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Verna M. Fowler

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LEADERSHIP OF AMERICAN INDIAN PRESIDENTS OF ACCREDITED
TRIBALLY CHARTERED COMMUNITY COLLEGES

by

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Bachelor of Science, Silver Lake College, 1972
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A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty

of the

University of North Dakota

in partial fulfillment of the requirements

for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Grand Forks, North Dakota
July
1992

T1992
F829

This dissertation, submitted by Verna M. Fowler in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy from the University of North Dakota, has been read by the Faculty Advisory Committee under whom the work has been done and is hereby approved.

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Department Educational Administration

Degree Doctor of Philosophy

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Date 7/14/92

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I have attained a dream I never thought was possible--a doctoral degree. I never could have accomplished this alone. There are many who have made this a reality. To the following, I am deeply grateful:

To Dr. Donald K. Lemon, my advisor, for recruiting, guiding, and encouraging me in this endeavor.

To the University of North Dakota for the Patricia Roberts Harris Fellowship. The staff at Twamley Hall, particularly Dr. Alice Clark, Dr. Harvey Knull, and their colleagues, Dean Mary Harris and the CTL faculty, especially Dr. Richard Landry for his assistance in statistics.

To the faculty committee who gave their time and expertise in supervising this dissertation: Dr. Gloria Jean Thomas, Dr. Janet Ahler, Dr. Richard Ludtke, and Dr. Daniel Rice--who challenged and encouraged me. As teachers and friends, they are exemplary role models.

To the Native American presidents who participated in this study. They did what only strong leaders can do--permit their leadership to be scrutinized.

To Sharon Fields who served as typist, editor, and proofreader. Her attitude and dedication to her work are inspiring.

To Frances May and her family who "adopted," supported, and shared their lives with me.

To Sister Jeanette Trost, who was proofreader and counselor, and to my sisters, brothers, nieces, and nephews goes special love for their fath and support.

To the Sisters of a New Genesis who gave hope, encouragement, love, and support.

Lastly, to my deceased parents, Sanford and Louise Fowler, who instilled in me a desire to learn and persevere. Though not present physically, their spirit was there to guide and inspire.

ABSTRACT

This study examined the leadership behaviors of Native American presidents of accredited tribally chartered and controlled community colleges. The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire-Form XII was used to obtain the self-perceptions of seven Native American presidents about their leadership behavior. In addition, the perceptions of three faculty members, three administrative staff members, and two board members concerning the leadership behaviors of their president at each of the seven colleges were obtained through the LBDQ-12. Each president also was requested to complete a questionnaire designed for this study to collect biographical data and data about their goals, challenges, and accomplishments.

The findings and conclusions were the following:

The presidents and the board members perceived the presidents to be high in the leadership behaviors of Tolerance of Freedom, Consideration, Initiation of Structure, and Persuasiveness. These groups perceived the presidents to be low in the leadership behaviors of Representation, Demand Reconciliation, Predictive Accuracy, and Integration.

The faculty and the administrative staff perceived the presidents to be high in Tolerance of Freedom, Persuasiveness, Initiation of Structure, and

Superior Orientation. They perceived the presidents to be low in Integration, Predictive Accuracy, Demand Reconciliation, and Representation.

Tribal college governing boards tend to hire individuals similar to themselves as presidents.

A descriptive leadership profile of a tribal college president is that he is male, is between 39 and 42 years of age, has served in his position for nearly six years, was reared on the reservation, descended from a family involved in tribal leadership, holds a master's degree, and has parents with at least two years of high school education.

Tribal college presidents spend a majority of their time coping with a lack of financial resources. Therefore, the roles and the positions of the presidents are tenuous.

Tribal college presidents believe their institutions exist to serve the students and community in addition to preserving the tribal culture through the college curriculum. The instilling of tribal culture in the Native American colleges is essential but difficult.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

The unique relationship between the United States government and the governments of the federally recognized American Indian tribes is based upon Article I, Section 8, Clause 3 of the United States Constitution which states, "Congress shall have the Power to regulate Commerce with foreign Nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian Tribes." This clause of the Constitution, in conjunction with American Indian treaties, federal legislation, and court cases, has established the role and shaped the policies of the federal government in all dealings with the various Indian tribes. Even the federal government's Indian education policies have been governed by the Commerce Clause.

As a result of this often uneasy relationship of the federal government with the sovereign tribes residing within its borders, the contemporary educational experiences of many American Indians differ from the educational experiences of mainstream Americans. Not until the latter part of the nineteenth century did the federal government acknowledge its responsibility for Indian education by appropriating funds for Indian schools.

As a result of governmental actions, American Indians throughout history have been educated in a variety of settings. For example, mission schools operated by various Christian denominations, Bureau of Indian Affairs day or boarding schools located on reservations, and off-reservation Indian boarding schools have all been used for educating Indian children. In the beginning, these schools were funded with Indian treaty annuities and land cessations, and later, in the nineteenth century, by the United States government. Other Indians have attended public schools which received funds from the federal Johnson O'Malley Act. This act, passed in 1934, was to fund the education of reservation Indian students who attended public schools.

From the colonization of America until the early nineteenth century, formal Indian schooling consisted primarily of elementary and vocational education. In the beginning, the purpose of American Indian education was to "civilize" and "convert" Indians to the Christian religion. By the nineteenth century, these goals had changed to those of assimilation of the Indian into the mainstream society and the eradication of Indian culture. Off-reservation Indian boarding schools were established by the federal government to facilitate the attainment of these goals. These boarding schools were primarily elementary schools. However, the establishment of Carlisle Indian School in Pennsylvania and Haskell Institute in Kansas in the late 1800s was an example of the federal government's attempt to provide for continuing Indian education, although they were not much more than elementary schools (Task Force Five 1976). These

schools were established for the purpose of training older students, including females, for vocational occupations. Szasz (1977) reported that by 1930 approximately 90 percent of American Indian children attended public schools, Bureau of Indian Affairs schools, religious mission schools, or private schools. He cautioned, however, that this figure was misleading because most of these students dropped out of school by the fifth grade. By the early 1950s, government or public schools were available for the elementary and secondary education of most American Indians.

Indian Higher Education

Throughout the history of higher education in the United States, American Indians have been the group that has had the most difficult time accessing higher education. Early colonial colleges, established primarily for the education of ministers, accepted American Indians, but only a very few were given the opportunity or were able to take advantage of it. Those Native Americans who did attend colonial colleges were generally trained to be ministers with the hope that they would eventually convert their tribes to Christianity. By the end of the 1600s, American Indian students were admitted to Indian branch colleges established by Harvard College and the College of William and Mary. However, these subsidiary colleges eventually closed due to lack of Indian students.

From 1878 to 1924, the federal government funded Indian students at Hampton Institute in Virginia, which provided them with a junior college

education. Nearly two hundred Native American students attended Hampton before the federal government discontinued the funding (Task Force Five 1976). The next impetus for Indians in higher education came from the Indian Reorganization Act of 1934, which authorized college loans to Native Americans, and the Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944 (G.I. Bill), which enabled Indian veterans to attend college.

Although more American Indian students have been able to attend college since the 1960s, "fewer than one-third leave with a diploma" (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching 1989, p. 59). This dropout problem, the 1960s civil rights movement, and the federal government's new policy of Indian self-determination were factors which led the Navajo tribe of Arizona to establish the first tribally chartered and controlled community college in 1968. Since then, twenty-two other tribes have established similar institutions, and five tribes were in the beginning stages of establishing such institutions in the early 1990s. Boyer (1989) in the Carnegie Foundation's special report on tribal colleges maintained that mainstream America can learn from these tribal colleges:

[W]e can learn about survival, about hope and determination in the face of extreme adversity, about renewal of community, about reclaiming the individual and the society from dependencies of all sorts, and about creatively connecting education to the larger world (p. xiv).

The presidents of these Indian community colleges have overcome severe financial, social, political, cultural, and educational problems as they have created a new type of institution of higher education in the United States.

The Native American presidents of these institutions, educated in American mainstream universities and colleges, have transplanted a non-Indian institution into an Indian culture. Utilizing these new institutions to preserve the traditional culture, they are preparing their students to function in both tribal and mainstream cultures. These leaders are seizing the opportunity to provide higher education for a growing proportion of American Indians, providing role models of leadership for those who must function in a global society while preserving their history and culture.

Leadership Research

Although leadership has been a philosophical subject for thousands of years, only within the last century have leadership studies been organized. Generally, leadership studies fall into one of three broad categories: the trait approach, the behavioral approach, or the situational approach (Beck 1978).

From the turn of the century until about the 1940s, the trait approach to leadership was dominant. Based upon the theory that leaders possess certain inherent characteristics that make them leaders, research studies attempted to identify these traits. Among the major leadership researchers during this period were Bernard (1926), Tead (1935), and Dowd (1936) (Stogdill 1974; Bass 1981). Some trait research is still being conducted, including efforts to identify negative leadership traits (Yukl 1981; Hersey and Blanchard 1988).

The behavioral approach, sometimes called the leadership style or best style approach, grew from Taylor's scientific management movement and Mayo's human relations movement. The scientific management movement was task oriented and stressed the efficient organization of the work environment (Knezevich 1975). The human relations movement was people oriented and stressed employee relationships in the work environment. The underlying theory of the behavioral approach was that one best style of leadership existed. Research focused on identifying this style so that leaders could be trained in that style. The best known and most widely researched of these theories was Hemphill's Ohio State Model (1954). Other theories were Likert's Michigan Leadership Studies (1961) and Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid (1964). Although research to identify a single best style of leadership was not successful, it did produce a basis for the situational approach, which emerged in the 1960s (Jago 1982).

The third approach, situational leadership, was based upon the theory that one best leadership style for all situations did not exist. Rather, this approach suggested that a range of leadership styles exist and that the leader must be able to identify and adopt the most effective leadership style for the situation. Research focused on observing leader and follower behaviors in various situations and examining the interaction of the three variables: the leader, the followers, and the situation. Major models emerging from this period

were House's Path-Goal Theory (1971), Fiedler's Contingency Model (1967), and Hersey and Blanchard's Life-Cycle Theory of Leadership (1977).

Based on the situational leadership theory, current leadership research has delved into the theory that effective leaders must understand and be able to analyze their organization's culture. Recent works indicative of this trend are Reframing Organizations: Artistry, Choice, and Leadership (Bolman and Deal 1991), Collegiate Culture and Leadership Strategies (Chaffee and Tierney 1988), and Leadership and Organizational Culture (Sergiovanni and Corbally 1984).

Literally thousands of studies on leadership have been completed. In many instances, they have been contradictory and have generated more questions than they answered. In most of these studies, either Fiedler's Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC) Scale or the Ohio State Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) has been used (Bass 1981). The use of these instruments has enabled researchers to compare leadership and leaders in countries and cultures throughout the world.

Need for the Study

Very little research has been conducted of Native American leadership or leaders. The war chiefs of the past generally come to mind when Indian leadership is considered. However, the Indian leaders of today are often educators, and their leadership styles, behaviors, practices, and backgrounds need to be studied.

Only limited research of contemporary American Indian leadership has been done. In updating Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership (1974), Bass (1981) made reference to the work of Mead (1937) with four indigenous American groups: the Dakota, the Kwakiutl, the Iroquois, and the Eskimo. Davids and Tippeconnic (1987), in compiling a list from Dissertation Abstracts International (DAI) of 441 doctoral dissertations which addressed Indian education between 1972 and 1987, found that only six (6) of these dissertations addressed Indian leaders or leadership. Stein (1988) identified eleven (11) dissertations pertaining to tribally chartered community colleges. One (1) of these dissertations pertained to leadership; this study investigated the role models of fourteen American Indian administrators. The lack of Native American researchers and the absence of large reservation-based corporations to fund research may contribute to the lack of Native American leadership research.

More research about leadership has been done in other minority groups than in American Indian tribes. Therefore, Bass's statement calling for more research of leadership in minority groups is especially applicable to Native Americans:

The preponderance of evidence endorses the need by minority members serving as leaders in majority environments to emulate the original white, male manager. However, more and timely research will be needed on the accommodations made by minority members to the duality of their roles as both manager and minority member. It is also a completely different matter for community leaders who ordinarily need to identify more strongly with their own subculture than do their followers (1981, p. 615).

The lack of research of American Indian leaders provides evidence of the need to investigate the leadership of Native Americans who are presidents of tribally chartered institutions. This study will contribute to the research Bass (1981) called for regarding the accommodations minority members must make in their dual roles as leaders in a non-Indian structured institution and as members of an American subculture.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the leadership of the Native Americans who are presidents of accredited tribally chartered institutions in the United States. These institutions were members of the American Indian Higher Education Consortium (AIHEC). A secondary purpose was to develop a description of the typical Native American president of an accredited tribally chartered AIHEC institution and to determine their leadership patterns and techniques.

Delimitations

The following delimitations apply to this study:

1. Only accredited Native American institutions were subjects of this study.
2. Only tribally chartered and controlled Native American institutions in the United States were subjects of this study.

3. Only Native American institutions which were members of AIHEC were subjects of this study.
4. Only American Indians who served as presidents of accredited tribally chartered AIHEC institutions located in the United States were subjects of this study.
5. Only three faculty members, three administrative staff members, and two board members who served at accredited tribally chartered AIHEC institutions located in the United States were surveyed for their perceptions of the president's leadership at each institution.

Assumptions

The study was based on the following assumptions:

1. The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire-Form XII (LBDQ-12) (The Ohio State University 1962) accurately, reliably, and validly measured the presidents' self-perception of their leadership behavior.
2. The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire-Form XII (LBDQ-12) (The Ohio State University 1962) accurately, reliably, and validly measured the perceptions of faculty, administrative staff, and board members regarding the leadership behavior of their president.

3. The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire-Form XII (LBDQ-12) can be used to measure perceptions of leadership within the American Indian cultural framework.
4. The participants in the study responded to the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire-Form XII (LBDQ-12) accurately, honestly, and openly.
5. The participants in the study responded accurately, honestly, and openly to the Presidents' Questionnaire, which was developed specifically for this study.
6. The tribally chartered institutions in this study have earned full accreditation from the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education from the North Central Association of Schools and Colleges or from the Northwest Association of Schools and Colleges under the guidance of effective leaders. Thus, the presidents of these institutions are exemplars of effective American Indian leadership because their institutions have attained and/or maintained accreditation status.

Definitions of Terms

The following terms and definitions will be useful in helping the reader to gain a better understanding of the study:

American Indian. The indigenous people of America. In the United States, the term refers to those indigenous people who are members or

descendants of members of federally recognized Indian tribes. This term will be used interchangeably with the terms "Native American" and "Indian" in this study.

American Indian Higher Education Consortium (AIHEC). An association composed of Native American post-secondary educational institutions; the consortium's goal is to provide guidance to new or existing Indian institutions and to monitor federal Indian legislation.

Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA). The agency of the United States Department of the Interior responsible for providing services to federally recognized Indian tribes.

Community college. A two-year post-secondary educational institution which offers educational opportunities to local and surrounding communities in the areas of academic, vocational, and continuing education.

Day school. A school which does not provide room and board for the students but which provides education during the daytime.

Leadership. "The process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation" (Hersey and Blanchard 1988, p. 86).

Leadership style. The manner in which actions are performed in helping a group move toward goals acceptable to its members (Mills 1977).

Native American. The indigenous people of America. In the United States, the term refers to those indigenous people who are members or

descendants of members of federally recognized Indian tribes. A federally recognized Indian tribe is eligible to receive services and benefits from the United States government via the Bureau of Indian Affairs. This term will be used interchangeably with "American Indian" and "Indian" in this study.

Tribally controlled and chartered institution. A post-secondary educational institution chartered by a federally recognized Indian tribe and governed by a board whose members are selected from among the eligible tribal members. The majority of the institution's students are Indian, and the college receives funding under the Tribally Controlled Community College Assistance Act of 1978 (P.L. 95-471).

Tribe. A division or group of the indigenous peoples of North America.

Research Questions

This study was guided by the following research questions:

- 1-A. What are the self-perceived leadership behaviors of the Native American presidents of accredited tribally chartered AIHEC institutions in the United States?
- B. What are the perceptions of selected faculty members regarding the leadership behavior of the Native American presidents at accredited tribally chartered AIHEC institutions in the United States?

- C. What are the perceptions of selected administrative staff members regarding the leadership behavior of the Native American presidents at accredited tribally chartered AIHEC institutions in the United States?
 - D. What are the perceptions of selected board members regarding the leadership behavior of the Native American presidents at accredited tribally chartered AIHEC institutions in the United States?
- 2-A.
- A. What are the similarities and differences in the self-perceived leadership behaviors among the Native American presidents of accredited tribally chartered AIHEC institutions in the United States?
 - B. What are the differences between the Native American presidents' self-perception of their leadership behaviors and the perceptions of the faculty members regarding the president's leadership behavior?
 - C. What are the differences between the Native American presidents' self-perception of their leadership behavior and the perceptions of the administrative staff regarding the president's leadership behavior?
 - D. What are the differences between the Native American presidents' self-perception of their leadership behavior and

the perceptions of the members of the board regarding the president's leadership behavior?

3. What is the prototypic description of a Native American president of an accredited tribally chartered AIHEC institution in the United States?
4. What are the leadership patterns exhibited by the Native American presidents of accredited tribally chartered AIHEC institutions in the United States?

Organization of the Study

The following chapter presents a review of the literature related to the study. It focuses on a history of Indian education including higher education, a review of general leadership literature, a review of leadership in higher education, a brief review of leadership studies in minority cultures, and a review of literature about Native American leadership. Chapter three presents the methodology of the study. It includes a description of the study sample, the rationale for selection of the sample, the instrumentation, the procedures to be used for collecting and analyzing the data, and a description of the statistical treatment of the data. Chapter four presents the data and a discussion of the data. Chapter five includes a brief summary of the study and a summary and discussion of the findings. Also, in chapter five, the conclusions, implications, limitations, and recommendations of the study are presented.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The purpose of this study was to investigate the leadership of the Native Americans who are presidents of accredited tribally chartered institutions in the United States. These institutions were members of the American Indian Higher Education Consortium (AIHEC). A secondary purpose was to develop a description of the typical Native American president of an accredited tribally chartered AIHEC institution and to determine their leadership patterns and techniques. This chapter consists of three sections: an overview of the history of Indian education including higher education, a review of general leadership literature, a review of leadership in higher education, a brief review of leadership studies in minority cultures, and a review of the literature on Native American leadership.

History of Indian Education

An historical perspective of Indian education is necessary to understand the inherent challenges of providing leadership in tribally controlled colleges of the 1990s. For the purpose of clarity, this overview is divided into four periods, recognizing that considerable overlap exists within the four periods. These periods are the Pre-European Period, the Evangelical Period,

the Federal Period, and the Indian Self-Determination Period (Jeanotte 1981; Thompson 1978). The Pre-European period, consisting of the years prior to 1492, describes Indian education at the time of the arrival of the Europeans. The Evangelical Period, spanning the years from 1500 to 1870, describes Indian education under the control of various Christian denominations. The Federal Period, covering the years from 1870 through 1960, treats the effect of governmental policies on Indian education. The present Indian Self-Determination Period, beginning in 1960, relates the attempts of Indian tribes to assume responsibility for the education of their tribal members (Jeanotte 198; Thompson 1978). This history section will conclude with a section on Indian higher education.

The Pre-European Period (Prior to 1492)

The first Europeans on the North American continent were received by people who had developed both formal and informal educational structures for the purpose of teaching their children the tribal culture. The final report of the American Indian Policy Review Commission described this educational process:

Education has always been a need of human society, and every society evolved a process of educating its youth for active adult participation in that society. The Indian society devised a means for socializing the youth and transmitting the culture.

The educational process was active and not passive. The boys and girls learned by doing. The process was not highly structured and was dependent upon parents, relatives, and tribal elders for implementation. The curriculum could be described as informal but relevant. The life style of Indians was tuned to the natural forces surrounding them and the overall

goal of education was to preserve and maintain their way of life. Indian children were expected to grow up as their parents were, to perpetuate tribal customs, values, traditions, and ethics. . . .

Because American Indians did not have a written language, much of what was learned was by word-of-mouth transmission. The basic thrust of Indian education was traditional in the sense that the past was revered (Task Force Five 1976, p. 5).

There were numerous Indian tribes inhabiting this continent prior to the arrival of Christopher Columbus. Although these tribes differed in many cultural respects, they followed the same general pattern in the education of the tribal members. This system appeared to have served the needs of the Indian tribes at that time.

The Evangelical Period (1500-1870)

The European influence imposed a more structured educational system on the Indians, primarily through efforts of religious sects whose goal was to civilize and Christianize them. This period of religious control overlapped the beginning of federal government control of Indian education, extending into the twentieth century (Jeanotte 1981; Thompson 1978; Fuchs and Havighurst 1972).

During this religion-dominated period of Indian education, various types of schools were established for the Indians. The French Catholic priests in the continent's northcentral area stressed religious training. They instructed the Indians in the Catholic faith and trained adult Indian catechists to continue the work after the priests left to convert other tribes. The Spanish Catholic priests, proselytizing in the southern and southwestern areas of the continent,

established mission communities and taught the Indians religion and agricultural skills. The English on the Atlantic coast recruited Indians to attend the same schools as the English youth. The purpose of these early English schools was to produce Anglican ministers for both the Anglo and the Indian societies.

With the Jesuits, it was to acquaint the Indian with the French manner, French customs, the French language. With the Protestants, it was to Anglicize the native and, in the process, prepare them for a "civilized" life. The Franciscans, working in the Southwest, also sought to bring Indians into the mainstream; but they were less interested in making Europeans of the Indians than were other missionaries. Regardless of the religious group, they all had the same goals: civilize and Christianize the Indians (National Advisory Council on Indian Education 1974, p. 106).

In 1568, the Spanish priests established the first formal Indian school in Havana, Cuba (Thompson 1978). However, the English system had the most influence on Indian education because the thirteen English colonies eventually shaped the federal government's policies (Task Force Five 1976). On the continent's eastern coast, the settlers came seeking religious freedom, resulting in the colonies and their schools established as joint efforts of the church and the state. The formal education of the colonial child was conducted in homes, day schools, and later boarding schools with a curriculum that emphasized religion, industrial arts, and academic courses. Whenever possible, Indian students were persuaded to attend these schools and study the same subjects as the non-Indian students (Task Force Five 1976).

After the establishment of the United States, the English settlers began their westward expansion, and the Indians were resettled on

reservations. Treaties, negotiated with the Indians in return for land, began to include provisions for Indian education. In 1778, the first treaty was signed with the United States government although previous treaties had been made with European nations and the Continental Congress (Thompson 1978; Fuchs and Havighurst 1972). In 1794, the first treaty with the federal government which provided for Indian educational services was signed by the Delaware, Tuscarora, and Stockbridge tribes (Task Force Five 1976; Fuchs and Havighurst 1972). The educational stipulations in the early treaties with the federal government provided for the services of farmers, who were to teach the Indians agricultural methods. Between 1794 and 1868, one hundred and twenty (120) treaties containing educational provisions for Indian tribes were signed (Thompson 1978; Fuchs and Havighurst 1972).

In 1802, the federal government passed the first in a series of Trade and Intercourse Acts. Through this legislation, which appropriated \$15,000 for Indian education, the United States assumed responsibility for providing various services, including education, to Indians (Task Force Five 1976; Fuchs and Havighurst 1972).

The Early Civilization Fund Act of 1819 provided an annual fund for Indian education. These funds supported the mission schools established by various religious denominations (Task Force Five 1976). The federal funds were supplemented with tribal annuities from ceded land and donations to the religious organizations. The mission schools provided room and board for

those students who did not live within commuting distance. The curriculum consisted of the English language and the four Rs: religion, reading, writing, and arithmetic (Task Force Five 1976; Fuchs and Havighurst 1972). In 1839, the Indian Commissioner implemented a manual labor plan for Indian education. Some schools established farms which provided training primarily in agricultural methods for the older male students while the older female students were instructed in household skills (Task Force Five 1976; Fuchs and Havighurst 1972).

Although the missionaries worked among the Indians for nearly three hundred years, their schools are considered failures:

For though the Indian students often left school with an understanding of the principles of Christianity and a solid grasp of reading and writing skills, they still shied away from the white man's way of life. One observer of the times noted, with obvious frustration, that after the Indians returned home, "instead of civilizing and converting the rest, they have immediately relapt [sic] into infidelity and barbarism themselves" (National Advisory Council on Indian Education 1974, pp. 106-07).

The history of the education of Native Americans by the various religious sects is a harsh indictment of the United States government in its treatment of the American Indian. Indian education at this time was a tool used to annihilate Indian culture. The positive aspect of the entire scenario is that the Indians were saved from extermination by the religionists.

The Federal Period (1870-1960)

Although the federal government had been involved in Indian education since pre-Revolution times, it became the dominant force toward the end of the 1800s. In 1870, the federal government appropriated \$100,000 to establish industrial training schools for Indian students. The first of these, Carlisle Indian School in Pennsylvania, opened in 1878. It was followed by schools in Forest Grove, Oregon; Chilocco, Oklahoma; and Lawrence, Kansas. Utilizing former military barracks, the schools' discipline and regimen were also modeled after the military (Szasz 1977; Fuchs and Havighurst 1972). The curricular goal was to teach agriculture and vocational skills to Native Americans to prepare them for assimilation. Therefore, the curriculum consisted of basic academic courses combined with vocational courses such as agriculture, textiles, blacksmithing, and carpentry (Task Force Five 1976; Fuchs and Havighurst 1972). Although these schools were for older students and offered vocational courses, they were not much more than primary schools (Task Force Five 1976).

In 1928, Lewis Meriam published The Problem of Indian Administration in which he condemned for cruelty the policy of removing Indian students from their homes. He recommended that day schools replace boarding schools, that Indian schools be models of excellence, that the quality of the teachers be improved, and that efforts be made to provide a relevant curriculum for the students (Szasz 1977; Task Force Five 1976). In the early 1930s, Collier, who was the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, began

implementing Meriam's recommendations. Some boarding schools were closed, some added high school curricula, others upgraded their academic and vocational programs, and teacher standards were established (Szasz 1977; Fuchs and Havighurst 1972).

In 1934, two significant federal legislative acts were passed. The Johnson O'Malley Act enabled the states to contract with the Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA) to deliver Indian health, education, and welfare services. This act led to the enrollment of thousands of Indian students in state public schools (Szasz 1977; Task Force Five 1976; Fuchs and Havighurst 1972). The Indian Reorganization Act, sometimes referred to as the Indian Bill of Rights, stopped the sale of Indian lands, established a modified form of tribal self-government, and provided for reservation day schools (Szasz 1977; Task Force Five 1976; Fuchs and Havighurst 1972).

When the Act was passed, 75 per cent [sic] of the Indian children attending school were in boarding schools; within ten years 67 per cent [sic] were attending day schools on the reservations. Sixteen boarding schools, including Carlisle, had been closed, and 84 day schools had been opened (Brightman 1971, p. 17).

