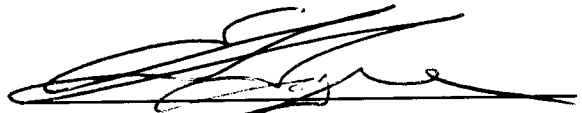


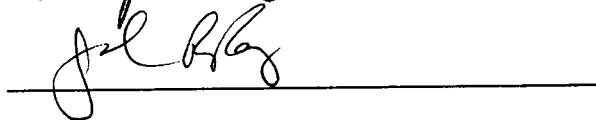
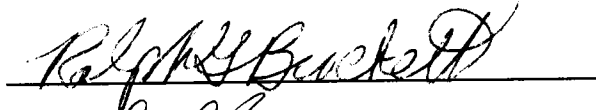
To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Clay Eugene Brown entitled "A Comparative Study of Public College and University Presidential Perceptions of Effective Leadership Practices." I have examined the final copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Education.



E. Grady Bogue, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:



Accepted for the Council:



Associate Vice Chancellor
and Dean of the Graduate School

A Comparative Study of Public College and University
Presidential Perceptions of Effective Leadership Practices

A Dissertation
Presented for the
Doctor of Philosophy
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Clay Eugene Brown

December, 1997

DEDICATION

I once read an ancient Chinese proverb: "Women hold up half the sky" (Helgesen, 1990). This quote translates to mean that half of the successes in this world are attributed to women. As such, this dissertation is dedicated to two very special women in my life. First, to my mother, Dorothy Brown, who for the first 32 years of my existence provided endless adventure and laughter to this journey called life. Through her words of hope, care, and discernment I was able to develop a faith in God, personal self-esteem, and joy for others. Although she could not complete this journey with me, though desperately trying to finish the race, she held my hand at the starting block and remained with me, in spirit, to the end of this victory. For all these reasons I thank her and long for the day when we shall meet again in the glory of our Lord.

Second, I would like to honor my Wife, Gayle, who for the last three years of our lives has endured this project. Her financial, mental, emotional, and spiritual support has been remarkable. In fact, often times I think she is the one who should be receiving the letters Ph.D. after her name rather than I. Just knowing that I had her to join me at home each day after hours of researching, writing, and editing was a blessing beyond compare. Her drive, her sacrifices, and her

determination for me to succeed in this project have transferred into my own and have made us one throughout the trials and triumphs of this project. I thank her for being an outstanding leader in her profession and in our household, especially in the countless hours I was not there or was absorbed with obtaining this degree.

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Finally, I want to publicly acknowledge Jesus Christ who has provided me with so many blessings, especially the ones mentioned above. I thank him for creating me with sound mind, so that I could obtain this degree and hopefully offer the world Christ-like leadership. I thank him for serving as my companion in many lonely hours of research and writing. Finally, I thank him for being the supreme example of leadership, and for offering us a perfect example to follow.

ABSTRACT

Leadership has evolved through a variety of theories, definitions, and metaphors over the last century. Organizations, such as colleges and universities, have been influential in this leadership evolution. As such, college and university presidents have had significant influence on the phenomenon of leadership.

One purpose of this study was to explore variations in public college and university presidential reports of their leadership practices as a function of institutional type and as a function of the selected personal classification variables of race, age, gender, academic background, and years of experience. A second purpose was to compare public college and university presidential reports of their leadership practices to senior leaders of other organizations reports of their leadership practices.

The sample of this study consisted of 400 college and university presidents who currently serve six distinguishable types of institutions. A 25% stratified random sampling technique was used to select the institutions for the research sample. Data were collected through the use of two instruments. First, the Leadership Practices Inventory-Self (LPI-S) (1991) by Kouzes and Posner was mailed to each of the college or university presidents. This instrument scored the

leadership styles of each president regarding the five identified scales of: Challenging the Process, Inspiring a Shared Vision, Enabling Others to Act, Modeling the Way, or Encouraging the Heart. Second, an unpublished questionnaire, mailed with the LPI-S, was used to assemble data on each president's race, age, gender, academic discipline, and years of experience. The returned surveys totaled 329, representing an 82.25% rate of return. Statistical testing for the study included: Means analysis, analysis-of-variance, and use of the Wilks' Lambda criterion.

Major findings of the study revealed the following:

1. Significant difference between presidents' LPI-S scores.
2. No significant difference regarding institutional type.
3. No significant difference regarding gender, academic discipline, and years of experience.
4. Significant difference between races.
6. Significant difference between ages.
7. Important differences in the perceptions of effective leadership practices of college and university presidents and senior leaders of other organizations.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Throughout history leaders and their behaviors have attracted the attention of many authors as they have tried to understand why certain individuals are capable of exerting influence over others. As a result, leadership studies has evolved as a discipline devoted, as the name suggests, to the analysis of leadership behavior as it is practiced in different organizations and different cultures. However, most authors who consider themselves leadership scholars have studied leadership in only one academic discipline (Rost, 1991). Numerous examples abound: Bass (1985) in social psychology, Bailey (1988) in anthropology, Hersey and Blanchard (1988) in human relations, Zalesnik (1989) in business, and Birnbaum (1992) in education. Whether these authors place an adjective in front of the word leadership, such as corporate leadership, political leadership, or educational leadership, the truth is that leaders lead in different ways. To illustrate, a military commander will guide his troops very differently than a college or university president will lead his or her constituents. As such, thousands of researchers for thousands of years have made recurring efforts to understand and measure the effect of leadership behavior based on their experience in only one area of expertise. One such example is Sun Tzu (1983), author of

The Art of War, who recorded his thoughts about leadership from only one source - the military.

