of five sizes of colleges.

Descriptives						95% Confidence Interval for Mean			
		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
Leader	2	11	15.9091	2.11918	.63896	14.4854	17.3328	13.00	20.00
	3	23	14.2174	1.04257	.21739	13.7665	14.6682	12.00	16.00
	4	24	14.7083	1.51741	.30974	14.0676	15.3491	12.00	18.00
	5	28	14.4643	1.23175	.23278	13.9867	14.9419	12.00	17.00
	6	8	15.0000	1.69031	.59761	13.5869	16.4131	12.00	17.00
	Total	94	14.6809	1.48984	.15367	14.3757	14.986	12.00	20.00
Mission	2	13	18.0000	2.00000	.5547	16.7914	19.2086	13.00	20.00
	3	23	17.4783	1.70213	.35492	16.7422	18.2143	13.00	20.00
	4	25	17.4800	1.26227	.25245	16.959	18.001	15.00	20.00
	5	28	17.2500	1.29458	.24465	16.748	17.752	15.00	20.00
	6	8	18.2500	1.28174	.45316	17.1784	19.3216	17.00	20.00
	Total	97	17.5464	1.50014	.15232	17.244	17.8487	13.00	20.00

KEY: 2 = 1,001 to 4,999 students, 3 = 5,000 to 9,999, 5 = 10,000 to 14,999, 6 = 20,000 or more

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Working With Others	2	12	15.5833	2.71221	.78295	13.8601	17.3066	12.00	20.00
	3	23	14.2174	1.62247	.33831	13.5158	14.919	10.00	18.00
	4	24	13.5833	1.13890	.23248	13.1024	14.0643	12.00	16.00
	5	29	13.8621	1.24568	.23132	13.3882	14.3359	12.00	17.00
	6	7	14.2857	2.42997	.91844	12.0384	16.5331	11.00	19.00
	Total	95	14.1263	1.73354	.17786	13.7732	14.4795	10.00	20.00

KEY: 2 = 1,001 to 4,999 students, 3 = 5,000 to 9,999, 5 = 10,000 to 14,999, 6 = 20,000 or more

Table 2. Relationship between college size and board chairs' ranking of the importance of three sets of leadership characteristics.

ANOVA						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Leader	Between Groups	23.681	4	5.92	2.883	0.027
	Within Groups	182.745	89	2.053		
	Total	206.426	93			
Mission	Between Groups	9.312	4	2.328	1.036	0.393
	Within Groups	206.729	92	2.247		
	Total	216.041	96			
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Working	Between Groups	34.944	4	8.736	3.176	0.017
	Within Groups	247.54	90	2.75		
	Total	282.484	94			

As in the other analyses the ANOVA indicates there was not a significance at the

.05 level in the size of the institution compared to ability to articulate a mission/vision.

However, there was significance at the .05 level for leadership (p = .027) and Working

with others (p = .017) a post hoc test was completed to determine where the significance

is located. Table 3 indicates the results of the post-hoc tests.

Table 3. Post-hoc test results for comparison of institution size with desired leadership characteristics.

