Fall 2019

An Analysis of Personality Characteristics, Emotional Intelligence, and Leadership Attributes of Louisiana Community and Technical College Chancellors

Heather Spillers Poole
Louisiana Tech University

AN ANALYSIS OF PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS, EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE, AND LEADERSHIP ATTRIBUTES OF LOUISIANA COMMUNITY AND TECHNICAL COLLEGE CHANCELLORS

by

Heather Spillers Poole, B.S. M.B.A.

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education: Higher Educational Leadership

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
LOUISIANA TECH UNIVERSITY

November 2019

LOUISIANA TECH UNIVERSITY

GRADUATE SCHOOL

July 8, 2019
Date of dissertation defense

We hereby recommend that the dissertation prepared by

Heather Spillers Poole

Entitled   **An Analysis of Personality Characteristics, Emotional Intelligence and**

Leadership Attributes of Louisiana Community and Technical College Chancellors

be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education, Higher Education Leadership Concentration

Dr. Richard Shrubb, Supervisor of Dissertation Research

Dr. Dawn Basinger,
Head of Curriculum, Instruction, and Leadership

Members of the Doctoral Committee:
Dr. Jerome Tobacyk
Dr. Mary Margaret Livingston

Approved:

Don Schillinger
Dean of Education

Approved:

Ramu Ramachandran
Dean of the Graduate School

GS Form 13a
(01/19)

ABSTRACT

This study explores the personality characteristics, emotional intelligence, and leadership attributes of twelve Louisiana community college chancellors in order to better understand leadership selection in community and technical colleges. Hogan's Leadership Forecast Series and the self-reported Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire short-form were used to explore and describe the leadership qualities of chancellors. More specifically, the Hogan Leadership Forecast Series of assessments included the Motives, Values, Preferences Inventory (MPVI), Hogan Personality Inventory (HPI), and Hogan Development Survey (HDS). Assessments were administered in May 2018. Findings indicated that, in general, chancellors varied widely in their personality characteristics (including both potential "bright-side" and "dark-side" qualities), as well as motives, and values. However, the chancellors showed considerable similarities in reporting a high level of comfort with both transformational and transactional leadership styles. The chancellors varied greatly in relation to interests, stressors, and bright-side qualities, as well as emotional intelligence. By better understanding the personal dispositions and leadership styles among current leaders, it may be possible to better select future leaders within the system. It seems that high scores on Transformational and Transactional leadership scales were common among the leaders. Findings suggest that looking at leadership processes may be a more fruitful method for researchers than examining and assessing personality traits in the selection process. This study may

therefore, provide baseline data that contributes to future selection, retention, development, and recruitment of community college chancellors. Given the increased challenges of leadership shortage and turnover, and the leadership crisis that exists in higher education in general, this study may help to provide personality factors and leadership attributes that may be helpful in clarifying the desired traits and profiles of future leadership candidates.

APPROVAL FOR SCHOLARLY DISSEMINATION

The author grants to the Prescott Memorial Library of Louisiana Tech University the right to reproduce, by appropriate methods, upon request, any or all portions of this Dissertation. It was understood that "proper request" consists of the agreement, on the part of the requesting party, that said reproduction is for his personal use and that subsequent reproduction will not occur without written approval of the author of this Dissertation. Further, any portions of the Dissertation used in books, papers, and other works must be appropriately referenced to this Dissertation.

Finally, the author of this Dissertation reserves the right to publish freely, in the literature, at any time, any or all portions of this Dissertation.

Author_____

Date _____

DEDICATION

I dedicate my dissertation to my loving family and many friends that have encouraged me throughout this long journey. I am thankful for the leaders that I have worked with and for their support to seek and pursue goals that would make a difference in the lives of others. Without witnessing firsthand some of the most amazing leaders in higher education and having been inspired by them over the years, I would not have pursued this path. To the tribe of service-oriented women and men I get to work with every day, you have made this journey tolerable.

For thirty years, I have had the privilege to work with people who have made me stronger, smarter, and better. I have had the great fortune to be surrounded by servant leaders that have been visionaries. I have been blessed to work with teams that I love, in a field about which I am passionate. It gives me great pride to acknowledge the staff of State Employees Group Benefits Program, Louisiana's Board of Regents, including the Learning Center for Rapides Parish, Louisiana State University of Alexandria, the Louisiana Community and Technical College System, my Central Louisiana Technical Community College colleagues, and Louisiana Tech University faculty and staff.

I am forever grateful to my husband, children, and parents. To my amazing friends and work-family - I must be the luckiest person ever. To ALL my parents and sisters who have always been made me feel like I could conquer the world, thank you for teaching me how to work hard and how to love people. Dad, thank you for all your

sacrifices and the amazing life-lessons you have provided along the way. To the educators in my family that I hold in such high esteem, Phyllis and Aunt Sybil, thank you for being the women you are. To my children, Matthew, Cameron, Emma Scott, and Isaac, you have been by my side during this long journey and have always supported me with great encouragement—you make me so very proud! Last, but definitely not least, to my husband who helped me make my dissertation journey twice as long as it should have been by making our life so amazing and great. You are my everything. I love you forever. No words can measure my love for you.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

SSA Consultants who graciously provided continued input that gave my research design meaning. A special acknowledgment to my "other family"…the Martins---thank you for loving my family and always providing encouragement through this long, long journey. Lastly, thank you to my very dear friend and colleague, Misty Slayter who endured this dissertation journey with me.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

For more than 15 years, the American Association of Community Colleges (AACC) has forecasted a leadership crisis within postsecondary education that includes both community colleges and universities (AACC, 2010, 2013, 2018). This crisis is a result of the leadership shortage of Chief Executive Officers (CEOs), which is partially due to the 'mass exodus' of baby boomers, as well as fewer professionals embarking on such complex positions. For post-secondary institutions across America, budget constraints and new expectations for enrollment across all levels have made the position of executive leader more challenging. These demands occurred just as the availability and supply of qualified persons began to decrease. The high vacancy rate of community college presidents in America is based on the advancing age of presidents, and difficulties with succession, which are compounded by a tendency toward short leadership terms (McNair, 2014). The majority of college presidents currently serving, or recently serving, are from the same baby boomer generation. The retirement of this large generation, coupled with the smaller pool of qualified applicants presents a challenge for the future of community colleges (Benard & Piland, 2014). One study in 2012 found that 84% of community college presidents intended to retire before 2016 (Benard & Piland, 2014). The most recent national survey of community college executives reported that more than

75% of today's leaders intend to retire within ten years, and 50% plan to retire within five years, yet only 21.2% of these colleges have a succession plan in place (AACC, 2019). This departure has created panic within the stakeholder community, as well as motivation to act. The ideal solution is to develop a larger pool for selection (McNair, 2014). However, the aims of expanding the source pool should not be achieved by lowering standards and criteria. Jaschik & Lederman (2019) assert there are also diligence requirements in relation to the quality of the processes of recruitment and selection. Qualified candidates typically require advanced degrees, several years of administrative experience, and have strong leadership skills. These begin with knowledge of what the selection criteria should be, but they also include issues of the day, such as management of diversity and the rapidly changing technology of our times (Jaschik & Lederman, 2019). As it turns out, preoccupation with the quality of selection criteria has been a concern for decades. There are, of course, technical and ethical considerations which include understanding who is being excluded, and on what basis, as well as who would be included, and what information about their leadership potential in specific circumstances remains unknown (AACC 2010, 2018). The chief executive officers of colleges often referred to as president or chancellor, have seen an alarming rate of increased turnover (Smith, 2017; Seltzer, 2017).

The Louisiana Community and Technical College System (LCTCS) is not immune to this national leadership trend. Comprised of 12 community and technical colleges, Louisiana's 20-year-old community college system has five chancellors that have been in their current role less than two years. In addition, three current chancellors have been in high profile presidential searches outside of the LCTCS system. With these

looming leadership changes, the success of quality candidate selection has never been more crucial. This study will look beyond earned credentials and compare the leadership values, emotional intelligence, and personality traits to determine CEO attributes within Louisiana's Community and Technical College System.

Background

Leadership in a changing environment is a common theme today. The issue of dealing with change is reiterated across sectors and industries, as is a focus on leadership traits associated with strong ethical values (McCaffery, 2019). This is reflected in the consideration of leadership, which is needed in contexts such as healthcare, the criminal justice system, and all levels of education. While there is often an idea of leaders in competition with each other, the abundance of need for leadership, in fact, creates a system of necessary collaboration and coordination between leaders in order to meet organizational goals. Leaders in a variety of contexts are dealing with change, but the operating environment of the executive officer of a commercial corporation that produces goods and services is very different from that of a leader in education, whether that institution is public or private (Selingo, 2017). One issue is that the outcome and value of an institution generally has an even greater societal importance than the value to shareholders of a publicly held company.

These differences between higher education leaders and private business executives have relevance that should be examined (Witt/Kieffer, 2013). These differences become particularly important when the instruments that are developed in the commercial setting are applied to educational settings. Such is the case when the Hogan assessments and the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire are applied to leaders in higher

education (Witt/Kieffler, 2013). Knowing the scope of meaning, as well as the limitations of the data, can help to ensure that talent is not ignored or missed simply because it does not match expectations. This is a potential problem and not one that can be easily resolved given the entrenchment of Western ideals of leadership traits. Expectations of those traits in leaders in the developed Western world, and a subsequent assessment process that seeks out the very same traits that were previously present in leadership profiles (Chuang, 2013).

Professional development has been one of the easiest solutions to implement in terms of short-term projects to promote succession planning and qualified pools of applicants (Rosenthal, Routch, Monahan, Doherty, 2018). In many cases, universities and colleges already have annual training plans for all employees and offer encouragement for taking leadership courses at all employment levels. Professional development events put an individual in the pipeline for higher education leadership; however, the same issues of selection persist in recruitment for positions. First, and foremost, in selection is the idea that the right individuals with the right potential are chosen to participate in such development. There are additional issues at stake, including ensuring diversity and finding currently relevant talent that may not imitate power profiles of the past. A concern is having greater insights into the initial determination of the desired characteristics for these positions when seeking leaders.

Definitions and Acronyms

The following defined terms and acronyms are referenced throughout this study.

Emotional Intelligence (EQ) is the ability to recognize, access, and produce emotions that cognitively aid in understanding and regulating emotions and behaviors (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

Five-factor Model (Big 5): Created by Robert McCrae and Paul Costa, this model describes the personality in terms of five broad factors: Openness to experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Neuroticism.

Full Range Leadership Model (FRLM): A general leadership theory that has continued to evolve since its 1985 inception. Like the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), this model was created by Bernard Bass and Bruce Avolio. Today, it represents nine single-order factors, comprised of five transformational leadership factors, three transactional leadership factors, and one non-transactional laissez-faire leadership trait (Antonakis, Avolio & Sivasubramaniam, 2003).

Grounded Theory: A research methodology that operates inductively. A study using grounded theory is likely, to begin with a question. Grounded theory is different from the traditional model of research. Upon the attainment of data, which is reviewed and coded into concepts and categories, the categories may become the basis for a new theory. Therefore, the research is "grounded" in theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

Hogan Leadership Forecast Series (LFS): A comprehensive leadership assessment designed for top executives. This assessment portfolio provides leaders with an understanding of their performance capabilities and challenges. The portfolio is divided into a series of reports created from Hogan's Developmental Survey, Hogan's

Motives, Values and Preferences Inventory, and Hogan's Personality Inventory. The LFS reports include Potential, Challenge, Values, Coaching, and Summary.

Hogan Personality Inventory (HPI) or "Bright-Side": The HPI describes normal or "bright-side" personality qualities that describe how individuals relate to others when they are at their best. This profile is based on the Five-Factor Model. The HPI measures seven scales including Adjustment, Ambition, Sociability, Interpersonal Sensitivity, Prudence, Inquisitiveness, and Learning Approach.

Hogan Development Survey (HDS) or "Dark-Side": The HDS is a survey within Hogan's Leadership Forecast Series that measures qualities that emerge in times of increased strain and can disrupt the relationship, damage reputations, and derail success. The HDS uses 11 personality scales to recognize shortcomings and maximize strengths: Excitable, Skeptical, Cautious, Reserved, Leisurely, Bold, Mischievous, Colorful, Imaginative, Diligent, and Dutiful.

Hogan Motives, Values, Preferences Inventory (MVPI): This Hogan assessment measures a personality from the inside. It reviews the core goals, values, drivers, and interests to determine what individuals desire and strive to attain. It assesses values to understand what motivates and determine environments in which individuals will be most productive: Recognition, Power, Hedonism, Altruism, Affiliation, Tradition, Security, Commerce, Aesthetics, and Science.

Hogan EQ Emotional Intelligence: The Hogan EQ assessment is a distinct screening tool related to positive leadership across leadership styles as a construct of ability (Fiori & Vesely-Maillefer, 2018). The dimensions of Hogan's EQ report are awareness, detection, regulation, influence, expression, and empathy. In general,

interpreting these scores is based on quartiles (personal correspondence, Hogan Assessments, 2018).

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ or MLQ 5x Short): The MLQ assessment was constructed by Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass in 1990, with the goal to assess the full range of leadership styles. A psychological inventory consisting of 36 items pertaining to leadership styles and 9 items pertaining to leadership outcomes can be completed by the user in 15 minutes (Bass & Avolio, 2000, Avolio & Bass, 2004). The MLQ is the standard instrument for measuring Transformation, Transactional, and Passive-Avoidant. It allows individuals to measure how they perceive themselves regarding specific leadership behaviors. The assessment contains a tool that will allow other raters to determine feedback. This study uses only the leader/self-form.

Transformational Leadership: A style of leadership in which a leader works with teams identifying needed change, creating a vision to guide the change through inspiration, and executing the change in tandem with committed members or group. Transformation leadership serves to enhance the motivation, morale, and job performance of the team (Bass & Avolio, 2000, Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Transactional Leadership: A bureaucratic style of leadership in which leaders promote compliance by followers through both rewards and punishments. Through the rewards and punishments system, transactional leaders are able to keep followers motivated for the short-term. This type of leadership is effective in crisis and emergency situations (Bass & Avolio, 2000, Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Passive-Avoidant or Laissez-Faire Leadership (LF) describes a hands-off or absence of leadership whereby the leader will shy away from or avoid taking a stand on

issues, removing themselves from getting involved, and being absent when needed. These LF leaders have delays and/or fail to follow up, and are typically not result-oriented (Bass & Avolio, 2000, Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Research Questions

The research questions RQ1-RQ4b will guide this study:

RQ1: Is there a profile of a typical or average chancellor of the Louisiana Community and Technical College System based on four assessment instruments (HPI, HDS, MVPI, MLQ)?

RQ2: What are the areas of widest variation in the chancellor profiles?

RQ3: What are the greatest areas of similarities or commonalities among the chancellor profiles, in terms of shared characteristics or qualities?

RQ4: Based on the sample of chancellors, do different types of leaders vary in terms of personality and dark-side traits? This question was further divided into:

RQ4a: What is the correlation between bright-side personality traits (as determined by the total score on the Hogan Personality Inventory or HPI assessment), and the various leadership traits as determined by the Bass and Avolio, 1985 Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)?

RQ4b: What is the correlation between dark-side personality traits (as determined by the total score on the Hogan Dark-side or HDS assessment), and the various leadership traits as determined by the MLQ?

The associated hypotheses do not represent every research question that can be investigated with the assessments in this sample, but rather address selected quantitative components of each. The qualitative aspects of questions, namely the first three research

questions, are not meant to be testable statements or measures, but rather will be reported as descriptive narratives, which provide insight that could help to provide a foundation for future researchers and practitioners alike in relation to selecting chancellors for community college success. The hypotheses in relation to RQ4 use a quantitative analysis:

H1a: The total scores of HPI scale traits (i.e., total score on bright-side traits) will be associated with higher scores on the two leadership style scales of the MLQ (i.e., transformational leadership, transactional leadership).

H1b: The total scores of HDS scale traits (i.e., total score on dark-side traits) will be associated with lower scores on the two leadership style scales of the MLQ (i.e., transformational leadership, transactional leadership).

Purpose

This study is a mixed-methods descriptive exploration that encompasses descriptive statistics in reporting the personality and leadership characteristics of current chancellors within the LCTCS. The intention is to report on these findings in order to provide a baseline for the understanding of the typical profile, and the range of those profiles, of chancellors. This may assist in providing a basis for insights that support leadership selection and development in community and technical colleges.