During the 1950s, federal Indian policy reverted to assimilation when House Concurrent Resolution 108 terminated (ended the tribal trust status, the benefits, and rights as federally recognized Indian tribes) the Klamath, the Menominee, and sixty-one smaller tribes. As a result, the members of terminated tribes were no longer eligible for BIA educational assistance. The states in which these tribes resided became responsible for their education

(Task Force Five 1976; Fuchs and Havighurst 1972). As a result, the members of terminated tribes were no longer eligible for BIA educational assistance. The federal government began to encourage all Indians, not only the terminated Indians, to attend public schools. The Urban Relocation Act of 1951 resettled large numbers of Native American families in major cities where Indian children were enrolled in public schools for the first time (Task Force Five 1976).

Clearly, the government policy was one of assimilation. The termination policy of the federal government was ended in 1970 by President Nixon. The use of education as a tool of assimilation was ineffective as indicated by the absenteeism and high dropout rates of American Indians in mainstream schools (Fuchs and Havighurst 1972).

Indian Self-Determination Period (1960-Present)

The period of Indian self-determination began in the mid 1960s and continues into the 1990s (Jeanotte 1981; Szasz 1977). The Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 was significant in ushering in this period because it provided for Head Start, Upward Bound, Job Corps, Vista, and Community Action Programs (planned and operated by Indian communities) (Task Force Five 1976). The Economic Opportunity Act had a significant impact on Indian education. Although the act was to aid all economically disadvantaged Americans, Indian tribes seized the opportunity to direct and control the education of their members through the various programs. In addition, this act

helped Indian tribes demonstrate their ability to carry out their educational programs effectively and successfully.

In 1966, 1969, and 1970, three major Indian education studies were published: Equality of Educational Opportunity by Coleman et al., Indian Education: A National Tragedy--A National Challenge (known also as the Kennedy Report), and Final Report of the National Study of American Indian Education: The Education of Indian Children and Youth by Havighurst. These reports paved the way for major reforms in Indian education (Jeanotte 1981). They also helped promote the passage of the Indian Education Act of 1972 (Task Force Five 1976; Fuchs and Havighurst 1972), which required community participation in the Impact Aid (P.L. 874) programs and amended the Elementary and Secondary Education Act by providing for culturally relevant curriculum materials and programs in the schools (Task Force Five 1976). This act encouraged Indian involvement in the schools and was a stimulus for educational innovation by communities. Indians were again given the opportunity to exhibit their ability to implement educational programs. Self-determination became a reality in 1975 with the enactment of the Indian Self-Determination and Education Assistance Act. This act authorized tribes to contract with the BIA for the delivery of services, including education.

Indian Higher Education

In 1617, King James I initiated Indian higher education when he called for the education of Indians (Task Force Five 1976). Although Harvard,

Dartmouth, and the College of William and Mary established colleges specifically for Indians, only a few Indian students were able to attend, and these few were usually trained as ministers (Task Force Five 1976). In the 1820s, the Cherokees and Choctaws established their own system of education and sent their graduates to eastern colleges (Fuchs and Havighurst 1972; Task Force Five 1976). This system was closed when the federal government assumed control of Indian education (Task Force Five 1976). In 1880, the American Baptist Church established Indian University, now known as Bacone College, which was to be the equivalent of a state land grant college (Jeanotte 1981). During this period, a number of Indian students also were being sent to the industrial training schools of Carlisle in Pennsylvania and Haskell in Kansas. These schools, however, were primarily elementary schools that offered training in vocational areas (Task Force Five 1976). Most Indian students desiring higher education were sent to Hampton Institute in Virginia from 1878 until 1924 when the federal government discontinued funding for the school (Task Force Five 1976). Other than Hampton, a normal and agricultural institute, "there was no significant effort on the part of the government to encourage higher education among Indians" until the 1930s (Task Force Five 1976, p. 269).

The Indian Reorganization Act of 1934 provided for loans to American Indians who wished to attend college (Szasz 1977). In addition, the Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944, known as the G.I. Bill, helped Indian

veterans who wished to attend college after World War II. However, the college dropout rate for Indians was high due to inadequate preparation for college studies (Coombs et al. 1958), and in 1952, loans through the Indian Reorganization Act were no longer available (Szasz 1977; Task Force Five 1976). In the early 1960s, the Bureau of Indian Affairs began providing funds for Indian students who wished to attend college (Szasz 1977). In addition, course offerings at the former industrial-vocational training schools were expanded. Haskell became Haskell Indian Junior College, and the Institute of American Indian Arts was established in New Mexico (Jeanotte 1981; Szasz 1977). Eventually, several public and private institutions of higher education throughout the United States began actively recruiting Native American students, including the University of North Dakota, Brigham Young University, the University of Arizona, and The Pennsylvania State University.

In 1968, the Navajo tribe established the first tribally chartered Indian community college at Tsaile, Arizona. Within a period of five years, five additional colleges were begun (Stein 1988). As of 1992, there were a total of twenty-two (22) tribal colleges in the United States with five others in various beginning stages. According to the Carnegie Report (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching 1989), these institutions "seek to strengthen respect for their cultural heritage, create greater social and economic opportunities for the tribe and its members, and create links to the larger American society" (p. 53).

In 1972, the American Indian Higher Education College Consortium (AIHEC) was established, which joined these institutions in a formal, organizational entity. AIHEC's purpose was to provide guidance to new or existing Indian institutions and to monitor federal Indian legislation (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching 1989). In 1987, AIHEC succeeded in establishing the American Indian College Fund to provide an endowment fund for Indian institutions. AIHEC also publishes a quarterly journal, Tribal College: Journal of American Indian Higher Education.

Through tribal post-secondary institutions, academic and vocational programs are provided to over twelve thousand Indian students and their non-Indian neighbors (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching 1989). Graduates from the two-year institutions transfer to state or private institutions to obtain their baccalaureate degrees.

A tribal institution is a two-year community college, a four-year college, or a technical school which is chartered and controlled by a federally recognized Indian tribe or tribes (Stein 1988). As of 1992, Sinte Gleska and Oglala Lakota Colleges in South Dakota were the only four-year institutions offering baccalaureate degree programs. Sinte Gleska, which offers a master's degree in education, became a university in 1991. Tribal institutions have a dual mission: to provide an education consistent with the goals of both tribal and mainstream societies (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching 1989). The role of two-year colleges in the higher education of

American Indians is significant. Dr. Reginald Wilson, President of the American Council on Education, noted that 65 percent (65%) of the Native Americans who have earned a baccalaureate degree began their post-secondary education at a community college (Unpublished address to the Holmes Group, May 1991).

The average student at a tribal institution is a thirty-year-old woman who resides on the reservation and is head of a single parent household with an income far below the national average (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching 1989). Most of the students are handicapped by poor academic preparation and the pressure of family obligations. In addition, they live in communities with no tradition of formal education (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching 1989). The tribal colleges offer opportunities to a segment of the population which would otherwise lack all access to higher education.

The federal government enacted the Tribally Controlled Community College Assistance Act in 1978. This act provides per capita funding for tribal colleges, and the students also are eligible for the various types of federal financial aid. Yet, the community colleges' major challenge is insufficient funding. The scarcity of funds affects their ability to hire and retain competent administrators and faculty (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching 1989). Keeping their fledgling institutions financially afloat is a major responsibility of the presidents of tribal institutions.

American Indians have recognized the need for higher education; therefore, they have sought higher education. However, they desire a voice in the implementation and direction of the higher education of their members. Higher education can be the tool that will ensure their success in the global society of the twenty-first century.

Review of Leadership Literature

The study of leadership is not new. People have always been intrigued with the concept of leadership--the leaders, the behaviors, the characteristics, the skills, the models, and the theories (Bass 1960; Burns 1978). The writings of the Chinese philosopher, Confucius (ca. 500 B.C.), and his contemporaries are filled with advice for leaders (Bass 1981). The Greek philosopher, Plato (ca. 390 B.C.), in The Republic discussed the education of leaders with his student, Glaucon, and identified three types of leaders: the statesman, the military man, and the businessman. The great Greek writer, Plutarch (ca. 46 A.D.), wrote of the lives of Greek and Roman leaders (Burns 1978). The sixteenth century philosopher, Niccolo Machiavelli, provided advice to would-be leaders in The Prince (Smith and Peterson 1988; Fiedler 1967).

The word "leader," according to Bass (1981), was used in the English language as early as 1300 A.D. Bolman and Deal (1991) stated that the term is derived from the "Anglo-Saxon root 'laedare,' which meant to lead people on a journey" (p. 404). The term "leadership" was used first in early nineteenth century British political literature (Bass 1981).

Stogdill's (1974) classic, Handbook of Leadership, which describes more than three thousand studies conducted between 1904 and 1970, attests to the interest in leadership. Leadership studies are found in almost every discipline; leadership has been a topic for the writings of military men, novelists, poets, and feminists (Petruccio and Bass 1961; Bass 1981). However, in spite of the extensive data and analysis generated by leadership research, leadership still defies precise definition and measurement (Browne and Cohn 1958; Fiedler 1967; Burns 1978; McCall and Lumbardo (1978); Bass 1981; Yukl 1981; Bolman and Deal 1991). McCall and Lumbardo (1978) asserted that Stogdill's (1974) "stocktaking and inventory of results has shown that the accumulated data, even when pulled together, are still contradictory, ambiguous, and narrow" (p. 151).

Bolman and Deal (1991) stated, "Though the call for leadership is universal, there is much less clarity about what the term means . . ." (p. 403). In an unpublished review, V. J. Bentz listed 130 definitions of leadership obtained in a sampling of the literature prior to 1949 (Bass 1981, p. 87). Quoting noted leadership researchers, Fiedler (1967) listed ten definitions of "leadership" while Yukl (1981) listed only seven. Despite the inability of researchers and writers to agree on a specific definition for leadership, Bass (1981) maintained that "there is sufficient similarity between definitions to permit a rough scheme of classification" (p. 7). In addition, Smith and Peterson (1988) stated that what we have from leadership research is "certainly not nothing. We can make various

statements about traits, skills, styles, or motives . . . which open the way for other types of theorizing which hold more promise" (p. 12). Hersey and Blanchard (1988) stated, "A review of other writers reveals that most management writers agree that leadership is the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation" (p. 86).

The systematic and organized study of leadership began at the turn of the century and developed in significant stages (Beck 1978). Lippman (1973) identified four major stages: the Great Man Approach, the Trait Approach, the Situational Approach, and the Behavioral Approach. Bennett (1987) combined the Great Man Approach and the Trait Approach to make three stages. Morris (1985) maintained that the Great Man Approach and the Behavioral Approach were related and could be combined. Although a particular research approach or view seemingly prevailed in each stage, the voluminous literature on leadership is not readily categorized into specific developmental stages, and there is considerable overlap in both the research approaches and the time periods used (Jago 1982). For purposes of clarity in this study, three stages will be described: the Trait Approach, the Behavioral Approach, and the Situational Approach.

The Trait Approach

The "Trait Approach," also known as the "Great Man Approach," was based on the assumption that leaders possess characteristics or qualities that differentiate them from their followers (Jago 1982). Research focused on

identifying these traits or characteristics. The Trait Approach emerged in the late 1800s with Galton's 1892 study of the hereditary background of great men, a study which attempted to explain leadership on the basis of genetics (Stogdill 1974). An early classic experiment regarding leadership traits was conducted by Terman (1904) "who asked teachers to describe playground leaders. They were reported to be active, quick, skillful in devising and playing games, and good-looking" (Smith and Peterson 1988, p. 4). Work with children was a standard procedure in leadership research for several decades (Petruccio and Bass 1961). Stogdill (1948) reviewed 124 leadership studies which focused on the personal characteristics or traits of leaders. Both Stogdill (1948) and Jennings (1960) concluded that the Trait Approach to the study of leadership was neither very productive nor substantiated (Bass 1981). In 1974, Stogdill reviewed an additional 163 trait studies and modified his position:

The leader is characterized by a strong drive for responsibility and task completion, vigor and persistence in pursuit of goals, venturesomeness and originality in problem solving, drive to exercise initiative in social situations, self-confidence and sense of personal identity, willingness to accept consequences of decision and action, readiness to absorb interpersonal stress, willingness to tolerate frustration and delay, ability to influence other persons' behavior, and capacity to structure social interaction systems to the purpose at hand (p. 81).

Trait research is still being conducted. Yukl (1981) identified thirteen traits and nine skills characteristic of effective leaders:

[Traits]

1. Adaptable to situations
2. Alert to social environment
3. Ambitious and achievement-oriented
4. Assertive

5. Cooperative
6. Decisive
7. Dependable
8. Dominant (desire to influence others)
9. Energetic (high activity level)
10. Persistent
11. Self-confident
12. Tolerant of stress
13. Willing to assume responsibility (p. 70).

[Skills]

1. Clever (intelligent)
2. Conceptually skilled
3. Creative
4. Diplomatic and tactful
5. Fluent in speaking
6. Knowledgeable about group task
7. Organized
8. Persuasive
9. Socially skilled (p. 70).

Yukl (1981) stated that a variety of measurement instruments and procedures were used to develop this list. Among them were projective tests, situational tests, and forced choice tests. Bolman and Deal (1991) cited Bennis' (1986) five-year study of ninety outstanding leaders and their subordinates in which he identified four common traits or areas of competence:

1. Management of attention--The ability to communicate a sense of outcome, goal, or direction that attracts followers.
2. Management of meaning--The ability to create and communicate meaning with clarity and understanding.
3. Management of trust--The ability to be reliable and consistent so people can count on them.
4. Management of self--The ability to know one's self and to use one's skills within limits of strengths and weaknesses (Hersey and Blanchard 1988, p. 89).

Gardner (1987) compiled a list of fourteen leadership attributes:

1. Physical vitality and stamina
2. Intelligence and judgment-in-action
3. Willingness (eagerness) to accept responsibility
4. Task competence
5. Understanding of followers/constituents and their needs
6. Skill in dealing with people
7. Need to achieve
8. Capacity to motivate
9. Courage, resolution, steadiness
10. Capacity to win and hold trust
11. Capacity to manage, decide, set priorities
12. Confidence
13. Ascendance, dominance, assertiveness
14. Adaptability, flexibility of approach

Gardner (1987) noted that other characteristics could be added to the list because "the attributes required of a leader depend upon the kind of leadership being exercised, the context, the nature of followers and so on" (p. 17).

Yukl (1981) stated that research has been conducted regarding negative traits which may hinder a leader's effectiveness or keep one from reaching leadership potential. Hersey and Blanchard (1988) reported on Geier's (1967) work which identified three traits which hindered leaders: "the

perception of being uninformed, of being nonparticipants, or of being extremely rigid" (p. 89). The viewpoint regarding the Trait Approach has become more balanced; researchers now recognize that certain characteristics increase, but do not guarantee, successful leadership (Bolman and Deal 1991).

The Behavioral Approach

The "Behavioral Approach," which prevailed generally from World War II through the 1960s, was based on the assumption that there was a specific set of leader behaviors which were not inherent in the leader but could be identified and taught to aspiring leaders (Smith and Peterson 1988). Research focused on objective observation, description, measurement, and experimentation to determine patterns of leader behavior which resulted in a group attaining its goals (Jago 1982). Instruments which measured subordinates' attitudes toward the leader's behavior were used extensively during this period (Stogdill 1974; Bass 1981).

Leadership behavior theories were initiated by two schools of thought: the scientific management movement of the early 1900s which is attributed to Frederick Taylor and the human relations movement initiated in the late 1920s by Elton Mayo (Sergiovanni et al. 1980). The scientific management movement was concerned with structuring the work environment efficiently so that any employee could successfully perform the task (Knezevich 1975). The leader was expected to meet the organization's goals by focusing on the organization's needs. In contrast, the human relations movement was

concerned with providing for good interpersonal relationships in the workplace. The leader was expected to facilitate the efforts of the employees by focusing on their personal growth and simultaneously attaining the organization's goals. Compared with scientific management, the focus was on the employee's individual needs rather than the organization's needs (Sergiovanni et al. 1980).

The classic study by Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939) of autocratic and democratic styles of leadership in boys' clubs had a substantial effect upon leadership research because it was replicated in other countries (Smith and Peterson 1988). The American study "did not show that the 'democratic' leader style was most effective. It showed that which style of leadership was most effective depended upon which criterion of effectiveness was used" (Smith and Peterson 1988, p. 8).

Cartwright and Zander (1953) held that leadership is either goal-oriented or maintenance-oriented. Working with small groups, they held that group effort is either directed toward the attainment of goals or toward the maintenance of the group (Smith and Peterson 1988; Graumann in Graumann and Moscovici 1986).

During this period, a major project which resulted in the greatest number of research publications was The Ohio State Leadership studies conducted by the Bureau of Business Research at The Ohio State University (Bass 1981). Hemphill, Coons, Stogdill, and Halpin were the major researchers generally associated with the project although it was organized by Shartle

(Stogdill 1974). Halpin and Winer (1957) identified two dimensions of leadership: consideration, which refers to relationship behavior, and initiating structure, which refers to task behavior. Consideration pertains to the degree of warmth, friendship, communication, trust, and respect a leader exhibits toward the members of a group (Jago 1982; Hersey and Blanchard 1988). Initiating structure involves the leader's behavior in directing and structuring the group to accomplish its goals (Jago 1982; Hersey and Blanchard 1988). To measure a leader's consideration and initiation of structure, a questionnaire was developed to obtain subordinates' perceptions of the leader's actual behavior. These dimensions were scaled from low to high and plotted on horizontal and vertical axes to determine one's leadership style:

Quadrant 1: High Structure and Low Consideration

Quadrant 2: High Structure and High Consideration

Quadrant 3: High Consideration and Low Structure

Quadrant 4: Low Structure and Low Consideration

The questionnaire was to enable the researchers "to develop a standardized set of validated questions which could then be used in identical versions in a wide variety of settings" (Smith and Peterson 1988, p. 9). The resulting instrument, the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), designed "to describe how leaders carry out their activities" (Hersey and Blanchard 1988, p. 91), came to dominate leadership research (Yukl 1981). Stogdill, Goode, and Day (1962), building upon the work of their colleagues,

expanded the questionnaire to incorporate ten additional scales of leadership behavior. This present version is known as the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire-Form XII (LBDQ-12).

Stogdill (1974) summarized the conclusions of those researchers who used the Ohio State model:

Research in a variety of situations indicates that leaders are rated as more effective when they score high in both consideration and initiating structure. Military groups tend to be more cohesive when their leaders are high in both dimensions of behavior. In the educational situation, when teachers and principals are described high in consideration and structure, their pupils tend to make higher scores on tests of school achievement.

Superiors' and subordinates' descriptions of consideration and structure are both related to leader effectiveness ratings in industrial situations. The hypothesis that consideration and structure interact to condition follower satisfaction has not been supported by replicated research. Both consideration and structure are positively related to various measures of group cohesiveness and harmony. Initiating structure is related to group unity. Consideration is related to low absenteeism, grievances, turnover, and bureaucracy. There is weak evidence suggesting that structure is positively related to these variables. Neither pattern of behavior is related to leader authoritarianism (p. 140).

At the same time, a second major leadership study was being conducted at the University of Michigan by Likert and his staff "to identify relationships among leader behavior, group processes, and measures of group performance" (Yukl 1981, p. 113). The purpose of the study was to determine the most effective pattern of leadership, that is, which type of leadership facilitated the group in attaining its goals (Jago 1982). The Michigan model used two concepts identified as "production orientation" and "employee orientation" (Hersey and Blanchard 1988). Leaders high in employee orientation were found to stress relationships in the work environment while

production-oriented leaders were found to stress production and the attainment of the organization's goals (Hersey and Blanchard 1988). The research of Finch (1977) indicated that employee-oriented leadership resulted in superior outcomes in terms of productivity and employee satisfaction. Yukl (1981) summarized the Michigan studies:

Some interesting results were found in these studies. One finding was that effective leaders did not spend their time and effort doing the same kind of work as their subordinates. Instead, effective leaders concentrated on supervisory functions such as planning and scheduling the work, coordinating subordinate activities, and providing necessary supplies, equipment, or technical assistance. However, this production-oriented behavior did not occur at the expense of concern for human relations. The effective supervisors were more considerate, supportive, and helpful with subordinates. Moreover, effective supervisors tended to use general supervision rather than close supervision. That is, after establishing goals and general guidelines, the leaders allowed subordinates some autonomy in deciding how to do the work and how to pace themselves (p. 114).

The Managerial Grid (see appendix A), developed by Blake and Mouton in 1964, explained leadership in terms of two concepts, one stressing task accomplishment and the other stressing personal relationships (Hersey and Blanchard 1988; Jago 1982). These concepts were similar to the dimensions of consideration and initiating structure in the Ohio State studies. Concern for production (task accomplishment) was represented on the horizontal axis, and concern for people (personal relationships) was represented on the vertical axis. The grid was divided into four quadrants by the axes. Although the grid contained eighty-one cells, only five types of leadership styles, similar to those identified in the Ohio State studies, were

proposed (Bolman and Deal 1991; Hersey and Blanchard 1988). Each quadrant identified one of the four leadership styles, and the center intersecting point identified the fifth leadership style:

1. Impoverished (1-1, bottom left quadrant) indicates that only minimum effort is exerted by the leader.
2. Country Club (1-9, top left quadrant) indicates that satisfying relationships among the employees provide for a comfortable work atmosphere.
3. Task (9-1, bottom right quadrant) indicates that the task is being accomplished but employees' relationships pose problems.
4. Middle Road (5-5, center intersection) indicates that the balance between concern for people and concern for production has been met. Employee morale is high and the organization's goals are being accomplished.
5. Team (9-9, top right quadrant) indicates that committed employees are meeting the organization's goals in a trusting work atmosphere (Blake and Mouton 1964). This leadership style was advocated as the most effective leadership style (Hersey and Blanchard 1988; Yukl 1981; Jago 1982).

Managerial Grid research indicated that effective managers concentrated on production-oriented aspects such as planning, scheduling, and facilitating

goal accomplishment. However, they did not neglect the employee orientation aspect of maintaining good relationships with the employees (Yukl 1981).

Bowers and Seashore (1966) proposed the Four-Factor Theory which explained managerial effectiveness in terms of four leadership behaviors: support, interaction facilitation, goal emphasis, and work facilitation. This theory was important because it implied the possibility of shared leadership to maintain group effectiveness (Yukl 1981). The Four-Factor Theory produced various results in different situations, indicating that the situation is a major factor in determining leadership behavior (Yukl 1981).

Halpin and Croft (1962) proposed a four-factor theory for using the LBDQ-12 in educational research. Like Stogdill, they were not convinced that leadership behavior could be described with only two factors. The four factors proposed for the leader were "aloofness--formality and social distance; production emphasis--pushing for results; thrust--personal hard work and task structure; and consideration--concern for comfort and welfare of the followers" (Bass 1981, p. 363). The four factors which described the behavior of the followers were "disengagement--clique formation and withdrawal; hindrance--frustration from routine and overwork; esprit--high morale, enthusiasm; and intimacy--mutual liking and teamwork" (Bass 1981, p. 363). Six categories were developed which described school climate: Open, Autonomous, Controlled, Familiar, Potential, and Closed. Research indicated

that the behaviors of the leader and the followers could be associated with a specific climate (Bass 1981).

Yukl and Nemeroff (1979) identified fourteen behaviors in an attempt to "identify meaningful and measurable categories of leadership behavior" (Yukl 1981, p. 121). Through continuing research, five more behaviors were included. These nineteen categories were performance emphasis, consideration, inspiration, praise-recognition, structuring reward contingencies, decision participation, autonomy-delegation, role clarification, goal setting, training-coaching, information dissemination, problem solving, planning, coordination, work facilitation, representation, interaction facilitation, conflict management, and criticism-discipline (Yukl 1981).

Little agreement exists among researchers regarding the acceptance of a taxonomy of leadership behavior (Smith and Peterson 1988). Studies in this area are continuing with researchers attempting to "capture the great diversity of leadership behaviors . . . that are neither situation-specific nor overly broad and abstract" (Yukl 1981, p. 130).

The Situational Approach

The third approach, the "Situational Approach," has prevailed from the 1960s to the present (Bennett 1987). The basic assumption of the situational researchers was that the effectiveness of various leadership behaviors was contingent upon the characteristics of the followers and the situation (Jago 1982; Yukl 1981). Research focused on observed behaviors of

leaders and followers in various situations to examine the interplay among these three variables. Researchers studied the variables in situations that required certain behaviors, skills, characteristics, or traits which facilitated effectiveness (Jago 1982).

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1957) developed a one-dimensional model which Hersey and Blanchard (1988) described as "certainly one of the most significant situational approaches to leadership" (p. 106). The model had seven possible leader behaviors arranged on a continuum with the term "Democratic (Relationship Oriented)" at one end and "Authoritarian (Task Oriented)" at the other (Yukl 1981). A range of leadership behaviors could then be located along the scale. Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1957) added that authoritarian leaders tend to be task oriented and use their power to influence group members while democratic leaders tend to be relationship oriented, giving followers considerable latitude in completing their tasks.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1957) added a third type of leader behavior which extends beyond the democratic behavior on the continuum. They labeled this type of behavior "laissez-faire" because this type of leader permits the group members to do what they wish, resulting in a leaderless group. They (1957) did not include laissez-faire on the continuum because they concluded it is an absence of leadership. As a result of their work with the model, Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1957) made several conclusions:

[T]he successful manager can be primarily characterized neither as a strong leader nor as a permissive one. Rather he or she is one who can

determine what the most appropriate behavior at any given time should be and actually behave accordingly (In Boone and Bowen 1979, p. 282).

One of the best known situational leadership researchers, Argyris (1964), proposed the Immaturity-Maturity Theory when he perceived a conflict between the individual and the organization. He maintained that individuals should undergo seven changes as they proceed from immaturity to maturity:

1. State of passivity as a child to a state of activity as an adult
2. State of dependence as a child to a state of independence as an adult
3. Behaving in a few ways as a child to acting in many ways as an adult
4. Having quickly dropped interests as a child to developing strong interests as an adult
5. Having a short-term perspective as a child to having a long-term perspective as an adult
6. Being in a subordinate position in the family as a child to being in an equal or superordinate position as an adult
7. Lacking in self-awareness as a child to being aware and having control over oneself as an adult (Boone and Bowen 1979; Hersey and Blanchard 1988).

Argyris added that people, by nature, have a tendency to be self-directed and to seek fulfillment (Bass 1981). He also believed that the nature of organizations is to keep people immature (Hersey and Blanchard 1988). He maintained

that an organization is most effective when its leaders enable people to grow through the development of their creativity and self-expression to meet the organization's goals (Bass 1981; Hersey and Blanchard 1988).

Based on the work of earlier researchers, the Leadership Contingency Model proposed by Fiedler (1967) was one of the first true situational leadership effectiveness models (Bass 1981). Fiedler (1967) maintained that three situational variables are important when deciding if the situation is favorable for the leader:

1. Leader-Member Relations. The degree to which the followers trust and willingly follow the leader appears to be the most important.
2. Task Structure. Four elements are involved:
 - a) goal clarity--the degree to which the aspects of the job or task are clearly stated.
 - b) goal-path--the number of ways of performing the job.
 - c) verifiability--degree to which the job provides knowledge of results.
 - d) specificity--the degree to which there is a best solution or outcome for the task.
3. Position Power. The degree of the leader's authority regarding the right to direct, evaluate, reward, or punish the followers (Jago 1982, p. 322).