Dependent Variable	(I) College Size	(J) College Size	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Leader	2	3	1.69170*	0.5253	0.002	0.6479	2.7355
		4	1.20076*	0.52175	0.024	0.1641	2.2375
		5	1.44481*	0.5099	0.006	0.4316	2.458
		6	0.90909	0.66583	0.176	-0.4139	2.2321
	3	2	-1.69170*	0.5253	0.002	-2.7355	-0.6479
		4	-0.49094	0.41813	0.243	-1.3217	0.3399
		5	-0.24689	0.40325	0.542	-1.0481	0.5543
		6	-0.78261	0.58817	0.187	-1.9513	0.3861
	4	2	-1.20076*	0.52175	0.024	-2.2375	-0.1641
		3	0.49094	0.41813	0.243	-0.3399	1.3217
		5	0.24405	0.39861	0.542	-0.548	1.0361
		6	-0.29167	0.58499	0.619	-1.454	0.8707
	5	2	-1.44481*	0.5099	0.006	-2.458	-0.4316
		3	0.24689	0.40325	0.542	-0.5543	1.0481
		4	-0.24405	0.39861	0.542	-1.0361	0.548
		6	-0.53571	0.57445	0.354	-1.6771	0.6057
	6	2	-0.90909	0.66583	0.176	-2.2321	0.4139
		3	0.78261	0.58817	0.187	-0.3861	1.9513
		4	0.29167	0.58499	0.619	-0.8707	1.454
		5	0.53571	0.57445	0.354	-0.6057	1.6771
Mission	2	3	0.52174	0.52014	0.318	-0.5113	1.5548
		4	0.52	0.51257	0.313	-0.498	1.538
		5	0.75	0.50309	0.139	-0.2492	1.7492
		6	-0.25	0.6736	0.711	-1.5878	1.0878
	3	2	-0.52174	0.52014	0.318	-1.5548	0.5113
		4	-0.00174	0.43311	0.997	-0.8619	0.8584
		5	0.22826	0.42184	0.59	-0.6096	1.0661
		6	-0.77174	0.61529	0.213	-1.9938	0.4503
	4	2	-0.52	0.51257	0.313	-1.538	0.498
		3	0.00174	0.43311	0.997	-0.8584	0.8619
		5	0.23	0.41247	0.578	-0.5892	1.0492
		6	-0.77	0.6089	0.209	-1.9793	0.4393

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.
KEY: 2 = 1,001 to 4,999 students, 3 = 5,000 to 9,999, 4=10,000 to 14,999, 5 = 15,000 to 19,999, 6 = 20,000 or more

Dependent Variable	(I) College Size	(J) College Size	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Mission	5	2	-0.75	0.50309	0.139	-1.7492	0.2492
		3	-0.22826	0.42184	0.59	-1.0661	0.6096
		4	-0.23	0.41247	0.578	-1.0492	0.5892
		6	-1	0.60094	0.1	-2.1935	0.1935
	6	2	0.25	0.6736	0.711	-1.0878	1.5878
		3	0.77174	0.61529	0.213	-0.4503	1.9938
		4	0.77	0.6089	0.209	-0.4393	1.9793
		5	1	0.60094	0.1	-0.1935	2.1935
Working With Others	2	3	1.36594*	0.59058	0.023	0.1926	2.5392
		4	2.00000*	0.58635	0.001	0.8351	3.1649
		5	1.72126*	0.56925	0.003	0.5903	2.8522
		6	1.29762	0.78875	0.103	-0.2694	2.8646
	3	2	-1.36594*	0.59058	0.023	-2.5392	-0.1926
		4	0.63406	0.48393	0.193	-0.3273	1.5955
		5	0.35532	0.46306	0.445	-0.5646	1.2753
		6	-0.06832	0.71589	0.924	-1.4906	1.3539
	4	2	-2.00000*	0.58635	0.001	-3.1649	-0.8351
		3	-0.63406	0.48393	0.193	-1.5955	0.3273
		5	-0.27874	0.45765	0.544	-1.1879	0.6305
		6	-0.70238	0.71241	0.327	-2.1177	0.7129
	5	2	-1.72126*	0.56925	0.003	-2.8522	-0.5903
		3	-0.35532	0.46306	0.445	-1.2753	0.5646
		4	0.27874	0.45765	0.544	-0.6305	1.1879
		6	-0.42365	0.6984	0.546	-1.8111	0.9638
	6	2	-1.29762	0.78875	0.103	-2.8646	0.2694
		3	0.06832	0.71589	0.924	-1.3539	1.4906
		4	0.70238	0.71241	0.327	-0.7129	2.1177
		5	0.42365	0.6984	0.546	-0.9638	1.8111

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.
    KEY: 2 = 1,001 to 4,999 students,
          3 = 5,000 to 9,999,
          4 = 10,000 to 14,999,
          5 = 15,000 to 19,999
          6 = 20,000 or more

As the results indicate, there is significance in Group 2 at the .05 significance level as they scored higher than group 3, group 4 and group 5 on the leadership variables and again higher than groups 3, 4, and 5 on working with others variables.

RESEARCH QUESTION 3

To what extent, if any, does a candidate's ability to work with others affect hiring decisions?