Significance

There is a crisis of leadership in higher education, and at the community college level specifically. Even while programs expand to meet the ever-increasing demand for education opportunities, the pool of possible leaders has dwindled rapidly due to the

retirement of the baby boomer cohort, which had dominated in this field. This crisis is complicated by the need for community college leaders to do more with less as state funding decreases and program demands and industry diversity for specialized on-point training intensifies. Clearly, there is great importance to finding the optimal chancellors for the LCTCS.

Aims and Objectives

The aims of the study can be described in terms of the four expected results by assessing each chancellor using the Hogan's Leadership Forecast Series and the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) 5x short.

Result 1: Describe the profile of the typical chancellor of the Louisiana Community and Technical College System

Result 2: Identify the dispositional dimensions with the widest variation in the chancellor profiles.

Result 3: Investigate the greatest areas of similarity between the chancellor profiles, in terms of shared characteristics or qualities.

Result 4: Provide descriptive statistics in relation to MLQ subscales and each of the bright-side and dark-side traits of the Hogan assessments.

Overview of Methods

This mixed-method approach will use a qualitative research design to survey the sample of chancellors using two comprehensive self-report personality assessment instruments: Hogan's 2018 Leadership Forecast Series (LFS) (Hogan & Hogan, 1994) and the Multifactor Leadership Questionaire Short-form (MLQ-5x) (Avolio & Bass,

2004). The convenience sample of 12 chancellors included within the case study are diverse in race, age, gender, and stage of their presidencies (early, mid-career, and senior). The conceptual framework for this study is grounded theory, which provides for open-ended research designs in exploratory investigations which extrapolates the identification of features of interest during the study, rather than targeting objectives beforehand. In this way, it is possible to advance understanding based on the categories suggested by the data itself. In other words, the theory is "grounded" in actual data, which means the analysis and development of theories will occur after the data is collected (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The research instruments used in this study, as described in the literature review, are theory-based, validated, and widely used for executive leadership selection in organizations (Antonakis, 2001; Bass, 1999; Hogan, Hogan & Roberts, 1996; Avolio & Bass, 2004; Lowe, Kroeck, Sivasubramaniam, 1996**).**

Witt/Kieffler (2013), an executive human resources search firm, for example, used the same format and Hogan assessment instruments in a comparison of higher education leader characteristics with that of corporate executives. The 2013 study described some of the specific differences between postsecondary and corporate executives. They performed a broad comparative assessment of corporate executives and leaders in higher education, with specific reference to the Hogan assessments (Witt/Kieffler, 2013). Similarities included high Ambition scores on the HPI, high Colorful and Imaginative scales on the HDS and similarities in relation to personality and values. Where the business executives and higher education leaders differed was in relation to HPI traits of Learning Approach and Interpersonal Sensitivity, and the MVPI Altruistic, which resulted in an average higher score for education leaders (Witt/Kieffler,

2013). The MVPI Commerce value was notably higher in corporate executives (Witt/Kieffler, 2013). Also, high HDS Leisurely scores of higher education leaders contrasted with higher HDS Mischievous scores of corporate executives (Witt/Kieffler, 2013). The current study looks at the descriptive statistical values of current chancellors in relation to personality and leadership assessment, as determined by correlations of the HPI, HDS, MVPI, and the MLQ.

Outline of Dissertation

This, the first chapter, provides an overview and summary of the study, the approach, its context, and its significance. The second chapter provides a literature review with the background and latest research that provides the foundation and context for the current study, as well as concepts, their development, and how they relate to critical aspects of the study and the research question. The third chapter describes the methodological aspects of the study, including the data collection, analysis framework, and ethical considerations. The fourth chapter provides the results of conducting the study, and the fifth chapter provides the analysis discussion and consideration of the results. The final chapter provides recommendations and conclusions.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Overview

This chapter offers an overview of the factors of leadership in higher education in America today and yesterday. This overview provides the context for understanding the development of the community college leadership position and its requirements. Next is a review of succession planning in higher education settings. Succession planning is examined in terms of self-selection identification with application to higher learning for the specific purpose of executive leadership and higher learning and also internal identification mechanisms. The conceptual framework for leadership is followed by a discussion of assessment within that theoretical model and the risks of this assessment process. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the implications for executive leadership selection within the Louisiana system of colleges and institutions of higher learning.

Brief History of Leader Selection in Higher Education in the United States

In 1926, Reverend Charles Franklin Thwing, a prominent education scholar and president of Case Western University, wrote the book *The College President*. The study of the college president would be referenced often throughout the next several decades as a valued leadership topic. Stogdill (1948) described personal factors associated with

leadership in the postwar period, drawing on the then-current synthesis of leadership research by Smith and Krueger in the interwar period (Smith & Krueger, 1933). A popular approach at that time was the Bernreuter Personality leadership traits selection criteria, a forerunner of many of the tests, which continue to be used in executive human resources management today (Hanawalt & Richardson, 1944). Early selection and development of leaders was a growing research concern just prior to World War II, with assumptions regarding selection focused on the level of intelligence. Cognitive intelligence was prioritized in the context of leadership as providing the needed competency for the development of leadership skills, which were preferred over primarily social and emotional components over intelligence (Hollingworth, 1939).

Cowley (1956) proposed what would be a job analysis approach and asked the question of what exactly college presidents do, which was pivotal. Cowley's review had a point- that the college president was, in fact, an emerging American trend that did not reflect tradition. Cowley described the situation of college presidents as a peculiarly American tradition or at least one, which was being led by American practices (Cowley, 1956). This has also been confirmed by other research and reviews (Graubard, 2017). Cowley explained that the European practices of selecting leaders in higher education were typically short term (as little as a year), emphasized persons who were active scholars in their field, and included those who usually returned to their previous duties (Cowley, 1956). American college presidencies, on the other hand, were celebrated almost as though they were the presidency of the nation, with coronation type activities (Cowley, 1956). This is an important vignette to consider. It is arguable that the very

problems within institutions of higher learning today were dealt with far more efficiently a century ago in Europe when terms of a year were the norm.

In the 1970s, the selection of executive leadership in higher education was seen largely as a process-driven activity. In fact, the guidance given by Kauffman for governing boards and search committees is still as true today as it was more than 40 years ago, even his comments on rapid change and expansion in modern higher education (Kauffman, 1974). This traditional process with system management includes organizing the search process; coordinating the search committee; determining the candidate qualifications and criteria, nominations, and prospecting qualified candidates; and ensuring human resource laws are followed to the final selection process and onboarding process. The coordination of the search process was one of organizing roles and duties in the capture of a pool of candidates that did not have the same challenges and tensions as those perceived today (Kauffman, 1974).

Moore, Salimbene, Marlier, and Bragg (1983) described a traditional accession process to a college presidency, beginning with professor, followed by chairman and dean of their study area, and finally vice-president, which allowed for a period of mentorship. Given Cowley's (1956) comments less than three decades before, the idea of a career as a college president was a new process that was in concert with a new paradigm - the professionalization of the college presidency. The European model of rotating professionals who had achieved in their field, but had no aptitude or knowledge necessarily about higher education leadership, had been replaced by into with a longer-term, based on a specific vision and competencies intended to serve that vision. It is worth noting that the new model had been wildly successful in increasing the capacity of

America to educate its youth, with growing opportunities that went beyond the post-public school education model (Rousmaniere, 2007). However, a study of the structure of presidents' and deans' careers, conducted by Moore, et al (1983), found that the career trajectory of individuals serving colleges as deans and presidents did not, in fact, follow the assumed model. This finding resulted in implications for recruitment, succession planning, and development models of higher education leaders.

A major study of research interest was the Institutional Leadership Project (ILP) in the 1990s. Sponsored by the University of Maryland's National Center for Postsecondary Governance and Finance (NCPGF), the project was a long-term investigation of college and university president behaviors, communication style, effectiveness, goal and value setting, and interpretive frameworks, which was used as a source of data across a number of research studies (e.g., Bensimon, 1989; Birnbaum, 1992; Neumann, 1990b, 1995; Tierney, 1989). This ILP study was a turning point in terms of rising levels of empirical research studies that focused more specifically on important aspects of selection and efficacy. It was effectively the beginning of the modern age of full-range leadership theory models (FRLM) to complement trait-based theory, and considerable amassed qualitative investigation of the phenomenon of American college presidency (Birnbaum, Bensimon & Neumann, 1989).

The modern era of leadership studies in higher education is at least a century old. This has included an analysis of the leadership construct, such as the needs and challenges of the college president. Leadership research for the purpose of individual identification of potential has focused on a determination of leadership traits and application of the traits found through regression analysis, to individual interests, in order

to determine their similarity to previous leaders (Witt/Kieffer, 2018). There are some drawbacks to this approach, given that this has occurred within a single American cultural tradition and given power dynamics, dominance, and the influence this has on who is able to succeed in achieving positions of leadership (Witt/Kieffer, 2018). This is an embedded deliberation in leadership selection research today, particularly considering new contexts of diversity and inclusion (Witt/Kieffer, 2018).

Succession Planning in Post-Secondary Education

Succession planning is considered a panacea for problems relating to the mass retirement of baby boomers, often without regard to the smaller populations of experienced professionals in the next generations (Keller, 2018). While the idea of succession planning has diffused through corporate human resources practice, it only recently developed as an activity for college faculty and leadership (Keller, 2018). In fact, recently Klein and Salk (2013) investigated the succession planning of the presidency in private higher education in Wisconsin, and through primary reports from stakeholders, determined that there really was no succession planning at all. While succession planning programs began to emerge in the early millennium as a strategy for institutions of higher learning, it has certainly not been adopted by most, and evidence on their success remains to be gathered and analyzed (Benard & Piland, 2012).

The Minnesota State Colleges and Universities system (MnSCU) has been conducting a system-wide pilot program in relation to the role of succession planning. (Keller, 2018). The goal of this pilot is to identify the supply pipeline issues in terms of potential pools of college presidents and determine how succession planning could provide an appropriate intervention. The pilot project is ongoing, and early results are

promising; however, it will be a considerable time before the effectiveness of the leadership development goals can be assessed in terms of leader performance (Keller, 2018).

A macro-level approach to succession planning, in terms of the expansion of a qualified pool of applicants, has been ongoing as new programs designed specifically for executive leadership in higher-level education continue to develop (University of Texas at Austin, 2018). For example, doctoral-level programs, such as the Executive Doctorate in Education program, in addition to a more traditional Doctor of Philosophy in Higher Education Leadership, are offered by the University of Texas at Austin, indicating that the popularity has resulted in increased specialization (University of Texas at Austin, 2018, n.p.). Recently, Forthun and Freeman (2017) conducted a review of executive higher education doctoral programs in the United States, identifying 12 degree programs at the doctoral level that were specific to this vocation. A review of higher education in Louisiana postsecondary revealed several with terminal degree offerings centered on education, each offering concentrations in higher education. These include Louisiana State University's Ph.D. in Education Leadership and Research, University of Louisiana at Lafayette's Ed.D. in Education Leadership, the University of New Orleans' Ph.D. in Philosophy, Northwestern State University's Ed.D designed specifically for Community College Administration, and Louisiana Tech University's Ed.D. in Education Leadership: Higher Education Administration. Researchers noted such educational programs provided for internal, nearly qualified candidates to gain the dual requirements of higher education management and administration along with academic credentials typically required for these academic leadership positions (Forthun & Freeman, 2017). In fact, these programs

often served as part of internal professional development for these universities in relation to potential deans and academic leaders. The executive degree was a subset of such programs, serving individuals with specific ambitions of leadership at the highest level (Forthun & Freeman, 2017). Currently, 90% of all community college chancellors possess a doctorate or terminal degree (Weisman and Vaughn, 2007). A recent study of community college presidents revealed that they do not feel there is an adequate pool of future leaders to assume the executive roles (Jaschik & Lederman, 2018). Therefore, these programs serve multiple purposes by allowing qualified individuals with an interest in higher education leadership to self-select for the programs and increase competencies and knowledge related to the position. The institutions then have access to a ready pool of candidates. Very little research has been conducted on the outcomes of these programs, including where the graduates find themselves after completing the program, but it can be assumed that this has helped mitigate the shortage of candidates for senior positions in college and university executives (Jaschik & Lederman, 2018).

A more comprehensive approach to leadership potential identification could occur by including all current staff with base qualifications and conducting regular reviews and surveys of skills, traits, and abilities. Such early identification and development can be an important part of succession planning (SHRM, 2015). There is a contrarian idea inherent in this assumption; that is the self-fulfilling prophecy of being told that someone has leadership capability would help to cultivate and bring out that leadership potential, especially in the context of an individual who has not self-selected or self-identified in a leadership role. There are cultural and societal reasons why someone might be prevented from fully appreciating their potential as a leader. Such personal devaluations can be

counteracted, and a greater and more diverse population developed for the leadership

pipeline by identifying people from the population at large rather than restricting

evaluation to those who have self-selected.

Succession planning is driven by demographic change, concerns about the limited

supply of candidates in higher learning leadership, as well as pilot projects that are

showing early signs of success (Hanover, 2010). Increasingly, many colleges and

universities are implementing some form of succession planning, even while evidence

remains to be collected regarding best practices and approaches (Hanover, 2010). The

main directive is the expansion of the qualified pool of applicants; however, this carries a

risk for organizations who may invest in individuals who leave the organization or turn

out to be ineffectual in their leadership abilities. Still, the prevailing capture of potential

leadership recruitment is within the current pool of senior-level college executives,

professors, and deans. Recruiting within the institution remains one of the primary ways

of ensuring a candidate pool for the college presidency. The main objective is to amass a

qualified and diverse candidate pool that meets both academic requirements and is

reflective of the cultural needs of the institution in an ever-changing environment. (Luna,

2012).

Louisiana Community and Technical College System

The Louisiana Community and Technical College System (LCTCS), established

in 1999, was intended as a more unified and coherent structure for the organization of the

state's community college program offerings and functions (Manning, 2004). This had

the result of simplifying governance and reducing costs (Manning, 2004). One of the

greatest challenges to education capacity is that Louisiana, as a low-tax revenue state, has fewer resources that must be more carefully invested (Killacky & Wells, 2004).

The concept of LCTCS is not entirely different from Myran and Ivery's (2013) proposal as a workforce development college. It is a futuristic model where community workforce needs are bridged through the community college system, but it is also readily available in both urban and rural areas as a community-wide effort to support increased skills and readiness to work.

States with a mainly rural population, such as Louisiana, have grave issues with outward emigration, poverty, and high unemployment (Lusby, 2010). Louisiana does have a sophisticated system of community and technical colleges and universities which are intended to support individuals to reach new skills levels, employability, and state workforce capacity.

Diversity Considerations

Louisiana is a diverse state, with multiple thriving ethnic communities, including the second-largest state population of black Americans, a smaller Hispanic community, and a French-speaking community (Dyer, 2005). The regions of Louisiana also vary greatly. The cultures in the south Louisiana bayous are different from those found in the rural central portion of the state or in the subtle hills of north Louisiana, or the delta of east Louisiana. Each area is diverse, with regard to workforce needs as well. The common thread that is woven throughout Louisiana's population is poverty. Ensuring that the executive leadership of higher education is capable of leading in a diverse context and is representative of the diverse population can be a challenge. Thus far, meeting the challenge of higher education leaders seems to have been somewhat easier in Louisiana

than experiences reported elsewhere in the country. It is a matter of maintaining

leadership diversity that continues to reflect the population at large (ACE, 2015).

There has been a movement toward expanding the number of women and visible

minorities in the leader development pipeline, as evidenced by considerable scholarly

interest (Davis & Maldonado, 2015; Esters, Washington, Gasman, Commodore, O'Neal,

Freeman & Jimenez, 2016; Freeman & Gasman, 2014; Hill & Wheat, 2017). Dyer (2005)

looked specifically at the question of college leadership and diversity in the Louisiana

Community and Technical College System, finding that much had changed in the six

years between the network's inception and the time of the study. The white, male-

dominated positions of leadership had by then become more gender and racially diverse,

with 30% of the chancellors being women, and 30% being black (Dyer, 2005). The

diversity as a reflection of the Louisiana population was a success, but maintaining that

kind of success with a smaller potential pool of applicants will be far more challenging in

the current environment (Dyer, 2005). The commitment to diversity ensures that there are

supports and approaches to increase the access of women and minorities who self-select

for leadership, but this has turned out to be the most difficult aspect. A major barrier to

the supply of qualified candidates is, of course, individually perceived barriers. In a

diverse setting, it is important to identify these barriers from the perspective of vulnerable

groups, particularly since those are the same groups that are increasing the diversity of

the student populations (Hoyt & Murphy, 2016). To that end, a macro-level strategy must

also increase the self-selection of diverse applicants to further that career path. The

increasing professionalization of the position has been accompanied by an increased

education qualification expectation, such as a graduate degree specific to higher

education leadership. Self-selection must begin earlier in the pipeline since the same processes reduce the number of individuals who become qualified, even though they may have other outstanding qualifications and potential in academic leadership (Hoyt & Murphy, 2016).