Fiedler concluded that the best situation is characterized by good leader-follower relations, a structured task, and strong position power, and the least preferable situation is characterized by poor leader-follower relations, an unstructured task, and little position power (Jago 1982). The best leadership style depends on the favorableness of the particular situation:

In very favorable or in very unfavorable situations for getting a task accomplished by group effort, the autocratic, task-controlling, managing leadership works best. In situations intermediate in difficulty, the

nondirective, permissive leader is more successful (In Boone and Bowen 1979, p. 306).

Fiedler's approach provided three possibilities for the training of leaders:

1. Leaders could increase their success by adapting their behavior to the situation.
2. Leaders could seek situations in which their skills, leadership behaviors, characteristics, and traits would ensure effectiveness.
3. The situation could be modified to ensure the leaders effectiveness (Fiedler 1965).

Fiedler's model generated considerable controversy although he maintained that the model was one of the most researched and best-validated leadership models of the time (Jago 1982). The significance of Fiedler's model was that it challenged the one-best-style-of-leadership assumption and was a giant step toward viewing the importance of the situation in regard to leadership (Jago 1982).

House (1971) formulated the Path-Goal Theory of Leadership which concentrated on the leader's ability to achieve goals (Jago 1982; Yukl 1981):

According to this theory, leaders are effective because of their impact on subordinates' motivation, ability to perform effectively and satisfaction. The theory is called Path-Goal because its major concern is how the leader influences goal attainment. The theory suggests that a leader's behavior is motivating or satisfying to the degree that the behavior increases subordinate goal attainment and clarifies the paths to these goals (House and Mitchell 1974 in Boone and Bowen 1979, p. 315).

This theory stems from work accomplished in the Ohio State studies and the Expectancy Theory:

The expectancy model tells us that ". . . people are satisfied with their job if they think it leads to things that are highly valued, and they work hard if they believe that effort leads to things that are highly valued." . . . Leadership is related to this because ". . . subordinates are motivated by leader behavior to the extent that this behavior influences expectancies . . ." (Hersey and Blanchard 1988, p. 110).

The Path-Goal Theory proposed that if followers are performing highly structured tasks, the most effective leadership style is one that is high on relationships and low on task (Hersey and Blanchard 1988). If the tasks are unstructured, the theory proposed that the most effective leadership style is high on task and low on relationships (Hersey and Blanchard 1988). House and Mitchell (1974) viewed their model as significant because "it not only suggests what type of style may be most effective in a given situation--it also attempts to explain why it is most effective" (In Boone and Bowen 1979, p. 326). Another reason why the theory is significant is that it provided a mechanism for testing many situational variables in relationship to leadership styles. Research involving the model has indicated that there is no one best style of leadership (Yukl 1981).

The Vroom and Yetton Contingency Model (1973) is based on the concept that variables in the situation interact with the leader's personal characteristics and result in leader behavior that can affect the organization's effectiveness (Jago 1982). Vroom and Yetton (1973) proposed that three types of outcomes affect a decision's effectiveness:

1. The quality or rationality of the decision
2. The followers' commitment to effectively carry out the decision
3. The time required to make the decision (Jago 1982; Vroom 1973 in Boone and Bowen 1979; Bass 1981).

They suggested that leaders can diagnose the situation by answering either "yes" or "no" to seven questions as they progress from left to right on a flowchart:

1. Is there a quality requirement such that one solution is likely to be more rational than another?
2. Do I have sufficient information to make a high-quality decision?
3. Is the problem structured?
4. Is acceptance of the decision by subordinates critical to effective implementation?
5. If you were to make the decision by yourself, is it reasonably certain that it would be accepted by your subordinates?
6. Do subordinates share in the organizational goals to be obtained in solving this problem?
7. Is conflict among subordinates likely in preferred solutions? (Vroom 1973 in Boone and Bowen 1979, p. 346).

When the leader arrives at an endpoint on the flowchart, numbers are provided which designate the best of five decision-making styles:

1. Using the information presently available, the leader solves the problem or makes the decision.
2. The leader obtains the information needed from the followers and then makes a decision. The leader may share the problem with the followers; however, it is not to generate or evaluate alternatives.

3. The leader shares the problem individually with relevant followers to obtain their ideas. However, the leader makes the decision which might reflect the ideas or influence of the followers.
4. The leader shares the problem with the followers in a group to obtain ideas and suggestions. However, the leader makes the decision which might reflect the group's ideas or influence.
5. The leader shares the problem with the group. Together, leader and followers attempt to reach an agreement to solve the problem. Without trying to impose a solution, the leader willingly accepts and supports the group's solution (Vroom 1973 in Boone and Bowen 1979; Bass 1981; Jago 1982).

Yukl (1981) maintained that the Vroom-Yetton model is very promising, but further research is necessary because only two empirical investigations have examined the validity of the model. Both studies supported the model and its underlying assumptions. The second study used the model to examine the decision-making of forty-five owners of identical franchise businesses, and the researchers made the following conclusion:

Those owners exhibiting greater conformity to the Vroom/Yetton prescriptions had more economically productive franchises and had employees who reported greater job satisfaction than did those owners exhibiting less conformity to these prescriptions (Jago 1982, p. 328).

The significance of the model is that it will provide for more effective leadership in decision-making situations if leaders are trained to use the model. However, further research is required to determine the accuracy of this

assumption. Research on Vroom and Yetton's work has been curtailed because control of any studies using the model has been assigned to one research organization (Jago 1982).

Yukl (1981), expanding on the research of Likert (1961) and Fiedler (1967), proposed the Multiple Linkage Model of Leader Effectiveness in 1971. In this model, Yukl identified two types of variables. One set, called intervening variables, is comprised of "group characteristics and individual subordinate characteristics that influence group performance" (Yukl 1981, p. 153) and includes subordinate effort, subordinate role clarity, subordinate task skills, resources and support services, task-role organization, group cohesiveness and teamwork, and leader-subordinate relations. The second set, called situational moderator variables, determines the relative importance of each intervening variable. The situational moderator variables are divided into three types which influence the followers' performance:

1. Situational constraints on leader behavior
2. Situational variables directly affecting the intervening variables
3. Situational variables determining the relative importance of each intervening variable

Yukl (1981) stated that the model has two basic propositions. The first is that "a leader's effectiveness in the short run depends on the extent to which he acts skillfully to correct any deficiencies in the intervening variables" for the followers (p. 159). The situation must be assessed to determine "which

intervening variables are most important, which ones are in need of improvement, and what potential corrective actions are available to the leader" (Yukl 1981, p. 159). The second basic proposition is that "over a longer period of time, leaders can act to change some of the situational variables and create a more favorable situation" (Yukl 1981, p. 160). Although research on the model is still in progress, Yukl (1981) maintains that "it has been useful in guiding the design of research on leadership effectiveness" (p. 162).

One of the most prominent contingency theories of leadership was first proposed in the early 1970s and entitled the Life Cycle Theory of Leadership (Hersey and Blanchard 1988). After refinement by its developers, Hersey and Blanchard, it became known as the Situational Leadership Model (see appendix B). This theory is based on the Managerial Grid of Blake and Mouton (1964), Argyris' Maturity-Immaturity Theory (1964), and Reddin's 3-D Management Style Theory (1967) (Bennett 1987; Hersey and Blanchard 1988; Bass 1981). Reddin (1967) added the dimension of effectiveness to the task and relationship dimensions of earlier models, such as the Managerial Grid (Hersey and Blanchard 1988). The Hersey and Blanchard Situational Leadership Model pertains to the relationship between the leader and the followers, particularly the interaction of three variables:

1. The amount of guidance and direction (i.e., task behavior) the leader provides

2. The amount of socioemotional support (i.e., relationship behavior) a leader provides
3. The readiness (i.e., ability and willingness) that followers exhibit when assigned a specific task, function, or objective (Hersey and Blanchard 1988).

The model's underlying proposition is that as the readiness level of followers increase, effective leadership behavior requires less task behavior and less relationship behavior (Yukl 1981). In essence, effective leadership requires flexibility and change as the followers mature (Hersey and Blanchard 1988).

The model uses the two basic dimensions of the Managerial Grid and the Ohio State studies: task-oriented behavior and relationship-oriented behavior, which correspond to initiating structure and consideration (Yukl 1981). Hersey and Blanchard (1988) defined task behavior as the "extent to which the leader engages in spelling out the duties and responsibilities of an individual or group. These behaviors include telling people what to do, how to do it, when to do it, where to do it, and who is to do it" (p. 172). Relationship behavior is "the extent to which the leader engages in two-way or multi-way communication. The behaviors include listening, facilitating, and supportive behaviors" (p. 172).

These two independent dimensions, task behavior and relationship behavior, are used to define or describe four leadership styles using a

two-dimensional grid. The horizontal axis is labeled "task behavior" (providing guidance) while the vertical grid is labeled "relationship behavior" (providing supportive behavior). Both dimensions are scaled from low to high. A matrix with four quadrants is formed by the two axes. Each quadrant identifies one of the four leadership styles:

Style 1 (bottom right quadrant) depicts leadership characterized by high task and low relationship. The word which best describes this leadership style is telling.

Style 2 (top right quadrant) depicts leadership characterized by high task and high relationship. The word which best describes this leadership style is selling.

Style 3 (top left quadrant) depicts leadership characterized by high relationship and low task. The word which best describes this leadership style is participating.

Style 4 (bottom left quadrant) depicts leadership characterized by low relationship and low task. The word which best describes this leadership style is delegating (Hersey and Blanchard 1988).

A scale beneath the four quadrants is used to assess the readiness of the followers. Hersey and Blanchard (1988) defined readiness as "the extent to which a follower has the ability and willingness to accomplish a specific task" (p. 174). The readiness scale consists of two components--ability, defined as "the knowledge, experience, and skill that an individual or group brings to a

particular task or activity" (p. 175), and willingness, defined as "the extent to which an individual or group has the confidence, commitment, and motivation to accomplish a specific task" (p. 175). The readiness scale is divided from left to right into four sections or levels:

Readiness Level Four (R4) High: The follower possesses the ability to complete the task and is, therefore, confident and committed to accomplishing it.

Readiness Level Three (R3) Moderate: The follower possesses the ability to complete the task but is unwilling and apprehensive about doing it alone.

Readiness Level Two (R2) Moderate: The follower is unable but willing and confident as long as the leader is present providing guidance.

Readiness Level One (R1) Low: The follower is unable, unwilling, and insecure and lacking in commitment, motivation and confidence (Hersey and Blanchard 1988, pp. 176-77).

A bell-shaped line beginning in quadrant four and ending in quadrant one with the top of the bell evenly divided between quadrants two and three represents the combination of task behavior and relationship behavior. These combinations directly correspond to the readiness scale below the matrix.

To use the model, the leader must identify a point on the readiness scale that indicates the follower's readiness to perform a particular task. From that point, a perpendicular line is drawn to where it will intersect the bell-shaped line. The intersecting point indicates the most appropriate task and relationship behavior for the situation (Hersey and Blanchard 1988). For example, when a task is new to the follower, the leader should be directive. However, as the follower becomes familiar with the task, the leader should change to the

participative style. The leader continues to adapt to changes in the follower's readiness for the task until the follower is ready to function independently.

The Hersey and Blanchard model has been criticized by leadership researchers. Yukl (1981) maintained that they have provided neither validation studies nor evidence in support of the model. Bolman and Deal (1991), citing two studies, one of which was conducted by Hambleton and Gumpert (1982), stated, "In fact, there is considerable reason to believe that the model is wrong and little evidence to suggest that it is right" (p. 419).

The Hambleton and Gumpert (1982) study examined the use and validity of the Hersey and Blanchard model. Using 65 managers, 189 subordinates, and 56 supervisors, Hambleton and Gumpert drew the following conclusion:

Thus, it would appear, based on these research results, that there is a definite and significant relationship between the leadership style of a manager in particular situations and managers' perceptions of subordinate job performance. This study provides supporting evidence for the validity of the Hersey and Blanchard model in the sample of managers participating in the investigation (p. 240).

Hambleton and Gumpert (1982) stated that generalizations of the results "are not warranted" (p. 241) due to research constraints. They added, "The results of the study are nevertheless promising . . ." (p. 241) and recommended that further research be conducted.

Although stating that the model has not been validated by extensive research, Yukl (1981) pointed out three positive contributions it has made in the area of leadership:

Despite its deficiencies, Situational Leadership Theory makes some positive contributions. Perhaps the greatest of these is the emphasis on flexible, adaptable leader behavior. Hersey and Blanchard remind us that it is essential to treat different subordinates differently, and to treat the same subordinate differently as the situation changes. They also advance the rather innovative proposition that leaders have another option besides just adapting to the present situation, namely, changing the situation by building the skills and confidence of subordinates. A final contribution of the theory . . . is the skillful recognition that leader behavior can be exhibited in a more or less skillful fashion. Even though a particular style of leadership is appropriate in a given situation, it will not be effective unless the leader has sufficient skill in using that style of leadership (p. 144).

Another recent research trend has been to examine the relationship of leadership to power and influence. French and Raven (1968) identified reward, coercive, legitimate, referent, and expert power. Yukl (1981) proposed "counterpower," that is, the power of the followers. Gordon (1977) stressed human relations as a means of promoting leadership effectiveness by influencing followers.

In the 1990s, research in management development has decreased and been replaced by emphasis on organizational development (Smith and Peterson 1988). Bolman and Deal (1991) formulated a multiframe approach which presents four theories pertaining to how organizations function and how they can be made to function more effectively. Morgan (1986) used eight metaphors to aid in the understanding of organizational functioning: organizations as machines, organizations as organisms, organizations as brains, organizations as cultures, organizations as political systems,

organizations as psychic prisons, organizations as flux and transformation, and organizations as instruments of domination.

Future research will be directed toward testing and refining present leadership approaches and will go beyond existing theories, models, and paradigms (Jago 1982). Most past leadership literature was concerned with small group leadership and leader/follower relationships (Jago 1982). Some researchers have begun studying leadership in terms of supervisors, such as the board/leader relationship (Bass 1981). The study of leadership in multi-national organizations will also be a trend of the future (Jago 1982; Smith and Peterson 1988).

Although the research on leadership is extensive, it remains insufficient; although it is complex, it remains too simple (Gardner 1986; Jago 1982). There is a need for "novel leadership perspectives" (Jago 1982, p. 330) and "radical rethinking of our conceptions of leadership" (Smith and Peterson 1988, p. 32). Miner best sums up the research on leadership:

Having new ideas permeate a field is stimulating and exciting, but it also can be depressing. Time has not yet permitted adequate evaluation of the new ideas, and there tends to be a pervasive desire for information. It is always possible that the new ideas may turn out to be no better than the old ones. This state of high uncertainty and its concordant frustrated desire for real understanding presently characterizes the leadership field more than any other single thing: we simply do not know what we want to know (In Hunt and Larson 1975, p. 198).

Leadership in Higher Education

Because this study investigates leadership of Native American community college presidents, previous studies of leadership in American higher education are important. Leadership traits, behaviors, and background of college presidents in general provide a reference for the study of Native American college presidents.

Neumann and Bensimon (1990) explored the patterns college presidents use to make sense of their work or to consider the assumptions that form the basis for their work. They identified four basic types of presidents: Type A presidents lead relatively stable institutions. They are considered initiators who think about the future rather than the present. They are externally directed and rely heavily on their administrative staff. Type B presidents also lead relatively stable institutions with faculties who appear satisfied and who praise their presidents highly. They attend primarily to the internal needs of the organization, are considered student centered, and see themselves as supporters and teachers. Type C presidents generally lead institutions which are facing financial crises. They generally believe that their institution's existence is at stake, and they are more likely to be reactive rather than taking the initiative. They "tend to speak . . . about 'credibility building' for the institution and about 'repositioning' the college" (p. 691) in the eyes of the students, board, and benefactors. Type D presidents are more likely to have passed through a financial crisis. Their focus is on the institution's

organizational features, such as review of programs and procedures, budget, and structure. Knowledge of the four presidential types would enable potential or experienced college presidents to analyze their institutions and their roles in those institutions more effectively.

In 1988, Green drafted the first comprehensive profile of United States college presidents by using the findings of a 1986 survey conducted by the American Council on Education's Center for Leadership Development. The survey included 2,105 presidents of higher education institutions. The results indicated that the "typical" college president was white, male, married, and 53 years old, had served in his position for nearly seven years, and held a doctoral degree. In addition, presidents of two-year institutions were more likely to have an academic background in education. The study indicated that 93 percent of the two-year college presidents were white and 90 percent were males. The average black president was married, 53.6 years of age, possessed a doctorate, and had a background in education. The average female president was white, 53 years of age, divorced or never married, held a Ph.D. degree, and held a degree in education or the humanities (Green 1988).

Wise (1984) used the LBDQ-12 and Fiedler's Least Preferred Co-worker instrument to assess the leadership behavior of presidents of small liberal arts colleges in Ohio, Pennsylvania, and New York. She concluded that the leadership behaviors of the presidents were not affected by the status, size, or location of the college. However, their leadership behaviors were affected by

faculty position, rank, and age. Deans, full professors, and faculty members over 45 years of age gave the most positive assessments of the presidents' leadership behaviors. She concluded that presidents of small liberal arts colleges exhibited similar leadership behaviors.

Using the LBDQ-Real and LBDQ-Ideal, Boapimp (1983) studied the perceptions and expectations of faculty members and governing boards of their presidents' leadership behaviors for selected two-year rural colleges. He noted that board members and faculty members had significantly higher expectations than their perceptions of their presidents on initiating structure and consideration. According to Boapimp, this finding indicates that the college president is likely to experience role conflict, and he concluded that the presidents he studied were, indeed, experiencing role conflict.

In one of the major studies of leadership in higher education, Cohen and March (1974) interviewed and surveyed forty-two (42) presidents of four-year institutions. A lasting contribution of their work was the metaphor of the college or university as an organized anarchy characterized by three properties: problematic goals, unclear technology, and fluid participation:

These properties are not limited to educational institutions; but they are particularly conspicuous there. The American college or university is a prototypic organized anarchy. It does not know what it is doing. Its goals are either vague or in dispute. Its technology is familiar but not understood. Its major participants wander in and out of the organization. These factors do not make a university a bad organization or a disorganized one; but they do make it a problem to describe, understand, and lead (p. 3).

Leadership and Minority Cultures

Bass (1981) stated that the power of culture is important in the understanding of leadership in minority cultures:

Cultures vary in their evaluation of responses to natural obstacles; in their regard for man; in whether the past, present or future is most important; and in what interactions are most valued. Anyone born into a culture conforms to the same "value orientation" in order to be accepted and remain in the same social order. Deviation is likely to result in rejection and loss of esteem among the rest of the members sharing the cultural values (p. 242).

The role of culture in the study of leadership is of primary importance. When we understand the world of others, we will better understand our own world, ourselves, and the concept of leadership in both worlds.

Lewin (1948) developed a "periphery theory" of ethnic leadership. He maintained that if minority persons wish to attain status with the majority, they must disassociate themselves with the minority group. The minority group member is then oriented toward the values of the majority group and is isolated from or on the periphery of the minority group. Because of their status with the majority group, periphery minority members may be called upon for leadership functions, but these members are not well suited for minority leadership roles because they are only on the periphery of their own minority group (Bell, Hill, and Wright 1961).

The professional leader appears to be common phenomenon among ethnic groups. A professional leader, usually a male, is one who is accorded a leadership position by both the ethnic and majority populations by virtue of his

educational and occupational attainments. Myrdall (1944) noted the decreasing role of religious leaders in a black American community and the rise of the professional leader. Schermerhorn (1949), in studying Mexican-American groups, noted the importance of the professional leader as an ethnic group leader. Bell, Hill, and Wright (1961) maintained that professional leaders can be found in all large ethnic populations because certain tendencies are well documented in ethnic leadership:

1. The ethnic leader frequently seems to be in the difficult position of maintaining the respect of both the majority and the minority.
2. Research regarding the patterns of personal influence among ethnic populations is virtually nonexistent.
3. Research is needed in the area of ethnic political activity.
4. There is "the almost total lack of information about the individual who represents the majority or dominant position in matters concerning intergroup relations" (p. 96).

Broom and Kitsuse (1956), in their investigation of a Japanese-American community, found that division of leadership functions within that ethnic group depends on the degree of acculturation. The older generation assumes leadership in internal affairs while the younger generation assumes leadership in situations that involve relationships with the dominant society.

Hunter, Schaffer, and Sheps (1956) investigated the leadership structure of a Polish community in Massachusetts and identified three types of ethnic leaders: the elected, the informal, and the self-appointed. The elected are the leaders chosen by the vote of the community. Informal leaders are those consulted on all important decisions even though they do not hold important community positions. Self-appointed leaders are those who considered themselves leaders and volunteer their services prior to the community making a request for volunteers. These three types of leaders serve as bridges between the group and the larger community (Bell, Hill, and Wright 1961).

Bell, Hill, and Wright (1961) stated that "the 'typical' leader within America's ethnic subpopulations is impossible to portray" (p. 87) and maintained that three factors generate this problem. The first factor is that ethnic populations generally have two different types of leadership functions which involve different types of people. These two functions are "intragroup" leadership functions (leadership within the ethnic group) and "bridging" leadership functions (leadership requiring one to represent the ethnic group to the larger American community). A second factor is that the leadership patterns of the various ethnic populations differ. For example, some ethnic groups will accept females as leaders while others will not. The third factor is that there is insufficient research on leadership in many ethnic groups.

Negandhi and Reimann (1972) found that managerial values embedded in a culture affect organizational leadership goals and strategies (Bass 1981). The traditional leader is likely to be the oldest male head of the family who bears a sense of obligation to family and friends. As the members of the ethnic group become educated, there is a shift toward modern attitudes. Consequently, the leader's sense of obligation may be reduced. Auclair (1968) found that "valuing modernity rather than tradition is likely to be accompanied by a reduction in the sense of obligations to family and friends" (Bass 1981, p. 530). However, some ethnic groups are experiencing a shift back to a semitraditional point of view. Cultural values may conflict with organizational goals. For example, the pull between traditionalism and modern progress, pragmatism and idealism, individualism and the group may result in role conflicts for ethnic leaders.

Stogdill (1974) stated, "It should be noted that to a very large extent our conceptions of characteristics of leadership are culturally determined. . . . Thus, the patterns of behavior regarded as acceptable in leaders differ from time to time and from one culture to another" (p. 82).

Petrie (1981) noted the importance of culture when studying leadership:

[T]he basic features of human thought and action can only be understood with reference to cultures and communities and the ways in which these cultures and communities socialize and educate their members (In Sergiovanni and Corbally 1984, p. 310).

The cultural approach reminds us forcefully that our very mode and manner of experiencing the world may well depend upon the culture in which we grew up. . . . the great strength of the cultural perspective is that it reminds us how intimately involved in our human experience is our cultural background. Members of different cultures simply look at the "same" world and see things very differently (In Sergiovanni and Corbally 1984, p. 313).

Some research of leadership in other countries has been conducted.

Whyte and Williams (1963), in a study of Peruvian workers, found that "the workers favored supervisors who emphasized production but were thought to understand the problems of the workers" (Smith and Peterson 1988, p. 99). Salder (1970), surveying industrial managers in England, concluded that they preferred superiors who used a consultative leadership style. Fleishman and Simmons (1970) found that effective Israeli foremen were high in both consideration and initiating structure. Farris and Butterfield (1972) found that Brazilian bank employees preferred supervisors who provided close supervision and were also high in consideration.

Research correlated with the Ohio State studies has been done in other countries. Bryman et al. (1987) concluded that British construction supervisors were most effective when they rated high in consideration. In a 1985 study, Peterson collaborated with Misumi, a researcher who had conducted studies in his native Japan for nearly forty years. They found that effective Japanese supervisors are those who rate high in both orientation toward task performance (P) and orientation toward team maintenance (M). In comparing Misumi's performance (P) and maintenance (M) measures with the

Ohio State measures, Peterson, Smith, and Tayeb (1987) found that "the M scale has been found to correlate very highly with consideration items and the P scale has components which have some similarity to Production Emphasis and Initiating Structure Measures" (Smith and Peterson 1988, p. 99).

Researchers have had problems with cross-cultural leadership studies because of the dominant influence of research conducted in the United States and western industrial cultures (Smith and Peterson 1988; Sergiovanni and Corbally 1984; Bass 1981). Smith and Peterson (1988) made note of these problems:

While studies of leadership have been published by researchers in most parts of the world, almost all such studies indicate an awareness of the research models and methods developed in the United States. In examining such studies we are not therefore sampling a universe of studies which are entirely independent of the US tradition. The best we can hope to do is to see whether studies whose methods and hypotheses are often closely derived from the work of US researchers have yielded results which are comparable to those which might have been expected within the USA (p. 96).

In regard to American leadership studies, Smith and Peterson (1988) maintained that "the USA is atypical of most countries in its particularly strong emphasis upon individualism. . . . [Th]e individualistic nature of much American-derived leadership theory is a facet of US culture, rather than a firm base upon which to build leadership theories of universal applicability" (p. 97).

The early philosophers considered leadership in their world complex and intriguing. The opportunity is here to consider leadership in many worlds.

Leadership research in the various world cultures and subcultures is urgent because of the need for effective leaders in a global society.

Leadership and the American Indian

Certain segments of the American population, such as military officers, business managers, and corporate leaders, have been frequent subjects of leadership research while others have been neglected (Bass 1981). With the exception of black and Jewish leaders, little research has been conducted on leaders of America's ethnic groups (Bell, Hill, and Wright 1961). Research about Native American leaders is virtually nonexistent (Stein 1988). In addition, the leadership research and models which are available embody the value systems of the western industrial culture, which may invalidate studies of groups with other cultural values (Smith and Peterson 1988).

Much of the information regarding Native American leaders is in the form of biographical literature rather than research based reports. Dockstader (1977) in Great North American Indians: Profiles in Life and Leadership addressed this issue:

As interest in minorities has grown, so has the desire to know more about the people who make up the diverse elements of America, and the individuals who were prominent in these cultures. But while many written accounts are available concerning sociopolitical aspects of Indian life, and ethnographic descriptions abound, few comprehensive studies of Indian individuals have yet emerged--those biographical sketches which have been published have been largely concerned with one, or very few, persons. Often, unfortunately, these are only repetitive accounts copied from earlier writings, and involve a nuclear core of less than 50 of the hundreds of important Native North American leaders of the past (p. 1).

Edmunds (1980) maintained that only the war chiefs--not the peace chiefs or religious chiefs--are regarded and remembered as American Indian leaders: "It is ironic that both white historians and the general public have been more interested in those leaders who opposed American policy than in many other Indians who tried to maintain friendly relations with the frontiersmen" (p. ix).