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient test was administered to each of the characteristic groupings compared to all other questions administered, with the exclusion of the demographic questions. When comparing a candidate's ability to work with others to the ability to articulate a mission/vision and to leadership there was a strong correlation at the .01 level (two tailed) for both variable groupings. Table 16 indicates the results.

Table 4. Correlation between respondents' ranking of a leader's ability to work with others and remaining characteristic groups.

Working with Others		Leadership	Mission
	Pearson Correlation	.510	.384
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000
	N	89	94

The working with others characteristic question group found significance in eighteen of the remaining questions on the test instrument not found in the other characteristic question groupings at the .01 level and three at the .05 level. Questions 2, 4, 8, 10, 11, 16, 18, 21, 22, 30, 34, 35, 37, 38, 39, 42, 44, and 45 correlation was significant at the .01 level and questions 27, 41 and 42 correlation was significant at the .05 level (Appendix A)

To what extent, if any, does a candidate's leadership ability affect hiring

decisions?

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient test was administered to each

of the characteristic groupings compared to all other questions administered, with the

exclusion of the demographic questions. When comparing a candidate's leadership

ability to the ability to articulate a mission/vision and the ability to work with others,

there was a strong correlation at the .01 level (two tailed) for both variable groupings.

Table 17 displays the results.

Table 5. Correlation between respondents' ranking of leadership and remaining
characteristic groups.

Leadership Ability		Mission	Working with others
	Pearson Correlation	.439	.510
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000
	N	92	89

The leadership characteristic question group found significance in eighteen of the

remaining questions on the test instrument not found in the other characteristic question

groupings at the .01 level. Questions 2, 4, 8, 10, 11, 16, 18, 21, 22, 25, 27, 30, 34, 35, 37,

38, 43, and 45 correlation was significant at the .01 level (Appendix A).

RESEARCH QUESTION 5

To what extent, if any, does a candidate's ability to articulate a defined mission or vision affect hiring decisions?

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient test was administered to each of the characteristic groupings compared to all other questions administered, with the exclusion of the demographic questions. When comparing a candidate's ability to articulate a defined mission or vision to the leadership ability and the ability to work with others, there was a strong correlation at the .01 level (two tailed) for both variable groupings. Table 18 shows the results.

Table 6. Correlation between respondents' ranking of a leader's ability to articulate a defined mission or vision and the remaining characteristic groups.

Articulation of Vision/Mission		Leadership	Working with others
	Pearson Correlation	.439	.384
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000
	N	92	94

The ability to articulate a mission characteristic question group found significance in sixteen of the remaining questions on the test instrument not found in the other characteristic question groupings at the .01 level and two at the .05 level. Questions 2, 8, 10, 11, 16, 18, 21, 30, 32, 34, 35, 38, 39, 42, 43, and 45 correlation was significant at the .01 level and questions 37, and 41 correlation was significant at the .05 level (Appendix A).

SUMMARY

No significance at the .05 level was found between the type of institution (regional public college/university or community college) and the three overarching characteristics for this study. Size of institution was found to be related to leadership characteristics variables for the colleges and universities that had between 1,001 to 4,999 students; no significance was found at the .05 level for the other five of the six size categories. A high level of correlation was found between all three characteristic group questions when compared to all other (non-grouped) questions. A stronger inter-correlation was found between leadership and working with others, although vision was also strongly correlated with both.

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

SUMMARY OF PURPOSE

The purpose of this study was to determine the characteristics desired in presidents of colleges and universities from the point of view of governing board chairpersons. Through the use of the Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire, version 5x (MLQ 5x), governing board chairpersons were asked 50 questions that dealt with different characteristics they would seek in a president for their college or university, as well as basic demographics.

The questionnaire was administered through an online survey provider and mailed surveys. Participants were randomly selected from regional colleges and universities that hold membership with American Association of State Colleges and Universities and community colleges who hold membership with the American Association of Community Colleges. This study examined whether the type and size of institution affects the importance of characteristics sought in a president, grouped by leadership, the ability to articulate a mission or vision and the ability to work with others. Additionally, the three overarching characteristics were examined to determine whether they had an effect on the hiring of a new president when compared to the remaining characteristic questions presented on the MLQ 5x.