Diversity poses a potential solution to the problem by expanding the supply of potential individuals who would self-select for this career route (White, 2016). Unfortunately, there can be various barriers, most notoriously the stereotype effects that result in non-traditional individuals not self-selecting for roles as higher education leaders (Williams, 2013). This is definitely changing, and it has become a stable and positive situation in Louisiana community colleges and technical schools. Continuing to achieve this goal will require constant attention to diversified objectives.

Conceptual Framework for Leadership

This section will briefly describe the full-range leadership model and theories that it encompasses, as well as the consensus and the debates in relation to these constructs. This will be followed by a discussion of leadership assessment, which sets the background for understanding leadership assessment and the instruments that are used, such as the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and the Hogan leadership forecast series.

The full-range leadership model is based on theories of leadership that include transactional, transformation, and other profiles such as the passive-avoidant or laissez-faire. The transformational and transactional leadership styles have an independent theoretical basis. This was described by Sosik and Jung as forming an integrated and cohesive discipline by forming the "bridges built across the science and practice scales as

represented by this full range leadership model, and its development, may be one of its greatest contributions to the field of leadership" (Sosik and Jung, 2018, p. 8). McCleskey (2014) explains that over the past one hundred years of leadership theory development, there have been three main theories, that being situational, transactional, and transformational. Full range theory ties these together with the profiles on a continuum representing different personality traits, patterns of behavior and priorities, while situational leadership describes fit and an underlying value to evaluation.

The transactional theory is the one most associated with the bureaucratic model of leadership as a logical and rational series of exchanges in relation to monitoring and motivation. This is not a theory that was identified by its developers, but rather it defines the body of work on leadership effectiveness based on logical rewards and penalties that predates transformation leadership theory (Bass, 1999). In what are identified as transactional theories, there is emphasis on a task orientation that aligns with classical ideas of management, as well as hierarchical, mechanistic, and authoritarian types of organizations. A logical system of incentives and penalties is enforced or designed by managers in order to maintain optimum productivity.

Transformational leadership was a theory first proposed in the 1970s as a counterpoint to the idea of the task-oriented manager (Bass, 1999) This theory was predicated on the ideas of motivation, innovation and affective neuroscience which were becoming popular at the time, and feeding into leadership and management studies (Bass, 1999). In 1990, Bass built on this foundation and popularized the concept of transformational leadership by broadening the 1978 work of James MacGregor (Bass, 1999). Broadly, the management studies discipline has been biased with the profile of

transformational leadership, and considerable effort was devoted to empirical studies to support its superiority (Bass, 1999). Transformational leadership refers to a style that engenders trust and loyalty and motivates through vision. The commonly profiled examples of this leadership style include Apple co-founder, Steve Jobs, and civic leaders such as Martin Luther King Jr.' big visions, and elevation of workers through supporting their own leadership capacities is an inherent aspect of this style, and it is seen as being in alignment with the need for change and change management across sectors (Bass, 1999).

Risks of Selection

The risks of selection include overlooking or not identifying and assessing those traits that can spell disaster for an organization. Such risks of selection can be seen as coming in three categories: dark-side personality traits, ineffectual leadership, and loyalty risks.

The risk of ineffectual leadership has great implications. In the college presidency, as with any position in leadership, there will be errors and there is a learning curve (Neumann, 1990). It is important to be able to differentiate ineffectual leadership from other confounding factors including ineffectual boards or trustees and faculty-related issues (Eckel & Kezar, 2016). This can involve the identification of exclusion trait criteria, and this can include traits in the neurotic cluster as well as identifiers for narcissism, racism, and sexism.

In order to expand the pool of qualified potential candidates, it is necessary to increase the investment in the leadership development of identified individuals. Those individuals may, however, leave the organization, using their new talents and skills elsewhere, creating a lost investment for the organization. Because of this loyalty risk,

there is often hesitation in making such investments, reducing the overall number of candidates able to take advantage of such investments, resulting in a smaller pool. Organizations often exacerbate the problem by poaching high potential executives and leaders from one another. This hesitation represents a barrier, because ultimately, this anxiety of individuals, as an aggregate, reduces the available pool and the diversity of the available pool.

The risks of selection are ultimately based on the quality of the processes that determine which traits are identified as positive and which are identified as negative. Currently, profiles driven by corporate needs represent a qualitative, but proprietary means of determining potential leadership quality. These profiles of norms include both inclusion and exclusion criteria, with exclusion criteria referring to negative or dark-side traits. A more relevant concern is simply the level of leadership competency and concern about ineffectual leaders. Loyalty risks remain the most common possible risk, particularly for those organizations that are investing early in the leadership development pipeline. The loyalty risk, unlike other risks, still represents the successful expansion of leadership in higher education, but denotes a failure to capture the gains of that investment at the local level.

Leadership Assessment

This section will discuss results-oriented leadership assessment, as well as the use of trait-based assessment to identify potential leaders for development or recruitment. A variety of tools are used in the measurement and identification of potential leaders as well as leadership efficacy. These tend to be customized to specific responsibilities and positions. These include the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), the Hogan

leadership forecast series as well as commonly used results-oriented assessment such as previous achievements and performance evaluations. The state of the science has not yet evaluated the performance of leaders against the traits with which they are correlated, however, in the future, such a study would provide considerable insight into what traits should be identified and important to selection processes.

Performance Evaluation

Results-oriented assessment of leadership in higher education is a developing science. The performance measures facing community college leaders are still in development and somewhat volatile in their reflection of the adequacy or excellence in leadership. Many studies have attempted to pinpoint the ideal traits of effective executive leaders, but there is far less research available in relation to college presidencies. Many of the traits that have been identified fall into clusters of emotional and social intelligence, vision, and motivating engagement. These appear to be aligned with the transformational leadership style, which is preferred today. It can be assumed that no singular assessment paradigm or instrument can successfully identify all areas of importance. Typically, two or more instruments are used in order to help triangulate the results in this very qualitative and subjective exercise.

Background on the Data Collection Instruments

Hogan, Curphy, and Hogan (1994) described how, despite extensive research into leadership in the field of psychology, the selection of leaders had not incorporated these insights and findings. This was interpreted as a problem of translation from research to practice which could be overcome. In fact, most large management companies and human resources firms specializing in executive headhunting now make use of consulting

services for this reason. This reflects how leadership selection has been changing largely as a result of the commercial potential in the field. The human resources sector has become a profitable target for private companies that offer proprietary assessment instruments, interpretation, and consulting. While this, in turn, provides motivation and incentives for a new generation of researchers to develop working tools from existing evidence, it has resulted in a lack of common or shared scholarly knowledge regarding specific traits and identification of leadership.

The Hogan assessment has become widely used among professionals and other stakeholders in leadership assessment (Loffoley, 2016; Goffin & Christiansen, 2003). The evaluation is focused on strengths, including the overuse of strengths, and potential issues in relation to strength deficiencies and areas of growth (Hogan et al., 1994). The forecast report also provides insights in relation to the motivation of the leader, as well as recommendations in relation to professional development (Hogan et al., 1994). One of the highlights of this tool is its usefulness in defining the culture that develops in relation to a leader's profile, which is of great interest in terms of recruitment and the ability to affect change within the post-secondary institutions (Hogan et al., 1994). The purpose of a leader is not an isolated event of leadership, but rather emphasizes how it changes the social world around them. In the case of a college president or chancellor, this refers to the deans, faculty, students and the community at large, in addition to their expectations of the college system. The Hogan assessment and the MLQ consider these broad and multiple criteria through blended and synthesized approaches to trait clusters.

The Hogan assessment process is easy for respondents to use, with availability in more than forty languages. Each of the HPI, HDS, and MVPI tools only require

approximately 15 to 20 minutes for completion (Reflect by GMAC, 2013). The reporting

options include general and specific competency options. (Reflect by GMAC, 2013).

Social desirability bias is mitigated by ensuring that questions are not intrusive and have

little face validity in terms of performance or job relationships (Reflect by GMAC, 2013).

Each of the assessment items individually has little meaning, but instead, the value of the

assessment is in the assembly of the responses into scales for which there is evidence of

predictive efficacy with a number of potential purposes, which include screening,

personal and team development, and leadership potential identification (Reflect by

GMAC, 2013).

The Hogan Personality Inventory (HPI)

This study will include the Hogan Personality Inventory (HPI) assessments of the

Hogan Forecast Series, which measures the "bright-side" or performance-enhancing

characteristics (Hogan, 2009). For development purposes, the HPI can help individuals to

understand how they may appear to others (Reflect by GMAC, 2013). The purpose of the

assessment is the prediction of performance across 200 occupations across 95% of main

sectors (as determined in 1991), with over 450 validating studies, occurring across three

decades (Reflect by GMAC, 2013).

The Big Five, or Five-Factor Model (FFM) of personality, which had the

advantage of several decades of research, is the basis for the development of the HPI

(Reflect by GMAC, 2013). The FFM, developed by Raymond Cattell in the postwar

period, was a 16-scale assessment, which was later amended by Robert McCrae and Paul

Costa in the 1960s to focus on just five traits deemed specifically important to leadership:

openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism. The

development of the HPI was, therefore, a further refinement of the FFM targeting the organizational context, beginning with research conducted 40 years ago (Reflect by GMAC, 2013).

The dimensions are fairly stable over time, and repeated studies have shown that after having taken the test previously, applicants had a great deal of difficulty trying to "fake" their responses in order to get "higher" scores (Reflect by GMAC, 2013). No studies have asserted a negative impact on the basis of gender, ethnicity, or age, and test reliability scores range from .69 to .87 (Reflect by GMAC, 2013).

Hogan Development Survey (HDS)

The Hogan Development Survey (HDS) is one of the assessments of the Hogan Forecast Series that was designed to assess counterproductive behavioral tendencies that emerge in a time of stress, pressure, or boredom (Spain, Harms & Wood, 2016). Hogan (2009) suggests that as many as 75% of managers and executives today are currently failing in their role, and 50% will ultimately fail. Such failures are very costly for organizations and can be mitigated with better leadership selection processes that are able to determine which individuals have positive leadership traits, and also which have inherent dysfunctional traits that work against good leadership (Hogan, 2009).

Often discussed as the "dark side" of leadership, dark-side personality traits refer to the greater potential or possibility that self-selecting leaders will be more likely to have self-serving or narcissistic traits that value profits or personal interests over people and organizational goals.

One leadership style that has been singled out as a dark-side profile is charismatic leadership. This has been defined in multiple ways, and it opposes and forms a foil to a

very similar description of transformational leadership (Amanchukwu, Stanley & Ololube, 2015). Ultimately, the difference has to do with the alignment of values inherent in the leader's goals. Character traits such as narcissism, schizotypal issues, egotism, and negligent goal setting are all associated with charismatic leadership (Einarsen, Aasland & Skogstad, 2016).

Kaiser, LeBreton, and Hogan (2015) conceptualized the dark-side leadership traits as an unbalanced extreme of positive leadership traits described in the five-factor model. The dark-side trait measures within the range of the mean correlate with ideal leader behavior, while high and low scores are associated with ineffective and counterproductive leader behaviors (Kaiser et al., 2015). Given the weak correlation between the self-selection of leaders and psychopathic traits, concern over psychopathic tendencies in organizational leaders may be overblown (Landay, Harms, & Credé, 2018). On the other hand, sometimes the charismatic power of such leaders is so great that followers are willing to commit unethical acts in order to achieve organizational objectives, which is counterproductive to the good leadership examples that are sought in the course of this study (Effelsberg, Solga & Gurt, 2014).

In the HDS assessment, 11 identified dysfunctional personality syndromes are assessed, which can be used for personal improvement as well as human resource selection (Hogan, 2009). These ineffective behavioral patterns of leaders can contribute to challenges and negative impacts for the organizations that they lead, as well as their employees (Hogan, 2009). For example, four out of ten American workers report significant job stress related to their manager's supervision style, which has broad health implications (Hogan, 2009).

The dysfunctional dispositions in the context of the HDS do not refer to actual dysfunctional behaviors such as theft, violence, or fraud (Hogan, 2009). This is important to remember, particularly given that the purpose of the forecast is the determination of subtleties in behavioral patterns, rather than actual determinations of morality (Hogan, 2009). For the most part, however, these are not neutral traits, nor are they captured in traditional leadership style or personality assessments (Reflect by GMAC, 2013).

The norms on which the HDS is based were captured from 109,000 working adults and job applicants in managerial and non-supervisory roles; the norms do tend to vary by gender, age, and ethnicity (Reflect by GMAC, 2013). The estimated test reliability ranges from between 0.43 and 0.68, with higher scores for shorter retest times (Reflect by GMAC, 2013). Focused development does result in changes to scores, which is hypothesized to indicate growth (Reflect by GMAC, 2013). Research involving a total sample of more than 5,000 executives has provided the validation of the predictive value of the HDS assessment (Reflect by GMAC, 2013). There are no indications of adverse impact on the basis of gender, ethnicity, or age (Reflect by GMAC, 2013).

Motives, Values, Preference Inventory (MVPI)

The MVPI does not discern in relation to values, but rather the assessment recognizes individual differences, which lead to independent drivers, and desires for productivity and achievement. The MVPI profile is extremely helpful in determining the fit between organizational and personal values and competencies of leaders (Reflect by GMAC, 2013). In general, performance is enhanced when the values of an individual are similar to those of the organization and colleagues (Reflect by GMAC, 2013). This assessment also provides an important assessment of alignment with the HPI and HDS

results, to the extent that their values and their behaviors fit logically, which can provide

for developmental growth and behavioral change (Reflect by GMAC, 2013). A sample of

more than 68,000 Americans in the labor force was used as the basis of the norms for the

MVPI scales. There is no evidence of adverse impact with the MVPI on the basis of

gender, age, or ethnicity; the norms reflected by each personal category do vary (Reflect

by GMAC, 2013). Test reliabilities have been estimated at 0.70 to 0.84 (Reflect by

GMAC, 2013). Further evidence of the efficacy of the predictive value has been provided

by validating against observer assessments (Reflect by GMAC, 2013).

EQ Assessment

Emotional intelligence (EI), as measured by an emotional intelligence quotient

(EQ), represents a parallel concept to the trait and leadership style theories in that each

takes place across a continuum of EI abilities and competencies (Silverman, 2018). The

level of EI is seen as related to positive leadership across the spectrum of leadership

styles. The idea of emotional intelligence was introduced in the late twentieth century,

and it has been developed as a construct of ability (Fiori & Vesely-Maillefer, 2018).

Daniel Goleman is widely associated with the concept of EI because of a series of

books that related EI within business and society. Initially a *New York Times* reporter,

Goleman helped to popularize the term and the concept of EI that was presented by

Mayer and Salovey. Goleman wrote several popular books on the subject and also

conducted research with Boyatzis who was a co-developer of the EQ-i (Boyatzis,

Goleman, & Rhee, 2000; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2013). Goleman also

differentiated the concept of social intelligence as the competency in keeping good

relationships, with obvious implications for college president selection (Goleman, 2006).

While Goleman was not a scholar in this area, the differentiation of emotional and social intelligence is considered an important contribution to the field, which has arisen from a quarter-century of research, and attention to the issue.

An important question in relation to the recruitment and selection of senior leadership is whether emotional intelligence can be learned, which is further complicated by the gap in framing EI as an observable set of behaviors. Boyatzis (2018) related the gap in the current knowledge-based on EI in leadership to how the behavior actually manifests. This also greatly increases the capacity to have standard observation driven measures that could be used in assessment (Boyatzis, 2018). Studies remain at an exploratory phase, but preliminary results appear promising. There is a working hypothesis as well that EI consists of two components, one which can be learned, and one which reflects a summary of dynamic biopsychosocial processes, some of which an individual would have little control over (Fiori & Vesely-Maillefer, 2018). While there is general agreement that self-awareness is a leadership factor that can be learned and developed, the actual emotional response and coping in leadership behavior can be influenced by development but remains largely an autonomic process.