Few would dispute the historical impact of leaders or the incontrovertible need for leaders. In fact, Gibb (1969) suggested that leadership is a matter that concerns every member of society. More interestingly, he speculated that followers could be considered the creator of leaders. Bass (1960) believed there existed a universal demand for leadership and stated that "the need for adequate understanding of the phenomenon of leadership and behavior in groups can be seen in disciplines ranging from history to psychiatry" (p. 5). Furthermore, Fiedler (1967) concluded that highly skilled leadership is required to make use of workers' diverse abilities and attitudes in the performance of group tasks and to fulfill group missions.

Although organizations need leadership to survive, writers and researchers have continually disagreed about what leadership is and what it is not; and more importantly what distinguishes effective leadership from ineffective leadership (Bennis and Nanus, 1985). As a result, the leadership literature remains crowded with two questions: (1) How is leadership operationally defined (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1990); and (2) How is leadership effect measured (Green, 1988; Clark, 1990)? Furthermore, an observation by Bennis (1959) made over thirty-five years ago remains distressingly valid today:

Of all the hazy and confounding areas in social psychology, leadership theory undoubtedly contends for top nomination...probably more has been written and less is known about leadership than about any other topic in the behavioral sciences. Always, it seems, the concept of leadership eludes us or turns up in another form to taunt us...So we have invented an endless proliferation of terms to deal with it...and still the concept is not sufficiently defined. As we survey the path leadership theory has taken, we spot the wreckage of trait theory, the great man theory...leadership styles, functional leadership, and...leaderless leadership... (pp. 259-260).

Most studies of leadership have taken place in business organizations, the military, and governmental agencies, with little attention given to higher education (Vroom, 1983). Yet, many times corporate and civic leadership strategies are applied to college and university campuses (Atwell and Green, 1987). In addition, Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum (1989) admitted that the major scholarly works on leadership have been conducted mostly in the area of political science and business administration. These authors claimed that there should be "serious concern of the applicability of this literature as it relates to non-profit, professional organizations such as colleges and universities..." (p. XV). "The study of leadership in colleges and universities is even more difficult than in many other settings because of the dual control systems, conflicts between professional and administrative authority, unclear goals, and other unique properties of normative, professional organizations" (Birnbaum, 1987, p. 1).

Perhaps one explanation why corporate and political leadership designs are exercised on college and university campuses is the idealism of the governance of higher education that occurred in the late 1950's and early 1960's. In fact, during these years, according to Joseph F. Kauffman (1980), former President of Rhode Island College: "Colleges and universities were credited with meeting the 'tidal wave' of students seeking admission and had a 'can do' posture about quadrupling enrollments in the 1960-70 decade" (p. 10). Additionally, fiscal management was not nearly the overwhelming challenge as it is now for so many universities and their leaders (Van der Veer, 1991). "Now budgetary difficulties seem to be a chronic, rather than active, part of the routine; and the distinctive ferment of the 1960's seems as remote as the distinctive ferment of the 1930's seemed then" (Cohen and March, 1986, p. xii).

The surge of students in the early 1960's caused many colleges to flourish, which created an ease from financial hardship for the institutions. This rise in enrollment figures and the fiscal stability it brought to college campuses helped protect college and university presidents from critical investigation and negative publicity. Yet, this protective shield soon eroded as the late 1960's erupted with negative social forces such as under-prepared students, declining resources, and disappointing measures of student achievement. The results of these distressing signals were

changes that affected both the academy and its top managerial position (Perry and Hull, 1971). Because of such forces presidential influence began to wane. As Millett (1980) stated:

Two forces changed the presidential role in the twentieth century: The increase in enrollment and the academic revolution. Gradually, the presidential role underwent change, without the subtleties of this change being clearly perceived. The campus turmoil that accurately depicts the college campus of the 1960's reflects largely the catching up with the realities of role change that had been occurring for some time (p. 265).

"The disruptions of the sixties, as we have seen, created strong negative feelings toward universities among influential constituencies" (Walker, 1979, p. 117). In essence, college campuses were described as turbulent enterprises, costly and ill-managed, staffed with reckless faculty, and attended by students whose unsettling behavior could only be described as immature (Walker, 1979). Additionally, Kerr and Gade (1986) offered this summation regarding the effects of campus turmoil which affected colleges and universities for two decades:

Never before in American history has higher education gone from a location so high on the mountain to a place so low in the valley, and so quickly. No time was ever better for the university and college president than the late 1950's and early 1960's, and no time was ever worse than the late 1960's and early 1970's (p. 82).

The decade of the 1980's began with a wave of highly critical reports about problems in American higher education.