CONCLUSIONS

The analyses of the data show no significant relationship between the type of institution and the characteristic question groupings. The regional colleges and universities look for the same type of leaders as community colleges with respect to leadership ability, ability to work with others and the ability to articulate a mission or vision. Although these findings may appear inconsistent with conventional thinking because the institutions usually have different missions, it is consistent in that they still expect to hire a president who is a strong leader with people skills who has a mission for the future of the institution. The difference may be in their vision as based on the type of institution but the expectation is still to have a strong leader who can articulate that mission to those she or he works with as well as to the community at large.

Regarding the question of size of institution and how that may affect desired presidential characteristics, there was no relationship between the characteristic question groupings and size groupings with the exception of group 2 (colleges with student populations of 1,001 to 4,999). This group was significantly more likely to value leadership and working with others as a characteristic for their president over the characteristic group of articulation of a mission. These findings can be evaluated as articulating the need for a strong leader at a smaller institution that may have to rely on more external funding or have fewer administrative staff and, as such, the president may have to fill more leadership roles for the institution and provide community relations expertise.

When hiring a new president, leadership and the ability to work with others had a higher correlation than the remaining (uncategorized) questions from the test instrument.

It is not surprising that governing board chairpersons want a president with strong

leadership skills. The results showed the strongest correlation (r=.510) between

leadership and working with others, meaning that respondents who rated leadership

highly were very likely to also rate working with others highly. The weakest correlation

(r=.384) was between vision/mission and working with others, meaning that responses

were more often high for one and low for the other. However, this finding is not an

indication that the other two groups, ability to work with others and ability to articulate a

defined mission or vision, are not correlated. They, too, had a high level of correlation,

but leadership and working with others was more significant in the correlation tests. In

essence, board chairpersons value an individual with strong leadership skills and the

ability to work with others.

IMPLICATIONS

This study examined three distinct leadership characteristics traits: leadership,

ability to work with others and the ability to articulate a defined mission or vision. As the

need for qualified college or university presidents increases due to the reduction of ranks

through retirements in the next six years (Fain, 2010), it is important to look at what types

of individuals are needed to fill these vacancies. This study indicates that different sizes

of institution may require different characteristics in their leaders. Small colleges, in

particular, may be looking for leaders who exhibit a strong sense of purpose, ethical

leadership, congruent values and beliefs, and the ability to lead collectively toward a

common goal.

The three characteristic groupings from this study are important traits to consider

as all three were significantly correlated with each other. As governing boards begin the

process of seeking a new institutional leader, this study gives foundational statistical support for the need for leaders who exhibit the tested characteristics. Furthermore, as many institutions turn toward consulting groups and hiring firms to help fill the presidential ranks, this study can be used to provide a basis for requesting more information from applicants and references in terms of how the candidate exhibits the qualities of leadership, ability to work with others and ability to articulate a defined mission or vision for the institution.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations for further study emerged from the findings and analysis of data.

1. This study only considered regional colleges and universities that had primary emphases on teaching. A recommendation for further studies would be to replicate this study with differing populations that include, but are not limited to, research universities, land grant universities, and public liberal arts colleges.

2. This study used only public institutions within the population. A recommendation for further studies would be to replicate this study using private colleges and universities solely or in combination with public institutions.

3. This study focused on three overarching characteristics (leadership, ability to work with others and ability to articulate a mission or vision) as a defined set of four questions per characteristic. A recommendation for further studies would be to replicate this study using the MLQ 5x and focus on other leadership qualities that can be derived from the test instrument such as idealized influence, passive/avoidant behavior and outcomes of leadership.

4. Much of this study focused on only a portion of the data that was collected. It is recommended that the remaining data be used to compile more evidence on presidential characteristics specific to the type and size of institution as well as other demographic data that was captured, such as institution location (urban, suburban, or rural) and the highest degree awarded by the institution.

5. The population for this study was governing board chairpersons. Further study could be completed using a different population focus such as faculty, students, alumni or other college and university stakeholders.