There is a proposed relationship between EI and authentic leadership, an idealized style that refers to a leader who is able to be themselves and to be self-aware, in the context of leading (Miao, Humphrey, & Qian, 2018). There is also evidence of a relationship between authentic leadership and positive organizational outcomes that include mastering the challenges of change management (Miao et al., 2018). Studies show a positive relationship between EI and authentic leadership; although self-reported EI has a more significant correlation that EI assessment based on observed ability. This

appears to be true across genders with little variance between gender groups in terms of the results (Miao et al., 2018).

Freed's (2016) book *The Role of Emotional Intelligence in Community College Leadership* focused just on that specific aspect, providing a detailed study from which to capture insights. The main measure used in this study was the MSCEIT. The main results were that leaders themselves had little background in the concept and therefore lacked self-reflection on their own emotionally intelligent skills, abilities, and behaviors (Freed, 2016). The research also found that all college presidents scored in the high range on the Strategic Area Ability on the MSCEIT.

Emotional intelligence presents opportunities for assessment; however, this process and evaluation has been separated from that of leadership trait determination. Still, the various instruments and EI assessments provided important complementary data in relation to the understanding of leaders in higher education (Parrish, 2015). Even while there are no specific criteria to identify thresholds of leadership performance or potential performance, results in this area have become important to the coordinated and transparent processes of leadership selection (Ovans, 2015).

The assessment of emotional intelligence works from either self-reported attitudes and behaviors or observed behaviors. The three most popular means of EI assessment are the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso emotional intelligence test (MSCEIT), the Emotional Competence Inventory (ECi), and the Bar-on EQ (Bar-On, Handley, & Fund, 2006). These provide information that is used within the EI paradigm to determine the fitness of leaders for the stressful and demanding position of college presidency, including response to conflict and approaches to challenges. The assessment of emotional intelligence is

important because of evidence over the last quarter-century linking high EI or EQ to more positive outcomes. These include leadership with higher EI leading to better conditions for workers, better understanding of organizational needs, and recognition of social impacts of operations (Pandey & Rathore, 2015). These are all important aspects of good leadership in contemporary times. Poor EI is associated with the dark side of leadership. What is not known is whether EI can be learned or developed to turn promising individuals into ready leaders. Some scholars believe that, while self-awareness and emotional response can be improved, the base level of EI is an inherent part of personality. While this is reinforced by the consistent finding that successful leaders have high levels of EI, it fails to deliver important information about the EI capacity that leaders had at their time of selection. The MSCEIT, ECi, and the Bar-on EQ all provide indicators that can be used in the forecasting of leadership potential. Still, none of these are perfect science. There is no clarity, for example, regarding whether EI can predict dark-side traits, or ineffectuality, only considerable evidence that the majority of successful leaders tend to have strong EI competencies.

Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso (2002) developed the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso emotional intelligence test (MSCEIT) to evaluate EI broadly using objective and impersonal questions. The questions are designed to elicit representative responses to real life, including how the tested individual responds to emotions in the context of meeting practical goals. This represented a shift from self-reported measures (Mayer et al., 2002). A Spanish version was developed and validated soon after (Extremera, Fernández-Berrocal & Salovey, 2006). The scale results were also compared and correlated with existing measures to confirm validity and variation from currently used measures.

(Roberts, Schulze, O'Brien, MacCann, Reid, & Maul, 2006). The Emotional Competence Inventory (ECi) which was developed by Boyatzis was one of the first popular EI measurement instruments. Bar-On developed the first Bar-On emotional intelligence inventory (EQ-i) assessment instrument in the late twentieth century (Bar-On, 1997). The EQ-I uses self-reported behavior and assesses the emotional and social intelligence level which is revealed by those reports (Bar-On, 2004). Bar-On's (2006) model of emotional-social intelligence (ESI) was ultimately intended for forecasting, much like the MLQ and MSCEIT.

For this study, Hogan's EQ of Emotional Intelligence report is being utilized. This separate report provides each respondent's overall emotional intelligence. EQ impacts career success for jobs that require social interaction (Caramela, 2018; Rode, Arthaud-Day, Ramaswami & Howes, 2017). Many people with lower EQ scores are successful; factors such as aspiration, job knowledge, and innovation contribute to career success and remain independent of EQ (Grant, 2014).

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)

The MLQ is a measurement instrument based on the Full Range Leadership theory model. Therefore, the results are not purely trait-based, but rather they use traits as captured in the data collection to determine functioning along the leadership dimensions. Developed by Avolio and Bass (1995), the MLQ is considered multifactor because not only does the survey of traits allow the leader to determine where they feel they are operating on the full-range leadership continuum, based on self-reported data, but also a separate assessment option is also available when leadership is interested in subordinate feedback. The subordinate assessment provides a separate evaluation of the individual's

leadership style based on follower perception and interpretation (Avolio, Bass & Jung, 1999), The MLQ-5 short is the standard measurement instrument for leadership today, and part of its popularity is that it is suitable for a wide range of leadership types, roles and personalities (Bass & Avolio, 1995; Northouse, 2018). The version known as MLQ 5X short evaluates a broad range of leadership types based on subscales that measure idealized influence, individual consideration, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, contingent reward, management by exception, effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction.

Findings of Previous Studies of Leadership Traits
in Other Contexts

This section reviews studies from the past two decades, which provide results in relation to the traits and personality profiles of leaders in a variety of contexts. First, it is important to note that across cultures, leaders tend to show similarities in personality traits (Winsborough & Hogan, 2014). There are some provisos to that, to the extent that specific kinds of domestic organizations are less likely to be similar, while assessments of corporate executive leaders of multinational companies tend to be similar, regardless of the nationality of the individual or the company (Shalhoop & Sanger, 2012). Studies such as these have also contributed to an emerging category of leadership assessment referred to as cultural intelligence, which is currently the subject of evidence gathering, framework development and scale validation (Ang & Van Dyne, 2015; Solomon & Steyn, 2017).

Judge, Piccolo and Kosalka (2009) conducted a study of 211 corporate executives using the Big Five NEO-PI-R, the HDS, and the MVPI. They found most of the

personality variables had predictable relationships, but Neuroticism was unpredictable and varied more widely. Recognition, Power, and Security accounted for variance in the corresponding values for Aesthetics, Altruism, Security, and Power. Correlates of flawed interpersonal style were predictable from values for Recognition, Affiliation, Power, and Security.

As previously described, the 2014 Witt/Kieffler study revealed that leaders in higher education tended to have, like corporate executives, high scores in the Ambition dimension. However, leaders of higher education differed in relation to higher HPI dimensions of Learning Approach, which was above the 70th percentile, and elevated Interpersonal Sensitivity which was above the 58th percentile (Witt/Kieffler, 2013). A similarity in relation to the HDS assessment was elevated Colorful dimension and Imaginative dimension scores (Witt/Kieffler, 2013). A unique HDS trait of higher education leaders tended to be a high Leisurely dimension score above the 63rd percentile (Witt/Kieffler, 2013). In relation to the MVPI, higher education leaders tended to have high Altruistic scores and low Commerce scores, below the 30th percentile (Witt/Kieffler, 2013).

The significance of differences between leaders in higher education and corporate leaders can be summarized as one of situational, as well as an investigation of comparability. In particular, the study conducted by Witt/Kieffler was in relation to the development of creative new approaches to leader selection, which a view to understanding the opportunity for potential candidates to cross-over from corporate sector leadership to that of education (Witt/Kieffler, 2013). While the trend of hiring presidents from outside higher education had increased over the past decade to 20% in 2011, it has

declined to 15% within the past five years. Current studies reveal that boards have

increased interest in hiring executives with postsecondary experience (Seltzer, 2017).

Discussion and Summary

The purpose of this literature review has been to identify research and studies that

are relevant to determining potential CEO success and have the potential to address

executive recruitment, despite higher education leadership shortages. These shortages are

occurring across the nation, but the particular focus here was how that context was

affecting Louisiana's Community and Technical College System in terms of appropriate

strategy consideration. This has also served to provide a rationale and justification for the

methods, which were chosen for this study, which are described in more detail in the next

chapter. Background and discussion included the conceptual and theoretical frameworks

and studies that have potential implications for the research question and the methods

used. To that end, background and description were also provided in relation to the

Hogan assessment and the MLQ Short form assessment, which was applied in the study,

and described in the Methodology chapter. This provided the necessary foundation for

the study to be described, but there is also further consideration, which should be given

the conceptual framework and its application.

First, and foremost, is the issue of the validity of the concepts, theories, and

instruments. On one hand, the leadership constructs remain theories, and it may be that

what is popular in contemporary management and leadership studies is not what is

deemed to be important in the future. The assessment instruments allow for the selection

of traits, but what is less clear is which traits predict effective leadership. While the

conceptual basis for this is not perfectly developed, there has been considerable empirical

regression analyses of the dispositional characteristics of leaders and non-leaders, and this provides for guidance in which traits matter most to these populations. To that end, more studies are needed, particularly in rapidly changing times, in order to monitor trends and stay up to date, especially given the agile nature of the roles today. The second issue is a more philosophical one, and that is the extent to which using the characteristics and traits of previous leaders is simply homosocial reproduction which ensures the same type of leaders, rather than, necessarily, the most effective leadership are given the most opportunity to lead. This is a more difficult question to answer, however from a regression analysis perspective because results from these analyses show the traits of those who have been successful leaders. There is, of course, more refinement needed concerning a number of concepts, such as intergenerational differences, regional differences, and differences in relation to specific sectors and industries. To that end, this literature review and the previously conducted studies provide a starting point for studies such as the one to be conducted which offers insights regarding the traits of current leaders.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter describes the research design and rationalization, as well as the technical aspects of the methods and procedures. This includes the sample, data collection, instruments used, and the approach to assessing the resulting data.

Research Design

This mixed research design was intended as an exploration of the descriptive qualities of leaders in the sample, and to that end, the research questions were developed to guide that process. The standard psychometric tools of the Hogan assessments and the MLQ were employed to answer the research questions through comparing and assessing the traits of leaders. The instruments used in this study, as described in the literature review, were theory-based, validated, and currently in operational use for executive leadership selection in organizations. Witt/Kieffler, an executive human resources recruitment and search firm, for example, used the same format and assessment instruments in comparing college leader characteristics with that of corporate executives (Witt/Kieffler, 2013). Due to the small sample size in the current study, non-parametric correlations were utilized. More specifically, the Spearman rank-order correlation was utilized to better understand the overall relationships between characteristics assessed by

the HPI, HDS, MVPI, and MLQ. Due to the small sample size and desire to focus on the descriptive qualities, the research design is predominately qualitative in nature.

The research framework was intended to provide the following results:

Result 1: Profile of chancellors' characteristics within the Louisiana Community and Technical College System.

Result 2: Observations of the differences between chancellor profiles.

Result 3: Identification of the greatest areas of similarities between the chancellor profile measures, in terms of shared characteristics or qualities.

Result 4: Discussion of how profiles of chancellors differ from profiles of leaders developed in other contexts.

Result 5: Determine the extent of the correlation between total bright-side personality traits and dark-side personality traits with the subscales of the MLQ assessment.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework, details of which were provided in the literature review, can be summarized as commencing with the attempts to identify leadership traits beginning in the post-war period. This framework has developed into psychometric instruments that are used today in recruitment and development as important tools of human resource management. Various roots of the assessment can be traced through a genealogy of studies and scales.

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework for this study was grounded theory. Grounded theory is an exploratory approach in which the areas of interest are not predefined but instead,

are drawn from interactions of information gathering and assessment. In this case, the initial approach to the collected data was to synthesize the data in terms of average, median, and range to provide descriptive qualities. These data were then assessed against findings in the literature review in the analysis, providing ideally for new evidence in answering the research questions.

Sample and Data Collection

Twelve chancellors, representing all but one of the community colleges in the Louisiana Community and Technical College System (LCTCS), as well as the system head, were included. This was a purposive selection resulting in a convenience sample because of the very specialized nature of the participants that are required. These chancellors are diverse in terms of age, gender, race, and ethnicity, as well as the career development stage.

Data Collection

Since the inception of the Louisiana Community and Technical College System (LCTCS), an emphasis on professional development has been prioritized. The system v initially launched a statewide Leadership Development Institute (LDI), a yearlong leadership program for the up-and-coming leaders serving at all colleges within LCTCS. Years later, the program further evolved into the Louisiana Leadership Academy (LLA). Today, LLA provides support to mid-level managers to groom them for advancement within the system. While much attention has been given to the mid-level executive, LCTCS also has provided continued development to its current serving chancellors. Each month, prior to the regularly scheduled board meeting, the system hosts the President's Advisory Council of Chancellors (PACC). This advisory meeting offers chancellors an

opportunity to further develop their leadership skills and remain current with trends and issues both locally and nationally.

During the research phase of this study, a consultation with SSA Consultants was made regarding executive development, specifically regarding post-secondary education. SSA Consultants is a national consulting firm located in Baton Rouge, Louisiana, that provides a broad range of consulting services including, but not limited to, executive leadership development, and succession planning. Through numerous interviews with their CEO, Dr. Christel Slaughter, the use of the Hogan Assessment as a leading development tool for corporate executives and its growing place in academia was discussed. Dr. Slaughter previously provided services to LCTCS and understood the structure of the system and the growing need for leadership development in higher education. Through the initial research inquiry regarding the looming national leadership shortage, the President of the LCTCS was included in dialogue. President Monty Sullivan, a former chancellor of Delgado Community College, Louisiana's largest and oldest community college, was very interested in the research opportunity to further identify ways to builds successional growth and leadership development. Because of the multiple assessments available in Hogan's complete Leadership Forecast Series (LFS), it provided the chancellors an opportunity to identify both their potential (bright-side) and developmental (dark-side) qualities in a process that was confidential and validated. The administration of both the Hogan LFS and the MLQ provided an opportunity to further support the leadership development of the chancellors in their current roles, in a way that would not be tied to chancellor workplace performance. However, the opportunity to look collectively at the group was of interest, especially if it could identify trends that would

support succession planning and leadership development within the system. Based on the research opportunity presented by Hogan's LFS, the system invested in the assessment tool for the CEOs of each college and president. Each executive received an email containing two electronic links with instructions for the Hogan and to the MLQ. The twelve chancellors and president completed each of the Hogan assessments and the MLQ assessment over a period of two weeks in the spring of 2018.

While the primary focus of the assessment was for professional development, the results were requested for use in future research as deemed appropriate by LCTCS. Utilization of the research data required confidentiality and anonymity, as well as the avoidance of using job performance or effectiveness as research measures. Each of the colleges that are led by the chancellors included in this study varies greatly, and therefore measuring effectiveness in terms of school outcomes is excluded. Performance measures were restricted based on the premise that each college within the system is different in terms of size, geography, structure, population, and educational focus making it difficult for a meaningful comparison to be conducted.

Results of the assessment were disseminated in-person to each of the CEOs by Dr. Slaughter at the monthly PACC meeting, with an overview of the entire group of leaders. Included with the assessment results, each chancellor was offered a private professional counseling session by SSA consultants to further understand the results of the assessments and strategies to address any developmental deficiencies identified in HDS "dark-side" traits and ways to grow potential HPI "bright-side" traits. Each chancellor received a full printed portfolio of the LFS, MLQ report, and a Human Consent for future

research, including the research, included within. All but one chancellor participated in this research and signed the consent form.

Research Instruments

The main data collection instruments were the Hogan et al. (2009) profile assessments of the HPI, the HDS, the MVPI (including EQ), as well as the MLQ assessment development by Bass and Avolio (2004). Each of these has been subjected to extensive analysis of norms and validation and demonstrates satisfactory psychometric qualities.

HPI "Bright-side" Traits

The HPI assessment considered an assessment of positive personality characteristics, consists of seven scales in determining personality: Adjustment, Ambition, Sociability, Interpersonal Sensitivity, Prudence, Inquisitive, and Learning Approach (Hogan, 2009). The HPI assessment is based on the Five-Factor Model of personality, which identified openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism as being critical traits for leaders (Reflect by GMAC, 2013). While low scores and high scores do not necessarily correlate with positive or negative features, there is evidence that scores in certain ranges tend to be associated with indicators of healthy personality and behaviors.