Two of these: "Involvement in Learning," (1984), and "Higher Education and the American Resurgence," (1985), called for more critical thinking to improve higher learning (Brookfield, 1987). Yet, immediately before these reports were released, the federal government issued its most disputed document entitled "A Nation at Risk" (1983). This document made cross-cultural comparisons of American higher learning with its Asian counterparts. In addition, "A Nation at Risk" charged that American students failed "to excel in international comparisons of student achievement and that this failure reflected systematic weaknesses in our school programs and lack of talent and motivation among American educators" (Berliner and Biddle, 1995, p. 3).

Since the publication of "A Nation at Risk" (1983), there have been a number of book length critiques of American higher education and its leadership. These criticisms can be witnessed in such publications as The Closing of the American Mind by Bloom (1987); Sykes's Profscam (1988); Smith's Killing the Spirit (1990); and The Fall of the Ivory Tower by Roche.

However, David C. Berliner and Bruce J. Biddle (1995) announced that these campaigns were misrepresentations as they "were said to reflect 'evidence,' although the 'evidence' in question was not presented or appeared in the form of simplistic, misleading generalizations" (p. 3). In addition, Clark Kerr (1991), President Emeritus of the University of California said: "Seldom in the course of policymaking in the

U.S. have so many firm convictions held by so many been based on so little convincing proof" (p. 30). The outcome of these falsifications has been a continued claim that our students are still being cheated and that the nation remains "'at risk'" (Berliner and Biddle, 1995, p. 64).

In the aftermath of the 1980's, the decade of the 90's has also endured a multitude of studies calling for reforms at all educational levels. Some of these include: "Education Reform in the '90's" (1992); "The Devaluing of America" (1992); "Transforming America's Schools" (1992); and "An American Imperative" (1993). The impact of these studies in conjunction with the decline of 18-24 year old students, freshmen with poor basic educational skills, and an increase in tuition prices has established a forum for public outcry regarding the evaluation of our college presidents' leadership practices. The result has been a growing perception that higher education is suffering from a leadership crisis. In addition, Terrey (1986) suggested that institutions also have shared concerns regarding executive leadership which includes: the absence of leadership that works, the tendency to select survival over risk, and the control by managers rather than vision by leaders.

Most recently, documentation of unethical conduct among our college leaders has issued an urgency to investigate the leadership of higher education. One glance at some of our recent college presidents' questionable acts underlines this

exigency. For example: (1) President Donald Kennedy of Stanford University resigned after accusations of exploiting federal research funds; (2) Dr. James Holderman, President of the University of South Carolina, renounced his position after sexual advancement charges were delivered by USC male students; and (3) Dr. David Baltimore of Rockefeller University "resigned over charges of falsified data in a research study" (Bogue, 1994, p. 2).

Although these events are unfortunate, especially since some have filtered into the common press, of greater impact is the fact that they "certainly draw our attention to presidential performance" (Bogue, 1994, p. 2-3).

Consequently, these ill-fated occurrences have led society to the realization that university presidents do significantly impact peoples' lives, whether that impact be positive or negative. Such awareness has concluded with several outcomes: (1) institutional presidents and their leadership practices have been increasingly spotlighted; and (2) a greater demand for accountability in higher education has occurred. Yet, the most significant outcome has been a necessity to study our college and university presidents' leadership behaviors.

In conclusion, much has been written about leadership in general, especially in business and politics. Yet, it appears that much of the research about executive positions has been generalized to academic leaders. Unfortunately, more recent accounts of our academic leaders unprincipled behaviors have

caused the leadership practices of our nations' institutional presidents to be highly examined and questioned. Because of such, more research of college and university presidents leadership behaviors is needed to verify if, in fact, leadership in non-academic settings can be generally applied to education, and to determine what factors might influence a college presidents leadership practices.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

"The college presidency would appear to be increasingly a place of difficult abode" (Bogue, 1994, p. 1). The college president no longer leads a university, but rather, leads, what Clark Kerr (1963) called the multiversity. According to Garry Wills (1994), "The multiversity is a service center with many different roles, to be played out before many different constituencies" (p. 80). As such, college presidents are "called upon to educate unimagined numbers of students; to respond to the claims of national service; to merge its activities with industry as never before; and to adapt to and re-channel new intellectual currents" (Kerr, 1963, p. 86).

According to Cohen and March (1986), college presidents have a history of leadership discontent, part of which is traceable to four unfortunate features of their careers:

(1) achievement of the presidency before professional maturity; (2) distressing feelings that most presidents have regarding no post-presidential alternatives; (3) quick turnover of top administrators that report directly to the

president offering no continuity of support to the president; and (4) feelings of hopelessness due to the wide public coverage of conflicts on campus and the presidents alleged inability to solve such problems (Cohen and March, 1986).

Additionally, the pressures from meeting the role expectations of the job itself as anticipated by multiple stakeholders makes the job of the university president incredibly arduous. The steady attacks from taxpayers regarding financial stability, programming standards, minority recruitment, campus safety, and equity achievement, to name only a few, contributes to job fatigue.