6. An interesting finding of this study was that the smaller colleges placed a higher value on leadership skills in a president. Since this study did not survey representatives from colleges with fewer than 1,000 students, a future study could expand on the finding by investigating whether the smallest colleges place an even higher value on leadership skills in their presidents.

SUMMARY

The conclusions and implications from this study indicate that the size of the institution may view desired leadership characteristics differently and, as such, should be further explored. Furthermore, leadership, the ability to work with others and the ability to articulate a vision are shown to be important characteristics for governing boards to consider as they work to select individuals for the office of college or university president. This study provides a foundational tool for future studies on the topic of presidential characteristics, and adds research to the body of literature written about the board chairperson's perspective.

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CHARACTERISCTIC GROUPINGS COMPARED TO

		Leadership	Vision	Working with others
Leadership	Pearson Correlation	1	.439**	.510**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0	0
	N	94	92	89
Vision	Pearson Correlation	.439**	1	.384**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0		0
	N	92	97	94
Working with others	Pearson Correlation	.510**	.384**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0	0	
	N	89	94	95
QUESTION TOPIC				
q1 Provides Assistance	Pearson Correlation	0.092	0.07	0.107
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.38	0.496	0.307
	N	93	96	94
q2 Reconsiders Assumptions	Pearson Correlation	.354**	.384**	.237*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001	0	0.023
	N	91	94	92
q3 Waits to interfere	Pearson Correlation	0.091	-0.029	0.173
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.381	0.778	0.094
	N	94	97	95
q4 Concentrates on Irregularities	Pearson Correlation	.356**	0.14	.481**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0	0.175	0
	N	93	96	93
q5 Bystander Leadership	Pearson Correlation	-0.109	-0.022	0.066
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.297	0.831	0.527
	N	94	97	95
q7 Not present at Job	Pearson Correlation	0.01	-0.11	0.186
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.927	0.282	0.07
	N	94	97	95
q8 Seeks other's views	Pearson Correlation	.377**	.531**	.428**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0	0	0
	N	94	97	95
q10 Leader/Employee Association	Pearson Correlation	.333**	.366**	.526**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.002	0	0
	N	86	89	87
q11 Task Responsibility	Pearson Correlation	.484**	.488**	.374**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0	0	0
	N	94	96	94
q12 Lackadaisical Leaderships	Pearson Correlation	-0.104	-0.199	-0.061
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.319	0.05	0.556
	N	94	97	95

		Leadership	Vision	Working with Others
q16 Clear Reward System	Pearson Correlation	.439**	.353**	.519**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0	0.001	0
	N	91	93	91
q17 Lack of Initiative	Pearson Correlation	0.108	0.03	.261*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.301	0.772	0.011
	N	94	97	94
q18 Considers Others	Pearson Correlation	.400**	.346**	.566**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0	0.001	0
	N	94	97	95
q20 Lack of Resourcefulness	Pearson Correlation	-0.043	-0.048	-0.031
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.678	0.637	0.763
	N	94	97	95
q21 Performs as a Leader	Pearson Correlation	.303**	.212*	.505**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.003	0.044	0
	N	91	91	89
q22 Maintains Attentiveness on Shortcomings	Pearson Correlation	.312**	0.11	.379**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.002	0.293	0
	N	92	93	91
q25 Exhibits Authority	Pearson Correlation	.281**	0.091	0.168
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.006	0.383	0.109
	N	93	94	92
q27 Seeks Out Employee Failure	Pearson Correlation	.286**	0.057	.241*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.007	0.588	0.022
	N	89	93	90
q28 Lacks Decision Making Skills	Pearson Correlation	-0.129	-0.199	-0.13
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.219	0.051	0.208
	N	92	97	95
q30 Desires Various Points of View	Pearson Correlation	.363**	.400**	.455**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0	0	0
	N	91	96	94
q32 Provides individual Vision on Projects	Pearson Correlation	0.174	.326**	0.192
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.093	0.001	0.064
	N	94	97	94
q33 Lacks Immediate Reactions	Pearson Correlation	0.168	-0.117	0.101
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.105	0.254	0.33
	N	94	97	95
q34 Encourages teamwork	Pearson Correlation	.316**	.450**	.317**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.002	0	0.002
	N	94	97	95
q35 Provides Verbal Praise for a Job Well Done	Pearson Correlation	.414**	.570**	.566**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0	0	0
	N	94	97	95