Margaret Mead (1937) was one of the first to address American Indian leadership, and her anthropological studies indicated that leadership requirements among the various tribes differed. For example, the Dakota Indians valued leaders who conformed to the group and were concerned about its welfare, in addition to being generous and hospitable. Leadership among the eastern Iroquois was attained through generosity and cooperative and hospitable behavior. The Kwakiutl leader attained the leadership position by successfully competing financially against others (Bass 1981).

Anthropologist Robert Bee (1979) presented the predicament of a Quechan tribal president of a modern Indian reservation in serving the tribal members:

To get something for the people and at the same time maintain his political viability, the tribal president . . . must be able to manipulate a series of networks whose members' ultimate expectations and interests may well be contradictory. In some cases he must also cope with conflicting demands on his tribe's scarce financial resources (p. 239).

Bee (1979) also addressed the tribal members' expectations of their leader:

The primary constraint operating on the president's actions in this field is the electorate's expectation that a good president must get something for his people. . . . the "something" usually involves money. The president is expected to come up with cash for emergency loans to tribal members, or to help them find jobs in one of the tribe's federally financed community development projects. He may be asked to serve as a spokesman for tribal members in dealings with outsiders, such as in legal disputes or in making funeral arrangements in behalf of a bereaved family . . . tribal members also expect the president to be effective in attracting more federal monies or other resources (including land) to the community to create more jobs or improve peoples' living conditions (p. 240).

Bee (1979) added that the tribal members hold secondary expectations or beliefs regarding the president's behavior:

There is the belief that the president should be a strong person, particularly in relations with outsiders, so that the tribe's best interests can be forcefully represented. He should be shrewd and experienced, but not necessarily well educated. He should present a good public image. He should be able to speak well in public . . . and ideally be fluent in both English and his native language. And he should be honest, especially in the manipulation of finances (p. 240).

A quandary for the president, Bee added, is that the president is almost always bound to most of the constituents by ties of either kinship or friendship. Another dilemma for tribal leaders addressed by Bee (1979) is the necessity of maintaining close political connections at the federal level, which contributes additional financial constraints on already scarce resources.

Building on Bee's (1979) findings, Dobyns (1981) studied American Indian chief executives in regard to their tenure in office. He found that "the average length of service of the 66 CEs was 4 years 4 1/2 months" (p. 78) and concluded that the six basic Native American reservation patterns which may affect the longevity of the president's political leadership:

1. Persistent theocratic dominance--This pattern fosters the ability of the leader to remain in elective office for long periods.
2. Secular replacing theocratic government--This pattern exhibits lingering competition between theocrats and secular elective officers.
3. Secularized "strong chief seeking" class--This pattern fosters the establishment of the leader as a "functional monarch."
4. Four-year term, clan-affiliation type--This pattern requires that an election be held every four years with the leader generally coming from certain families.
5. "Elite political lineage"--this pattern fosters the passage of the leadership role from father to son.
6. Secular governance on a unanimous decision-making model--In this pattern, leaders retain their position primarily through their ability to persuade others (Dobyns 1981).

Dobyns added, "Much additional research . . . of reservation chief executive leadership and council membership is sorely needed" (p. 80). He also cautioned against applying Bee's (1979) findings to other tribes because "generalization from a single case holds only if no negative instance is reported. Examining additional cases defines a universe to which generalizations drawn from one case apply" (p. 78).

Much of the extant research concerning Native Americans was conducted for doctoral dissertations. Davids and Tippeconnic (1987) compiled a list of doctoral dissertations from 1972 through 1987 that addressed various aspects of Indian issues and concerns. From Dissertation Abstracts International (DAI), they identified 441 dissertations pertaining to American Indian issues. Of this number, six (6) addressed the topic of American Indian leaders and leadership.

Roupe (1986) compared the perceptions of Indian and non-Indian junior high school students in regard to leadership characteristics. She concluded that American Indian and non-Indian junior high school students' perceptions of leadership characteristics were similar.

Woodcock (1986) proposed a prototype for the development of a cadre of Native American administrators in higher education. The purpose of his study was to identify, define, and address the cultural and social barriers which hindered Native Americans in the Pacific Northwest from attaining administrative positions in higher education. Woodcock found that the majority of Native Americans agreed that higher education was necessary for them to attain self-determination. The data also indicated a "considerable need for effective and affective interaction between institutions of higher learning and constituent American Indian populations" (p. 2482-A).

Butterfield (1984) studied the relationship between tribal politics and Indian educational leaders in Wisconsin and made the following conclusions:

1. The tribes needed comprehensive educational policies.
2. Education was listed among the top three priorities by the tribal leaders.
3. Those administrators who lived on or near the reservation were most affected by tribal politics.
4. Tribal members residing on the reservation received a larger portion of tribal scholarship funds than those residing off the reservation.
5. Administrators who lived on or near the reservation were more apt to be affected in terms of job security.
6. The majority of the Indian educators rated themselves as above average and very effective.
7. Survival in an administrative role on the reservation depended as much upon the administrator's knowledge of the reservation community as it did on their professional expertise.

Rhodes (1981) studied Chief Joseph's leadership from 1871 through 1885. He concluded that Chief Joseph was a democratic leader who shared his leadership duties. In fact, the Nez Perce Indians of Idaho and Montana had no single leader during the war of 1877; rather, the tribal council made decisions and assigned tasks to tribal members, of which Chief Joseph was the most prominent and proficient at completing tasks.

Minugh (1981) studied the management styles of Indian and non-Indian managers in five Pacific Northwest Indian tribes and made the following conclusions:

1. The majority of the managers, particularly the Native Americans, identified themselves as impoverished managers on the Blake and Mouton Managerial Grid.
2. The subordinates identified the managers as evenly divided among the five leadership styles identified by Blake and Mouton.
3. The lower the level of education, the more likely the manager would identify himself or herself as impoverished.

Brutz (1981) studied the college degrees earned by Navajo educators and their type of participation in administrative and institutional functions. He concluded that "those with Master's degrees, with six (6) to sixteen (16) years of teaching, with five (5) to twelve (12) years of experience in a school, and from a particular university were more apt to participate in various committees or activities. . . . Those with Bachelor's degrees, fewer than six (6) years of teaching experience, and fewer than five (5) years in a school, had significantly lower frequencies of participation" (p. 2550-A).

House (1974) studied the historical development of the Navajo Community College. LaPointe (1977) compared full-time and part-time teachers at Sinte Gleska College, and Mohatt (1978) studied the establishment of Sinte Gleska College. Wicks (1979) provided a comprehensive review of the

establishment of several tribal community colleges. LeBeau (1979) studied the students at the Cheyenne River Community College. Isaac (1980) studied the role conflicts of tribal community college presidents. Surveying forty-seven (47) administrators in fourteen (14) tribal community colleges, Isaac (1980) identified three problems the presidents experienced as role models: "(1) the need to perform at a higher level than their non-Indian counterparts, (2) pressure to serve as the Indian spokesman, and (3) being torn between the Indian community and their college duties" (p. 17). Shanley (1980) proposed an agriculture finance model through which tribal colleges could support their programs. McDonald (1981) assessed accreditation practices at tribal colleges. Haymond (1982) studied the history of Indian education from the colonial period to the establishment of the Navajo Community College in 1969. Horse (1982) studied the efforts of seventeen tribal colleges to incorporate tribal studies as part of the curricula. Ramirez-Shkweqnaabi (1987) studied the attitudes and opinions of the boards and the administrators of tribal community colleges. Stein (1988) identified eleven (11) dissertations which addressed tribally controlled community colleges during the period of 1974 through 1987. Badwound (1990) conducted a qualitative study of four tribal colleges and their success in incorporating tribal values in the curricula. He concluded that tribal colleges are not effective in promoting tribal culture due to factors such as tribal politics, the requirements of accreditation, the constraints of finances, and

ambiguous interpretations of the mission statements concerning the teaching of tribal culture.

The number of studies concerning tribal community colleges since their recent establishment demonstrates the pride and the concern American Indians have for their institutions. Due to the problems inherent in these institutions, strong and effective leaders are necessary to maintain this pride and hope.

Explaining, defining, and understanding leadership have challenged philosophers and researchers for centuries. The vast array of information concerning leadership is a testament of its importance. However, the majority of our research pertains to white male leaders. By focusing on only a small part of the world population, we have barely scratched the surface. When we can understand the how and why of leadership in South American barrios, among African peoples, in European villages, in black ghettos, in matriarchial societies, and on American Indian reservations, we will have a clearer concept of leadership. Clearly, more research is necessary.

Conclusion

Leadership is a complex, multifaceted concept; it "is a subject of enormous scope" (Gardner 1986, p. 5). Although much is known, much remains to be discovered. Lao Tse, the great Chinese philosopher writing about leadership in the sixth century B.C., acknowledged what is still true today about leadership:

A leader is best
When people barely know he exists.
Not so good when people obey and acclaim him,
Worse when they despise him.
"Fail to honor people,
They fail to honor you";
But of a good leader, who talks little,
When his work is done, his aim fulfilled,
They will say, "We did this ourselves"
(Allison in Sergiovanni and Corbally 1984, p. 216).

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to investigate the leadership of the Native Americans who are presidents of accredited tribally chartered institutions in the United States. These institutions were members of the American Indian Higher Education Consortium (AIHEC). A secondary purpose was to develop a description of the typical Native American president of an accredited tribally chartered AIHEC institution and to determine their leadership patterns and techniques.

Self-perceptions about the leadership of seven Native American college presidents, along with perceptions of a sample of faculty members, other administrators, and board members about the leadership of each president, were gathered through the use of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire-Form XII (LBDQ-12). In addition, the presidents were requested to complete a Presidents' Questionnaire developed specifically for this study. (See appendix C.) This questionnaire was designed to collect biographical, educational, family, and administrative data from the college presidents. The data collected from this questionnaire were used in conjunction with the results from the LBDQ-12 to develop a descriptive leadership profile and to determine

leadership patterns of the Native American college presidents. This chapter includes a description of the study sample, the rationale for selection of the sample, the instrumentation, the procedures to be used for collecting and analyzing the data, and the statistical treatment of the data.

Selection of Sample Institutions

This study was done to investigate the leadership of Native American presidents of accredited tribally chartered AIHEC institutions in the United States. Of the twenty-two (22) tribally chartered institutions in the United States, thirteen (13) were accredited by either the North Central Association of Schools and Colleges or the Northwestern Association of Schools and Colleges while the remaining nine (9) were at the candidacy stage. Fifteen (15) of the tribally chartered institutions had Native American presidents, and seven (7) had presidents who were either Anglo or Hispanic. Therefore, the presidents of nine (9) institutions were eligible to participate in the study. One (1) Native American president of a fully accredited institution chose not to participate in this study. A second college, after agreeing to participate and receiving the questionnaires, established a research committee, which declined participation. In the findings, this college is treated as a nonparticipant. Consequently, this study focused on Native American presidents of seven (7) fully accredited institutions:

1. Blackfeet Community College, Browning, Montana
2. Fond du Lac Community College, Cloquet, Minnesota

3. Nebraska Indian Community College, Winnebago, Nebraska
4. Salish Kootenai College, Pablo, Montana
5. Sisseton-Wahpeton Community College, Sisseton, South Dakota
6. Standing Rock Community College, Fort Yates, North Dakota
7. Turtle Mountain Community College, Belcourt, North Dakota

Tribally chartered institutions were chosen because of their similarities. Their presidents provided a sample of American Indian leaders who faced similar problems and challenges. They also provided a sample of American Indian leaders who had been educated in leadership skills in mainstream institutions and who were using their education to transplant a non-Indian educational system into an Indian culture and to imbue it with Indian values. The rationale for requesting the participation of the nine Native Americans who headed fully accredited institutions was that these individuals could be considered exemplars of effective American Indian leadership on the basis that their institutions had attained and/or maintained accreditation status.

Selection of Participants

The participants in the study were Native American presidents, faculty members, administrative staff, and board members of accredited tribally chartered AIHEC institutions located in the United States. The presidents of the institutions were contacted by telephone to request their participation in this study. The presidents who agreed to participate were asked to have the academic dean or other person serve as the contact person. The academic

dean was the contact person at five of the colleges, and the secretary to the president was the contact person at the other three colleges.

Each contact person was asked to identify three faculty members, three administrative staff, and two board members to participate in the study. Stogdill (1963) maintained that six or seven respondents for each leader were sufficient for the study of perceptions of leadership behaviors. The investigator stipulated that the three faculty members and the three administrative staff members selected had to have had at least two years of experience at the institution and currently be full-time employees of the college. The purpose of this stipulation was to ensure respondents who knew and had had experience in working with the president. The two board members had to have had a minimum of two years of experience on the institution's board. The chairperson of the board was to be one of the two board members if he or she had had two years of board experience. Board chairpersons generally work closely with the presidents and would have had the opportunity to observe their leadership behavior. This stipulation would ensure that the board members would also have had some experience with and be knowledgeable of their president's leadership ability.

Instrumentation

The Presidents' Questionnaire

The questionnaire used to gather biographical and educational background data from the college presidents was designed specifically for this study. (See appendix C.) Questions for the instrument were identified from the review of related literature and from several UND faculty members knowledgeable about Indian community colleges. A pilot test of a draft instrument was conducted to determine the appropriateness of the questions. Three Native American community college administrators who were not participants in the study were invited to comment on the appropriateness, clarity, and difficulty of the questions. From the pilot study, the investigator determined if the questions elicited the leadership information being sought and made revisions based on suggestions. In addition, the questionnaire was discussed and revised at the investigator's second meeting with the doctoral dissertation advisory committee.

Incorporating the recommendations of the three Native American community college administrators and UND faculty members provided some evidence of face and content validity to this instrument.

Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire-Form XII

The instrument used to gather data regarding the perceptions of the presidents' leadership behavior from the respondents was the LBDQ-12. This

copyrighted instrument was developed by the Bureau of Business Research at The Ohio State University in 1963. A telephone call was made to The Ohio State University College of Business to obtain information concerning the use and purchase of the instrument. This telephone call was followed with a letter to the Ohio State University College of Business. (See appendix D.) As a result of this correspondence, permission to use the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire-Form XII was received. (See appendix E.) Stogdill (1963) stated that the instrument "was developed for use in obtaining descriptions of a supervisor by the group members whom he supervises. It can be used to describe the behavior of the leader, or leaders, in any type of group or organization, provided the followers have had an opportunity to observe the leader in action as a leader of their group" (p.1). The instrument was developed to identify various dimensions of leader behavior and to provide an objective measure of these behaviors. Thus, the LBDQ-12 was designed to collect data which would describe how a leader carries out leadership activities.

During the development of the LBDQ, Fleishman (1957) and Halpin and Winer (1957) identified two key dimensions of leadership behavior: initiation of structure and consideration. Leadership behaviors categorized under initiation of structure were oriented toward the organization, whereas those categorized under consideration were oriented toward the relationship between the leader and the followers. Initiation of structure referred to the leader's behavior as he or she delineated relationships with the followers while

organizing the workplace through established procedures and work performance standards. Consideration referred to behaviors present in a friendly relationship, such as trust, respect, and warmth.

The first form of the LBDQ published in 1950 contained fifteen items pertaining to initiation of structure and fifteen pertaining to consideration. The fourth and latest revision, LBDQ-12, published in 1962, reflects the work of Stogdill (1959), who believed that the two factors were insufficient to account for all the observable variance in a leader's behavior. Stogdill identified twelve subscales of leadership behavior: six oriented toward task for the dimension of initiation of structure and six oriented toward people and their relationships for the dimension of consideration.

The six subscales of leadership behavior related to the dimension of initiation of structure were the following:

1. Initiating Structure: Leader behaviors which maintain definite performance standards and push followers to accomplish organizational goals
2. Persuasion: The leader's ability to convince the group that his or her ideas are best for the organization and, therefore, best for the group
3. Production Emphasis: The leader's ability to keep the followers motivated and get the job accomplished

4. Role Assumption: The leader's ability to be assertive and take the initiative
5. Representation: The leader's ability to represent the group and be viewed as its spokesperson
6. Superior Orientation: The leader's ability to enhance the position of both the leader and the group

The six subscales of leadership behavior related to the dimension of consideration were the following:

1. Consideration: The leader's ability to exhibit respect and sensitivity toward the group and its individual members
2. Integration: The leader's ability to maintain a cohesive and coordinated work group
3. Predictive Accuracy: The leader's ability to exhibit foresight through anticipating problems and planning
4. Reconciliation: The leader's ability to analyze and resolve a complex situation without succumbing to the various pitfalls
5. Tolerance of Freedom: The leader's ability to respect and encourage initiative
6. Tolerance of Uncertainty: The leader's ability to cope with unresolved situations

Stogdill (1974) stated that these twelve patterns are involved in all leadership behavior. However, they are not equally important in all leadership situations.

The LBDQ-12 consists of one hundred (100) items which describe leader behavior. Some examples of the items are the following:

1. Acts as spokesperson of the group
2. Is friendly and approachable
3. Backs down when he or she ought to stand firm

Respondents to the LBDQ-12 judge the frequency with which their leader engages in each form of behavior by selecting one of five choices for each item. These choices are identified with letters of the alphabet:

"A"--the leader always acts as described by the statement

"B"--the leader often acts as described by the statement

"C"--the leader occasionally acts as described by the statement

"D"--the leader seldom acts as described by the statement

"E"--the leader never acts as described by the statement

For scoring purposes, the ratings for eighty (80) statements are given a numerical value as follows:

A (Always) = 5

B (Often) = 4

C (Occasionally) = 3

D (Seldom) = 2

E (Never) = 1

The ratings for the other twenty (20) statements are scored on a reverse numerical scale as follows:

A (Always) = 1

B (Often) = 2

C (Occasionally) = 3

D (Seldom) = 4

E (Never) = 5

The items in the LBDQ-12 are assigned to one of the twelve subscales. For example, according to the LBDQ-12 manual, "the score for Demand Reconciliation consists of the sum of the scores assigned to items 51, 61, 71, 81, and 91" (Stogdill 1963, p. 6). Totaling the person's response to these five items would provide the score for the dimension of Demand Reconciliation. Scores for the other subscales are calculated in a similar manner.

Construct validity of the LBDQ was established by Stogdill, Goode, and Day in the early 1960s through three studies in which they collaborated. The first study, conducted in 1962, was "designed to isolate, if possible,

dimensions of observable behavior that appear to be of theoretical importance to a study of leadership" (Stogdill, Goode, and Day 1962, p. 259). In this study, the subjects were ministers of various denominations and leaders in community development. The following conclusion was drawn from the community leader study:

Despite a strong general factor which accounts for 45 per cent [sic] of the total factor variance, several of the subscales exhibit sufficiently high loadings on specific factors to suggest that they may have some value as measures of discrete aspects of leader behavior in community development activities (Stogdill, Goode, and Day 1962, p. 264).

The following conclusion was drawn from the study of the ministers:

The minister who is perceived as high in demand reconciliation is perceived as low in Consideration of the members of the congregation. This result appears to be in accord with findings from research on personality and perception (Stogdill, Goode, and Day 1962, p. 267).

As a result of the two studies, Stogdill, Goode, and Day (1962) made the following conclusion:

The findings suggest that if the Leader Behavior Descriptions are to be used for comparative studies across populations, there is merit in retaining the identity of the separate subscales and in attempting to strengthen the identity of each. Used in this manner, the new scales offer some hope of providing interesting, and perhaps useful, insight into the structure of leader behavior (p. 268).

Stogdill, Goode, and Day (1963) conducted a second study in 1962 which "was designed to determine whether a newly developed set of scales can be used to provide meaningful descriptions of the leader behavior of outstanding political leaders" (p. 3). The researchers made the following conclusion from this study:

It was found as hypothesized, that United States Senators are described as high in persuasiveness. It was not anticipated that control of the leadership position would emerge as a strongly defined factor, but a bit of reflection suggests that this is a reasonable finding. The elected political leader cannot depend upon a formal organization structure for the maintenance of his position of leadership. He can accomplish this only through an active and continuous assumption of the leadership role (Stogdill, Goode, and Day 1963, p. 7).

Stogdill, Goode, and Day (1963) conducted a third study with corporation presidents:

[It was] designed to provide an empirical test of several concepts that seem to be needed in a theory of leadership. The research is part of a larger project that employs samples of leaders from various strata and segments of the national life. The samples include United States senators, university presidents, presidents of labor unions, and ministers of various religious denominations (p. 127).

As a result of the study, the researchers concluded, "The results indicate that the leader behavior of corporation presidents can be described in terms of several clearly differentiated factors. Each factor is defined to a high degree by a separate subscale" (Stogdill, Goode, and Day 1963, p. 131).

Content validity was further established by House and Dessler (1973) when they adapted the LBDQ to measure leaders' consideration and initiation of structure. These researchers believed that the scales used on the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire might be too limited for an adequate test of the Path-Goal Theory of Leadership. Consequently, they developed a set of scales that closely approximated those of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire. Using these scales, they established additional support for the various predictions of the effect of leader behaviors on the expectations of the

followers. As a result of this study, the researchers provided a more direct test of the Path-Goal Theory of Leadership and stronger support for its validity. Because they used scales closely approximating the LBDQ, the study further validated the LBDQ (House and Dessler 1973). Bass (1981) maintained that Stogdill's research in 1969 provided evidence that the twelve subscales "measured what they were purported to measure" (p. 364). To test the validity of the LBDQ-12, Stogdill (1969) and a playwright wrote a scenario for each of the twelve subscales. "The items in a subscale were used as a basis for writing the scenario for that pattern of behavior" (Stogdill 1974, p. 144). Experienced actors were hired and filmed in the roles of leaders and followers. Observers used the LBDQ-12 to describe the behavior of the leaders, resulting in these conclusions:

Since each role was designed to portray the behaviors represented by the items in its respective subscale, and since the same items were used by observers to describe enactment of the role, it can be concluded that the scales measure what they are purported to measure (Stogdill 1974, p. 144).

Dipboye reviewed the LBDQ in The Eighth Mental Measurements

Yearbook (Buros 1978):

In at least two respects, the LBDQ appears to possess validity as a measure of leadership behavior. In terms of face validity, the items are straightforward and seem to match commonsense descriptions of leader behavior in a variety of settings. . . . The validity of the LBDQ as correlates of job satisfaction and work group performance seem fairly good in that most studies indicate significant correlations between the LBDQ scales and both satisfaction and performance, with the correlations being of low to moderate size (p. 1746).

In summary, the LBDQ-12 would seem to possess reasonably good internal consistency, across all the twelve scales, high inter-rater agreement for some of the scales, and moderately high stability on the consideration and structure scales. The LBDQ-12 appears to possess concurrent validity in that its scales have been found to correlate with the external criteria of job satisfaction and performance and are capable of distinguishing between persons displaying behaviors corresponding to the dimensions. The instrument appears to be the best of the Ohio State Leadership Scales in that it provides a multifaceted measure of leader behaviors and traits and provides measures of initiation of structure and consideration that are unconfounded with punitive leadership items (p. 1751).

However, Dipboye expressed two cautions in regard to the validity of the LBDQ-12. The first caution pertained to the lack of norms. Stogdill (1963), noting the absence of norms, stated that the "questionnaire was designed for use as a research device" (p. 8) and so did not need norms. Dipboye's second caution was related to his observation that the scales of demand reconciliation, persuasiveness, predictive accuracy, integration, and superior orientation "sample what would be more appropriately called outcomes of leadership rather than descriptions of leader behaviors" (p. 1175). Dipboye stressed caution because he believed that these scales "were likely to be perceived as evaluations rather than descriptions and do not provide very rich detail on how the leader achieves important objectives or influences subordinates" (p. 1176). He added, "These leadership scales purport to measure a stable, recurring trait of leadership by averaging across subordinates and time, and ignoring individual subordinates or tasks" (p. 1176) whereas leader behavior has been found to change with the situation, the individual, and time. In a final cautionary note, he quoted Stogdill (1963), stating that the LBDQ-12 is best used as a

research instrument and "not as an instrument for personnel evaluation, selection, or placement" (p. 1176).

Stogdill (1963) reported that in testing the reliability of the subscales "each item was correlated with the remainder of the items in its subscale rather than with the subscale score including the item" (p. 8). As a result, Stogdill stated, "This procedure yields a conservative estimate of subscale reliability" (p. 8). In addressing the reliability of the LBDQ-12, Dipboye stated, "Both the IS [Initiating Structure] and CS [Consideration] factors have been found to have high coefficients of internal consistency" (p. 1174). In addition, data regarding the reliability of the instrument have been provided in the research of Stogdill and Coons (1957) through their work with numerous civilian and military personnel. The internal consistency reliabilities of the LBDQ-12 range most often between .7 and .8 (Stogdill 1963).

For this study, the LBDQ-12 was deemed to be an appropriate instrument due to its extensive use in empirical educational research. It was used to obtain the perceptions of the faculty, administrative board, and the board members concerning the leadership behavior of the presidents in addition to the self-perceptions of the presidents regarding their leadership behavior.

Data Collection

Prior to the data collection, this investigator received approval for the study from the Institutional Review Board at the University of North Dakota.

The University of North Dakota Policy and Principles on the Use of Human Subjects required that any biomedical or behavioral research which involved the use of humans as subjects be approved by this board.

As mentioned, the Native American presidents of accredited tribally chartered AIHEC institutions in the United States were first contacted by telephone. (See appendix F.) The purpose of the telephone call was to explain the study, request their participation, and identify a contact person. This telephone call was followed by mailing of a packet containing a cover letter (see appendix G), the LBDQ-12, the Presidents' Questionnaire, and a return preaddressed, stamped envelope for returning the instruments. Also included was a preaddressed, stamped postcard on which the president could indicate interest in receiving a summary of the study.

The contact person identified by the president was also contacted by telephone. (See appendix H.) The purpose of the telephone call was to introduce the investigator, to reiterate the president's commitment, to describe the study, to explain the procedures to be followed, and to provide an assurance of confidentiality. A follow-up letter (see appendix I) was sent to the contact person along with a large preaddressed, stamped envelope for use in returning the questionnaires and a packet for each of the eight respondents. Each respondent's packet included a letter (see appendix J), the LBDQ-12, an envelope in which to seal the completed LBDQ-12 for confidentiality purposes, and a preaddressed, stamped postcard to indicate interest in receiving a

summary of the study. Follow-up telephone contacts were made to those individuals who did not return the completed surveys in a timely manner.

Statistical Treatment of the Data

The SPSSX computer program was used in the analysis of the data. This program was chosen because it can complete complex analyses very quickly and, due to its flexibility, it can be used to analyze very small or very large data sets.

In treating the data obtained, appropriate statistical tests were employed. The suitable statistic for analyzing the data for this study was the one-way analysis of variance. This test was used to determine the significant differences among the perceptions of the groups. If significant differences were found at the .05 level, the multiple range test was used to determine among which groups the significant differences existed. In addition, Fisher's Least Significant Difference Test was used to determine the differences in the perceptions of the presidents because of the applicability of this test for small samples. Descriptive statistics such as means, percentages, and frequency measures were also used. Comparisons and patterns were drawn from a tabular, visual, and deductive approach to the descriptive data obtained from the presidents' leadership questionnaires.