Thus, college presidents remain closely examined and under inspection. Whether such observation is warranted varies from president to president as each emits different leadership capabilities and reveals such proficiency through different leadership styles. Yet, regardless of such investigation, it cannot be denied that college presidents, whether effective or ineffective, have a tremendous influence on students, staff, alumni, taxpayers, and thus, society at large. Accordingly, the leadership behaviors of college and university presidents are of premier importance, and the value of learning more about these institutional executives and how their leadership practices impact colleges and universities becomes readily apparent.

PURPOSES OF THE STUDY

The primary purposes of this research project were these: (1) to explore variations in public college and university presidential reports of their leadership practices as a function of institutional type and as a function of selected personal classification variables; (2) to compare public college and university presidential reports of their leadership practices to senior leaders of other organizations reports of their leadership practices; and (3) to extend previous research efforts on collegiate leadership, especially those addressing the college and university presidency. Specifically, this study is designed to extend Kouzes' and Posner's (1987, 1991, 1993) earlier research about the perceptions of effective leadership practices.

The institutions designated for this project included four-year, two-year, and specialized schools within the 50 United States. The types of institutions chosen were specified in A Classification of Institutions of Higher Learning: A Technical Report (1996) by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. In addition, stratified random sampling was used to select the institutional presidents from the Higher Education Publication (1996).

The data on each president's leadership style and his or her demographics were collected from: (a) self-descriptions of each president's leadership style by administering the

Leadership Practice Inventory-Self (LPI-S) by James M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner (1991); and (b) self-disclosures of each president's race, age, gender, discipline background, and years of experience through an unpublished survey sent with the LPI-S instrument.

This study engaged the following three research questions:

Research Question #1: What are the differences in perceptions of effective leadership practices among public college and university presidents serving different types of institutions (where type is identified by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching)?

Research Question #2: What are the differences in perceptions of effective leadership practices among public college and university presidents as related to their race, age, gender, academic discipline, and years of experience?

Research Question #3: How are the perceptions of effective leadership practices of public college and university presidents different from the perceptions of effective leadership practices of leaders in other organizations? (The normative data regarding the perceptions of effective leadership practices of leaders in other organization is available from Kouzes' and Posner's previous normative research data).

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This project is significant for five reasons. First, as established earlier, leadership in higher education is of paramount importance because of the impact that college presidents have on so many stakeholders.

Second, the college leaders chosen for this study received a self-portrait of their leadership style. Thus, they learned how they operate in certain situations and how they behave in certain contexts. This self-analysis could assist presidents in a better understanding of their administrative teams's attitude toward them as a chief executive officer. In turn, the administrative team could acquire a better picture as to their overall mission within the university.

Third, this study's findings could assist university governing boards in extending presidential length of service by specifying areas of leadership difficulty in the college presidency which need improvement.

Fourth, the identification of effective presidential leadership styles could enrich the criteria base and provide constructive information to be used by search committees in the selection process of hiring college presidents.

Finally, this study contributes to the existing knowledge base about leadership. Specifically, Kouzes' and Posner's (1987, 1991, 1993) previous empirical studies about leadership are extended to include a specific leader-type: College and university presidents.

In sum, leadership continues to play a critical role in the operation and understanding of organizations; therefore studies, such as this one, are important to researchers concerned with the relationship between leaders, leadership styles, and leadership effectiveness.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Two surveys were used to collect data for the project, and, as customary, these surveys were subject to the limitations found to be inherent in survey analysis. These limitations were:

- (1) The researcher did not make attempts to ascertain how honest the respondents were when answering the surveys; and
- (2) The thirty leadership items significant to the LPI-Self (1991) may not account for all observable leadership variables.

ASSUMPTIONS OF THE STUDY

For this research project it was assumed that:

- (1) College and university presidents engage in observable actions that are classified as leadership practices, and those practices can be analyzed by completion of the Leadership Practices Inventory-Self (1991).
- (2) The college and university presidents did not display bias in their interpretations of the thirty statements on the LPI-S and therefore rated themselves honestly.

- (3) The college and university presidents participating in the study were willing to respond accurately and timely.
- (4) The uncontrolled variables of race, age, gender, academic discipline, and years of experience did not negatively affect the selected presidents in their respective assessments of their own personal leadership styles.
- (5) The study recruited presidents from institutions that vary greatly in enrollment, mission, and governance in order to provide universal relevance.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

President: University leader formally appointed and serving as chief executive officer responsible for the administration of only one primary campus.

Leadership practices: Leadership practices are operationally defined by the Leadership Practices Inventory-Self (1991) and include: (a) Challenging the Process; (b) Inspiring a Shared Vision; (c) Enabling Others to Act; (d) Modeling the Way; and (e) Encouraging the Heart.

Perception: Perception refers to the experience of gaining sensory information about the world of people, things and events, and to the psychological processes by which this is accomplished (Corsini, 1984, p. 497).

SUMMARY

"Leadership has become one of the hot topics in the popular consciousness...Colleges and corporations have discovered that the study of leadership is both popular and potentially quite useful" (Wren, 1995, p. ix). The current challenges to collegiate leadership may reside in the issues of competency and integrity as witnessed in the unethical leadership behavior of the men and women who lead our campuses. Frequently, leaders, including college and university presidents, lead from two leadership philosophies. One, the philosophy of ignorance or neglect as they do not know how to lead; and two, the philosophy of arrogance as they think there is nothing new to be learned. Such leadership conjecture is risky, especially in its effect on the expression of authority and power.