		Leadership	Vision	Working with Others
q37 Provides for employee needs	Pearson Correlation	.376**	.217*	.352**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0	0.034	0.001
	N	94	96	94
q38 Varies Modes of Leadership	Pearson Correlation	.353**	.287**	.213*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0	0.004	0.038
	N	94	97	95
q39 Provides employees opportunity to achieve higher expectations	Pearson Correlation	0.204	.433**	.288**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.05	0	0.005
	N	93	95	92
q40 Characterizes employees well to upper management	Pearson Correlation	0.101	0.1	0.183
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.333	0.331	0.076
	N	94	97	95
q41 Provides Personal Leadership	Pearson Correlation	0.158	.251*	.276*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.148	0.02	0.012
	N	85	86	83
q42 Helps Employees Achieve More	Pearson Correlation	0.199	.302**	.382**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.058	0.003	0
	N	91	93	91
q43 Reaches Institutional goals	Pearson Correlation	.283**	.275**	.261*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.006	0.008	0.012
	N	92	93	91
q44 Heightens Employee's Work Ethic	Pearson Correlation	0.204	0.185	.316**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.059	0.086	0.003
	N	86	87	86
q45 Is an Effective Leader	Pearson Correlation	.324**	.457**	.402**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.002	0	0
	N	92	94	92

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

APPENDIX B: INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

Institutional Review Approval Form

MARSHALL UNIVERSITY
www.marshall.edu

Office of Research Integrity   FWA 00002704
Institutional Review Board
401 11th St., Suite 1300   IRB1 #00002205
Huntington, WV 25701   IRB2 #00003206

October 15, 2012

Dennis Anderson, Ed.D.
Leadership Studies

RE: IRBNet ID# 351341-1
At: Marshall University Institutional Review Board #2 (Social/Behavioral)

Dear Dr. Anderson:

Protocol Title: [351341-1] Presidential Succession Planning for Governing Boards in Higher
                           Education

Expiration Date: October 15, 2013
Site Location: MUGC
Submission Type: New Project   APPROVED
Review Type: Exempt Review

In accordance with 45CFR46.101(b)(2), the above study and informed consent were granted Exempted
approval today by the Marshall University Institutional Review Board #2 (Social/Behavioral) Designee for
the period of 12 months. The approval will expire October 15, 2013. A continuing review request for this
study must be submitted no later than 30 days prior to the expiration date.

This study is for student Timothy Channell.

If you have any questions, please contact the Marshall University Institutional Review Board #2
(Social/Behavioral/Educational) Coordinator Michelle Woomer, B.A., M.S at (304) 696-4308 or
woomer3@marshall.edu. Please include your study title and reference number in all correspondence with
this office.

CURRICULUM VITAE

Timothy L. Channell

EDUCATION:

Doctorate in Education, Marshall University, WV   2013
        Emphases: Higher Education Leadership
                      Curriculum and Instruction

Master of Business Administration, West Virginia Wesleyan College   2003

Bachelor of Arts, Music Education, Marshall University, WV   1989

CONFERENCES: ATTENDANCE, PRESENTATIONS, AND/OR LEADERSHIP:
- International Music and Entertainment Industry Association Conference   2013
  New Orleans, LA
  Presentation: Does an Academic Terminal Degree Exist for Music
      Business/Industry
- International Music and Entertainment Industry Association Conference   2012
  Los Angeles, CA
  Presentation: The Socratic Method in the Music Business Classroom
  Presentation: Building a Music Business Program in a Rural Location (student
  researcher presentation)
- International Music and Entertainment Industry Association Conference   2011
  Los Angeles, CA
- International Music and Entertainment Association Conference   2010
  Miami, FL
  Presentation: Bringing the Industry to You: Online Internships
- Conference in Higher Education Pedagogy   2010
  Blacksburg, VA
  Presentation: Online Internships: Wave of the future or passing fad?
- Southern Regional Council on Educational Administration   2008
  Charleston, West Virginia
  Presentation: Correspondence School Redux: A comparison study of "pen and
  paper" correspondence schools and online education
- Independent College Advancement Associates   2007
  Geneva-on-the-lake, Ohio
  Presentation: Creating Alumni Chapters
- Council for Advancement and Support of Education, District Two
  New York, New York   2007
  Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania   2006
      Host Judge, Category: Special Events
  Baltimore, Maryland   2005
      Alumni Track Co-Chairperson
      Presentation: Alumni Events from Small to Large, How to Get
          Organized
  Philadelphia, Pennsylvania   2004