Chapter three has provided information regarding the design, the sample, the instruments, the data collection, and the statistical treatment of the data. The following chapter will present the data and an analysis of that data.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

This chapter presents the data from the study of the leadership of Native Americans who are presidents of accredited tribally chartered institutions in the United States that are members of the American Indian Higher Education Consortium (AIHEC). This chapter consists of two parts: a presentation of the data obtained from the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire-Form XII (LBDQ-12) and a presentation of the data which were obtained from the Presidents' Questionnaire. The findings are presented in tabular and narrative form.

PART I: LBDQ-12 DATA

Self-Perception of the Presidents and the Perceptions of the Faculty Members, Administrative Staff Members, and Board Members Regarding the Leadership Behaviors of the Presidents

Table 1 presents the data pertaining to research question 1-A: What are the self-perceived leadership behaviors of the Native American presidents of accredited tribally chartered AIHEC institutions in the United States?

The data in table 1 reveal the differences among the means in the self-perception of the seven presidents concerning their leadership behaviors

TABLE 1

THE MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF THE PRESIDENTS'
 SELF-PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS AS
 MEASURED BY THE TWELVE SUBSCALES
 OF THE LBDQ-12

Subscale	Mean	SD
1. Representation	22.0	.4
2. Demand Reconciliation	20.1	3.1
3. Tolerance of Uncertainty	35.7	3.5
4. Persuasiveness	40.6	2.9
5. Initiating Structure	41.0	2.5
6. Tolerance of Freedom	43.4	2.8
7. Role Assumption	37.4	2.8
8. Consideration	41.7	4.7
9. Production Emphasis	38.4	5.2
10. Predictive Accuracy	20.1	1.9
11. Integration	21.0	2.3
12. Superior Orientation	40.4	2.9

N=7

on the twelve subscales of the LBDQ-12. A comparison of the mean scores revealed that the presidents perceived themselves highest on the following four subscales:

1. Tolerance of Freedom (43.4)--the leader's ability to accord the followers' respect and autonomy. It includes behaviors such as encouraging followers to use their initiative and judgment. An example is the leader assigning a task and allowing the followers to determine how it will be accomplished and the pace at which it will be accomplished.
2. Consideration (41.7)--the ability to be cognizant of the employees' feelings. It includes such behaviors as friendliness, openness, approachability, and explaining and seeking the group's input prior to implementing administrative decisions.
3. Initiating Structure (41.0)--the ability to make goals and ideas clear to the followers. It entails informing the group of one's expectations, standards, and goals.
4. Persuasiveness (40.6)--the ability to convince the followers to join in implementing the leader's ideas. Effective communication skills would be necessary to attain a high rating in this dimension.

A comparison of the mean scores revealed that the presidents perceived themselves lowest on the following four subscales:

1. Predictive Accuracy (20.1)--the ability to recognize and plan in advance for potential problems
2. Demand Reconciliation (20.1)--the ability to analyze and respond effectively to complex, conflicting demands
3. Integration (21.0)--the ability to maintain a cohesive and well coordinated group.
4. Representation (22.0)--the ability to be the group's spokesperson

Table 2 presents the data pertaining to research question 1-B: What are the perceptions of selected faculty members regarding the leadership behavior of the Native American presidents at accredited tribally chartered AIHEC institutions in the United States?

The data in table 2 reveal the differences among the means in the perception of the eighteen (18) faculty members concerning the leadership behaviors of the presidents on the twelve subscales of the LBDQ-12. The four items with the highest mean scores were Tolerance of Freedom (39.4), Superior Orientation (37.6), Initiating Structure (37.4), and Persuasiveness (37.3). Superior Orientation is the ability to enhance the position of both the leader and the group. The four items with the lowest mean scores were Integration (17.6), Predictive Accuracy (18.2), Demand Reconciliation (18.8), and Representation (20.1).

The perceptions of the presidents and the faculty members were in close agreement in their rating of the four highest leadership behavior

TABLE 2

THE MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION FOR THE PERCEPTIONS OF
THE FACULTY MEMBERS CONCERNING THE LEADERSHIP
BEHAVIORS OF THE PRESIDENTS AS MEASURED BY
THE TWELVE SUBSCALES OF THE LBDQ-12

Subscale	Mean	SD
1. Representation	20.1	2.0
2. Demand Reconciliation	18.8	3.1
3. Tolerance of Uncertainty	36.4	4.4
4. Persuasiveness	37.3	5.4
5. Initiating Structure	37.4	4.5
6. Tolerance of Freedom	39.4	5.3
7. Role Assumption	35.6	4.9
8. Consideration	36.4	6.3
9. Production Emphasis	32.9	5.1
10. Predictive Accuracy	18.2	2.7
11. Integration	17.6	3.7
12. Superior Orientation	37.6	5.1

N=18

The perceptions of the presidents and the faculty members were in close agreement in their rating of the four highest leadership behavior dimensions. Both groups rated Tolerance of Freedom first, Initiating Structure third, and Persuasiveness fourth. They differed in the rating of the second highest. The presidents rated Consideration second, and the faculty members rated Superior Orientation second.

The perceptions of the presidents and the faculty members were in agreement in their rating of the four lowest leadership behavior dimensions. Both groups rated Predictive Accuracy, Demand Reconciliation, Integration, and Representation as the four lowest. The two groups differed, however, in their ranking of the lowest dimensions. The presidents rated Predictive Accuracy lowest, and the faculty members rated it second lowest. The presidents rated Demand Reconciliation second lowest, and the faculty members rated it third lowest. The presidents rated Integration third lowest, and the faculty members rated it the lowest. The two groups were in agreement that Representation was the fourth lowest.

Table 3 presents the data pertaining to research question 1-C: What are the perceptions of selected administrative staff regarding the leadership behavior of the Native American presidents at accredited tribally chartered AIHEC institutions in the United States?

The data in table 3 reveal the differences among the means in the perception of the twenty-one (21) administrative staff members concerning the

TABLE 3

THE MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION FOR THE PERCEPTIONS OF
THE ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF MEMBERS CONCERNING THE
LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS OF THE PRESIDENTS AS
MEASURED BY THE TWELVE SUBSCALES
OF THE LBDQ-12

Subscale	Mean	SD
1. Representation	20.5	2.9
2. Demand Reconciliation	18.4	3.7
3. Tolerance of Uncertainty	35.5	6.1
4. Persuasiveness	39.0	4.9
5. Initiating Structure	36.6	5.2
6. Tolerance of Freedom	39.6	4.8
7. Role Assumption	35.0	4.3
8. Consideration	36.6	5.2
9. Production Emphasis	34.1	6.2
10. Predictive Accuracy	17.9	3.1
11. Integration	16.7	4.2
12. Superior Orientation	38.7	3.6

N=21

leadership behaviors of the presidents on the twelve subscales of the LBDQ-12. The four items with the highest mean scores were Tolerance of Freedom (39.6), Persuasiveness (39.0), Superior Orientation (38.7), and Initiating Structure (36.6) and Consideration (36.6) tied for fourth position. The four items with the lowest mean scores were Integration (16.7), Predictive Accuracy (17.9), Demand Reconciliation (18.4), and Representation (20.5).

The perceptions of the presidents and the administrative staff members were in close agreement in their rating of the four highest leadership behavior dimensions. They agreed in rating Tolerance of Freedom, Persuasiveness, Initiating Structure, and Consideration among the four top dimensions. The administrative staff members differed with the presidents on the ranking of the dimensions. The administrative staff members rated Superior Orientation third highest while the presidents did not include this dimension among the top four. Among the administrative staff members, Initiating Structure and Consideration were tied as fourth highest.

The perceptions of the presidents and the administrative staff members were in agreement in their rating of the four lowest leadership behavior dimensions. Both groups rated Predictive Accuracy, Demand Reconciliation, Integration, and Representation as the four lowest. However, they differed in the ranking of the dimensions. The presidents rated Predictive Accuracy lowest, and the administrative staff members rated it second lowest. The presidents rated Demand Reconciliation second lowest, and the

administrative staff members rated it third lowest. The presidents rated Integration third lowest, and the administrative staff members rated it the lowest. The groups agreed that Representation was the fourth lowest. It should be noted that the administrative staff members and the faculty were in complete agreement on the ranking of the four lowest leadership behaviors of the presidents.

Table 4 presents the data pertaining to research question 1-D: What are the perceptions of selected board members regarding the leadership behavior of the Native American presidents at accredited tribally chartered AIHEC institutions in the United States?

The data in table 4 reveal the differences among the means in the perception of the eleven (11) board members concerning the leadership behaviors of the presidents on the twelve subscales of the LBDQ-12. The four items with the highest mean scores were Initiating Structure (41.5), Consideration (41.1), Persuasiveness (40.6), and Tolerance of Freedom (39.5). The four items with the lowest mean scores were Predictive Accuracy (19.5), Integration (19.7), Representation (21.0), and Demand Reconciliation (21.1).

The perceptions of the presidents and the board members were in agreement on their rating of the four highest leadership behaviors. The presidents and the board members rated the same four leadership behaviors as the highest, but they varied in the ranking they gave each behavior. The presidents rated Tolerance of Freedom the highest, and the board members

TABLE 4

THE MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION FOR THE PERCEPTIONS OF
THE BOARD MEMBERS CONCERNING THE LEADERSHIP
BEHAVIORS OF THE PRESIDENTS AS MEASURED
BY THE TWELVE SUBSCALES OF
THE LBDQ-12

Subscale	Mean	SD
1. Representation	21.0	2.9
2. Demand Reconciliation	21.1	2.5
3. Tolerance of Uncertainty	37.1	5.3
4. Persuasiveness	40.6	5.3
5. Initiating Structure	41.5	5.2
6. Tolerance of Freedom	39.5	4.1
7. Role Assumption	38.1	3.6
8. Consideration	41.1	5.1
9. Production Emphasis	36.5	4.9
10. Predictive Accuracy	19.5	2.0
11. Integration	19.7	3.3
12. Superior Orientation	39.1	4.7

N=11

rated it the fourth highest. Both groups rated Consideration second highest. The presidents rated Initiating Structure the third highest, and the board members rated it the highest. The presidents rated Persuasiveness the fourth highest, and the board members rated it the third highest.

The perceptions of the presidents and the board members were in agreement in their rating of the four lowest leadership behavior dimensions. The presidents and the board members rated the same four leadership behaviors as the lowest, but they varied in the ranking of each behavior except for Predictive Accuracy, which both groups rated as the lowest. The presidents rated Demand Reconciliation as the second lowest, and the board members rated it the fourth lowest. The presidents rated Integration as the third lowest, and the board members rated it the second lowest. The presidents rated Representation the fourth lowest, and the board members rated it the third lowest.

Table 5 is a comparison of the subscales that received the four highest mean scores from the presidents, faculty, administrative staff members, and board members. The presidents (43.4), faculty (39.4), and administrative staff members (39.6) rated Tolerance of Freedom as the highest, and the board members rated Initiating Structure (41.5) as the highest. The presidents (41.7) and the board members (41.1) rated Consideration as the second highest, the faculty members rated Superior Orientation (37.6) as the second highest, and the administrative staff members rated Persuasiveness (39.0) as the second

TABLE 5

**MEANS AND VISUAL COMPARISON OF THE SUBSCALES
RECEIVING THE FOUR HIGHEST MEAN SCORES FROM
THE PRESIDENTS, FACULTY MEMBERS,
ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF MEMBERS,
AND BOARD MEMBERS**

PRESIDENTS	FACULTY	ADMIN. STAFF	BOARD MEMBERS
TOL. FREEDOM (43.4)	TOL. FREEDOM (39.4)	TOL. FREEDOM (39.6)	INIT. STRUCT. (41.5)
CONSIDERATION (41.7)	SUP. ORIENT. (37.6)	PERSUASIVE. (39.0)	CONSIDERATION (41.1)
INIT. STRUCT. (41.0)	INIT. STRUCT. (37.4)	SUP. ORIENT. (38.7)	PERSUASIVE. (40.6)
PERSUASIVE. (40.6)	PERSUASIVE. (37.3)	INIT. STRUCT. (36.6) CONSIDERATION (36.6)	TOL. FREEDOM (39.5)

highest. The presidents (41.0) and faculty members (37.4) rated Initiating Structure as the third highest, the administrative staff members rated Superior Orientation (38.7) as the third highest, and the board members rated Persuasiveness (40.6) as the third highest. The presidents (40.6) and faculty members (37.3) rated Persuasiveness as the fourth highest, the administrative staff members rated both Initiating Structure (36.6) and Consideration (36.6) as the fourth highest, and the board members rated Tolerance of Freedom (39.5) as the fourth highest.

The four groups were in agreement on the rating of Tolerance of Freedom, Initiating Structure, and Persuasiveness among the four highest leadership behaviors of the presidents. The presidents and the board members

were in complete agreement on the four highest leadership behaviors while the faculty members and the administrative staff members were in close agreement. They differed only in their rating of Superior Orientation; the faculty members and administrative staff members included this dimension among the top four whereas the presidents and the board members did not. The presidents and the board members rated Consideration second highest among the top four, whereas the faculty members did not include it and the administrative staff members rated it as fourth highest with Initiating Structure. A visual examination of the data suggests a good deal of congruence among the four groups regarding their view of top leadership behaviors of the presidents.

Table 6 is a comparison of the subscales that received the four lowest mean scores from the presidents, faculty members, administrative staff members, and board members. The presidents rated Predictive Accuracy (20.1) and Demand Reconciliation (20.1) as the lowest. The board members also rated Predictive Accuracy (19.5) as the lowest, and the faculty members (17.6) and administrative staff members (16.7) rated Integration as the lowest. The board members rated Integration (19.7) as the second lowest while Predictive Accuracy was rated second lowest by the faculty members (18.2) and administrative staff members (17.9). The presidents rated Integration (21.0) as the third lowest, the board members rated Representation (21.0) as the third lowest, and the faculty members (18.8) and administrative staff members (18.4) rated Demand Reconciliation as the third lowest. The presidents (22.0), the

TABLE 6

MEANS AND VISUAL COMPARISON OF THE SUBSCALES RECEIVING
THE FOUR LOWEST MEAN SCORES FROM THE PRESIDENTS,
FACULTY MEMBERS, ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF
MEMBERS, AND BOARD MEMBERS

PRESIDENTS	FACULTY	ADMIN. STAFF	BOARD MEMBERS
PRED. ACCUR. (20.1)	INTEGRATION (17.6)	INTEGRATION (16.7)	PRED. ACCUR. (19.5)
DEMAND RECON. (20.1)	PRED. ACCUR. (18.2)	PRED. ACCUR. (17.9)	INTEGRATION (19.7)
INTEGRATION (21.0)	DEMAND RECON. (18.8)	DEMAND RECON. (18.4)	REPRESENTATION (21.0)
REPRESENTATION (22.0)	REPRESENTATION (20.1)	REPRESENTATION (20.5)	DEMAND RECON (21.1)

faculty members (20.1), and the administrative staff members (20.5) rated Representation as the fourth lowest, and the board members rated Demand Reconciliation (21.1) as the fourth lowest.

Each of the four groups rated Integration, Predictive Accuracy, Demand Reconciliation, and Representation as the four lowest choices. A visual examination of the data suggests a good deal of congruence among these four groups concerning their perception of the least exhibited leadership behaviors among the presidents.

Differences Regarding the Self-Perception of the Presidents and the Perceptions of the Faculty Members, Administrative Staff Members, and Board Members Regarding the Leadership Behaviors of the Presidents

Research question 2 consists of four parts: 2-A, 2-B, 2-C, and 2-D.

Part 2-A refers to the similarities and differences of the presidents' perceptions regarding their leadership behavior. The three remaining parts pertain to the differences of the perceptions of the faculty members, administrative staff members, and board members concerning the leadership behavior of the presidents.

Research question 2-A was the following: What are the similarities and differences in the self-perceived leadership behaviors among the Native American presidents of accredited tribally chartered AIHEC institutions in the United States?

To answer this question, the data from the LBDQ-12 forms completed by the presidents were analyzed using Fisher's Least Significant Difference Test. This test determined the significant differences in the presidents' perceptions at the .05 level on each of the twelve subscales of the LBDQ-12.

The data in table 7 reveal the differences among the means of the perceptions of the presidents concerning their leadership on the LBDQ-12 subscale of Representation. Fisher's Least Significant Difference Test revealed that the mean perception of P1 was significantly higher than the mean perception of P6 on the dimension of Representation.

TABLE 7

FISHER'S LEAST SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE COMPARISON OF
THE MEAN PERCEPTIONS OF THE PRESIDENTS ON THE
LBDQ-12 SUBSCALE OF REPRESENTATION

MEAN	24.00	22.00	21.00	23.00	21.00	20.00	23.00
PRESIDENT	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7
P1							
P2							
P3							
P4							
P5							
P6	*						
P7							

*Denotes pairs of presidents who were significantly different at the 3.07 level

The data in table 8 reveal the differences among the means of the perceptions of the presidents concerning their leadership on the LBDQ-12 subscale of Demand Reconciliation. Fisher's Least Significant Difference Test revealed that the mean perceptions of P3 and P7 were significantly higher than the mean perception of P2, and the mean perceptions of P1, P2, P3, P5, P6, and P7 were significantly higher than the mean perception of P4 on the dimension of Demand Reconciliation.

TABLE 8

FISHER'S LEAST SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE COMPARISON OF
THE MEAN PERCEPTIONS OF THE PRESIDENTS ON THE
LBDQ-12 SUBSCALE OF DEMAND RECONCILIATION

MEAN	22.00	18.00	23.00	14.00	21.00	21.00	22.00
PRESIDENT	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7
P1							
P2			*				*
P3							
P4	*	*	*		*	*	*
P5							
P6							
P7							

*Denotes pairs of presidents who were significantly different at the 3.07 level

The data in table 9 reveal the differences among the means of the perceptions of the presidents concerning their leadership on the LBDQ-12 subscale of Tolerance of Uncertainty. Fisher's Least Significant Difference Test revealed that the mean perception of P5 was significantly higher than the mean perceptions of P1, P2, P3, P4, and P6. The mean perception of P7 was significantly higher than the mean perceptions of P1 and P6. The mean perception of P4 was significantly higher than the mean perceptions of P1 and

P6. The mean perceptions of P2 and P3 were significantly higher than the mean perception of P1.

TABLE 9

FISHER'S LEAST SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE COMPARISON OF THE MEAN PERCEPTIONS OF THE PRESIDENTS ON THE LBDQ-12 SUBSCALE OF TOLERANCE OF UNCERTAINTY

MEAN	30.00	36.00	35.00	37.00	41.00	33.00	38.00
PRESIDENT	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7
P1		*	*	*	*		*
P2					*		
P3					*		
P4					*		
P5							
P6				*	*		*
P7							

*Denotes pairs of presidents who were significantly different at the 3.07 level

The data in table 10 reveal the differences among the means of the perceptions of the presidents concerning their leadership on the LBDQ-12 subscale of Persuasiveness. Fisher's Least Significant Difference Test revealed that the mean perception of P1 was significantly higher than the mean

TABLE 10

FISHER'S LEAST SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE COMPARISON OF
THE MEAN PERCEPTIONS OF THE PRESIDENTS ON THE
LBDQ-12 SUBSCALE OF PERSUASIVENESS

MEAN	45.00	42.00	42.00	40.00	41.00	38.00	36.00
PRESIDENT	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7
P1							
P2							
P3							
P4	*						
P5	*						
P6	*	*	*				
P7	*	*	*		*		

*Denotes pairs of presidents who were significantly different at the 3.07 level

perceptions of P4, P5, P6, and P7 on the dimension of Persuasiveness. The mean perception of P3 was significantly higher than the mean perceptions of P6 and P7. The mean perception of P2 was significantly higher than the mean perceptions of P6 and P7, and the mean perception of P5 was significantly higher than the mean perception of P7.

The data in table 11 reveal the differences among the means of the perceptions of the presidents concerning their leadership on the LBDQ-12 subscale of Initiating Structure. Fisher's Least Significant Difference Test

TABLE 11

FISHER'S LEAST SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE COMPARISON OF
THE MEAN PERCEPTIONS OF THE PRESIDENTS ON THE
LBDQ-12 SUBSCALE OF INITIATION OF STRUCTURE

MEAN	44.00	42.00	40.00	40.00	44.00	37.00	40.00
PRESIDENT	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7
P1							
P2							
P3	*				*		
P4	*				*		
P5							
P6	*	*			*		
P7	*				*		

*Denotes pairs of presidents who were significantly different at the 3.07 level

revealed that the mean perception of P1 was significantly higher than the mean perceptions of P3, P4, P6, and P7 on the dimension of Initiating Structure. The mean perception of P5 was significantly higher than the mean perceptions of P3, P4, P6, and P7. The mean perception of P2 was significantly higher than the mean perception of P6.

The data in table 12 reveal the differences among the means of the perceptions of the presidents concerning their leadership on the LBDQ-12 subscale of Tolerance of Freedom. Fisher's Least Significant Difference Test

TABLE 12

FISHER'S LEAST SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE COMPARISON OF
THE MEAN PERCEPTIONS OF THE PRESIDENTS ON THE
LBDQ-12 SUBSCALE OF TOLERANCE OF FREEDOM

MEAN	44.00	46.00	41.00	41.00	48.00	41.00	43.00
PRESIDENT	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7
P1					*		
P2							
P3		*			*		
P4		*			*		
P5							
P6		*			*		
P7					*		

*Denotes pairs of presidents who were significantly different at the 3.07 level

revealed that the mean perception of P5 was significantly higher than the mean perceptions of P1, P3, P4, P6, and P7 on the dimension of Tolerance of Freedom. The mean perception of P2 was significantly higher than the mean perceptions of P3, P4, and P6.

The data in table 13 reveal the differences among the means of the perceptions of the presidents concerning their leadership on the LBDQ-12 subscale of Role Assumption. Fisher's Least Significant Difference Test revealed that the mean perception of P3 was significantly higher than the mean

TABLE 13

FISHER'S LEAST SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE COMPARISON OF
THE MEAN PERCEPTIONS OF THE PRESIDENTS ON THE
LBDQ-12 SUBSCALE OF ROLE ASSUMPTION

MEAN	37.00	35.00	42.00	36.00	34.00	39.00	39.00
PRESIDENT	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7
P1			*				
P2			*			*	*
P3							
P4			*				
P5			*			*	*
P6							
P7							

*Denotes pairs of presidents who were significantly different at the 3.07 level

perceptions of P1, P2, P4, and P5 on the dimension of Role Assumption. The mean perceptions of P6 and P7 were significantly higher than the mean perceptions of P2 and P5.

The data in table 14 reveal the differences among the means of the perceptions of the presidents concerning their leadership on the LBDQ-12 subscale of Consideration. Fisher's Least Significant Difference Test revealed that the mean perception of P2 was significantly higher than the mean perceptions of P1, P3, P4, P6, and P7 on the dimension of Consideration. The

TABLE 14

FISHER'S LEAST SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE COMPARISON OF
THE MEAN PERCEPTIONS OF THE PRESIDENTS ON THE
LBDQ-12 SUBSCALE OF CONSIDERATION

MEAN	43.00	48.00	41.00	42.00	46.00	34.00	38.00
PRESIDENT	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7
P1		*					
P2							
P3		*			*		
P4		*			*		
P5							
P6	*	*	*	*	*		
P7	*	*		*	*		

*Denotes pairs of presidents who were significantly different at the 3.07 level

mean perception of P5 was significantly higher than the mean perceptions of P3, P4, P6, and P7. The mean perceptions of P1 and P4 were significantly higher than the mean perceptions of P6 and P7. The mean perception of P3 was significantly higher than the mean perception of P6.

The data in table 15 reveal the differences among the means of the perceptions of the presidents concerning their leadership on the LBDQ-12 subscale of Production Emphasis. Fisher's Least Significant Difference Test revealed that the mean perceptions of P1 and P5 were significantly higher than

TABLE 15

FISHER'S LEAST SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE COMPARISON OF
THE MEAN PERCEPTIONS OF THE PRESIDENTS ON THE
LBDQ-12 SUBSCALE OF PRODUCTION EMPHASIS

MEAN	44.00	39.00	33.00	40.00	45.00	31.00	37.00
PRESIDENT	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7
P1							
P2	*				*		
P3	*			*	*		
P4	*				*		
P5							
P6	*			*	*		
P7	*				*		

*Denotes pairs of presidents who were significantly different at the 3.07 level

the mean perceptions of P2, P3, P4, P6, and P7 on the dimension of Production Emphasis. The mean perception of P4 was significantly higher than the mean perceptions of P3 and P6.

The data in table 16 reveal the differences among the means of the perceptions of the presidents concerning their leadership on the LBDQ-12 subscale of Predictive Accuracy. Fisher's Least Significant Difference Test revealed that the mean perception of P1 was significantly higher than the mean perceptions of P3 and P6 on the dimension of Predictive Accuracy. The mean

perceptions of P4 and P5 were significantly higher than the mean perception of P6.

TABLE 16

FISHER'S LEAST SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE COMPARISON OF
THE MEAN PERCEPTIONS OF THE PRESIDENTS ON THE
LBDQ-12 SUBSCALE OF PREDICTIVE ACCURACY

MEAN	23.00	20.00	19.00	21.00	21.00	17.00	20.00
PRESIDENT	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7
P1							
P2							
P3	*						
P4							
P5							
P6	*			*	*		
P7							

*Denotes pairs of presidents who were significantly different at the 3.07 level

The data in table 17 reveal the differences among the means of the perceptions of the presidents concerning their leadership on the LBDQ-12 subscale of Integration. Fisher's Least Significant Difference Test revealed that the mean perceptions of P1, P2, P3, P4, P5, and P7 were significantly higher than the mean perception of P6 on the dimension of Integration.

TABLE 17

FISHER'S LEAST SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE COMPARISON OF
THE MEAN PERCEPTIONS OF THE PRESIDENTS ON THE
LBDQ-12 SUBSCALE OF INTEGRATION

MEAN PRESIDENT	23.00 P1	21.00 P2	22.00 P3	22.00 P4	22.00 P5	16.00 P6	21.00 P7
P1							
P2							
P3							
P4							
P5							
P6	*	*	*	*	*		*
P7							

*Denotes pairs of presidents who were significantly different at the 3.07 level

The data in table 18 reveal the differences among the means of the perceptions of the presidents concerning their leadership on the LBDQ-12 subscale of Superior Orientation. Fisher's Least Significant Difference Test revealed that the mean perception of P1 was significantly higher than the mean perceptions of P2, P3, P4, P5, and P7 on the dimension of Superior Orientation. The mean perception of P6 was significantly higher than the mean perceptions of P3, P4, and P7. The mean perceptions of P2 and P5 were significantly higher than the mean perception of P7.

TABLE 18

FISHER'S LEAST SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE COMPARISON OF
THE MEAN PERCEPTIONS OF THE PRESIDENTS ON THE
LBDQ-12 SUBSCALE OF SUPERIOR ORIENTATION

MEAN	45.00	40.00	39.00	39.00	41.00	43.00	36.00
PRESIDENT	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7
P1							
P2	*						
P3	*					*	
P4	*					*	
P5	*						
P6							
P7	*		*		*	*	

*Denotes pairs of presidents who were significantly different at the 3.07 level

In summary, the mean perceptions of the presidents were generally similar in the dimensions of Representation and Integration. They differed in their perceptions of Demand Reconciliation, Tolerance of Uncertainty, Persuasion, Initiating Structure, Tolerance of Freedom, Role Assumption, Consideration, Production Emphasis, Predictive Accuracy, and Superior Orientation.