The simple fact is that we know far too much about our college and university leaders, but know far too little about their leadership behaviors, how they operate and how they function, as well as the leadership practices they use to govern their campuses and serve their stakeholders.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter provides a broad overview of the diverse and extensive literature surrounding leadership. This review discusses the evolution of leadership thought by presenting: (1) leadership perceptions and theories; (2) leadership definitions; and (3) leadership metaphors. Additionally, defining leadership in higher education is addressed, as well as leadership effectiveness in the college and university setting.

LEADERSHIP THOUGHTS AND THEORIES

The phenomenon of leadership has occupied the attention of authors and researchers since written communication became accessible (Ottinger, 1990). Some of this literature includes Plato's The Republic (1985), Aristotle's Politics (1905), and Machiavelli's The Prince (1976). Kets de Vries (1989) confirmed the notion that leadership studies is an aged development when he stated the following: "As early as 386 B.C., Plato initiated one of the first leadership training centers in the World, an institute he called the Academy" (pp. iii-iv).

The Chinese classics, as early as the sixth century B.C. are also filled with leadership accounts regarding leaders' duties. "Confucius urged leaders to set a moral example and to manipulate rewards and punishments for teaching what was right and good" (Bass, 1990, p. 3). In fact, Taoism

encouraged leaders to liberate themselves from their job duties by making followers believe that organizational success was due to their efforts (Bass, 1990).

Perhaps one of the most significant and richest compilations regarding leadership evolution is the Holy Bible as: "leaders as prophets, priests, chiefs, and kings served as symbols, representatives, and models for their people in the Old and New Testaments" (Bass, 1990, p. 11). In fact, it has been said that leadership began with Moses as he served as judge of the Israelite people. In the Holy Bible, in the book of Exodus, chapter 18, we read:

The next day Moses took his seat to serve as judge for the people, and they stood around him from morning till evening. When his father-in-law saw all that Moses was doing for the people, he said: ...'What you are doing is not good. You and these people who come to you will only wear yourselves out. The work is too heavy for you; you cannot handle it alone...But select capable men from all the people - men who fear God, trustworthy men who hate dishonest gain - and appoint them as officials over thousands, hundreds fifties and tens. Have them serve as judges for the people at all times, but have them bring every difficult case to you...That will make your load lighter, because they will share it with you (p. 56).

Thus, it is clear through the relay of parables, miracles, letters, and eye-witness accounts detailed in this anthology that leadership is one of the world's oldest preoccupations.

In essence, most attempts to understand leadership have figured strongly in the quest for knowledge as deliberate stories have been passed from generation to generation about

leaders' competencies and weaknesses; leaders' rights and privileges; and leaders' duties and obligations (Bass, 1990).

Greek philosophers such as Plato (1985), in his work The Republic, closely examined the qualifications for the ideal leader for the utopian city-state. Logic and reason were the traits to be displayed by this exemplary leader, who was supposed to be the most important factor in effective government.

In his Politics, Aristotle (1905) discovered the lack of morality among those who desired to become a leader. He stressed the need to educate youth about virtuous behavior in order to produce the right kinds of leaders. Finally, Plutarch (1973) in The Parallel Lives compared the traits and behaviors of actual Greek and Roman leaders to support his belief in the importance of leaders' and followers' rights in an organization (Kellerman, 1987).

In his work, The Prince, Machiavelli (1976) stated: "There is nothing more difficult to take in hand, more perilous to conduct, or more uncertain in its success than to take the lead in the introduction of a new order of things," (p. 21). In addition, his rules have "become guidelines for executives in educational institutions" (Arendt, 1953 p. 194). Thus, it is no surprise that Machiavelli is still quoted as a source of effective leadership. In fact, a 1987 survey of 117 college presidents reported that institutional executives

still find The Prince highly relevant to their leadership practices and styles (Christie and Geis, 1987).

Finally, a principle that is still used at West Point today can be read in Hegel's (1894) Philosophy of Mind which maintained that only by serving as a follower can a leader best be understood. Hegel truly believed that such experience was a significant requirement for effective leadership.

Thus, leadership has been explored by many persons and in many different ways and has remained "endlessly fascinating to observe and study" (Rosenbach and Taylor, 1989, p. iii). Consequently, numerous schools of leadership theory have evolved over time (Landfair, 1985/1986; Newell, 1978). Interestingly, these explanations have advanced from the study of leaders' traits, skills, and behaviors, to the exploration of organizational interactions and leadership situations. As a result of such evolution, it is clear that we have moved from "static, simplistic notions of leadership to dynamic, deeply-complex, multivariate concepts" (Hoferek, 1986, p. 4).