- West Virginia Music Educators Conference   1990—2000
- Music Educators National Conference   1990—2000
- West Virginia String Association   1992—1998
           Presentation: "Starting an Elementary String Program"

PUBLICATIONS/REVIEW BOARDS
- Grant Review Board; Music and Entertainment Industry Education Association   2013
- Grant Review Board for the Greensboro, NC Arts Grants Board   2011-2013
- Editorial Reviewer for the Music and Entertainment Industry Education Association 2012 International Journal
- Music and Entertainment Industry Education Association Annual Journal   2010
        "Creating Virtual Internships in the Music Business" with Dr. Dennis Anderson

EXPERIENCE:
Director of Music Business Program/Lecturer
Assistant Professor, Graduate College
  Radford University
- Certified Pro Tools HD 8 Operator
- Designed curriculum to enhance learning opportunities for students through the development of a comprehensive music business program
- Developed a procedure and maintained the Covington Center for the Performing Arts Performance Hall recordings
- Tripled the size of the program in one year time span
- Developed relationships with area professions to facilitate better learning opportunities outside the classroom.
- Developed an online internship with a Los Angeles, CA talent company for students

Director of Alumni Relations/ Major Gifts Officer
  West Virginia Wesleyan College, Buckhannon, WV
- Promoted in October 2002, responsibilities included developing a program to connect alumni and donors with the College; worked with constituencies including CEO's, Presidents, Vice Presidents, Managers of all levels, Superintendents, Principals, Accountants, Attorneys, Doctors and Government officials; and support a portfolio of major gift donors.
- Developed and maintained a budget of over $250,000 and a significant portion of the vice president's budget of over $2 million.
- Supervised a staff overseeing strategic planning, logistics and evaluations for events and programs ranging in size from 20 individuals to over 3000, various publications (print and electronic) and annual fund.
- Negotiated contracts with vendors.
- Responsible for the alumni portion of the institutional marketing plan, including content of the alumni web page.
- Served on numerous campus committees including Strategic Planning, Athletic Hall of Fame Selection Committee, Alumni Awards
- Developed and Solicited participants for MBA Lecture Series and Alumni Sharing Knowledge program

Academic and Career Advisor
  West Virginia Wesleyan College, Buckhannon, WV
- Developed innovative programming from 2000 to 2002 to include new partnerships with Alumni network and increased internship opportunities for students by 300%.
- Designed and implemented new seminars to help understanding and skills development on various topics including resume writing, cover letter writing, networking, major determination, and non-traditional student orientation.

Music Educator
  Randolph County Schools, Elkins, West Virginia
  Elkins High School, Elkins Middle (Junior High) School, Various Elementary Schools
- Provided leadership from 1990 to 2000 in the role of department chairman to increase opportunities for students
- Developed a nationally award winning comprehensive music program for grades 9 - 12
- Served as cooperating teacher for Alderson-Broaddus College and West Virginia Wesleyan College
- Performed various leadership tasks: mentor, teacher, club sponsor, class sponsor and student advisor
- Coordinator for the Region VIII Band Festival, a two day adjudication festival for all middle and high school band programs in the region
- Worked with community leaders to bring symphonic organizations to the Elkins region including school educational concerts and pre-concert curriculum design and presentations
- Maintained three major performing ensembles and various small groups
- Designed total curriculum for music honors courses including AP Music Theory, history of rock and roll, piano and basic guitar
- Implemented a new music theater curriculum in conjunction with the theater arts director to present productions each year.