An examination of the data for research questions 2-B, 2-C, and 2-D was completed via one-way analysis of variance to determine if significant

leadership behaviors and the perceptions of the faculty members regarding the president's leadership behavior?), 2-C (What are the differences between the Native American presidents' self-perception of their leadership behavior and the perceptions of the administrative staff regarding the president's leadership behavior?), and 2-D (What are the differences between the Native American presidents' self-perception of their leadership behavior and the perceptions of the members of the board regarding the president's leadership behavior?) was completed via one-way analysis of variance to determine if significant differences existed between the four groups. The for each of the twelve (12) subscales of the LBDQ-12 data are presented in tables 19 through 31.

Table 19 illustrates the one-way analysis of variance computed from scores of the faculty members, administrative staff members, board members, and presidents for the dimension of Representation. The calculated F-value for the analysis was 1.03063, with 3 and 53 degrees of freedom. There was no significant difference at the .05 level between the perceptions of the groups.

Table 20 illustrates the one-way analysis of variance computed from scores of the faculty members, administrative staff members, board members, and presidents for the dimension of Demand Reconciliation. The calculated F-value for the analysis was 1.9605, with 3 and 53 degrees of freedom. There was no significant difference at the .05 level between the perceptions of the groups.

TABLE 19

ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE COMPUTED FROM SCORES
OF PRESIDENTS, FACULTY MEMBERS, ADMINISTRATIVE
STAFF MEMBERS, AND BOARD MEMBERS FOR THE
DIMENSION OF REPRESENTATION

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Value	F Prob.
Between	3	19.6508	6.5503	1.03063	.3841
Within	53	335.0159	6.311		
Total	56	357.6667			

TABLE 20

ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE COMPUTED FROM SCORES
OF PRESIDENTS, FACULTY MEMBERS, ADMINISTRATIVE
STAFF MEMBERS, AND BOARD MEMBERS FOR THE
DIMENSION OF DEMAND RECONCILIATION

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Value	F Prob.
Between	3	61.8384	20.6113	1.9605	.1311
Within	53	557.2186	10.5136		
Total	56	619.0526			

Table 21 illustrates the one-way analysis of variance computed from scores of the faculty members, administrative staff members, board members,

TABLE 21

ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE COMPUTED FROM SCORES
OF PRESIDENTS, FACULTY MEMBERS, ADMINISTRATIVE
STAFF MEMBERS, AND BOARD MEMBERS FOR THE
DIMENSION OF TOLERANCE OF UNCERTAINTY

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Value	F Prob.
Between	3	20.8570	6.9523	.2595	.8542
Within	53	1420.0202	26.7928		
Total	56	1440.8772			

and presidents for the variable of Tolerance of Uncertainty. The calculated F-value for the analysis was .2595, with 3 and 53 degrees of freedom. There was no significant difference at the .05 level between the perceptions of the groups.

Table 22 illustrates the one-way analysis of variance computed from scores of the faculty members, administrative staff members, board members, and presidents for the variable of Persuasiveness. The calculated F-value for the analysis was 1.2556, with 3 and 53 degrees of freedom. There was no significant difference at the .05 level between the perceptions of the groups.

Table 23 illustrates the one-way analysis of variance computed from scores of the faculty members, administrative staff members, board members, and presidents for the variable of Initiating Structure. The calculated F-value for

TABLE 22

ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE COMPUTED FROM SCORES
OF PRESIDENTS, FACULTY MEMBERS, ADMINISTRATIVE
STAFF MEMBERS, AND BOARD MEMBERS FOR THE
DIMENSION OF PERSUASIVENESS

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Value	F Prob.
Between	3	93.4926	31.1642	1.2556	.2990
Within	53	1315.4899	24.8206		
Total	56	1408.9825			

TABLE 23

ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE COMPUTED FROM SCORES
OF PRESIDENTS, FACULTY MEMBERS, ADMINISTRATIVE
STAFF MEMBERS, AND BOARD MEMBERS FOR THE
DIMENSION OF INITIATING STRUCTURE

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Value	F Prob.
Between	3	241.0250	80.3417	3.5545	.0203*
Within	53	1197.9574	22.6030		
Total	56	1438.9825			

*Significant at the .05 level

the analysis was 3.5545, with 3 and 53 degrees of freedom. There was a significant difference at the .05 level between the perceptions of the groups.

The data in table 24 present the results of the Multiple Range Test of the perceptions of the presidents, faculty members, administrative staff members, and board members concerning the dimension of Initiating Structure. The Multiple Range Test revealed a significant difference at the .05 level between the perceptions of the administrative staff members and the board members and between the perceptions of the faculty members and the board members on the dimension of Initiating Structure.

TABLE 24

MULTIPLE RANGE TEST COMPARISON OF THE MEAN PERCEPTIONS
OF THE PRESIDENTS, FACULTY MEMBERS, ADMINISTRATIVE
STAFF MEMBERS, AND BOARD MEMBERS ON
THE LBDQ-12 SUBSCALE OF INITIATING
STRUCTURE

Mean	36.6190	37.3889	41.0000	41.5455
Group	Administrative Staff	Faculty	Presidents	Board Members
Admin. Staff				
Faculty				
Presidents				
Board Mbrs.	*	*		

*Denotes pairs of groups which were significantly different at the .05 level

Table 25 illustrates the one-way analysis of variance computed from scores of the faculty members, administrative staff members, board members, and presidents for the variable of Tolerance of Freedom. The calculated F-value for the analysis was 1.4614, with 3 and 53 degrees of freedom. There was no significant difference at the .05 level between the perceptions of the groups.

TABLE 25

ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE COMPUTED FROM SCORES
OF PRESIDENTS, FACULTY MEMBERS, ADMINISTRATIVE
STAFF MEMBERS, AND BOARD MEMBERS FOR THE
DIMENSION OF TOLERANCE OF FREEDOM

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Value	F Prob.
Between	3	95.1203	3.7068	1.4614	.2355
Within	53	1149.8622	21.6955		
Total	56	1244.9825			

Table 26 illustrates the one-way analysis of variance computed from scores of the faculty members, administrative staff members, board members, and presidents for the variable of Role Assumption. The calculated F-value for the analysis was 1.5468, with 3 and 53 degrees of freedom. There was no significant difference at the .05 level between the perceptions of the groups.

TABLE 26

ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE COMPUTED FROM SCORES
OF PRESIDENTS, FACULTY MEMBERS, ADMINISTRATIVE
STAFF MEMBERS, AND BOARD MEMBERS FOR THE
DIMENSION OF ROLE ASSUMPTION

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Value	F Prob.
Between	3	83.5149	27.8383	1.5468	.2132
Within	53	953.8535	17.9972		
Total	56	1037.3684			

Table 27 illustrates the one-way analysis of variance computed from scores of the faculty members, administrative staff members, board members, and presidents for the variable of Consideration. The calculated F-value for the analysis was 3.2282, with 3 and 53 degrees of freedom. There was a significant difference at the .05 level between perceptions of the groups.

The data in table 28 present the results of the Multiple Range Test of the perceptions of the four groups concerning the dimension of Consideration. The Multiple Range Test revealed a significant difference at the .05 level between the perceptions of the administrative staff members and the presidents, the administrative staff members and the board members, the faculty members and the presidents, and the faculty members and the board members on the dimension of Consideration.

TABLE 27

ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE COMPUTED FROM SCORES
OF PRESIDENTS, FACULTY MEMBERS, ADMINISTRATIVE
STAFF MEMBERS, AND BOARD MEMBERS FOR THE
DIMENSION OF CONSIDERATION

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Value	F Prob.
Between	3	291.2242	97.0747	3.2282	.0296*
Within	53	1593.7583	30.0709		
Total	56	1884.9825			

*Significant at the .05 level

TABLE 28

MULTIPLE RANGE TEST COMPARISON OF THE MEAN PERCEPTIONS
OF THE PRESIDENTS, FACULTY MEMBERS, ADMINISTRATIVE
STAFF MEMBERS, AND BOARD MEMBERS ON THE
LBDQ-12 SUBSCALE OF CONSIDERATION

Mean	36.5714	36.3889	41.7143	41.0909
Group	Administrative Staff	Faculty	Presidents	Board Members
Admin. Staff				
Faculty				
Presidents	*	*		
Board Mbrs.	*	*		

*Denotes pairs of groups which were significantly different at the .05 level

Table 29 illustrates the one-way analysis of variance computed from scores of the faculty members, administrative staff members, board members, and presidents for the variable of Production Emphasis. The calculated F-value for the analysis was 2.1776, with 3 and 53 degrees of freedom. There was no significant difference at the .05 level between the perceptions of the groups.

TABLE 29

ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE COMPUTED FROM SCORES
OF PRESIDENTS, FACULTY MEMBERS, ADMINISTRATIVE
STAFF MEMBERS, AND BOARD MEMBERS FOR THE
DIMENSION OF PRODUCTION EMPHASIS

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Value	F Prob.
Between	3	197.8571	65.9524	2.1776	.1015
Within	53	1605.1955	30.2867		
Total	56	1803.0526			

Table 30 illustrates the one-way analysis of variance computed from scores of the faculty members, administrative staff members, board members, and presidents for the variable of Predictive Accuracy. The calculated F-value for the analysis was 1.8303, with 3 and 53 degrees of freedom. There was no significant difference at the .05 level between the perceptions of the groups.

TABLE 30

**ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE COMPUTED FROM SCORES
OF PRESIDENTS, FACULTY MEMBERS, ADMINISTRATIVE
STAFF MEMBERS, AND BOARD MEMBERS FOR THE
DIMENSION OF PREDICTIVE ACCURACY**

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Value	F Prob.
Between	3	39.2142	13.0714	1.8303	.1528
Within	53	378.5051	7.1416		
Total	56	417.7193			

Table 31 illustrates the one-way analysis of variance computed from scores of the faculty members, administrative staff members, board members, and presidents for the variable of Integration. The calculated F-value for the analysis was 3.2393, with 3 and 53 degrees of freedom. There was a significant difference at the .05 level between the perceptions of the four groups.

The data in table 32 present the results of the Multiple Range Test of the perceptions of the four groups concerning the dimension of Integration. The Multiple Range Test revealed a significant difference at the .05 level between the perceptions of the administrative staff members and presidents, the administrative staff members and board members, and the faculty members and presidents on the dimension of Integration.

TABLE 31

ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE COMPUTED FROM SCORES
OF PRESIDENTS, FACULTY MEMBERS, ADMINISTRATIVE
STAFF MEMBERS, AND BOARD MEMBERS FOR THE
DIMENSION OF INTEGRATION

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Value	F Prob.
Between	3	133.6494	44.5498	3.2393	.0292*
Within	53	728.9120	13.7531		
Total	56	862.5614			

*Significant at the .05 level

TABLE 32

MULTIPLE RANGE TEST COMPARISON OF THE MEAN PERCEPTIONS
OF THE PRESIDENTS, FACULTY MEMBERS, ADMINISTRATIVE
STAFF MEMBERS, AND BOARD MEMBERS ON THE
LBDQ-12 SUBSCALE OF INTEGRATION

Mean	36.5714	36.3889	41.7143	41.0909
Group	Administrative Staff	Faculty	Presidents	Board Members
Admin. Staff				
Faculty				
Presidents	*	*		
Board Mbrs.	*			

*Denotes pairs of groups which were significantly different at the .05 level

Table 33 illustrates the one-way analysis of variance computed from scores of the faculty members, administrative staff members, board members, and presidents for the variable of Superior Orientation. The calculated F-value for the analysis was .7978, with 3 and 53 degrees of freedom. There was no significant difference at the .05 level between the perceptions of the groups.

TABLE 33

ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE COMPUTED FROM SCORES
OF PRESIDENTS, FACULTY MEMBERS, ADMINISTRATIVE
STAFF MEMBERS, AND BOARD MEMBERS FOR THE
DIMENSION OF SUPERIOR ORIENTATION

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Value	F Prob.
Between	3	43.6953	14.5651	.7978	.5006
Within	53	967.5678	18.2560		
Total	56	1011.2632			

A summary of the ANOVA analysis for research questions 2-B, 2-C, and 2-D is as follows:

Question 2-B: What are the differences between the Native American presidents' self-perception of their leadership behaviors and the perceptions of the faculty members regarding the president's leadership behavior?

To answer to this question, the LBDQ-12 data were analyzed using One-Way Analysis of Variance to determine if a significant difference at the .05 level existed among the four groups. If a significant difference were found, the Multiple Range Test was used to determine which groups' perceptions differed significantly.

There was a significant difference between the perceptions of the presidents and the faculty members concerning the leadership behaviors of the presidents on the dimensions of Consideration and Integration. There was no significant difference between the perceptions of the presidents and the faculty members concerning the leadership behaviors of the presidents on the dimensions of Representation, Demand Reconciliation, Tolerance of Uncertainty, Persuasiveness, Initiating Structure, Tolerance of Freedom, Role Assumption, Production Emphasis, Predictive Accuracy, and Superior Orientation.

Question 2-C: What are the differences between the Native American presidents' self-perception of their leadership behaviors and the perceptions of the administrative staff regarding the president's leadership behavior?

To answer this question, the LBDQ-12 data were analyzed using One-Way Analysis of Variance to determine if a significant difference existed at the .05 level among the four groups. If a significant difference were found, the Multiple Range Test was used to determine which groups' perceptions differed significantly.

There was a significant difference between the perceptions of the presidents and the administrative staff members concerning the leadership behaviors of the presidents on the dimensions of Consideration, Integration, and Initiating Structure. There was no significant difference between the perceptions of the presidents and the administrative staff members concerning the leadership behaviors of the presidents on the dimensions of Representation, Demand Reconciliation, Tolerance of Uncertainty, Persuasiveness, Tolerance of Freedom, Role Assumption, Production Emphasis, Predictive Accuracy, and Superior Orientation.

Question 2-D: What are the differences between the Native American presidents' self-perception of their leadership behavior and the perceptions of the members of the board regarding the president's leadership behavior?

To answer this question, the LBDQ-12 data were analyzed using One-Way Analysis of Variance to determine if a significant difference existed among the four groups at the .05 level. If a significant difference were found, the Multiple Range Test was used to determine which groups' perceptions differed significantly.

There was no significant difference between the perceptions of the presidents and the board members concerning the leadership behaviors of the presidents as measured by the LBDQ-12. The presidents and the boards appear to be congruent in their perceptions of the leadership behaviors of the

presidents. This finding indicates that the board members either know their presidents well or select individuals like themselves to lead the institutions.

PART II: PRESIDENTS' QUESTIONNAIRE DATA

Table 34 presents the data obtained from questions numbered 1 through 8 and question number 11 on the Presidents' Questionnaire. These data pertain to research question 3: What is the prototypic description of a Native American president of an accredited tribally chartered AIHEC institution in the United States?

Of the seven (7) presidents who responded, three were female and four were male. Four were between the ages of 31-40, two were between the ages of 41-50, and one was between the ages of 51-60. The presidents ranged in age from 34 to 57 with a mean age of 42.4 and a median age of 39. Five respondents indicated they had been reared on the reservation and two indicated they had not.

One president held a doctoral degree in Educational Administration, four held master's degrees--one in Adult and Higher Education, one in Counseling and Guidance, one in Educational Psychology, and one in Public Administration. One held a Law degree and one held a bachelor's degree in Public Service. Two of the presidents had higher degrees pending, one a doctoral degree and another a master's degree.

TABLE 34

 PROFILE OF NATIVE AMERICAN PRESIDENTS

Gender:

<u>Female</u>	<u>Male</u>
3	4

Age:

<u>31-40</u>	<u>41-50</u>	<u>51-60</u>	<u>Range</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Median</u>
4	2	1	34-57	42.4	39

Reared on the Reservation:

<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>
5	2

Highest Degree:

<u>Bachelor's</u>	<u>Master's</u>	<u>Juris Doctor</u>	<u>Doctor of Education</u>
1	4	1	1

Field of Preparation:

<u>Coun. & Guid.</u>	<u>Ed. Admin.</u>	<u>Ed. Psy.</u>	<u>Adult/Higher Ed.</u>
1	1	1	1
<u>Law</u>	<u>Pub. Admin.</u>	<u>Pub. Service</u>	
1	1	1	

Years in Present Position:

<u>< 1 yr.</u>	<u>2-5 yrs.</u>	<u>11-15 yrs.</u>	<u>Range</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Median</u>
2	3	2	1/2-14	5.9	4.0

Highest Grade Completed by Parents:

Mother: <u>Eighth</u>	<u>Ninth</u>	<u>Tenth</u>	<u>Twelfth</u>	<u>Fourteenth</u>	<u>Master's</u>
1	1	2	1	1	1
Father: <u>Eighth</u>	<u>Twelfth</u>	<u>Fourteenth</u>	<u>Baccalaureate</u>		
2	3	1	1		

Two of the presidents reported having been in their present positions less than one year, three reported having been in their present positions between 2 and 5 years, and two reported having been in their present positions between 11 and 15 years. The number of years the presidents reported having served in their present positions ranged from 6 months to 14 years with a mean of 5.9 years and a median of 4.0 years.

In regard to the reported educational level of the presidents' mothers, one had completed eighth grade, one had completed ninth grade, two had completed tenth grade, one had completed high school, one had completed two years of college, and one had earned a master's degree. In regard to the reported educational level of the presidents' fathers, two had completed eighth grade, three had completed twelfth grade, one had completed two years of college, and one had earned a baccalaureate degree.

Table 35 presents the data pertaining to question 9 of the Presidents' Questionnaire. This question concerned the leadership positions of the presidents' relatives. All seven presidents reported that they had family members who had served or were currently serving in Indian leadership positions. All seven presidents indicated that they had family members who had served or were currently serving on the tribal governing body. The relatives included grandfathers, fathers, husbands, uncles, or first cousins. Two presidents indicated that both their maternal and paternal grandfathers had served on the tribal council. Other leadership positions held by family members

included BIA officer, school board member, member of traditional tribal societies for male elders, school administrator, tribal judge, and tribal attorney.

TABLE 35
PAST AND/OR PRESENT LEADERSHIP POSITIONS HELD
BY FAMILY MEMBERS OF THE PRESIDENTS

PRESIDENTS	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7
Tribal Council	**	*	***	**	*** ***	**	*
BIA Official			***				*
School Board Member					**		
Tribal Elder	*						
School Administrator	**						
Tribal Judge							*
Tribal Attorney							*

*Denotes one relative

Table 36 presents data from question 10 of the Presidents' Questionnaire. This question pertained to other leadership positions held by the presidents. P1, P6, and P7 indicated they had served in only one other leadership position prior to assuming the college presidency. P7 had served on the public school board of education for two years, and P1 and P6 had

TABLE 36

OTHER LEADERSHIP POSITIONS HELD BY THE PRESIDENTS

PRESIDENT	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7
Tribal President			*				
School Board							*
Tribal College Dean/Director	*					*	
AIHEC		*	*		*		
Child Care Agency		*					
State Commission		*					
State Association					*		
Tribal Committees					*		
Ass't Superintendent (Public School)			*				
National Association			*				
Teacher/Coach			*				
State Regional Director				*			
Indian Education Director				*			

served at their college prior to becoming the president: one as the dean for five years and the other as the Title III program director for four years. P2 reported

seventeen years of service in three other leadership positions: AIHEC secretary for two years, co-founder and president of the Native American Child Care Center for twelve years, and a member of the Iowa Advisory Commission to the United States Commission on Civil Rights for three years. P5 reported six years of service in other leadership positions: president of the North Dakota Indian Association for two years, AIHEC vice-president for two years, AIHEC president for two years, and member of various tribal committees. P3 reported thirty years of service in other leadership positions: president and/or executive board member of AIHEC for twelve years, assistant superintendent for eight years, high school coach for five years, board member of American Association of Colleges and Junior Colleges (AACJC) for four years, and president of a tribal association for one year. P4 had served as the regional director for a state community college for six years and as the state director of Indian education.

In summary, three presidents had held leadership positions at the national level with AIHEC, and one had served on the board of AACJC. Two had held leadership positions at the tribal government level, and three indicated leadership at the state level. Three also had held leadership positions at the community level, two in their present college, two in the public school district, and one with a child care agency. The total number of years of service reported by all the presidents in other leadership areas was over 66, an average of 9.4 years per president.

In summary, the male presidents of tribally controlled colleges were between the ages of 43 and 46 and were reared on a reservation. In addition, they had served in their positions between 5 and 14 years. The male presidents held master's degrees with their baccalaureate degrees in various areas. Their mothers had completed the second year of high school, and their fathers were school graduates. In addition, the male presidents came from families that were or had been involved in tribal leadership positions, particularly the tribal governing body. In regard to other leadership positions held, male presidents had served at both the local and national level, particularly in the AIHEC.

The female presidents of tribally controlled community colleges were about 39 years of age, were reared on a reservation, and held master's degrees with baccalaureate degrees in education. In addition, they had served in their positions between 1 and 4 years. Their mothers and fathers had completed high school. They also came from families that were or had been involved in tribal leadership positions, particularly the tribal governing body. In regard to other leadership positions held, female presidents had served in positions at the community or local level.

Generally, the president of a tribally chartered and controlled institution is a male near the age of 42 who was reared on a reservation, holds a master's degree, and has served in the position nearly six years. His mother completed two years of high school, and his father was a high school graduate.

In addition, the president came from a family who is or has been involved in tribal leadership positions, particularly the tribal governing body. He has also served in leadership positions at the local and national levels.

The information gleaned from questions 12 through 19 on the Presidents' Questionnaire will be used to respond to research question number 4: What are the leadership patterns exhibited by the Native American presidents of accredited tribally chartered AIHEC institutions in the United States?

The presidents were asked to state their philosophy of leadership for a tribal community college. Their responses were as follows:

- P1: Leadership at a Tribally Controlled Community College must be directed by the values and morals of the tribe which it represents and serves.
- P2 : Teamwork belief and approach,
Always consult with co-workers,
Consultative style,
Respect, honesty, and generosity make a great college environment.
Indian values are incorporated into all leadership areas.
- P3: Leadership should be participatory leadership with all concerned involved in the decision. All decisions need to consider the tribe's culture, beliefs, and way of doing things. The college is developed or established to put Indian culture and history into what is being taught. The leader needs to be open, friendly, humanistic, energetic, and committed to the college with "missionary zeal."
- P4: People are the most significant resource at our school, people are all that matters. We believe in preserving the [tribe named] language, history, and culture.
- P5: My philosophy of leadership is closely related to my personal commitment which strengthens my professional commitment: All serve the [tribe named]. This entails efforts on my part to bring higher

education to tribal members and seeing students succeed. As President, along with my involvement in other tribal activities, I have been able to assist toward the eventual realization of economic self-sufficiency and cultural preservation for the [tribe named] people.

P6: Commitment to the achievement (Empowerment) of Native Americans utilizing the various tribal cultural values as a core for all other academic areas.

P7: Tribal college must meet the needs of the tribal community and citizens it serves. College must produce healthy, vibrant, sober students willing to take on leadership roles.

In summary, four major concepts were addressed by the presidents: leadership, values, tribal culture, and service to both the students and the tribe.

The presidents stressed two main aspects concerning leadership: It must be shared and the leader must consider the tribal culture. Words associated with the type of leadership included "teamwork," "consult," "consultative style," "participatory," and "open, friendly, humanistic, and committed . . . with missionary zeal." Statements made which pertained to the leader being attuned to the tribal culture were "leadership . . . must be directed by the values and morals of the Tribe," "Indian values in all leadership areas," and "consider the Tribe's culture, beliefs, and way of doing things."

The presidents' philosophies involved the concept of values, including respect, generosity, and honesty. They stressed that the people at the college should be valued. "Respect, honesty, and generosity make a great college environment." "People are the most significant resource at our school, people are all that matters."

The presidents' philosophies were related to the concept of tribal culture. The teaching and preservation of language, history, and Indian values were addressed: "The college is developed or established to get Indian values, culture, and history into what is being taught." We use "the various tribal cultural values as a core for all other academic areas." The college "must be directed by the values and morals of the tribe." "Indian values are incorporated into all leadership (areas)." "I have been able to assist toward the . . . cultural preservation" for the tribe.

The fourth concept underlying the presidents' philosophies was service, including meeting the needs of the students and the tribal community. "Tribal college must meet the needs of the tribal community and citizens it serves." "Commitment to the advancement (empowerment) of Native Americans . . ." "I have been able to assist toward the eventual realization of economic self-sufficiency . . ." "Colleges must produce healthy, vibrant, sober students willing to take on leadership roles." "This entails efforts on my part to bring higher education to tribal members and seeing students succeed."

The presidents were asked to report in order of priority the most important goals they had for their institutions. Two of the presidents listed goals related to funding first while two others listed goals related to quality education first. Three goals listed once each pertained to preserving and teaching tribal culture, serving the community, and facility development.

Of the second highest goals listed, two pertained to serving the students, two pertained to the teaching of tribal culture, and one each pertained to funding, quality education, and service to the community. Of the third highest goals listed, three pertained to serving students, two pertained to community service, and one each pertained to employees and facility development.

The three goals stated most often were serving the students (9 times), serving the community (6 times), and securing funding (4 times). The following four goals were each listed three times: the incorporation of tribal culture into the curriculum, offering quality education, improving employee working conditions, and facility development.

The presidents were asked to indicate what they had done in the last year to implement or extend their goals. When responding to this question, the presidents used action words: "offered," "implemented," "provided," "established," "increased," "involved," "contacted," "developed," "recruited," "surveyed," "pursued," and "submitted." The majority of the activities listed by the presidents to attain their goals involved the acquisition of funds. The funds, however, were for two main purposes: facility development and/or improvement and program development.

To summarize, the goals and the activities undertaken by each president to accomplish the goals are presented in illustrations 1 through 7.