For example, Cunningham and Gephart (1973) identified the following four groupings of leadership thought: (a) great man theory, (b) trait theory, (c) behavioral theory, and (d) situational theory. Stogdill (1974) derived the following six leadership classifications: (a) great man theory, (b) environmental theory, (c) personal-situational theory, (d) interactional-expectation theory, (e) humanistic theory, and (f) exchange theory. Yet, more recently, Chemers (1984)

identified three chronological approaches to the study of leadership: (a) trait theory (1910 - WWII); (b) behavior theory (WWII - late 1960's); and (c) contingency theory (late 1960's - present). In more recent years, Bolman and Deal (1984) have identified an additional approach to leadership: the organizational frames theory. For this study, Chemers chronological approach and Bolman's and Deal's approach will be reviewed.

Trait Theory

"The early research on leadership and its effectiveness proceeded from the premise that, somehow, those who became leaders were different from those who remained followers" (Chemers, 1984, p. 93). The objective of trait research in the first half of the 20th century was to identify specifically what unique features of the individual were associated with leadership. The great man theory, one of the early trait ideologies, was grounded on the premise that leaders are born, not made (Cimperman, 1986; Heller, 1982). Research focused on efforts to uncover attributes of the born leader (Cimperman, 1986). Newell (1978) stated the great man theory concluded "that leaders exert power because they possess qualities which differentiate them from and which appeal to the masses" (p. 226). This theory "saw power as being vested in a limited number of people whose inheritance and destiny made them leaders. Those of the right breed could lead; others must be led" (Bennis and Nanus, 1985, p. 5).

By the mid 1940's trait theory began to lose its significance as numerous studies (Gilbert, 1950; and Goulder, 1950) failed to note distinctions between traits that facilitated a rise to leadership and those that maintained it. Stewart (1978) recounted:

"...this tendency to portray leaders in terms of traits, temperament, and personality characteristics had its field day, but proved to have limited utility, since one could always find leaders who lacked these supposedly defining characteristics" (p. 6).

Finally, McFarland (1974) noted the following three weaknesses of the trait theory: (1) failure to consider situational factors; (2) inability of universal application; and (3) difficulty of trait measurement.

Behavior Theory

In the 1950's and 1960's, the study of leadership began to emphasize leaders' behaviors as researchers tried to catalog specific acts in which leaders engaged. These efforts initiated a shift from the analysis of leaders' personalities to the more basic inquiry of what it is that leaders actually do. The belief was that "effective leaders utilized a particular style to lead individuals and groups to achieving certain goals, resulting in high productivity and morale" (Landfair, 1986, p. 13).

Perhaps the most comprehensive analysis of leader behavior was produced by the office of Ohio State University Leadership Studies. Of all the publications to emerge from this office, two are most notable: (1) The Leadership Behavior

Description by Hemphill and Coons (1957); and

(2) The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire by Fleishman (1961).

Both of these assessment techniques were designed to specifically measure observed leadership influence of a given individual as perceived by his or her superiors, peers, and/or subordinates, and to measure leadership style on group performance and satisfaction through two factors: Initiating structure (task) and Consideration Structure (relationships). "The identification of two reliable dimensions of leader behavior was a major step for the field of leadership... Optimism was high that research had finally cracked open the complexity of leadership effects" (Chemers, 1984, p. 95).

Other dimensions of leadership behavior have also been proposed and tested. Cassel and Stancik (1961) analyzed leadership in terms of four patterns described as Laissez-Faire, Democratic-Cooperative, Autocratic-Submissive, and Autocratic-Aggressive; In addition, Blake and Mouton (1964) designed their grid to express two other dimensions: personnel concern and production concern.

Initial results from these and other studies proposed the behavioral approach to leadership as a valid one (Hunt, 1984). However, as more research was completed, very few dependable patterns were specified (Chemers, 1984). As with trait theory, the behavioral advance was deemed one-dimensional (Landfair, 1986).

Contingency Theory

Researchers since the 1960's have noted that "the most effective way to lead is a dynamic and flexible process that adapts to particular situations" (Landfair, 1986, p. 18). In other words, a leader's interaction with his or her organizational environment constitutes leadership (Heller, 1982). Thus, to be effective a leader's behavior should consider the leadership situation (Dipboye, 1978).

One of the first contingency theories to appear was work by Fiedler, who stated that "to be effective, leadership style must be appropriate in relation to the situation" (Newell, 1978, p. 233). However, after much research, it was established that style, as a single factor, could not predict leader effectiveness. The discovery that perhaps different types of leadership were needed for different situations and circumstances set the foundation for Fiedler's Contingency Model. This model eventually incorporated the following variables into leadership analysis: (1) the leader's "personal relations with the members of his group (leader-member relations); (2) the degree of structure in the task the group has been assigned to perform (task structure); and (3) the power and authority that the leader's position provides" (Hersey and Blanchard, 1972, p. 80).

The Path Goal Theory by House (1971) provided another contingency leadership principle that emerged during this time. "Under this theory the role of the leader in eliciting

goal-directed behavior consists of increasing personal payoffs to subordinates for work-goal attainment, and making the path to these payoffs easier to travel by clarifying it, reducing road blocks and pitfalls, and increasing personal satisfaction en route" (House, 1971, p. 324). Put simply, the Path-Goal Theory accented leader behavior and its effect on the motivation and satisfaction of workers (Chemers, 1984).