When interpreting HPI scores, the scores can be split into thirds in relation to norms. HPI scores of 67 and above are considered above average, scores below 34 are considered below average, and scores from 34 to 66 representing an average range.

A description of the seven HPI scales taken from Hogan (2009) follows. Adjustment refers to self-esteem, confidence, and ability to maintain composure.

Ambition describes the extent to which the individual is competitive and ready to show initiative. Sociability refers to interest in being around people. Interpersonal sensitivity is described as the capacity to form and maintain long-term relationships and perceptiveness of the needs and interests of others. Prudence is self-explanatory, but also includes thoroughness in approach to duties. Inquisitive refers to the creative and curious aspects, which help to drive understanding and innovation. The learning approach is a personal stance in relation to lifelong learning and continuous efforts to increase capacity, and it provides role modeling for a learning organization. This scale was validated using 400 studies (Reflect by GMAC, 2013).

Hogan Developmental Survey (HDS)
"Dark-side" Traits

The constructs and norms of the HDS or dark-side traits are based on results from leaders at all organizational levels, from entry-level to senior executives and expert professionals. The original purpose of the assessment was to identify counterproductive behavioral tendencies (Spain et al., 2016). The basic scoring of the HDS scales can be broken down as 90 and above - high risk, 70 to 89 - moderate risk, 40 to 69 - low risk, and 39 and under – no risk (personal correspondence, Hogan Assessment, 2018). The scoring has also been interpreted according to norms rather than risk levels, with some analysts positing that very low scores that deviate from norms may be a cause for concern (Kaiser et al., 2015).

The HDS assessment has been validated by more than 50 studies and 750,000 instances of use (Hogan, 2009). The norms on which the HDS is based were constructed using the scores of 109,000 working adults across a variety of occupations and levels of

authority (Reflect by GMAC, 2013). The norms vary in relation to demographic factors such as gender, age, and race or ethnicity (Reflect by GMAC, 2013).

The dimensions of the HDS include Excitable, Skeptical, Cautious, Reserved, Leisurely, Bold, Mischievous, Colorful, Imaginative, Diligent, and Dutiful. A description of these HDS dimensions taken from Reflect by GMAC (2013) follows: The Excitable dimension is characterized by an overly enthusiastic and optimistic attitude in relation to people and projects, often resulting in being let down, reflecting emotions overcoming critical thinking. The Skeptical dimension concerns cynicism and sensitivity to criticism, which can affect the ability to trust in others. The Cautious dimension reflects concerns over criticism that impairs acting or making needed changes. The Reserved dimension relates to less interest in the feelings of others, and it can manifest as a lack of sensitivity towards others. The Leisurely dimension refers to independence and finding the needs of others irrelevant, and it can indicate passive aggression in relationships. The Bold dimension can be positive in terms of confidence, but it can also indicate overconfidence and a failure to learn from mistakes. The Mischievous dimension refers to a relatively high level of charm and impulse seeking that can result in overcommitting and failing to learn from mistakes. The Colorful dimension refers to attention-seeking and dramatic nature, which can be an indicator of narcissism. The Imaginative dimension indicates innovation but also can indicate eccentricity. The Diligent dimension indicates perfectionism that can result in micromanagement and disempowerment of workers. The Dutiful dimension can indicate dependence and difficulty in acting independently as a leader or to support subordinates.

Motives Values Preferences Inventory (MVPI)

The MVPI recognizes the differences in values and motivations that support individual aspirations and is useful in determining where an individual fits in relation to personal and organizational values (Reflect by GMAC, 2013). The MVPI dimensions include Recognition, Power, Hedonism, Altruistic, Affiliation, Tradition, Security, Commerce, Aesthetics, and Science. As with the HPI, the scoring assessment is split into thirds representing below average, average, and above-average scores. However, high or low results are not necessarily correlated with positive or negative connotations (Personal Correspondence, Hogan Assessments, 2018). The norms for the MVPI involved 68,000 Americans across occupations and authority levels (Reflect by GMAC, 2013). Each dimension simply represents the respondent's interest or focus in that area: Recognition, Power, Hedonism, Altruistic, Affiliation, Tradition, Security, Commerce, Aesthetics, and Science.

EQ Emotional Intelligence

While emotional intelligence (EQ) has been widely studied for nearly three decades, many researchers have conflicting opinions on the topic. Differing views exist concerning emotional intelligence including the accuracy of how it is measured, whether it is a predictor of success, and if it is, in fact, an actual form of intelligence (Feldman-Barrett, 2017; Grant, 2012; McCrimmon, 2009). While these opposing views are considered in this research, enough evidence of the importance of emotional intelligence in leadership roles are supported to recognize EQ as a valued leader attribute.

The EQ assessment is a distinct screening tool related to positive leadership across leadership styles as a construct of ability (Fiori & Vesely-Maillefer, 2018). The

dimensions of Hogan's EQ report are Awareness, Detection, Regulation, Influence, Expression, and Empathy. In general, interpreting these scores is based on quartiles (Personal Correspondence, Hogan Assessments, 2018). To that end, scores below 25 are considered low, scores up to 50 are considered below average, those above 50 are considered above average, and those above 75 are considered to be high (Personal Correspondence, Hogan Assessments, 2018). These scores can also be averaged to provide a summary EQ score.

A description of the EQ dimensions follow (Personal Correspondence, Hogan Assessment, 2018): Awareness refers to the awareness of an individual of their own emotions; low scorers tend to be apathetic toward self-reflection and analysis whereas high scorers tend to be more interested in self-reflection, and more aware of how their emotions impact their moods and decisions. Detection refers to the capacity to be aware of the moods of others. Regulation refers to the self-management of moods and emotions. The final dimensions are influence, expression, and empathy.

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)
Full Range Leadership

The MLQ has four main dimensions - transformational, transactional, passive/avoidant, and outcomes. Each of these is measured using two or more constructs that contribute toward a final score in each area. The norms are based on the responses of more than 3,755 leaders who have taken the assessment. The dimensions are transformational leadership, transactional leadership, passive avoidance leadership, and the outcomes of leadership behaviors. The scoring is overlapping, and the results are not an overall determination of leadership style.

Analysis Framework

Description

The analysis framework has five main parts:

- The profile of a typical chancellor of the LTCTS (data required are the responses to the HPI, HDS, and MVPI);

- Identification of the areas of widest variation and similarities in the individual chancellor traits and profiles (data required are the responses to the HPI, HDS, and MVPI);

- Identification of differences and similarities between the LTCTS chancellor profiles and leaders developed in other contexts (data required are the responses to the HPI, HDS, and MVPI);

- Description of correlations of bright-side personality traits and dark-side personality traits in chancellors (data required are the responses to the HPI, HDS, and the MLQ); and

- Assessment of the resulting leadership profiles in relation to personality and values traits.

Limitations, Reliability, and Validity

There are several limitations to the research, given the qualitative and exploratory investigation with a small sample. More specifically, the results may not be representative or applicable to other populations. The sample had twice as many male (eight) as female (four) participants, and any gender differences should be interpreted with caution and regarded only as material suggesting future study.

Ethical Considerations

The main ethical consideration in any study involving human subjects is developing research designs and processes that ensure participants will not be harmed or face increased risks. Because of the very small sample, as well as the public nature of the chancellor position, it is likely that the participants can be identified, though not as individuals. To that end, confidentiality and privacy are typically assured for subjects in a research study; however, this promise cannot be made because of the real possibility that readers will link characteristics described in the results and the individuals who participated. Mitigating this situation involves, first and foremost, seeking informed consent, which includes agreement to terms which make it impossible to assure privacy and confidentiality. The sample had twice as many male (8) as female (4) participants, and any gender difference should be interpreted with caution and regarded only as material suggesting future studies.

A second ethical consideration is in relation to the proprietary nature of some of the instruments, such as all of the assessments in the Hogan Forecast Series. Prior to delivering or interpreting these studies, a Hogan's Assessment Certification Program is provided for professionals to be qualified to deliver the Hogan Personality Inventory (HPI) Hogan Development Survey (HDS) Motives, Values, Preferences Inventory (MVPI*)* (Hogan, 2019). These certification courses are offered in conference settings in various locations over two to three days and cost $2,300 (Hogan, 2019). In this case, that was not necessary, because the assessment services were contracted through Hogan and Associates, thereby ensuring licensing compliance.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Introduction

Chapter 4 describes the results of three different personality assessment instruments which were completed by the 12 participants in the sample: Hogan's Personality Inventory, Hogan's Development Survey, and Hogan's Motives, Values, Preferences Inventory. First, the sample will be described, followed by the results by instrument.

Sample Characteristics

There were 12 participants in the sample, all of whom hold or have held a position of senior leadership in a school within the Louisiana Community and Technical College System. Nine participants were white, two were black and one identified as Hispanic. Eight of the participants were male, and four were female. There were no black males or Hispanic females in the sample. The mean age of participants was 53 years of age; the range was from 45 to 68 years of age. The average age of female chancellors was 51 years; for males, it was 54. See Figure 1 for a graphic breakdown of participant ethnicity.
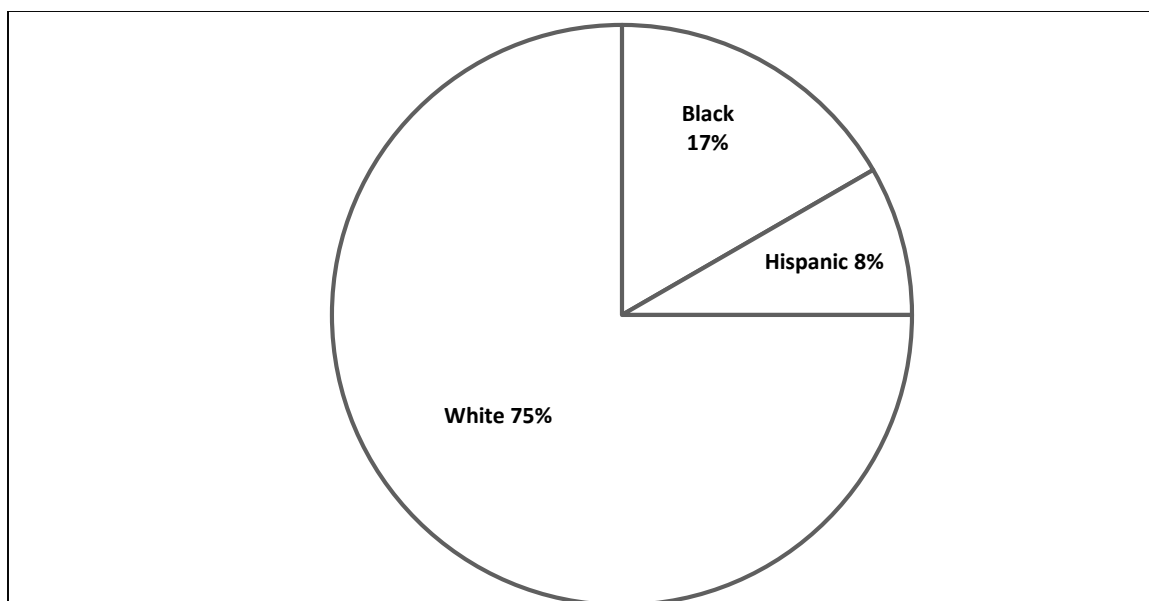
Figure 1 *Race/Ethnicity of Participants*

Hogan Personality Inventory: A Measure of 'Bright-Side" Traits

The Hogan Personality Inventory (HPI) was completed by each of the

participants, and the results were scored for each of the seven scales: Adjustment,

Ambition, Sociability, Interpersonal Sensitivity, Prudence, Inquisitiveness, and Learning

Approach by the Hogan Corporation. This section provides the range, mean, median, and

comparative results, as well as variance between demographic profiles for the HPI

results.

Synthesized HPI Profile of Typical Chancellor

A synthesized HPI profile was created using the mean and median scores for the

12 chancellors on the seven HPI scales. As reported in Table 1, for most of the HPI

scales, the mean and median scores ranged between high 30s and high 40s, including the

scale scores for Adjustment, Sociability, Interpersonal Sensitivity, and Learning

Approach. Thus, the synthesized (i.e., mean) HPI profile for the 12 chancellors was

within the average range, according to HPI norms. The Inquisitive scale had a slightly

higher mean and median score than the other scales, though these scale scores were still

in the average range, according to norms. In summary, the synthesized profile of the 12

chancellors on the seven HPI scales was in the average range according to Hogan's HPI

norms.

Table 1

Mean and Median HPI Scale Scores for the 12 Chancellors

HPI Scale	Mean	Median
ADJUSTMENT	45	44
AMBITION	53	55
SOCIABILITY	46	44
INTERPERSONAL SENSITIVITY	49	39
PRUDENCE	38	46
INQUISITIVE	48	50
LEARNING APPROACH	46	46

However, in some cases, the mean and median HPI scale scores were somewhat

misleading because they did not accurately represent the variability of individual scores

on some of the scales. For example, the Prudence scale recorded a mean and a median in

the average range; however, the mode (or most common rating) was in the high 50s (viz.

58), indicating the presence of some high scores. This variability was even more

pronounced for the Ambition scale. In general, the scores for Ambition were considerably

higher than the scores for other scales. Ambition was the only scale on which the mode

was more than 30 points higher than the average or median, indicating considerable

variability in individual scores.

Hogan Development Survey: A Measure of "Dark-Side" Traits

The Hogan Development Survey (HDS) was completed by the 12 participants. This section provides the range, mean, median, mode, and comparative results, as well as variance between profiles for the HDS results. To briefly review the scoring and interpretation of the HDS, scores under 40 are considered no risk, and scores above 90 are considered high risk; scores from 40 to 59 are considered low risk, while scores from 60 to 79 are considered a moderate risk (personal correspondence, Hogan Assessment, 2018).

Synthesized HDS Profile of the Average Chancellor

Given the diverse responses, these participants did not present a unified profile across chancellors. A synthesized profile was created using the mean and median HDS scores for the participants in the sample. There was considerable variation in HDS scores, with certain scales having very high mean, median, and mode scores, including Reserved, Imaginative, Excitable, Skeptical, Cautious, and Leisurely which ranged from 65 to 97, indicating moderate to high risk. The only scale with a clear low score was Bold, with scores ranging between 22 and 38, which were all in the no-risk zone. The other scales - Diligent, Dutiful, Colorful, and Mischievous - contain a mix of scores in the mid-range, with a few outliers. Although there was no clear pattern, the synthesized chancellor profile, as compared to HDS norms, can be presumed to score higher than is typical on many HDS Scales, particularly on the Reserved, Imaginative, Excitable, Skeptical, Cautious, and Leisurely Scales. This can be assumed to the extent that successfully earning a position at the chancellor level is indicative of many common qualities that drive different individuals to become competent in leadership and seek out positions in

higher education. Overall, all but three HDI scale means indicated some level of risk, with three scales (Reserved, Imaginative, Excitable) indicating a high level of risk. The results can be seen in the table below. While the high mean and median scores can seem surprising, there are more complex aspects at work than simply a determination that a high score is bad, or that a low score is good. The HPI, while also tied to norms rather than score value, does not have the same magnitude of correlation as the HPI in relation to the prediction of positive outcomes. The interpretation of HPI norms can be very problematic, as ideally, it would include occupational area and regional cultural variation. The high scores should, therefore, be interpreted within the mindset of appropriate specific norms, rather than as pure values. The results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Mean/Median HDS Results

HDS Scale	Mean	Median
RESERVED	83	88
IMAGINATIVE	80	94
EXCITABLE	76	93
SKEPTICAL	68	72
CAUTIOUS	67	69
LEISURELY	65	72
MISCHIEVOUS	64	76
COLORFUL	62	67
DUTIFUL	58	55
DILIGENT	50	49
BOLD	38	28

The relatively high scores on the Reserved scale would indicate a tendency to withdraw and isolate oneself when under pressure or stressed. Such a person can be perceived as distant and cold. High scorers on the Imaginative scale may have some

difficulty with making conceptual connections and organizing and communicating their thoughts so that others can understand them. High scores on the Excitable scale indicate potential volatile moodiness or rapid movement between optimism and pessimism. High scores on Skeptical indicate assumptions of agendas and hidden motives in others and a lack of trust. High scores on Cautious may indicate a level of risk aversion that can impair decision-making and progress. The Leisurely scale refers to agreeableness that is not in synergy with actual efforts or cooperation, which can damage the credibility of the individual. The lowest area of the HDS based on mean, median, and mode was the Bold scale, which may indicate over-confidence and aggressive expectations and standards that may not be feasible.