P1

<u>Prioritized Goals</u>	<u>Implementation Activity</u>
1. To increase the appreciation and knowledge of tribal culture	1. Provide opportunities for the staff to experience and learn tribal culture
2. To prepare educators for the reservation community	2. Submitted two teacher education proposals.
3. To emphasize and encourage healthy lifestyles in community	3. Offer workshops on healthy lifestyles for tribal members
4. To provide for student training and employability	4. Seek cooperative agreements with four-year institutions

III. 1. Goals and corresponding activities of P1

P2

<u>Prioritized Goals</u>	<u>Implementation Activity</u>
1. To develop a fiscal and institutional ten-year plan	1. Surveyed the college community
2. To develop a student assessment program	2. Implemented a testing program to improve the guidance of the students
3. To increase enrollment	3. Increased enrollment 40% by offering new vocational educational programs
4. To design and implement a staff development program	4. No response
5. To offer baccalaureate programs	5. No response

III. 2. Goals and corresponding activities of P2

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P3

<u>Prioritized Goals</u>	<u>Implementation Activity</u>
1. To maintain quality education	1. Maintain accreditation
2. To establish a sound financial base	2. Increased the endowment to \$4.5 million
3. To develop the college as an outstanding workplace in regard to salaries, benefits and academic freedom	3. Increased employees' salaries by 4%
4. To develop student activities programs in fine arts, athletics, and social events	4. Provided basketball for males, females, and handicapped, held two pow-wows, and developed a fitness center
5. To build facilities for fine arts and athletics	5. Established a fitness center and are presently working on an outdoor athletic field

III. 3. Goals and corresponding activities of P3

P4

<u>Prioritized Goals</u>	<u>Implementation Activity</u>
1. To develop strong teaching and learning programs	1. Involved in establishing new curriculum programs and Bush Foundation activities
2. To develop a strong support service for students	2. Implemented a strong general studies curricula
3. To be of service to the community	3. No response

III. 4. Goals and corresponding activities of P4

P5

<u>Prioritized Goals</u>	<u>Implementation Activity</u>
1. To provide for institutional stability	1. Seek state funding and maintain AIHEC involvement
2. To maintain accreditation	2. Continue the self-study process
3. To pursue adequate facilities	3. Seek funding and cooperation at local, tribal, state, and federal levels
4. To establish investments and endowments	4. Submit the completed proposal to the board for approval
5. To improve working conditions	5. Increased salaries and benefits, developed a staff development policy, and remodeled
6. To improve tribal members' mental and physical health	6. No response

III. 5. Goals and corresponding activities of P5

P6

<u>Prioritized Goals</u>	<u>Implementation Activity</u>
1. To develop the college facility	1. Developed a plan, hired an architect, and submitted a proposal for funding
2. To incorporate Native American culture in all curricular areas	2. Contacted a curriculum consultant on race relations and the incorporation of culture in the curriculum
3. To hire Native American teachers as role models	3. Actively recruit teachers by personal contacts and posting positions in Indian publications

P6--Continued

<u>Prioritized Goals</u>	<u>Implementation Activity</u>
4. To develop an entrepreneurial center	4. Met with various vocational education and grant appropriation agencies on development of center
5. To offer advanced degrees	5. Seek agreements with four-year colleges and funding for telecommunications

III. 6. Goals and corresponding activities of P6

P7

<u>Prioritized Goals</u>	<u>Implementation Activity</u>
1. To serve the community	1. Provide training and technical assistance to tribal programs
2. To preserve tribal culture	2. Offer required courses in tribal culture which would lead to an Associate degree
3. To provide courses which result in employment or transfer for further study	3. Design degree programs for tribal employment and a general studies program for transfer
4. To provide courses that meet the needs of tribal and community employers	4. Develop degree programs or specialized training programs

III. 7. Goals and corresponding activities of P7

The presidents were asked to report their greatest accomplishments. The majority of the accomplishments listed by the presidents pertained to the development and growth of their institutions in terms of students, employees, or buildings. The acquisition of funds for facilities and/or new programs was listed second and the securing of accreditation was third.

The presidents were also asked to list key things they did to facilitate these accomplishments. The activity the presidents listed most often to achieve their accomplishments was the securing of funds. The other activities often listed were the offering of new programs and the developing of public awareness of the institution.

To summarize, the accomplishments and the activities undertaken by each president to attain the accomplishments are presented in illustrations 8 through 13.

P1

<u>Greatest Accomplishments</u>	<u>Implementation Activity</u>
1. Established a positive work environment at the college	1. Communicated open and honestly
2. Maintained a time commitment during a year of change and transition	2. Kept a consistent and planned schedule of activities
3. Provided leadership to parallel knowledge of western education and tribal culture	3. Used tribal rites and tipi for staff meetings

P1--Continued

<u>Greatest Accomplishments</u>	<u>Implementation Activity</u>
4. Represented the college in all community activities; increased state and national awareness of the college	4. Conducted presentations for other educational agencies
5. Provided many avenues for the staff's professional development	5. Worked with staff to develop educational plans

III. 8. Greatest accomplishments and corresponding activities of P1

P2

<u>Greatest Accomplishments</u>	<u>Implementation Activity</u>
1. Tripled the student enrollment	1. Offered new programs of study
2. Stabilized fiscal operations by increasing revenue, established a \$150,000 endowment in three years, and erased the deficit	2. Increased tuition by increasing enrollment, worked with federal and private agencies to obtain funds
3. No response	3. No response
4. Secured state aid for non-Indian students in three years	4. Worked to improve the college's relationship with the state
5. Guided the college through two successful accreditation visits	5. Worked with all employees to organize the college

III. 9. Greatest accomplishments and corresponding activities of P2

153

P3

Greatest Accomplishments

Implementation Activity

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. Attaining and maintaining accreditation | 1. Developed quality educational programs and the funding for them |
| 2. Developing \$4.5 million endowment | 2. Developed a Title III grant for eligibility and raised the \$1 million necessary for matching funding |
| 3. Establishment of a multi-building campus which has no outstanding debt | 3. Established a building fund and used our building trades program to build the campus |
| 4. Growth in enrollment from 50 in 1977 to 863 in winter quarter of 1992 | 4. Established the college as a regional center and worked at publicity |

III. 10. Greatest accomplishments and corresponding activities of P3

P4

Greatest Accomplishments

Implementation Activity

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. Secured \$6.9 million for physical plant | 1. Established a shared vision and worked with the tribe, state, and industry for funding |
| 2. Established the new institution's instructional, student, and fiscal infrastructure | 2. Developed courses which were relevant to the institution and designed the student services program |
| 3. Established a conduit to receive BIA funds which was a challenge | 3. No response |

III. 11. Greatest accomplishments and corresponding activities of P4

154

P5

Greatest Accomplishments

Implementation Activity

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. The role I had in the development of the college | 1. Engaged in public relations, developed policy and procedures, hired staff, and was accountable |
| 2. Attaining institutional accreditation | 2. Developed and implemented the self-study process |
| 3. Successful involvement with federal legislation and annual appropriations | 3. Wrote, appeared, and testified at various times at the federal level |
| 4. Providing access to higher education for Native Americans | 4. Engaged in numerous activities to support and encourage students |

III. 12. Greatest accomplishments and corresponding activities of P5

P7

Greatest Accomplishments

Implementation Activity

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. Attaining financial stability | 1. Balanced the budget and erased the deficit |
| 2. Attaining NCA accreditation | 2. Guided the self-study report and organized the site visit |
| 3. Program development in vocational education, nursing, [tribe named] studies, Robbie community, and adult education | 3. Established the nursing program and Institute of [tribe named] Studies |
| 4. Expansion of the library | 4. Acquired the funds to do the renovation |

III. 13. Greatest accomplishments and corresponding activities of P7

P6 did not respond to these questions on the Presidents' Questionnaire due to the brief time he had spent as president.

The presidents were asked to list in priority order the greatest challenges faced by their institutions in the immediate future. The majority of the responses pertained to funding. Funding was followed by the challenges of establishing adequate or improved facilities and the incorporating of Native American culture into the curriculum.

The presidents were asked how they planned to address these challenges. The activities listed by the presidents to meet the challenges they faced primarily involved finances: budget cutting, securing funding, or seeking funding sources. Financial activity was followed by the incorporation of Native American culture into the curriculum and the establishment of new programs. To summarize, the challenges facing the presidents and the activities they are undertaking to meet these challenges are presented in illustrations 14 through 20.

P1

<u>Greatest Future Challenges</u>	<u>How Challenges Will Be Addressed</u>
1. The development of relevant [tribe named] curricula materials	1. Create syllabi which ensure learning goals and objectives and which include tribal culture
2. The assessment of community needs	2. Conduct the assessment and develop a plan

P1--Continued

<u>Greatest Future Challenges</u>	<u>How Challenges Will Be Addressed</u>
3. The assessment of the child care needs of the students	3. Conduct a survey of the students
4. The establishment of a teacher education program	4. Design and implement a plan
5. The establishment of a community hall	5. Plan with community agencies

III. 14. Greatest future challenges and corresponding activities of P1

P2

<u>Greatest Future Challenges</u>	<u>How Challenges Will Be Addressed</u>
1. The establishment of a reserve fund and continue to increase revenues	1. No response
2. The improvement of of facilities	2. No response
3. The development of a long-range plan (crucial)	3. No response
4. Increasing the salaries of faculty and staff	4. No response

III. 15. Greatest future challenges and corresponding activities of P2

P3

<u>Greatest Future Challenges</u>	<u>How Challenges Will Be Addressed</u>
1. The maintenance of adequate funding	1. Continue to develop the endowment and lobby Congress

P3--Continued

<u>Greatest Future Challenges</u>	<u>How Challenges Will Be Addressed</u>
	to appropriate adequate funding. Seek monies in private and government sectors
2. The development of a plan for funding	2. Lobby the state legislature . . . non-Indian students
3. Keep the culture in step with the Indian people	3. Continue to teach Indian culture to the staff and work with the culture committee

III. 16. Greatest future challenges and corresponding activities of P3

P4

<u>Greatest Future Challenges</u>	<u>How Challenges Will Be Addressed</u>
1. The on-going struggle for funding	1. Cut two administrative positions to balance the budget
2. The meeting of our enrollment targets	2. Attempt to maintain a 20-1 student-teacher ratio
3. The reorganization of the student advisement system	3. Work with student services personnel to develop a new system
4. The reorganization of the administrative structure	4. Review and revise the administrative assignments and the president will become more involved in instructional programming

III. 17. Greatest future challenges and corresponding activities of P4

P5

<u>Greatest Future Challenges</u>	<u>How Challenges Will Be Addressed</u>
1. The maintenance of credibility	1. Be accountable, follow all rules and regulations, maintain student follow-up, public relations, and communications
2. The maintenance of financial stability	2. Continue to lobby Congress, seek limited state support, and develop the endowment
3. The development of adequate facilities for the college	3. Work with local, state, and tribal groups, lobby Congress, draft a needs list, and seek funding
4. The adequate staffing of the college	4. Continue efforts to provide fair salaries and benefits and professional development
5. The maintenance of the focus on tribal culture	5. Implement programs mindful of the college's philosophy, mission, and goals

III. 18. Greatest future challenges and corresponding activities of P5

P6

<u>Greatest Future Challenges</u>	<u>How Challenges Will Be Addressed</u>
1. The funding of the college and the establishment of alternative funding	1. Lobby Congress, build up the endowment, launch a private fund raising campaign
2. The recruitment of students	2. Finish the residence halls and develop a vocational-entrepreneurial curriculum

P6--Continued

<u>Greatest Future Challenges</u>	<u>How Challenges Will Be Addressed</u>
3. The convincing of the faculty of the importance of Native American culture in the curriculum	3. Provide workshops for the faculty on Native American culture. Also evaluate and work for a culturally relevant curriculum

III. 19. Greatest future challenges and corresponding activities of P6

P7

<u>Greatest Future Challenges</u>	<u>How Challenges Will Be Addressed</u>
1. The attainment of a stable funding process	1. Work with congressional and BIA representatives
2. The acquiring of funds from foundation and private parties for programs and endowment	2. Establish personal contact with donors
3. The ensuring that students receive a quality education	3. Establish a process to provide for the ongoing evaluation of programs and degrees
4. The increasing of student scholarships	4. Seek funds from a variety of sources
5. The establishment of a staff development program which provides for specialized training and advanced degrees	5. Determine the staff needs and seek funding sources

III. 20. Greatest future challenges and corresponding activities of P7

Finally, the presidents were asked what advice they had for new tribal college presidents. The willingness of the presidents to share their knowledge with new presidents was evident in their responses:

- P1: The values and morals of [the] tribe must be reflected in your administration to have long-term success in the tribal college.
- P2: Thoroughly know the institutional mission statement. Hold the "Vision." The Beauty of our people, everything for our people. Be able to do a lot with very little. Have a lot of energy. Center yourself, have a strong spirituality.
- P3: Become very knowledgeable in all the areas involved in the college. Be ready to serve students in a humanistic way. Be willing to work hard and still maintain good health habits. Be a positive role model for students.
- P4: Life is not easy, everybody wants you to do something for them. Your time is always asked of. It's a great job, however, extraordinary in challenges and energy. Be kind, thoughtful, and always err on the side of people.
- P5: Work with the tribal political structure--not against individuals; honor individuals; honor and respect the individual interests of others and their needs--either individually or in their workplace; be honest, fair, consistent. Be clear in portraying your vision and in communicating your direction. Be accountable and remain legal!
- P6: Buy a pair of rollerskates!! Seriously, they should watch budget and funding closely; delegate with a timeframe attached and establish and maintain a good tickler system.
- P7: Establish contact with other tribal college presidents, utilize their experiences and expertise. Have your staff network with staff at other tribal colleges.

The presidents' advice included four main concepts: leadership, networking, service, and funding. The leadership concept had three aspects: leadership in general, the vision, and the leader's personal characteristics.

Leadership in general involved the ability to respect and cooperate with tribal governments and individuals, to delegate, to reflect the values and morals of the tribe, to be accountable, to be knowledgeable, to be consistent, and to be a positive role model. Leadership vision addressed a shared vision, the ability to communicate direction and clearly portray the vision, and the ability to know and implement the mission statement. The personal characteristics needed by the leader were honesty, fairness, kindness, energy, creativity, thoughtfulness, strong work ethic, strong spirituality, and good health.

The concept of networking with other colleges, other faculty, industry, governments, agencies, and other presidents was stressed by the presidents. The service aspect had two parts: to serve the tribe and to serve the students in a humanistic manner. The challenge of funding was pervasive throughout all responses to the questionnaire.

Data from the Presidents' Questionnaire were synthesized to answer research question number 4: What are the leadership patterns exhibited by the Native American presidents of accredited tribally chartered AIHEC institutions in the United States?

Because the presidents all came from families that had experienced leadership, they had grown up knowing the roles and responsibilities of leadership. Family members had been in the higher echelons of tribal society, providing strong role models for the presidents. Therefore, the presidents had

probably been more aware of opportunities and information which might have advanced their education and careers.

The presidents seemed to have been willing to take the initiative and to accept leadership positions. The number and type of leadership and service positions held by the presidents indicated that they had been service oriented throughout their careers. This finding would verify the high rating the presidents received in the LBDQ-12 subscale of Initiating Structure. The presidents seemed to have been able to direct their followers to accomplish institutional goals, thereby enhancing the followers' and their own positions in the community.

The presidents appeared to believe strongly in consulting with their followers. They advocated consultative, participatory, and a shared decision making type of leadership. Phrases used were "teamwork belief and approach," "always consult with co-workers," "leadership should be participatory leadership with all concerned involved in the decision," "the leader needs to be open, friendly, humanistic, energetic, and committed to the college with 'missionary zeal.'" These responses contradict the relatively low score the presidents received on the LBDQ-12 subscale of Consideration from the faculty members and administrative staff members.

The presidents' leadership philosophy statements lend credence to the presidents' high score on the LBDQ-12 subscale of Tolerance of Freedom.

In Tolerance of Freedom, the leader's role is to encourage the initiative of the group.

The presidents' all chose similar goals for their institutions. These goals supported the presidents' leadership philosophies which pertained to serving the students and the community, the preservation and teaching of tribal culture, and the values of respect, honesty, and generosity toward people.

Most activities for attaining the presidents' goals concerned the acquisition of funds for program or facility development. These activities verified their high ratings on the LBDQ-12 dimensions of Superior Orientation and Persuasion.

The majority of the presidents' responses about the development and growth of their institutions were in terms of students, employees, or facilities. Growth had been achieved through the acquisition of funds for new or improved programs of study or facilities and the attainment of accreditation. The accomplishments of the presidents readily supported their high scores on the LBDQ-12 dimensions of Initiating Structure, Persuasion, and Superior Orientation. The presidents seemed able to convince followers to accept their ideas, establish standards, and push followers to accomplish goals, thereby enhancing the followers' and their own positions in the community.

The challenges faced by all presidents involved problems related to lack of funds. The challenges listed by the presidents appear to verify the high scores they received on the LBDQ-12 dimensions of Superior

Orientation and Initiating Structure. The presidents seemed able to direct the employees to the attainment of goals, thereby enhancing the followers' and their own positions in the community.

The seven presidents were also similar in their advice to new or aspiring presidents of tribal institutions. The four concepts mentioned were leadership, networking, service, and funding. They stressed serving the students and the community in a humanistic manner, working with other tribal colleges, and being aware of finances.

The data from the study were presented in this chapter. Chapter five will examine the findings of this study. Also included will be a summary, conclusions, and recommendations for further study.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Chapter five presents a summary of the study and a discussion of the findings. The chapter also presents the conclusions of the study and recommendations for further study.

Summary of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the leadership of the Native Americans who were presidents of accredited tribally chartered institutions in the United States. These institutions were members of the American Indian Higher Education Consortium (AIHEC). A secondary purpose was to develop a description of the typical Native American president of an accredited tribally chartered AIHEC institution to determine their leadership patterns and techniques. The presidents' self-perceptions, along with the perceptions of their faculty members, administrative staff members, and board members, were obtained through the use of the LBDQ-12. The presidents also were asked to respond to a Presidents' Questionnaire specifically developed for this study. This questionnaire collected biographical, educational, and administrative data. The data from the instruments were used to develop a

descriptive leadership profile and to determine leadership patterns of the seven American Indian college presidents. Four research questions were designed to guide the study. Seven presidents, eighteen faculty members, twenty-one administrative staff members, and eleven board members comprised the sample for this study.

The LBDQ-12 data were analyzed with assistance from the Bureau of Educational Services and Applied Research at the University of North Dakota. Through the use of the SPSSX computer program, the data were analyzed by comparing the means of the four groups on each of the twelve LBDQ-12 subscales through the use of three statistical tests: Fisher's Least Significant Difference Test, One-Way Analysis of Variance, and the Multiple Range Test. Fisher's Least Significant Difference Test was selected due to its applicability to small samples. One-Way Analysis of Variance determined significant differences at the .05 level among the perceptions of the four groups. When significant differences were found, the Multiple Range Test determined among which groups the differences existed. The data from the Presidents' Questionnaire were analyzed using deductive reasoning and searching for similarities, differences, patterns, and techniques in the presidents' leadership behavior.

Discussion of the Findings

The analysis of the data resulted in the following findings for the four research questions. In this section, the research question is stated, findings which pertain to that question are presented, and a discussion follows.

Question 1-A: What are the self-perceived leadership behaviors of the Native American presidents of accredited tribally chartered AIHEC institutions in the United States?

In the Initiating Structure categories, the presidents perceived themselves as high in Persuasiveness and Initiation of Structure and low in Representation. In the Consideration categories, they perceived themselves as high in Tolerance of Freedom and Consideration and low in Demand Reconciliation, Predictive Accuracy, and Integration.

The presidents tended to have a good balance between Initiating Structure and Consideration. Of their low areas, only one, Representation, was in the category of Initiation of Structure while the remaining three were in Consideration. Thus, the presidents seemed to emphasize Structure to the detriment of Consideration, which may negatively affect their leadership. The presidents should attempt to further develop their leadership behaviors in the area of Consideration. According to Finch (1977), employee-oriented leadership results in superior outcomes in terms of productivity and employee satisfaction. Argyris, too, maintained that an organization is more effective

when its leaders enable the followers to grow through the development of their creativity and self-expression to accomplish the organizational goals.

The presidents perceived themselves low in Representation, Demand Reconciliation, Predictive Accuracy, and Integration, behaviors which are counterparts to the areas Bee (1979) found to be troublesome to the Quechan tribal president of a modern Indian reservation. The quandary for the tribal president is that he or she is bound to most of the constituents. The same would be true for the college presidents, particularly if they are serving on their own reservations. They are caught, as Auclair (1968) maintained, between tradition and modernity, resulting in a loss of their sense of obligation to relatives.

The Representation area in which the presidents perceived themselves to be low may also be related to the findings of Isaac (1980). He found that tribal college presidents were torn between the Indian community and their college duties and the pressure to serve as the Indian spokesperson.

The Demand Reconciliation area in which the presidents perceived themselves as low may be related to the findings of Badwound (1990). The presidents feel obligated to preserve and promote tribal culture. However, almost every Indian tribe finds this concept exceptionally difficult to define. Thus, the president has a difficult time integrating or developing a cohesive group due to the differing concepts of tribal culture and extended family relationships. The lack of finances exacerbates the problem for the presidents, even in developing or promoting tribal culture as part of the curriculum.

Question 1-B: What are the perceptions of selected faculty members regarding the leadership behavior of the Native American presidents at accredited tribally chartered AIHEC institutions in the United States?

The faculty members perceived the presidents to be high in Tolerance of Freedom, Initiation of Structure, Persuasiveness, and Superior Orientation, which is the ability to enhance both the position of the group and oneself with superiors. The faculty members perceived the presidents to be low in Integration, Predictive Accuracy, Demand Reconciliation, and Representation.

The perceptions of the presidents and faculty members were congruent except that the presidents saw themselves high in Consideration while the faculty members perceived them as moderate in Consideration. The high rating in Consideration by the presidents themselves is validated by their comments in the Presidents' Questionnaire. They stated that they value people and are seeking better working conditions for the employees. These two actions are subjective and difficult to convey to people who may have different expectations. The funding problems inherent in the tribal college presidency may inhibit the presidents from exhibiting as much consideration toward their employees as they or the employees would like even though the presidents value it.

The high rating of the presidents by the faculty members in the area of Superior Orientation is a strength upon which the presidents can build. As they

enhance the college's position, the presidents would create an upward spiral which would positively affect all persons involved with the tribal college.

Question 1-C: What are the perceptions of selected administrative staff members regarding the leadership behavior of the Native American presidents at accredited tribally chartered AIHEC institutions in the United States?

The administrative staff members perceived the presidents to be high in Tolerance of Freedom, Persuasiveness, and Superior Orientation, with a tie between Initiation of Structure and Consideration. The administrative staff members perceived the presidents to be low in Integration, Predictive Accuracy, Demand Reconciliation, and Representation.

The congruence of the perceptions of their faculty members and administrative staff members with the perceptions of the presidents validates the perceptions of the followers. This congruence also suggests that tribal college faculty members and administrative staff members are a rather homogeneous group.

Question 1-D: What are the perceptions of selected board members regarding the leadership behavior of the Native American presidents at accredited tribally chartered AIHEC institutions in the United States?

The board members perceived the presidents to be high in Initiation of Structure, Consideration, Persuasiveness, and Tolerance of Freedom. The board members perceived the presidents to be low in Predictive Accuracy,

Integration, Representation, and Demand Reconciliation. The congruency of the perceptions of the board members and presidents validates the perceptions of each group. This congruence suggests that tribal college board members and presidents are a rather homogeneous group.

In summary, the four groups agreed in their rankings of Tolerance of Freedom, Initiation of Structure, and Persuasiveness as the highest leadership behaviors of the presidents. Three groups perceived Consideration to be among the four highest, but the faculty members rated Superior Orientation among the top four. The administrative staff members also included Superior Orientation among the top four, ranking it above Consideration. The high ratings of the presidents in the top three dimensions appears to be verified by the presidents' responses to the Presidents' Questionnaire when they emphasized the goals of establishment of new programs of study, service to the students, and service to the community.

Consideration refers to the leader's ability to exhibit respect and sensitivity toward the group and its individual members. The responses of the presidents concerning their philosophy of leadership indicated the necessity of being open, friendly, and humanistic. Also, several of the presidents indicated that they were seeking better working conditions, salaries, fringe benefits, and staff development programs. Although the faculty members and administrative staff members did not rate the presidents exceptionally low in Consideration,

some disagreement exists in regard to the sensitivity and respect the presidents exhibit toward their followers.

The high rating of the presidents concerning Tolerance of Freedom indicates that the faculty members and administrative staff members are treated similarly to college faculty members and administrative staff members in mainstream American society. For example, faculty members are afforded classroom autonomy. Administrative staff members are hired to perform specific functions and are given leeway in deciding how they will attain their goals.

Initiation of Structure is the ability to maintain definite performance standards and encourage the followers to attain the organizational goals. Because tribal colleges are a relatively new phenomenon, perhaps most employees have been with the college from its inception and the faculty members and staff members agree with the college mission and philosophy of service to the students and the community.

Low ratings of the presidents by all the groups were in the dimensions of Predictive Accuracy, Demand Reconciliation, Integration, and Representation. These ratings are verified by Bee's (1979) article "To Get Something for the People," in which he addressed the complex and conflicting demands placed on tribal leaders. The Carnegie Report (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching 1989) also lends credence to the low ratings in Predictive Accuracy because it stressed the uncertainty of the tribal colleges' funding. The work of Bell, Hill, and Wright (1961) verified the low rating in

Representation. They maintained that the "typical leader" of American ethnic subpopulations is impossible to portray because of the different types of leadership functions which call for different types of leaders.

The fact that the four groups were in strong agreement concerning their perceptions of the presidents' leadership behaviors does not match the findings of Hemphill and Coons (1957). They maintained that leaders tend to value or describe their own behavior differently than do their followers.

Question 2-A: What are the similarities and differences in the self-perceived leadership behaviors among the Native American presidents of accredited tribally chartered AIHEC institutions in the United States?

Fisher's Least Significant Difference Test was used to determine significant differences in the self-perceptions of the presidents' leadership behavior according to the LBDQ-12. The presidents agreed only in their self-perception of Representation and Integration. The presidents' perceptions differed significantly on the remaining ten of the twelve LBDQ-12 dimensions: Initiation of Structure, Persuasiveness, Production Emphasis, Role Assumption, Superior Orientation, Consideration, Predictive Accuracy, Demand Reconciliation, Tolerance of Freedom, and Tolerance of Uncertainty. The differences in self-perception by the presidents may stem from the problem of ethnic leadership addressed by Bell, Hill, and Wright (1961) and the periphery theory of ethnic leadership proposed by Lewin (1948).

Bell, Hill, and Wright maintained that the "typical" leader in American ethnic subpopulations is impossible to portray because different leadership functions are needed depending on the group with which the "leader" is interacting--the leader's ethnic group or the larger American community. Lewin noted that if ethnic leaders desire status in the larger American community, they must disassociate themselves from the minority group. Thus, ethnic leaders are on the periphery of the ethnic group because they are associated with the American majority. Yet, they are on the periphery of the larger American community because of their ethnic background. Consequently, they may be called upon for leadership functions but are not able to fulfill minority leadership roles.

Differences between the perceptions of recently appointed presidents and more experienced presidents were found. These differences could be the result of the time needed for presidents to adjust, grow into, and understand the role of the college president. Three of the presidents were the founding presidents and understood the college presidency and its leadership requirements. Two of the presidents had served less than one year and may still be in the process of defining their roles and adjusting to the needs of the followers, the boards, and the institutions.

Question 2-B: What are the differences between the Native American presidents' self-perception of their leadership behaviors and the perceptions of the faculty members regarding the president's leadership behavior?

The perceptions of the presidents and the faculty differed in two respects:

1. The presidents perceived themselves to be high in Consideration whereas the faculty members did not.
2. The faculty members perceived the presidents to be high in Superior Orientation whereas the presidents did not.