Hersey and Blanchard (1972) cultivated the third major contingency model: Situational Leadership. "This theory attempted to provide the leader with some understanding of the relationship between an effective style of leadership and the level of maturity of one's followers" (McElroy and Terry, 1983, p. 29). In response to this development, the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (1993) was created to measure three aspects of leader behavior: (1) leader style; (2) extent of style; and (3) style accommodation.

Since the 1960's, contingency theory has been the central focus of leadership studies. "At the broadest level, most contemporary theories adopt a contingency perspective. One would be hard put to find an empirical theory of leadership which holds that one style of leadership is appropriate for all situations" (Chemers, 1984, p. 105). However, in recent years, contingency paradigms have also been confronted about their limitations (Hunt, 1984). As Newell (1979) states:

Taken as a whole, the research findings suggest that both the trait and the situational approaches to leadership are too simplistic. Leadership appears to be a complex phenomenon involving infinite numbers of interactions among people, tasks, and other situational elements. While the consideration of individual human traits has not proved to be productive in the study of leadership, more recent research demonstrates that there are indeed human characteristics which relate to leadership effectiveness (pp. 230- 231).

Organizational Frames Theory

Measuring leadership effect has been a hot topic in leadership literature. In fact, effectiveness can be studied in works by Blake and Mouton (1964), Fiedler (1967), and Hersey (1984). "The organizational frames theory unites the traditional and nontraditional, rational and nonrational, the leader objective and subjective, and the clear and unclear leader/follower understanding" (Burks, 1992). Thus, this theoretical evolution has resulted in a path of research that concentrates on leadership styles and effectiveness (Bogue, 1994). Bensimon, Neumann and Birnbaum (1989) stated that using the organizational frames is not only a useful organizational leadership topology, but one that is consistent with current evolving leadership thoughts in higher education.

The nature of this path has been articulated best by Bolman and Deal (1984) in their delineation of organizational frames. These frames were designed to help explain leader effectiveness by offering leaders more than one perspective to rely on, and thus become "better equipped to understand and

manage the complex everyday world of organizations" (Bolman and Deal, 1984, p. 5).

Frames are windows on the world. Frames filter out some things while allowing others to pass through easily. Frames help us to order the world and decide what action to take. Every manager uses a personal frame, or image of organizations to gather information, make judgements, and get things done (Bolman and Deal, 1984, p. 4).

According to Bolman and Deal (1984) the frames are:

(1) structural, (2) human resources, (3) politics, and (4) symbols representing goals, people, power, and culture respectively. "In the more effective manifestation of these four frames, leaders are (respectively) social architects, servants, advocates, and prophets-poets. In their least effective manifestation, leaders are tyrants, wimps, con artists, and fanatics" (Bogue, 1994, p. 138).

The structural frame gives importance to the roles of formal leadership and relationships. Structures are designed to fit the organization's environment and technology. Within this frame the allocations of duties, rules, policies, and management are done by the organization. Conflict occurs when the structure does not fit the situation. Therefore, reorganization is essential.

The human resource frame rests on the premise that organizations are made up of people, all of which have needs, feelings, biases, natural talents, and inherent limitations. The key to effectiveness within this frame is to "tailor organizations to people - to find an organizational form that

will enable people to get the job done while producing positive feelings about what they are doing" (Bolman and Deal, 1984, p. 5).

When organizations are viewed as gates of resources where power determines the allocation of such resources, then a political frame has been adopted. Within this frame, problems arise because power in the organization is not distributed between leader and follower (Bolman and Deal, 1984).

Last, organizational culture is introduced in the symbolic frame. Organizations are bound by shared values not by goals, and are driven by rituals, ceremonies, and myths rather than authority. Problems arise when symbols and rituals lose their significance.

"The dynamics of leadership encompass all four organizational frames" (Burks, 1992, p. 5). In a study of 32 college and university presidents, Bensimon (1989) concluded that 34% used two of Bolman and Deal's frames, three or more frames were used by 25% of the sample presidents, and 41% only used one of the frames. In a follow-up study, Bolman and Deal (1991) surveyed 75 chief executives in higher education and concluded that 55% used two frames, 12% used three frames or more, and 33% used only one frame.

Bolman and Deal (1991) stressed that no frame stands alone, meaning conflicts and solutions are not limited to only one frame. These authors claimed that such freedom between frames has led to some assumptions regarding leadership

effectiveness. The leader who can cope with and make positive use of the frames will succeed where others may fail. Actions which do not respond to the appropriate frame can be worse than taking no action. Problems can intensify and make solutions seem impossible. Finally, Bolman and Deal (1984) concluded: "Only when managers can look at organizations through the four (frames) are they likely to appreciate the depth and complexity of organizational life. Successful managers rely intuitively on the different frames, blending them into a coherent, pragmatic, personal theory of organizations" (p. 6).

LEADERSHIP DEFINITION

There are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept (Schriesheim and Kerr, 1977). To make matters worse, the countless definitions into which the word leadership has been cast and their overlapping meanings have sustained its confusing nature. For example, Rost (1991) claimed that he analyzed over 220 definitions of leadership in over 580 books and articles published between 1900 and 1990 alone.