It is important to note that Kaiser et al. (2015) indicated that it was the deviation from norms, rather than the absolute level of the trait in the HDS assessment, that is critical. Also, it was found that a majority of the individual scores for the HDS scales were less than 30 or more than 70.

Motives, Values, Preferences Inventory (MVPI)

The Motives, Values, Preferences Inventory (MVPI) was completed by the 12 participants in the sample. This section provides the range, mean, and median, comparative results, as well as variation between demographic profiles for the MVPI results.

Synthesized MVPI Profile of the Average Chancellor

A synthesized profile was created using the mean, median, and mode scores for the participants in the sample. The two highest-scoring MVPI scales, in terms of the

mean and median, were the Altruistic and Aesthetic scales. The lowest scores were on the

Commercial, Affiliation, and Recognition scales, which one can assume is a departure

from leadership profiles in private industry. The responses had an average of 39 and a

median of 35 (see Table 3).

Table 3

Average/Median MVPI Results

MVPI Scale	Average	Median
AESTHETIC	51	62
AFFILIATION	29	19
ALTRUISTIC	58	71
COMMERCIAL	33	24
HEDONISTIC	48	46
POWER	42	44
RECOGNITION	28	11
SCIENTIFIC	39	35
SECURITY	48	53
TRADITION	42	38

Gender Differences in MVPI Scores

It is not the purpose of this research to elaborate on gender differences, as the

small numbers do not support such a comparison. However, findings do suggest a good

topic for future research. In this sample, which is very small and unbalanced by gender,

the greatest gender difference in mean MVPI scores was on the Tradition and Hedonistic

scales, with males having higher scores on Tradition, and females scoring higher on

Hedonistic. There were relatively large gender differences in the Aesthetic, Security, and

Scientific scales, with the females scoring highest on the Aesthetic scale, whereas the

mean male scores were highest on Security and Scientific scales. The results are available

in Table 4.

Table 4

Gender Differences in Average MVPI Scores

MVPI SCALES	FEMALE	MALE	VARIANCE
TRADITION	14.00	**55.50**	41.50
HEDONISTIC	**69.75**	36.38	33.37
AESTHETIC	**62.00**	44.80	17.20
SECURITY	36.25	**53.38**	17.13
SCIENTIFIC	28.50	**44.25**	15.75
RECOGNITION	**33.25**	24.88	8.37
POWER	37.00	**44.00**	7.00
AFFILIATION	24.25	**31.00**	6.75
ALTRUISTIC	53.75	**60.50**	6.75
COMMERCIAL	32.00	**33.88**	1.88

A higher average score is bolded.

Emotional Intelligence Quotient (EQ)

The emotional intelligence quotient (EQ) was completed by the 12 participants as part of the MVPI results. The EQ score was represented by scores organized for six areas: Awareness, Detection, Regulation, Influence, Expression, and Empathy. The result was an overall EQ score. This section provides the ranges, mean, median, and comparative results as well as variance between demographic profiles for the EQ results.

Synthesized EQ Profile of Average Chancellor

The synthesized profile of the average chancellor, based on extrapolation, has the highest scores in Awareness (average 61 and median 59) and Detection (average 58 and median 66). When compared to norms, these scores indicate an above-average score in these areas, but not high scores. The lowest scores were in Empathy, Expression, and Regulation, all of which had means and medians in the mid20s to high 30s, indicating a below-average score in these areas. The overall EQ as determined by overall mean and

median was in the mid-40s range, which is considered to be below average (personal

correspondence, Hogan Assessments, 2018). The results are shown in Table 5.

Table 5

Average/Median EQ Results

EQ Scale	Average	Median
EQ_AWARENESS	61	59
EQ_DETECTION	58	66
EQ_INFLUENCE	43	39
EQ_REGULATION	38	28
EQ_EXPRESSION	36	32
EQ_EMPATHY	33	26
EQ_OVERALL	**45**	**42**

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) was completed by the 12

participants in the sample, and the scores were organized by Transformation,

Transactional, Passive Avoidance, and Outcome Dimensions, leading to a better

understanding of leadership style (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Synthesized MLQ Profile of Average Chancellor

The synthesized profile of the typical chancellor showed the greatest range in

relation to the level of Transactional leadership, and the least amount in relation to

Transformational leadership. Overall, the synthesized MLQ profile of the chancellors in

the sample indicates a higher than average score, however, this score is also at the low

end of the normative score of between three and four for effective transformational

leadership behaviors, as described in the technical aspect of the metric in Chapter 3.

Within the Transformational dimension, the minimum was only slightly below the

leadership range, and the average was well within the expected range according to the

MLQ norms. The Passive-Avoidant dimension showed the low scores that would be

expected. Overall, the scores did not indicate what type of leadership style was most

prominent, but rather that there was considerable comfort with both transactional and

transformational leadership styles. The results are displayed in Table 6.

Table 6

Synthesized MLQ Profile and Range

Metric	Transformational	Transactional	P/A	Outcomes
Average	3.32	2.27	0.55	3.19
Median	3.25	2.28	0.35	3.27
Min	2.90	1.80	0.00	2.50
Max	3.70	3.15	1.25	3.57

Spearman Rank Order Correlation

Spearman's non-parametric rank order correlation can provide an interesting

approach to better understanding these results by providing for an overall indication of

relationships between the dispositional characteristics assessed by the HPI, HDS, MVPI,

and MLQ. The Spearman rank-order correlation is used because of the small sample size

(n = 12). All assessment instruments were measured by ordinal (or higher) scales of

measurement, which is a requirement for use of the Spearman correlation statistic. In the

case of the HPI or bright-side traits, higher numbers indicate higher scores. The HDS

presents two potential approaches; one being that a better score is indicated either by

lower numbers or by a degree of variation from average scores. The MVPI scores,

assessing motives and values, do not have a clear relationship between scores and

negative versus positive features. The MLQ, like the HPI, can be considered in terms of

higher scores meaning more positive scores in relation to the leadership dimensions. The procedures for the method are fairly simple; the actual scores are converted to ranks, then those ranks are used as input into the Spearman correlation procedure. There are two approaches to dealing with ties (i.e., the same score on a measure occurring multiple times). In this case, the highest rank was retained, but the score after the repeated score was ranked by the next ordinal number. For example, if the three top scores were the same numerical value, each of these scores would be given the highest rank of 12 (the number of participants), but the second-highest numerical score would be ranked as nine. With the current sample size of 12, in order for a Spearman correlation to be statistically significant at $p < 0.05$, two-tailed, it must exceed a value of 0.59.

The first non-parametric test of correlation using Spearman's rank-order method examined the relationship between the HPI total scores (i.e., the total of all bright-side traits) and scores on the MLQ transformational leadership dimension and found that there was a correlation of 0.45, indicating a moderate positive association. This exercise continued with a test of the correlation between the HDS total scores and the MLQ transformational dimension which had a small inverse association of -0.12 Not surprisingly, the strongest correlation was the inverse relationship between low HDS scores and high EQ scores. Surprisingly, the next strongest rank-order correlation was between the MLQ transformational dimension and the transactional dimension at 0.59. This recalls the musings of Bass, in the context of the debate between transformational and transactional leadership styles, viz. that in many contexts a great deal of both predicts success (Bass, 1997). The least correlated dimensions were EQ and Transactional dimension scores, followed by HDS and Transformational dimension scores, and HDS

and Transactional scores. Overall, the HPI (bright-side/positive traits) correlated

moderately and positively with both Transformational and Transactional leadership

scores. HDS scores correlated weakly and negatively with Transformational and

Transactional leadership scores. EQ scores were moderately and negatively correlated

with Transformational leadership scores but were not correlated with Transactional

leadership scores. The power level for the determination of significance in this exercise

was 0.50, which is relatively low due to the small sample size. It is important to note that

moderate-sized correlations, in the range of 0.35 through 0.50 such as those found here

would be statistically significant given a larger sample size (e.g., n = 30). Therefore, the

positive direct correlations between HPI total scores and the two leadership styles

(transformational and transactional), although not statistically significant do warrant

interpretation and further research. Table 7 displays the results.

Table 7

Spearman Rank Order Correlations Between Dimensions

Score Dimensions	Transformational	Transactional	HPI	HDS
TRANSFORMATIONAL				
TRANSACTIONAL	0.59			
HPI	0.45	0.34		
HDS	-0.12	-0.22	0.31	
EQ	-0.23	-0.05	0.58	-0.62*

= p < .05 two tailed

In general, the Spearman rank-order exercise did provide for better understanding

of clustering of low risk scores versus high-risk scores, as can be seen in the following

table where the rank orders for each of the major assessment dimensions (i.e., HPI, HDS

EQ, transformational leadership, transactional leadership) have been provided in a summarized rank order. The highest rankings are at the top and the lowest ranking at the bottom. It is clear that scores considered to be good or positive tend to cluster, just as scores considered to be bad or negative seemed to cluster; however, this did not mean that those with high scores always had high scores, and in fact among the chancellors ranted in the top four, three of them each had a dimension score that was in the bottom third. The rankings are presented in Table 8.

Table 8

Rank Order of Rank Ordered Dimensions

ID	Transformational	Transactional	HPI	HDS	EQ	Total
P1	9	10	10	12	10	51
P6	12	11	11	3	8	45
P10	6	3	12	11	12	44
P5	12	10	7	9	3	41
P3	12	10	8	5	5	40
P11	1	6	5	10	11	33
P8	8	12	6	2	4	32
P12	5	5	3	8	9	30
P2	5	4	9	4	7	29
P4	8	1	4	7	6	26
P7	5	7	1	1	2	16
P9	5	1	2	6	1	15

Green indicates scores in the top third, blue indicates the middle third, and peach indicates the bottom third of scores.

Spearman Correlations Between Personality Traits (HPI and HDS Total Scores) and MLQ Subscales

The scores for each of the MLQ subscales and total scores for the HPI and HDS were analyzed using Spearman rank-order correlations. The purpose of this was to provide an understanding of whether higher total scores in terms of bright-side

personality traits (HPI) and dark-side personality traits (HDS) were associated with

higher scores in relation to the MLQ leadership subscales. For the purpose of the

Spearman rank order, the results were inverted for the HDS ranking so that higher-

ranking represented more positive (that being lower) scores. Again, with the current

sample size of 12, in order for a Spearman correlation to be statistically significant at $p <$

.05, two-tailed, it must exceed a value of 0.59. Overall, there were a few variables with a

correlation higher than the chosen significance level of + or - 0.59. The findings are

presented in Table 9.

Table 9

Spearman Rank Order Correlations of HPI and HDS Total Scores with MLQ Subscales

MLQ SUBSCALE	TYPE	CORRELATION WITH HPI RANK	CORRELATION WITH HDS RANK
Age	Demographic variable	0.13	0.16
Builds Trust (IIA)	MLQ subscale of Transformational trait	0.10	0.01
Acts with Integrity (IIB)	MLQ subscale of Transformational trait	0.34	-0.30
Encourages Others (IM)	MLQ subscale of Transformational trait	**0.69**	0.09
Encourages Innovative Thinking (IS)	MLQ subscale of Transformational trait	0.18	-0.07
Coaches & Develops People (IC)	MLQ subscale of Transformational trait	**0.58**	0.19
Rewards Achievement (CR)	MLQ subscale of Transactional trait	**0.64**	0.31
Monitors Deviations & Mistakes (MBEA)	MLQ subscale of Transactional trait	-0.05	**-0.66**
Fights Fires (MBEP)	MLQ subscale of Passive-Avoidance	0.13	-0.18
Avoids Involvement (LF)	MLQ subscale of Passive-Avoidance	-0.13	-0.38
Generates Extra Effort (EE)	MLQ subscale of Outcomes trait	0.42	0.46
Is Productive (EFF)	MLQ subscale of Outcomes trait	0.55	0.45
Generates Satisfaction (SAT)	MLQ subscale of Outcomes trait	0.36	0.49
TRANSFORMATIONAL	Rank based on total score	0.50	0.06
TRANSACTIONAL	Rank based on total score	0.34	-0.23

Scores close to, or above 0.59 are bolded for convenience.

Spearman rank order was also applied to age, although this is not, in fact, part of

the MLQ assessment. Regarding age, Spearman correlation scores indicated non-

significant relationships between age and HPI total scores ($r_s = 0.13$, *ns*) and between age

and HDS scores (r*s* = 0.16, *ns*). The first set of subscales for which correlation of

Spearman rank order was calculated in relation to the HPI and HDS included the

Transformational subscales of Builds Trust (IIA), Acts with Integrity (IIB), Encourages

Others (IM), Encourages Innovative Thinking (IS), and Coaches & Develops People (IC).

IIA and IS showed weak correlations with either HPI or HDS, with values of less than

0.2. IIB showed moderate correlations to both HPI and HDS, with correlation levels of

0.34 for the HPI and 0.30 for HDS. IM showed a statistically significant correlation with

the HPI total scores, with a relatively strong correlation of 0.69, but with a small non-

significant correlation with HDS. IC also displayed a moderate correlation with HPI, with

a value of 0.58 and a non-significant correlation with the HDS ($r_s = 0.19$). The

Transaction trait subscales were Rewards Achievement (CR) and Monitors Deviations &

Mistakes (MBEA). CR showed a statistically significant correlation with HPI rank with a

value of 0.64, while there was also some moderate but not significant relation with HDS,

which had a value of 0.30. MBEA showed significant correlation with HPI, but a

significant inverse relationship with HDS rank order, indicating that this trait was

correlated with the more negative, higher values of the HDS (as scores were inverted in

the rank ordering exercise). The Passive Avoidance subscales of MBEP and LF did not

show a significant correlation. The Outcomes trait of the MLQ includes Generates Extra

Effort (EE),   Is Productive (EFF) and Generates Satisfaction (SAT), and each of these

had fairly high correlation with both HPI and HDS order ranks, but these did not always

reach the level of required significance except for EFF which was just above the threshold. The correlation between rank ordering of total Transformation and Transactional subscale scores revealed that there was an overall correlation between Transformational traits and HPI which was just below the threshold for significance at 0.497 (rounded to 0.50), with no corresponding correlation to HDS traits. The Transactional total score showed some possible correlation to HPI with a score of 0.34 that did not meet the significance threshold and a slightly inverted relationship to HDS traits, which also did not meet threshold requirements with a value of -0.23.

Summary

Overall, there was noticeable diversity in the profiles of the 12 chancellors. There were some notable relationships between constructs. However, the general overall effect was that positive scores, like negative scores, tended to cluster by individual. There were some relatively strong relationships, such as that between Transformational and Transactional leadership constructs, as well we between EQ and HDS that were interesting to note. However, they did not have a direct impact in terms of human resource management, because this study did not investigate the relationships between these measured variables and job performance.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

This chapter provides the interpretation of the results, including preliminary analysis, as well as specific responses to the research questions. This includes the interpretation of similarities and trends across each assessment dimension, the differences, responses to the research questions on which the study was based, and concluding reflections.

Similarities and Trends

Like national reports, one of the strongest similarities between participants was based on their demographic features, namely that 75% were white, and 66% were male, with an average age of 53, given the range of 45 to 68 years of age (AACC, 2018).

Outliers

One profile, in particular, stood out because the participant had the lowest total HPI score, the highest total HDS score, and a very low score on the MVPI. At first glance, this would seem to indicate low levels of bright-side traits, high levels of dark-side traits, and few strong preferences, values or interests. Regarding this individual, whether looking at the framework of high scores or deviations from the norm, there seemed to be

considerable potential for development and increasing capacity in these areas measured by the HDS.

Hogan Personality Inventory Results

The Hogan Personality Inventory (HPI) provided a range of scores, with the mean and median scores in the high 30s to high 40s for scales that represented bright-side traits. The Inquisitive trait had a slightly higher mean across the participants and was more likely to be one of the highest-scoring traits.

Ambition and Prudence were average in overall rankings, but a relatively large number of participants had high scores. The rankings of scales tended to be fairly similar across group members, with a few notable exceptions discussed in the next section. Based on mean scores, Interpersonal Sensitivity was typically one of the highest-scoring scales, as was Sociability and Learning Approach. The group mean for the Inquisitive scale was above the normative mean. High scorers on the Inquisitive trait are described as quick-witted persons who may easily become bored, whereas low scorers are described as being more practical, down to earth, and willing to take on repetitive tasks (Hogan, 2009).