The faculty members likely would appreciate the presidents exhibiting more sensitivity. Yet, the financial demands placed on the presidents and the struggle to define tribal culture may negatively affect the perception of the faculty members about the president's Consideration. Superior Orientation, as stated previously, is a strength upon which the presidents could build to enhance the image of the college and those involved with it.

Question 2-C: What are the differences between the Native American presidents' self-perception of their leadership behavior and the perceptions of the administrative staff regarding the president's leadership behavior?

The perceptions of the presidents and the administrative staff members differed in two respects:

1. The presidents perceived themselves to be high in Consideration whereas the administrative staff members did not.
2. The administrative staff members perceived the presidents to be high in Superior Orientation whereas the presidents did not.

As followers, the perceptions of the administrative staff members were in close agreement with the faculty members. Both differed with the presidents' perceptions concerning Consideration and Superior Orientation.

Question 2-D: What are the differences between the Native American presidents' self-perception of their leadership behavior and the perceptions of the members of the board regarding the president's leadership behavior?

There were no significant differences between the self-perceptions of the presidents and the perceptions of the board members concerning the leadership behavior of the presidents. This finding suggests that the presidents and the board members are a rather homogeneous group in terms of the governance of tribal colleges. Perhaps the board members tend to hire like-minded persons. Another factor may be that the presidents are more attentive to board members as their employers than to the faculty members and administrative staff members as their employees.

Question 3: What is the prototypic description of a Native American president of an accredited tribally chartered AIHEC institution in the United States?

The "typical" president of a tribal college is a male near the age of 42 who was reared on the reservation. He has earned a master's degree and has served as college president for nearly six years. His mother completed two years of high school while his father was a high school graduate. He came from a family who is or has been involved in tribal leadership positions, particularly

on the tribal governing body. He has served in leadership positions at the local and national levels. According to Bell, Hill, and Wright (1961), factors such as background and education may have contributed to the presidents' national leadership positions along with the fact that they are members of a minority group and have exhibited the leadership ability to accomplish goals.

The "typical" American Indian college president differs from the "typical" non-Indian college president, according to the findings of Green (1988). The "typical" college president is white, male, 53 years old, has been in his position seven years, and holds a doctoral degree.

Question 4: What are the leadership patterns exhibited by the Native American presidents of accredited tribally chartered AIHEC institutions in the United States?

Several leadership patterns of American Indians who are presidents of tribal community colleges were identified through this study:

1. The presidents descend from families who have a history of tribal leadership.
2. They possess the ability to direct followers to accomplish goals as exhibited by the number and types of leadership positions held prior to their appointment as president.
3. They believe in a consultative leadership style even if they may not practice it as much as followers would like.

4. Their goals for their various institutions are similar.
5. They exert most of their energy seeking funding for new programs and/or facilities for their colleagues.
6. They face similar challenges for their various institutions.
7. They are in close agreement on leadership philosophies--service to students and community and preservation of tribal culture by incorporating it throughout the college's curriculum.
8. They experience difficulty with representing the group (Representation).
9. They experience difficulty with analyzing and reconciling complex situations (Demand Reconciliation).
10. They experience difficulty in anticipating and planning responses to problems in their reservation environment (Predictive Accuracy). Factors which cause this difficulty may be the conflict between traditional and modern values and the time spent seeking funds.
11. They experience difficulty with maintaining a cohesive and coordinated work group (Integration).
12. They possess the ability to maintain definite performance standards and to encourage the group to accomplish the college's goals (Initiation of Structure).

13. They possess the ability to convince the followers that their ideas are best for the organization and the group (Persuasiveness).
14. They possess the ability to respect and to encourage initiative in their followers (Tolerance of Freedom).
15. They possess the ability to enhance the position of both the followers and themselves (Superior Orientation).

Neumann and Bensimon (1990) explored the leadership patterns of college presidents. They identified four types of presidents who lead certain types of institutions. The Native American college presidents appear to be Type C college presidents, according to Neumann and Bensimon's classification, because Type C college presidents generally lead institutions which are facing financial crises. They tend to believe that their institution's existence is at stake and are more likely to be reactive rather than taking the initiative. They stress the need for credibility and the need to reposition the college in the eyes of the students, board, and benefactors. In the current study the two individuals who have served the longest as college presidents stressed the need for improving their college's credibility and for repositioning their colleges. The newness of the tribal colleges as institutions of higher education indicate that they are still largely engaged in the struggle to survive. As program stability and financial security are achieved, the presidents who are Type C will likely yield to leaders with other types of behavior.

Conclusions

Based on the findings of this study, the following conclusions appear to be appropriate:

1. The perceptions of Native American presidents of tribal colleges are similar to the perceptions of the faculty members, administrative staff members, and board members as to the leadership behavior of the presidents.
2. Native American presidents of tribal colleges balance the categories of Initiating Structure and Consideration in relationship to their followers.
3. Native American presidents of tribal colleges spend a large portion of their time seeking funding for their colleges.
4. Native American presidents of tribal colleges are dedicated to incorporating tribal culture in the institution's curriculum but struggle with how to accomplish its goal.
5. Native American presidents of tribal colleges believe that the primary purpose of their institution is to serve the tribal community and their students as well as preserving and teaching their particular tribal culture.
6. Native American presidents of tribal colleges and their faculty members differ in their perceptions of the presidents' leadership behavior in regard to Consideration with the presidents

perceiving themselves as high on this subscale and faculty members perceiving the presidents as moderate on this subscale.

7. Native American presidents of tribal colleges are similar in their perceptions of their leadership behaviors of Representation and Integration.
8. Native American presidents of tribal colleges vary significantly in their perceptions of their leadership behaviors of Demand Reconciliation, Tolerance of Uncertainty, Persuasiveness, Initiation of Structure, Tolerance of Freedom, Role Assumption, Consideration, Production Emphasis, Predictive Accuracy, and Superior Orientation.
9. Native American presidents of tribal colleges agree with the board members in their perception of all leadership behaviors of the presidents.
10. Faculty members and administrative staff members of tribal colleges are congruent in their perceptions of the leadership behaviors of their presidents. They view the presidents as lacking in Consideration yet strong in Superior Orientation.

Implications

Due to the findings and conclusions of this study, the following implications can be stated:

1. The presidents of tribal colleges struggle to maintain their role and position.
2. The presidents of tribal colleges have internal and external constituencies which result in conflicting demands.
3. The presidents of tribal colleges are inundated with funding problems which result in an unpredictable, unstable college environment.
4. Tribal college presidents experience culture conflict as they attempt to blend traditionalism and modernization.
5. Through the promotion of their institutions, the presidents can build on the strengths of their colleges.
6. Tribal culture is essential but difficult to infuse in tribal colleges.
7. Service to the tribal community is the paramount mission of tribal colleges.
8. The faculty members would prefer that the presidents exhibit more consideration; however, the unstable financial situation of the colleges tends to inhibit the presidents' ability to satisfy this need.

9. The tribal colleges appear to operate with the same freedoms which are peculiar to institutions of higher education.
10. The governing boards of tribal colleges seem to hire persons with similar leadership behaviors.

Limitations

The following limitations apply to the findings of this study:

1. The sample size of the Native American presidents of accredited tribal colleges with membership in AIHEC in the United States was very small.
2. The LBDQ-12 questionnaire has no record of validity with American Indian leaders or in the American Indian culture.
3. Empirical research of American Indian leaders is very scarce.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations appear to be appropriate:

1. This study should be conducted with a larger sample of Native American community college presidents using the same methodology in order to allow more generalization and validation of the findings.
2. A similar study should be conducted with other Native American leaders such as tribal chairpersons and tribal school

administrators to determine if there is a generalizable description of American Indian leaders.

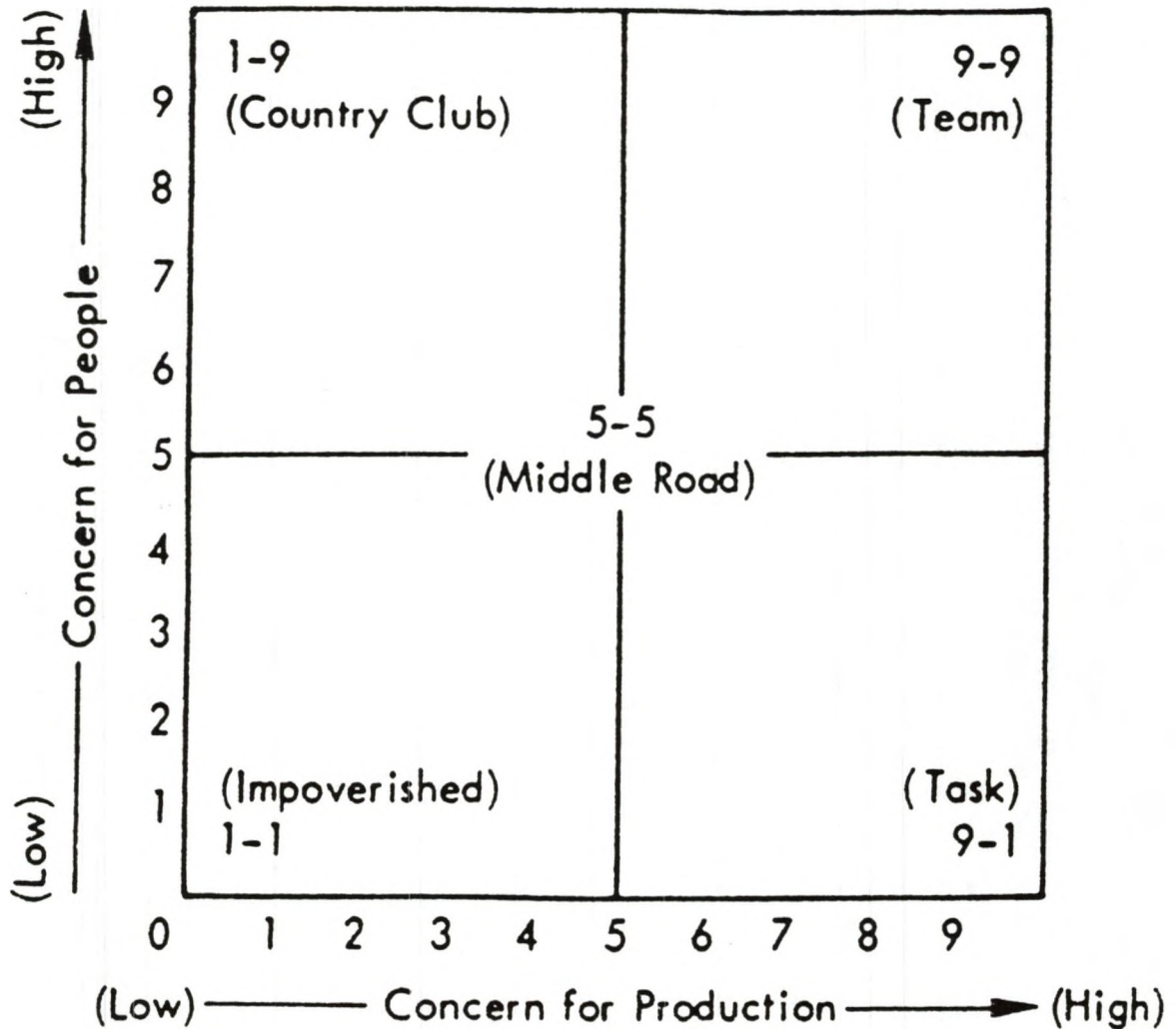
3. A similar study should be conducted using other leadership assessment instruments (e.g., Hersey and Blanchard's Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description and Fiedler's Least Preferred Co-Worker) in order to validate the findings.
4. A similar study should be conducted to do a cross analysis using other variables such as gender, reservation background, founding presidents, etc.
5. AIHEC should adopt a policy to encourage and support leadership and other research in tribally chartered and controlled institutions.
6. Presidents of tribally controlled institutions should strive to determine their own leadership behaviors and adapt their behaviors to the needs of their organizations and their followers and balance this leadership behavior by seeking administrative team members who can balance their leadership behaviors.
7. Major universities should develop leadership programs specifically for Native Americans who serve on Indian reservations with emphasis on courses in leadership in Indian

education, finance, development, and administrative internship programs.

8. Other colleges and universities should seek to strengthen tribal colleges through establishing cooperative programs, professor exchange programs, curriculum articulation agreements, and sharing of such resources as libraries and student services in order to improve the opportunities in higher education for Native American students and to provide better transfer opportunities for graduates of the tribal colleges. Support of the tribal colleges would demonstrate a commitment to cultural diversity.
8. To infuse the tribal culture into the college curriculum, American Indian colleges should emulate church-related institutions of higher education. Tribal culture should permeate every aspect of the tribal college curriculum and student life in the same manner that religious doctrine permeates the curriculum and student life of church-related colleges.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
MANAGERIAL GRID



Source: Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources, 5th ed. (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1988), p. 100.

APPENDIX B

SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP MODEL

TASK BEHAVIOR—

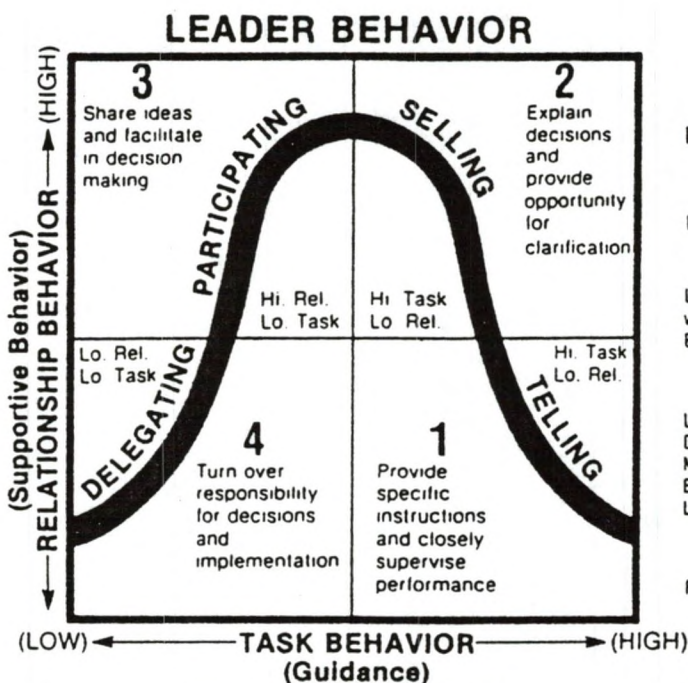
The extent to which the leader engages in defining roles telling what, how, when, where, and if more than one person, who is to do what in

- Goal-Setting
- Organizing
- Establishing Time Lines
- Directing
- Controlling

RELATIONSHIP BEHAVIOR—

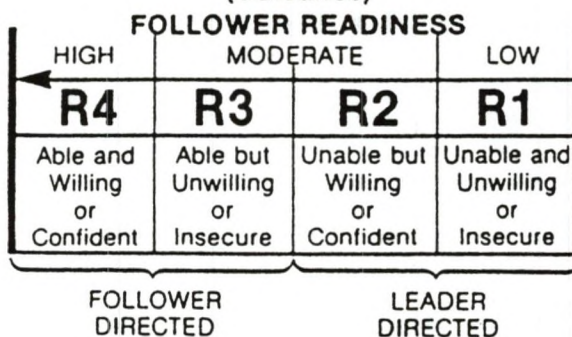
The extent to which a leader engages in two-way (multi-way) communication, listening, facilitating behaviors, socioemotional support

- Giving Support
- Communicating
- Facilitating Interactions
- Active Listening
- Providing Feedback



DECISION STYLES

- 1**
Leader-Made Decision
- 2**
Leader-Made Decision with Dialogue and/or Explanation
- 3**
Leader/Follower-Made Decision or Follower-Made Decision with Encouragement from Leader
- 4**
Follower-Made Decision



ABILITY has the necessary knowledge, experience and skill

WILLINGNESS has the necessary confidence, commitment, motivation

When a Leader Behavior is used appropriately with its corresponding level of readiness, it is termed a High Probability Match. The following are descriptors that can be useful when using Situational Leadership for specific applications:

S1

- Telling
- Guiding
- Directing
- Establishing

S2

- Selling
- Explaining
- Clarifying
- Persuading

S3

- Participating
- Encouraging
- Collaborating
- Committing

S4

- Delegating,
- Observing
- Monitoring
- Fulfilling

Source: Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources, 5th ed. (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1988), p. 182.

APPENDIX C

THE PRESIDENTS' QUESTIONNAIRE

BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

1) AGE: _____ 2) SEX: _____ 3) NO. YEARS IN PRESENT POSITION _____

4) WHAT IS YOUR TRIBAL AFFILIATION? _____

5) WERE YOU REARED ON AN INDIAN RESERVATION? Yes _____ No _____

6) IF NO, WHERE? _____
City State

7) WHAT IS THE HIGHEST GRADE LEVEL YOUR MOTHER COMPLETED? _____

8) WHAT IS THE HIGHEST GRADE LEVEL YOUR FATHER COMPLETED? _____

9) HAVE ANY MEMBERS OF YOUR FAMILY EVER SERVED IN OR ARE THEY CURRENTLY SERVING IN TRIBAL LEADERSHIP POSITIONS? IF YES, PLEASE INDICATE THE RELATIONSHIP (GRANDFATHER, GRANDMOTHER, FATHER, MOTHER, BROTHER, SISTER, UNCLE, AUNT, FIRST COUSIN) AND THE POSITION HELD.

RELATIONSHIP

POSITION

10) WHAT **OTHER** LEADERSHIP POSITIONS HAVE YOU HELD?

ORGANIZATION

POSITION

NO. OF YRS.

EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND:

11) INSTITUTION CITY MAJOR/MINOR DEGREE GRAD. DATE

ADMINISTRATIVE INFORMATION

12) BRIEFLY STATE YOUR PHILOSOPHY OF LEADERSHIP FOR A TRIBAL COMMUNITY COLLEGE.

13) IN ORDER OF PRIORITY, WHAT ARE THE MOST IMPORTANT GOALS YOU HAVE FOR THE INSTITUTION AT WHICH YOU NOW SERVE?

#1. _____

#2. _____

#3. _____

#4. _____

#5. _____

14) WHAT HAVE YOU DONE IN THE LAST YEAR TO IMPLEMENT OR EXTEND THESE GOALS? (HAVE #1 CORRESPOND WITH #1 ABOVE, #2 WITH # 2 ABOVE, ETC.)

#1. _____

#2. _____

#3. _____

#4. _____

#5. _____

15) IN ORDER OF PRIORITY, WHAT ARE YOUR GREATEST ACCOMPLISHMENTS AS PRESIDENT OF THIS INSTITUTION?

#1. _____

#2. _____

#3. _____

#4. _____

#5. _____

16) WHAT WERE THE KEY THINGS YOU DID TO FACILITATE THESE ACCOMPLISHMENTS? (Have #1 correspond with #1 above, #2 with #2 above, etc.)

#1. _____

#2. _____

#3. _____

#4. _____

#5. _____

17) IN ORDER OF PRIORITY, WHAT ARE THE GREATEST CHALLENGES
YOUR INSTITUTION FACES IN THE IMMEDIATE FUTURE?

#1. _____

#2. _____

#3. _____

#4. _____

#5. _____

18) HOW WILL YOU ADDRESS THESE CHALLENGES? (Have #1 correspond with #1 above, #2 with #2 above, etc.)

#1. _____

#2. _____

#3. _____

#4. _____

#5. _____

19) WHAT ADVICE DO YOU HAVE FOR NEW TRIBAL COLLEGE PRESIDENTS?

You have my permission to use direct quotes from my responses to assist in the analysis of the data for your dissertation and in professional journal publications.

Signature

Date

APPENDIX D

LETTER REQUESTING PERMISSION

U N I V E R S I T Y O F  N O R T H D A K O T A

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION
PHONE NUMBER (701) 777-4255
FAX NUMBER (701) 777-4365

CENTER FOR TEACHING AND LEARNING
BOX 8158, UNIVERSITY STATION
GRAND FORKS, NORTH DAKOTA 58202

723 Third Street NW
East Grand Forks, MN 56721
February 23, 1992

Ms. Arlene Robinson
Business Research
Ohio State University College of Business
1775 College Road
Columbus, OH 43201

Dear Ms. Robinson:

I am a doctoral student in Educational Administration at the University of North Dakota in the Center for Teaching and Learning. Dr. Don Lemon is directing my dissertation research. I believe he talked with you by telephone recently to get prices for the instruments and the correct address of your office. My research is tentatively entitled "Leadership Analysis of American Indian Presidents of Accredited Tribally Chartered Community Colleges."

The research requires the collection of self-perception and perception data from the Native American presidents and members of their faculty, staff, and board. I have determined that the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire-Form XII (LBDQ-XII) would be the best instrument for gathering the pertinent information about their leadership. I request permission to use this copyrighted instrument for this study.

In anticipation of a favorable response to the request, enclosed is a check in the amount of \$46.00 to cover the cost of a package of 100 instruments (\$30.00) and postage costs (\$16.00). Please send the instruments and the manual to assist with the interpretation of the findings to Verna Fowler, 723 Third Street NW, East Grand Forks, MN 56721.

Thank you for your help in this matter.

Sincerely,

Verna Fowler, Doctoral Student
Educational Administration
University of North Dakota

APPENDIX E

LETTER GRANTING PERMISSION



Business Research ~~Support Center~~

College of Business
1775 College Road
Columbus, OH 43210-1309
Phone 614-292-9300 5031
FAX 614-292-1651

February 28, 1992

Ms. Verna Fowler
Doctoral Student
Educational Administration
University of North Dakota
723 Third Street NW
East Grand Forks, MN 56721

Dear Ms. Fowler:

We grant you permission to use the **Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire - Form XII** as part of your doctoral research. We do not grant permission to modify or duplicate this instrument. Please follow the guidelines on the attached Statement of Policy.

Enclosed is your order for 100 copies of **LBDQ-XII** along with its scoring manual.

Sincerely yours,

John M. Mills, Director
Administration and Budget

ahr

enclosures

APPENDIX F

PRESIDENTS TELEPHONE PROTOCOL

**COMMUNITY COLLEGE
PRESIDENTIAL CONTACTS**

1. Introduction
2. Purpose of the Call
3. Explanation of the Study
4. Assurance of Confidentiality
5. Time Required
6. Request Participation
7. If Approved, Identify Contact Person

APPENDIX G

FOLLOW-UP LETTER TO PRESIDENTS

U N I V E R S I T Y O F  N O R T H D A K O T A

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION
PHONE NUMBER (701) 777-4255
FAX NUMBER (701) 777-4365

CENTER FOR TEACHING AND LEARNING
BOX 8158, UNIVERSITY STATION
GRAND FORKS, NORTH DAKOTA 58202

February 1992

Letter to be sent as a follow-up to
phone conversation with the Presidents

Inside Address

Dear _____:

Thank you for agreeing to be a participant in my study. Your participation is important to the study and to the discovery of more about the leadership of American Indians.

Let me assure you again about confidentiality. The information gathered will be reported in ways that will not identify you or your institution individually.

Enclosed you will find a copy of the LBDQ XII and a Questionnaire which I developed. The LBDQ XII should not take more than twenty minutes to complete and the Questionnaire will take about the same amount of time. When you have completed these two instruments, please put them in the stamped, enclosed self-addressed envelope and mail them to me. This activity will complete your contribution to the study. Please assist me by returning the two instruments quickly.

I have contacted your Academic Dean and made arrangements for the participation of faculty, administrative staff, and Board members. I believe the data from these individuals to be returned to me quickly also. This will facilitate the completion of my study within the time I have available.

If you want a summary of the study please write in your name and address on the enclosed preaddressed, stamped post card. If you have any questions please call me at (218) 773-3731. Thank you very much for your assistance!

Sincerely,

Verna Fowler

Enclosures:

APPENDIX H

CONTACT PERSON TELEPHONE PROTOCOL

**COMMUNITY COLLEGE
ACADEMIC DEAN**

1. Introduction
2. Purpose of the Call
3. Presidential Commitment
4. Explanation of the Study
5. Procedures to Be Followed
6. Assurance of Confidentiality
7. Time Required
8. Secure Cooperation
9. Gather the Data

APPENDIX I

FOLLOW-UP LETTER TO CONTACT PERSON

U N I V E R S I T Y O F  N O R T H D A K O T A

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION
PHONE NUMBER (701) 777-4255
FAX NUMBER (701) 777-4365

CENTER FOR TEACHING AND LEARNING
BOX 8158, UNIVERSITY STATION
GRAND FORKS, NORTH DAKOTA 58202

February 1992

Letter to be sent as a follow-up to
phone conversation with the Academic Deans

Inside Address

Dear _____:

Thank you for agreeing to assist in gathering data for my study. Your assistance is critical to the completion of my study in the time I have available.

Let me assure you again about confidentiality. Please let the respondents know that the information gathered will be reported in ways that will not identify them or their institution individually.

Enclosed you will find eight (8) copies of the LBDQ XII. Completing the instrument should not take more than twenty minutes. When respondents have completed the instrument they are to place it in the envelope provided to assure an anonymous response. Please gather these envelopes, put them in the stamped, enclosed self-addressed envelope I provided and mail them to me. This activity will complete your contribution to the study. Please assist me by returning the instruments quickly.

I believe the study will contribute to the knowledge base about the leadership of American Indians and will assist Community Colleges to select leaders that will serve them well. I appreciate your willingness to take the time to help me complete the study in the limited time I have available.

If you want a summary of the study please return the enclosed preaddressed post card. If you have any questions please call me at (218) 773-3731. Thank you very much for your assistance!

Sincerely,

Verna Fowler

Enclosures

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APPENDIX J

COVER LETTER TO ACCOMPANY INSTRUMENT

U N I V E R S I T Y O F  N O R T H D A K O T A

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION
PHONE NUMBER (701) 777-4255
FAX NUMBER (701) 777-4365

CENTER FOR TEACHING AND LEARNING
BOX 8158, UNIVERSITY STATION
GRAND FORKS, NORTH DAKOTA 58202

February 1992

Letter to be sent to accompany
LBDQ XII for faculty, administrator, and Board responses

Inside Address

Dear _____:

Thank you for agreeing to participate in my study. I am trying to learn more about the leadership of Native Americans, particularly in higher education settings. You are asked to complete the LBDQ XII while thinking about your Community College President and his/her leadership. Please be candid in you responses. Completing the instrument will take you less than 20 minutes.

After you have completed the instrument, please put it in the attached envelope, seal it and return it to the academic dean who gave it to you. This individual will gather all the instruments and return them to me.

Let me assure you again about confidentiality. Please let the respondents know that the information gathered will be reported in ways that will not identify them or their institution individually.

If after you have looked through the instrument, you feel that you prefer to not answer the questions, please return the unused instrument and other materials to the Academic Dean.

I believe the study will contribute to the knowledge base about the leadership of American Indians and will assist Community Colleges to select leaders that will serve them well. I appreciate your willingness to take the time to help me complete the study in the limited time I have available.

If you want a summary of the study please fill in your name and address on the enclosed preaddressed and stamped post card. If you have any questions please call me at (218) 773-3731. Thank you very much for your assistance!

Sincerely,

Verna Fowler

Enclosures:

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SELECTED REFERENCES

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