Hogan Development Survey Results

The HDS results, while referred to as dark-side traits, holds more sophisticated information than a simple bad or good assessment (Kaiser et al., 2015). In fact, the complexity is in part because personnel in different industries and work sectors have differing norms on the various scales (Furnham, Hyde & Trickey, 2012; 2014). High scores, in general, were noted on the HDS scales of Reserved, Imaginative, Excitable, Skeptical, Cautious, and Leisurely, which ranged between 65 and 97 for the average and

median. One of the lowest scores was on the Bold scale, with scores between 22 and 38.

Another finding was the relationship between low HDS scores and high EQ scores. Thus, those scoring lower on the HDS scales tended to have higher emotional quotient scores. To speculate, this finding is reasonable, because the HDS assesses traits associated with less adequate adjustment, and the EQ can arguably be viewed as providing an indication of emotional adjustment.

Motives, Values, Preferences Inventory Results

The MVPI represents motives, values, preferences, and interests, and to that end, profiles can, and in this instance did, vary dramatically. High or low scores represent different levels of commitment to each of these areas, and an overall very low or very high score is somewhat perplexing. To speculate, very low total scores might reflect a respondent who is depressed or perhaps detached or disengaged from life. Whereas very high total scores might reflect a person who is displaying an acquiescent response set. In this sample of chancellors, there was a distinct group with lower scores across all of the scales of the MVPI. The lowest areas across the sample, in general, were on the Commercial, Affiliation, and Recognition scales, and the high score area was the Altruistic scale. The highest score for the four lowest scoring individuals in the sample was Hedonistic. Several participants had lower interests for the Scientific scale, which was indicated by the model for this scale is 1, even though the mean and median were in the 40s.

Emotional Quotient (EQ) Results

The Emotional Quotient (EQ) or level of an individual's emotional intelligence is historically ill defined and many researchers contend that there is not a satisfactory

measure for it, let alone a good conceptual framework for reviewing EQ. However, the synthesized profile overall showed below-average scores in relation to the overall EQ and the component dimensions, and this was somewhat of a surprise. The Awareness and Detection Scales showed means and median scores which were above average, but all other EQ Scales had means and median scores, which were very low, or below average, with the lowest scores in Empathy. The overall EQ of the synthesized chancellor was in the mid-40s. Differences between high and low scorers indicated a wide variation and some disparity in competencies. For example, the profiles of the participants in the top half of scorers in the sample was rather different from the profiles of the participants in the bottom half of scorers. The profile of the high scoring chancellors revealed that Detection was very high, with a mean of over 92. While the mean for Influence just met the threshold to be considered very high, the Awareness, Regulation, and Empathy scores were in the 60s, and Expression just barely met the threshold. The low scoring half of the sample, on the other hand, had scores that were on average very low, and far below average in every single area. The lowest scores for the low scoring group were Empathy and Expression; none of the dimensions had average scores for the low scoring group that was significantly higher than the lowest scores.

The data and scores would seem to indicate that there are two very different kinds of chancellors in relation to EQ. The high scorers tend to have above-average scores across EQ dimensions, although very high scores were somewhat limited. The low scorers tend to have very low scores in every area. The implications, according to Parrish (2015) and others who have studied EQ in relation to leaders in higher education, are an opportunity for improving leadership capacity across the college system by supporting

development opportunities in relation to EQ, with a specific focus on empathy, inspiring others, and self-management (Parrish, 2015). Another possibility, as stated previously, is that the EQ results are not meaningfully interpretable because of fundamental definitional and measurement problems with the emotional intelligence construct.

Differences and Related Factors

There were great differences in assessment instrument profiles among the 12 respondents; these differences represent the diversity of the personalities, backgrounds, and individuals, and also the areas of assessment that do not have a strong correlation across the participant profiles. All of the HPI scales, which measure the bright-side traits, displayed considerable variation, which could be seen in the fact that the scale with the smallest variation still had a 63-point range. Of all of the HPI scales, Learning Approach displayed the greatest range of difference. A comparison of overall low scoring and high scoring individuals revealed that the Inquisitiveness Scale displayed one of the lowest scores across groups. However, the high scoring group had Adjustment and Ambition as two of the highest scale scores, while Adjustment and Ambition were usually among the lowest scores for the lowest scoring group. This division on the basis of Adjustment and Ambition was predictive of other results across the assessments. The greatest difference overall was between those who scored fairly highly across most groups, and those who had fairly negative scores across all groups. Interestingly, low scores carried into the results of the MVPI, even though these scores represented only interest in various areas (i.e., not an evaluative dimension). This result should not be interpreted without further information, as it may, for example, represent a more introverted personality.

Limitations

There were many limitations to this research investigation. These limitations include the assessments and analysis as well as the representativeness and validity of the findings because of the small sample size and the small number of women in the sample. The exploration and interpretation of the data on the basis of gender was undertaken with caution given the small sample size and few female participants. Results for gender differences should be regarded as mere indications of potential areas for future research. It may provide insight for comparison in these specific circumstances of the sample in relation to the HPI, HDS, MVPI, and EQ assessments, as well as potential baseline data to support future research studies within the LCTCS and other similar organizations in a theoretically meaningful way.

Gender

The bright-side HPI traits which differed the most between genders included Interpersonal Sensitivity and Inquisitive scales (being male yielded a much higher score) and the Learning Approach scale (being female yielded a moderately higher score) In general for this small sample, male participants had higher scores across HPI scales. This pattern found in the HPI synthesis on the basis of gender was reversed in relation to the HDS or dark-side traits. Male chancellors yielded lower scores across the HDS scales. The most notable differences between genders in this small sample on the HDS traits were for the Skeptical, Reserved, and Cautious scales, with females scoring higher.

In relation to the HDS or dark traits, the differences that were noted between male and female participants included a very different synthesized profile for each, with the male participant mean and median being much lower than that of female participants on a

global scale. When viewed at the individual level, however, it is clear that more males compose the top 50 percentile of HDS scores, simply as a function of their greater proportion in the sample. There are two female participants with very high HDS scores and two female participants who are in the bottom 50 percentile of scores. It is clearly not the case that all of the female participants in this sample had high HDS scores, and to some extent, the very high HDS scores of one female participant created gravity in terms of the central tendency, which was pushed higher. These results emphasize the importance of utilizing caution in the interpretation of gender results for this study.

The MVPI scores do not represent positive or negative traits, but rather reflect an interest or value in specific areas of motivation, preferences, and interests. The greatest difference between participants on the basis of gender in MVPI scores was in relation to the Tradition and Hedonistic scales. The male participants had higher scores for the Tradition, Security, and Scientific scales, while female participants had higher scores on the Aesthetic and Hedonistic scale. It is noted that the obtained gender differences are consistent with what is typically regarded as traditional or stereotypical gender role socialization.

One of the most surprising results was the division on the basis of gender in the EQ results, where the women showed overall less potential than the male participants – at least on the basis of this EQ assessment. The average EQ score of male participants was approximately 10% higher than the average EQ score of female participants, and the greatest difference was in relation to Empathy. The EQ Detection scale had the greatest differences between genders. However, the average EQ score was inflated due to three males scoring in the upper quartile. Overall, however, the chancellors had low scores in

comparison to the norms of the test. Due to the small sample size, generalization to the general population of chancellors must be guarded; these preliminary findings may provide a fruitful avenue for future research.

Responding to Research Questions

This section provides the responses to the research questions on which the research study was based.

Typical LCTCS Chancellor

The first research question asked whether there was a profile of a typical or average chancellor of the Louisiana Community and Technical College System based on the measures and responses. The synthesized profile reveals that there is a comfort level with both transformational and transactional leadership styles, with a preference for transformational leadership. There are clear signs that chancellors have a wide range of interests and values, which is what might be expected as a representation of the diversity in society. Bright-side traits that were prominent in this sample included the Inquisitive, Ambition, Prudence, and Learning Approach. To that end, while no typical profile emerged, there was substantial convergence of results in the identified areas.

Widest Variation and Divergence

The second research question sought to understand the areas of widest variation in the chancellor profiles. This covered the range of constructs across the dimensions, particularly the MVPI, which measures various values and interests. Another area with extreme variation was the measurement of dark-side traits and EQ, with a diverse range of chancellor scores both within and outside of the norms established for each assessment.

**Shared Characteristics and Qualities
of LCTCS Chancellors**

The third question was for the purpose of identifying the greatest areas of

resonance between the chancellor profiles, in terms of shared characteristics or qualities.

Overall the greatest similarities were in the leadership traits and interests determined by

the MVPI, but with considerable variation and diversity across scales. No patterns were

found in relation to demographic characteristics, but this is in part due to the very small

sample size in some categories. In relation to leadership characteristics revealed by the

MLQ, one of the greatest similarities between chancellors was a higher level of

transformational leadership qualities, but also a high level of comfort with transactional

leadership styles.

**Typical LCTCS Chancellor and Comparison
to Other Contexts**

The fourth research question sought to investigate how the profiles of chancellors

differ from profiles of leaders developed in other contexts. One of the main points of

reference for comparing the LCTCS chancellors in the sample comes from the data

collected in the 2014 Witt/Kieffler study, which compared corporate executives and

leaders in higher education. One of the main findings in that report related to the low

score of higher education leaders in relation to Commerce in the MVPI, and the much

higher scores in relation to the Learning Approach, a dimension of the HPI. Overall, this

trend, reported by Witt/Kieffler, was replicated in relation to the chancellors of the

LCTCS.

Empirical testing of the relationships between the total scores on the two

personality measures (HPI measure of bright-side traits and HDS measure of dark-side

traits) and the MLQ subscales were performed with Spearman rank-order correlations. These Spearman correlations revealed no statistically significant relationship between either the HPI or the HDS total scores and the MLQ leadership subscales. There were, however, some findings of interest that provide ideas for speculation and further research with larger samples. For example, the HPI total scores showed a moderate, though not statistically significant, relationship with the MLQ transformational leadership score (r_s = 0.45). A more refined analysis of the MLQ subscales demonstrated significant correlations between HPI total scores and these MLQ subscales: Encourages Others (IM) (0.69) and Coaches & Develops People (IC) (0.58). The HPI was not significantly correlated with the MLQ Transactional scale score. However, the HPI was significantly correlated with the MLQ subscale of Rewards Achievement (CR) at r_s = 0.64.

In terms of the Spearman correlation between the HDS, or dark-side personality traits, and the MLQ subscales, there was only one significant correlation, that being the Monitors Deviations & Mistakes (MBEA) subscale of the Transactional scale, which had a significant correlation of -0.66. This probability value (p>0.05) indicates a significant relationship between higher levels of dark-side personality traits, and lower scores on this particular measurement of Transactional leadership. This was interesting also because this MBEA subscale was one of the two subscales used to provide the value for the Transactional leadership trait. The other subscale comprising the MLQ Transactional Leadership scale, Rewards Achievement (CR), significantly correlated with higher HPI score (r_s = 0.64, p < 0.05), but not with HDS score (r_s = 0.31, ns).

In terms of the hypotheses relating to research question, RQ4a and RQ4b, there were moderate-sized Spearman correlations between total HPI scores (i.e., bright-side

personality traits) and both the Transformational leadership scale ($r_s = 0.45$, ns) and the Transactional leadership scale ($r_s = 0.34$, ns), but likely due to small sample size these two correlations were not statistically significant. The Spearman correlations between total HDS scores (i.e., dark-side personality traits) and the two leadership scales were small and not statistically significant (for Transformational leadership $r_s = -0.12$, ns; for Transactional leadership $r_s = 0.22$, ns). Thus, neither Hypothesis RQ4a nor Hypothesis RQ4b was supported, although the findings for the HPI and Transformational leadership approached significance.

Reflections and Concluding Thoughts

Continuous learning, succession planning, and group leadership development plans are all possible benefits from the data, which were captured and analyzed in this study. Although the use of paper-and-pencil assessments of leadership styles and personality traits cannot replace performance measures and subordinate ratings in the determination of leadership qualities, there is evidence that measurement of these dispositions may be relevant to quality leadership. The identification of personal learning and development plans are best left to individual testing and consideration. This was a group-level attempt to understand the chancellors of LCTCS, and this study may provide, in the short term, potential areas for group learning and development activities to focus on. Succession planning is aided overall through the provision of a baseline of actual chancellors, and their alignment with averages across regions and occupations. The most important finding, however, is that a high level of leadership, as measured in both transformational and transactional approaches, can be associated with a wide variety of bright and dark-side traits, values and interests, and EQ levels.

REFERENCES

Amanchukwu, R. N., Stanley, G. J., & Ololube, N. P. (2015). A review of leadership

theories, principles, styles, and their relevance to educational

management. *Management*, *5*(1), 6-14.

American Association of Community Colleges. (2010). AACC competencies for

community college leaders. Available from: https://www.aacc.nche.edu/wp-

content/uploads/2017/09/AACC_Core_Competencies_web.pdf

American Association of Community Colleges. (2013). AACC competencies for

community college leaders Second Edition. Available from:

https://www.aacc.nche.edu/wp-

content/uploads/2017/09/AACC_Core_Competencies_web.pdf

American Association of Community Colleges. (2018). AACC competencies for

community college leaders Third Edition https://www.aacc.nche.edu/wp-

content/uploads/2018/11/AACC2018Competencies_111618_FINAL.pdf

Ang, S., & Van Dyne, L. (2015). *Handbook of cultural intelligence*. Routledge.

Antonakis, J. (2001). The validity of the transformational, transactional and laissez-faire

leadership model as measured by the multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ

5X). Walden University Scholar Works.0/

Antonakis, J., Avolio, B., & Sivasubramaniam, N. (2003) Context and leadership: An examination of the nine-factor full-range leadership theory using the multifactor leadership questionnaire. *The leadership quarterly*. 14, 261-295

Avolio, B. J., Bass, B. M., & Jung, D. I. (1999). Re-examining the components of transformational and transactional leadership using the multifactor leadership. *Journal of occupational and organizational psychology*, *72*(4), 441-462.

Avolio, B. J., & Bass, B. M. (2004). Multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ). *Mind garden, 29*.

Bar-On, R. (1997). The emotional intelligence inventory (EQ-I): Technical manual. *Toronto, Canada: Multi-health systems*.

Bar-On, R. (2004). The Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i): Rationale, description, and summary of psychometric properties.

Bar-On, R. (2006). The bar-on model of emotional-social intelligence (ESI) 1. *Psicothema*, *18*(Suplemento), 13-25.

Bar-On, R., Handley, R., & Fund, S. (2006). The impact of emotional intelligence on performance. *Linking emotional intelligence and performance at work: Current research evidence with individuals and groups*, 3-19.

Bass, B. M. (1997). Personal selling and transactional/transformational leadership. *Journal of personal selling & sales management*, *17*(3), 19-28.

Bass, B. M. (1999). Two decades of research and development in transformational leadership. *European journal of work and organizational psychology*, *8*(1), 9-32.

Bass, B., & Avolio, B. (1995). *MLQ multifactor leadership questionnaire*. Mind Garden.

Bass, B., & Avolio, B. (2000). *MLQ multifactor leadership questionnaire*. Mind Garden.

Benard, M. K., & Piland, W. E. (2014). Case study of a community college grow your own (GYO) leaders program. *Journal of applied research in the community college*, *21*(2), 17-24.

Bensimon, E. M. (1989). The meaning of" good presidential leadership": A frame analysis. *The review of higher education*, *12*(2), 107-123.

Birnbaum, R., Bensimon, E. M., & Neumann, A. (1989). Leadership in higher education: A multi-dimensional approach to research. *The review of higher education*, *12*(2), 101-105.

Birnbaum, R. (1992). *How academic leadership works: Understanding success and failure in the college presidency*. Jossey-Bass.

Boyatzis, R. E., Goleman, D., & Rhee, K. (2000). Clustering competence in emotional intelligence: Insights from the Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI). *Handbook of emotional intelligence*, *99*(6), 343-362.

Boyatzis, R. E. (2018). The behavioral level of emotional intelligence and its measurement. *Frontiers in psychology*, *9*.

Caramela, S. (2018). What is emotional intelligence and why does it matter? *Business news daily*.

Chuang, S. (2013). Essential skills for leadership effectiveness in diverse workplace development. Online *Journal for workforce education and development*. 6(1).

Cowley, W. H. (1956). What does a college president do? *Improving college and university teaching*, *4*(2), 27-32.

Davis, D. R., & Maldonado, C. (2015). Shattering the glass ceiling: The leadership

development of African American women in higher education. *Advancing women

in leadership*, *35*, 48-64.

Dyer, S. (2005). Leadership and diversity in Louisiana: A case study. *Diverse issues in

higher education*, *22*(5), 38.

Eckel, P.D. & Kezar, A. (2016). The intersecting authority of boards, presidents, and

faculty: Toward shared leadership. *American higher education in the twenty-first

century: Social, political, and economic challenges,* 4th edition. Bastedo, M.N.,

Altbach, P.G., & Gumport, P.J (eds.). Johns Hopkins University Press.

Effelsberg, D., Solga, M., & Gurt, J. (2014). Transformational leadership and follower's

unethical behavior for the benefit of the company: A two-study

investigation. *Journal of business ethics*, *120*(1), 81-93.

Einarsen, S., Aasland, M. S., & Skogstad, A. (2016). The nature and outcomes of

destructive leadership behavior in organizations. *Risky business: Psychological,

physical and financial costs of high-risk behavior in organizations*, 323.

Esters, L., Washington, A., Gasman, M., Commodore, F., O'Neal, B., Freeman, S., &

Jimenez, C. D. (2016). Effective leadership: A toolkit for the 21st-century

historically black college and university president. *Philadelphia, PA: Penn center

for minority-serving institutions*.

Extremera, N., Fernández-Berrocal, P., & Salovey, P. (2006). Spanish version of the

Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT). Version 2.0:

reliabilities, age, and gender differences. *Psicothema*, *18*(Suplemento), 42-48.

Feldman-Barrett, L. (2017) *What's wrong with emotional intelligence*. Nautilus/Science

    Connected. http://m.nautil.us/issue/51/limits/emotional-intelligence-needs-a-

    rewrite

Fiori, M., & Vesely-Maillefer, A. K. (2018). Emotional intelligence as an ability: Theory,

    challenges, and new directions. In *Emotional intelligence in education* (pp. 23-

    47). Springer, Cham.

Forthun, G., & Freeman Jr, S. (2017). Executive higher education doctoral programs in

    the United States: A demographic market-based analysis. *Issues in informing*

    science & information technology, *14*, 1-20.

Freed, C. A. (2016). *The role of emotional intelligence in community college leadership*.

    ProQuest LLC.

Freeman Jr, S., & Gasman, M. (2014). The characteristics of historically black college

    and university presidents and their role in grooming the next generation of

    leaders. *Teachers college record*, *116*(7), 1-34.

Gill, P. & France, T. (2019). Accelerating diverse leader readiness through foresight and

    futures thinking. In: Schrieber D., Berge Z. (eds) Futures Thinking and

    organizational policy, Palgrave Macmillan, Cham. 327-345

Glaser, B.G., Strauss, A.L. (1967). The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for

    qualitative research. New York, NY: Aldine de Gruyter.

Goffin, R. D., & Christiansen, N. D. (2003). Correcting personality tests for faking: A

    review of popular personality tests and an initial survey of researchers.

    International journal of selection and assessment, *11*(4), 340-344.

Goleman, D. (2006). *Emotional intelligence*. Bantam.

Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R. E., & McKee, A. (2013). *Primal leadership: Unleashing the power of emotional intelligence*. Harvard Business Press.

Grant, A. (2012). Rocking the boat but keeping it steady: The role of emotion regulation in employee voice. *Academy of management journal*, 56(6). https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2011.0035

Grant, A. (2014). Emotional intelligence is overrated. *Psychology today.* https://www.psychologytoday.com/us/blog/give-and-take/201410/emotional-intelligence-is-overrated

Graubard, Stephen R. (2017) *Distinctively American: The residential liberal arts colleges*. Routledge.

Hanawalt, N. G., & Richardson, H. M. (1944). Leadership as related to the Bernreuter personality measures: IV. An item analysis of responses of adult leaders and non-leaders. *Journal of applied psychology*, *28*(5), 397.

Hanover Research Council, (2010). Effective practices for succession planning in higher education.http://www.planning.salford.ac.uk/__data/assets/pdf_file/0019/20656/Effective-Practices-for-Succession-Planning-in-Higher-Education-Membership.pdf

Hill, L. H., & Wheat, C. A. (2017). The influence of mentorship and role models on university women leaders' career paths to university presidency. *The qualitative report*, *22*(8), 2090-2111.

Hogan, R. (1995). *Hogan personality inventory*. Hogan assessment systems.

Hogan, R. (2009). *Hogan development survey manual*. Tulsa, OK: Hogan Assessment Systems.

Hogan. (2019). 2-Day Hogan assessment certification workshop. Available from: https://www.hoganassessments.com/certifications/hogan-assessment-certification/

Hogan, R., Curphy, G. J., & Hogan, J. (1994). What we know about leadership: Effectiveness and personality. *American psychologist*, *49*(6), 493.

Hogan, R., Hogan, J. & Roberts, B. (1996). Personality measurement and employment decisions. Questions and answers. *American psychologist,* 51(5), 469.

Hollingworth, L. S. (1939). What we know about the early selection and training of leaders. *Teachers college record*.

Hoyt, C. L., & Murphy, S. E. (2016). Managing to clear the air: Stereotype threat, women, and leadership. *The leadership quarterly*, *27*(3), 387-399.

Jaschik, S & Lederman, D. (2018). 2018 survey of community college presidents: A Study by Insider Higher Ed and Gallup.

Jaschik, S & Lederman, D. (2019). 2019 Survey of college and university presidents A Study by Insider Higher Ed and Gallup.

Judge, T. A., Piccolo, R. F., & Kosalka, T. (2009). The bright and dark sides of leader traits: A review and theoretical extension of the leader trait paradigm. *The leadership quarterly*, *20*(6), 855-875.

Kaiser, R. B., LeBreton, J. M., & Hogan, J. (2015). The dark side of personality and extreme leader behavior. *Applied psychology*, *64*(1), 55-92.

Kauffman, J. F. (1974). *The selection of college and university presidents*. Association of American Colleges.

Keller, K. (2018). Building the Case for Succession Planning in Higher Education: A study of succession planning pilots within the Minnesota state colleges and universities system.

Killacky, J. & Wells, A. (2004). The emerging Louisiana community and technical college system: Back to basics and down to business. *Community college journal of research and practice*, *28*(6), 485-488.

Klein, M. F., & Salk, R. J. (2013). Presidential succession planning: A qualitative study in private higher education. *Journal of leadership & organizational studies*, *20*(3), 335-345.

Landay, K., Harms, P. D., & Credé, M. (2018). Shall we serve the dark lords? A meta-analytic review of psychopathy and leadership. *Journal of applied psychology*.

Lowe, K.B., Kroeck, K.G. & Sivasubramaniam, N. (1996). Effectiveness correlates of transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic review of the MLQ literature. *The leadership quarterly* 7(3), 385-425.

Luna, G. (2012). Planning for an American Higher Education leadership crisis: The succession issue for administrators. *International leadership journal*. 4(10), 56-79.

Lusby, A. K. (2010). The impact of the workforce investment act on technical school and community college enrollment in Louisiana. *Journal of regional analysis & policy*, *40*(2), 171.

Manning, C. (2004). The Louisiana community and technical college system: A brief history. *Community college journal of research and practice*, *28*(6), 489-502.

Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (2002). Mayer-Salovey-Caruso emotional intelligence test (MSCEIT) user's manual.

McCaffery, P. (2019). The higher education manager's handbook. *Effective leadership and management in universities and colleges*. Third Edition. Routledge

McCleskey, J. A. (2014). Situational, transformational, and transactional leadership and leadership development. *Journal of business studies quarterly*, *5*(4), 117.

McCrimmon, M. (2009). Why emotional intelligence is not essential for leadership. *Ivey Business journal*. https://iveybusinessjournal.com/publication/why-emotional-intelligence-is-not-essential-for-leadership/

McNair, D. E. (2014). Deliberate disequilibrium: Preparing for a community college presidency. *Community college review*, *43*(1), 72-88.

Miao, C., Humphrey, R. H., & Qian, S. (2018). Emotional intelligence and authentic leadership: A meta-analysis. *Leadership & organization development journal*.

Moore, K. M., Salimbene, A. M., Marlier, J. D., & Bragg, S. M. (1983). The structure of presidents' and deans' careers. *The journal of higher education*, *54*(5), 500-515.

Myran, G., & Ivery, C. L. (2013). The employability gap and the community college role in workforce development. *New directions for community colleges*, *2013*(162), 45-53.

Neumann, A. (1990). Making mistakes: Error and learning in the college presidency. *The journal of higher education 61*(4), 386-407.

Neumann, A. (1990b). On the making of "good times" and" hard times": the social construction of resource stress. ASHE annual meeting paper.

Neumann, A. (1995). On the making of hard times and good times: The social construction of resource stress. *The journal of higher education*, *66*(1), 3-31.

Northouse, P. G. (2018). *Leadership: Theory and practice*. Sage publications.

Ovans, A. (2015). How emotional intelligence became a key leadership skill. *Harvard business review*. https://hbr.org/2015/04/how-emotional-intelligence-became-a-key-leadership-skill

Pandey, R. & Rathore, S. (2015). The role of emotional intelligence on transformational leadership. *International journal of Asian business and information management*. 6(2), 50-58, April-June, 2015l.

Parrish, D. (2015). The relevance of emotional intelligence for leadership in a higher education context. *Studies in higher education*, 40(5), 821-837.

Reflect by GMAC. (2013). *Summary of technical information for validity & norm groups.* Hogan Assessment Whitepapers.

Roberts, R. D., Schulze, R., O'Brien, K., MacCann, C., Reid, J., & Maul, A. (2006). Exploring the validity of the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) with established emotions measures. *Emotion*, *6*(4), 663.

Rode, J. Arthaud-Day, M, Ramaswami, A. & Howes, S. (2017). A time-lagged study of emotional intelligence and salary. *Journal of vocational behavior*. 101. 10.1016/j.jvb.2017.05.001.

Rosenthal, J., Routch, K. Monahan, K., & Doherty, M. (2018). The holy grail of effective leadership succession planning. How to overcome the succession planning paradox. Deloitte Insights.

Rousmaniere, K. (2007). Presidential Address: Go to the principal's office: Toward a

    social history of the school principal in North America. *History of education*

    quarterly, *47*(1), 1-22.

Salovey, P., & Mayer, J.D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, cognition, and*

    personality, 9(3), 185-211. Doi:10.2190/DUGG-P24E-52WK-6CDG

Selingo, J. (2017). Why college presidents are becoming more like corporate CEOs. *The*

    Washington Post. https://www.washingtonpost.com/news/grade-

    point/wp/2017/04/28/why-college-presidents-are-becoming-more-like-corporate-

    ceos/?noredirect=on&utm_term=.d7af4f8efc25

Seltzer, R. (2017). The slowly diversifying presidency. *Inside HigherEd*.

    https://www.insidehighered.com/news/2017/06/20/college-presidents-

    diversifying-slowly-and-growing-older-study-finds

Shalhoop, J. H., & Sanger, M. R. (2012). Understanding leadership in China: Leadership

    profiles of state-owned enterprises, multinational corporations, and major

    economic trading partners. In *Advances in global leadership* (pp. 321-348).

    Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Silverman, S. (2018). Why emotional intelligence is a key leadership trait. Philadelphia

    Business Journal

    https://www.bizjournals.com/philadelphia/news/2018/06/12/emotional-

    intelligence-leadership-executive.html

Smith, H. L., & Krueger, L. M. (1933). *A brief summary of literature on leadership* (Vol.

    9, No. 4). Bureau of cooperative research, Indiana University.

Smith, A. (2017). The future of the college presidency. *Inside higher ed.*

https://www.insidehighered.com/news/2017/05/15/report-envisions-future-

college-presidency

Society for Human Resource Management (2015). Succession planning competencies.

https://www.shrm.org/LearningAndCareer/learning/onsite-

training/Pages/Succession-Planning.aspx

Solomon, A., & Steyn, R. (2017). Leadership style and leadership effectiveness: Does

cultural intelligence moderate the relationship? *Acta Commercii*, *17*(1), 1-13.

Sosik, J. J., & Jung, D. (2018). *Full range leadership development: Pathways for people,*

profit, and planet. Routledge.

Spain, S. M., Harms, P. D., & Wood, D. (2016). Stress, well-being, and the dark side of

leadership. In *the role of leadership in occupational stress*. Emerald Group

Publishing Limited, 33-59

Thwing, C. F. (1926). *The college president*. Macmillan.

Tierney, W. G. (1989). Symbolism and presidential perceptions of leadership. *The review*

of higher education, *12*(2), 153-166.

University of Texas at Austin. (2018). Higher education leadership. Available from:

https://education.utexas.edu/departments/educational-leadership-policy/graduate-

programs/executive-edd-higher-education-leadership

Weisman, I., Vaughn, G., & American Association of Community Colleges, W. (2007),

January 1). The community college presidency: 2006. American association of

community colleges, (Eric Document Reproduction Service No. ED499825)

White, J. (2016). Choosing to lead. *Inside higher ed*.

    https://www.insidehighered.com/advice/2016/03/23/importance-exercising-

    leadership-every-level-college-administration-essay

Williams, D. (2013). *Strategic diversity leadership: activating change and*

    transformation in higher education. Sterling, VA: Stylus Publishing

Winsborough, D., & Hogan, R. (2014). Evaluating global leadership: does culture

    matter? In *Advances in global leadership* (pp. 45-65). Emerald Group Publishing

    Limited.

Witt/Kieffer. (2013). Leadership traits and success in higher education: How college and

    university leaders compare with corporate executives.

    http://www.wittkieffer.com/file/thought-

    leadership/practice/Leadership%20Traits%20and%20Success%20in%20Higher%

    20Education_a%20Witt%20Kieffer%20Study_final.pdf

Witt/Kieffer. (2018) Best practices in higher education presidential search. Recruitment

    strategies for a new breed of leaders. http://wittkieffer.com/file/thought-

    leadership/articles/Best%20Practices%20in%20Higher%20Education%20Preside

    ntial%20Search_Witt%20Kieffer_3rd%20Edition.pdf

APPENDIX A

HUMAN USE APPROVAL LETTER

LOUISIANA TECH
U N I V E R S I T Y.

MEMORANDUM

OFFICE OF SPONSORED PROJECTS

TO: Ms. Heather Spillers Poole and Dr. Richard Shrubb

FROM: Dr. Richard Kordal, Director of Intellectual Property & Commercialization (OIPC)
rkordal@latech.edu

SUBJECT: HUMAN USE COMMITTEE REVIEW

DATE: February 26, 2019

In order to facilitate your project, an EXPEDITED REVIEW has been done for your proposed study entitled:

"Leadership Values and Attributes beyond Earned Credentials to Determine Potential CEO Success of Community College Chancellors"

HUC 19-081

The proposed study's revised procedures were found to provide reasonable and adequate safeguards against possible risks involving human subjects. The information to be collected may be personal in nature or implication. Therefore, diligent care needs to be taken to protect the privacy of the participants and to assure that the data are kept confidential. Informed consent is a critical part of the research process. The subjects must be informed that their participation is voluntary. It is important that consent materials be presented in a language understandable to every participant. If you have participants in your study whose first language is not English, be sure that informed consent materials are adequately explained or translated. Since your reviewed project appears to do no damage to the participants, the Human Use Committee grants approval of the involvement of human subjects as outlined.

Projects should be renewed annually. *This approval was finalized on February 26, 2019 and this project will need to receive a continuation review by the IRB if the project continues beyond February 26, 2020.* ANY CHANGES to your protocol procedures, including minor changes, should be reported immediately to the IRB for approval before implementation. Projects involving NIH funds require annual education training to be documented. For more information regarding this, contact the Office of Sponsored Projects.

You are requested to maintain written records of your procedures, data collected, and subjects involved. These records will need to be available upon request during the conduct of the study and retained by the university for three years after the conclusion of the study. If changes occur in recruiting of subjects, informed consent process or in your research protocol, or if unanticipated problems should arise it is the Researchers responsibility to notify the Office of Sponsored Projects or IRB in writing. The project should be discontinued until modifications can be reviewed and approved.

Please be aware that you are responsible for reporting any adverse events or unanticipated problems.