For the purposes of this review, the analysis of leadership will focus between 1900 and 1990, as these years provide the highest number of recorded interpretations of the leadership phenomenon.

Definitions from 1900 -1929

The leadership literature of the first three decades of the 20th century emphasized leader control, centralization of power, and group processes regarding leadership definition. Mumford (1909) observed that leadership was the preeminence of one or a few individuals in a group in the process of control of societal phenomena. Blackmar (1911) saw leadership as the "centralization of effort in one person as an expression of the power of all" (p. 9).

Later, in the 1920's, leadership was viewed as "a point of polarization for group cooperation" (Chapin, 1924, p. 161). Bernard (1927) believed that leadership encompassed the needs and wishes of the group members that influenced the leader.

Just before the Great Depression, authority entered into the leadership equation. At a conference on leadership, Moore (1927) defined leadership as "the ability to impress the will of the leader on those led and induce obedience, respect, loyalty, and cooperation" (p. 124). However, Schenk (1928) dissented from the dominant view by writing: "Leadership is the management of men by persuasion and inspiration rather than the direct or implied threat of coercion" (p. 111). Preceding these explanations, Munson (1921) defined leadership as "...the creative and directive management of morale" (p. 29), and according to Allport

(1924), leadership was personal social control through managing others.

The key word in the evolution of leadership during these decades was the emergence of the word management. In short, the evolving nature of leadership at the turn of the 20th century was a move away from manipulating group members through leader control to managing the organization, as an entity, through the authority of supervision by the leader. As such, the leader's temperament began to appear in leadership situations, which caused definitions of leadership to evolve further.

Definitions of the 1930's

Leadership practices in the 1930's discouraged command, encouraged the leader's personality, and continued to highlight group processes that had been introduced ten years earlier. Smith (1934) said "the social group that expresses its unity in connected activity is always composed of but two essential portions: the center of focal activity, and the personality of the individuals who act with regard to the center" (p. 21).

Three prominent writers during the 1930's were Bogardus (1934), Pigors (1935), and Tead (1935). Bogardus originated a trait-and-group theory of leadership when he stated: Leadership is "interaction between specific traits of one person and other traits of the many, in such a way that the course of action of the many is changed by the one" (p. 3).

Pigors, in his book, Leadership or Domination (1935), explained the phenomenon of leadership as: "a process of mutual stimulation which, by the successful interplay of relevant individual differences, controls human energy in the pursuit of a common cause" (p. 16). Clearly, this definition proved that Pigors did not equate leadership with dominion. Tead (1935) agreed with Pigors and Bogardus and wrote:

Popular notions of leadership tend to be expressed in terms of command or ability to dominate...Commanding of itself is wholly inadequate as a basis for getting results from people (pp. 11-12).

Finally, Schmidt (1933) wrote: "...the relation of leadership arises only where a group follows an individual from free choice and not under command" (p. 282).

In short, leadership by command, in the decade just before WWII, clearly lost its dominance among leadership authors and researchers. "That trend would continue in succeeding decades" (Rost, 1991, p. 48).

Definitions of the 1940's

Understanding leadership in the 1940's meant understanding groups and the functions of collective work. For instance, Krech and Crutchfield (1948) observed that "by virtue of his special position in the group the leader serves as a primary agent for the determination of group structure, group atmosphere, group goals, group ideology, and group activities" (p. 89). Similarly, for Redl (1942),

the leader was a focal person who integrated group members. For Copeland (1942) leadership was "the art of dealing with human nature...the art of influencing a body of people to follow a line of action" (p. 77).

In addition, the effects of WWII on individuals, families, and communities provided an extra thrust to the group theory movement. Knickerbocker (1948) in his work: "Leadership: A conception and some implications stated:

Functional leadership places emphasis...upon the circumstances under which the group of people integrate their activities toward objectives and upon the way in which that integration and organization is achieved (pp. 4-5).

In brief, the evolving nature of leadership definition post World War II was a collective reaction to the war and thus a concerted attempt to exclude totalitarianism and other forms of coercive behavior in groups. Thus, the 1940's embraced a significant move away from the leader as authoritarian to leader as facilitator. Therefore, for the first time followers' needs began to be noticed, but not necessarily met (Rost, 1991).

Definitions of the 1950's

The sharing of goals became the vision of leadership in the 1950's. Stogdill (1950) termed leadership as "the process of influencing the activities of an organized group...toward goal setting and goal achievement" (p. 4). Additionally, Halpin and Winter (1952) defined leadership as

"the behavior of an individual when he is directing the activities of a group toward shared goals" (p. 6). Shartle (1956) saw leadership as "directing others to respond in a shared direction" (p. 3); while Hemphill and Coons (1957) defined leadership as "directing a group toward a shared goal" (p. 5). Further, Cartwright and Zander (1953) explained leadership as:

...the performance of those acts which help the group achieve its objectives... More specifically, leadership consists of such actions by group members as those which aid in setting group goals, moving the group toward its goals, and improving the quality of interactions among the members (1953, p. 538).

As shared goals between leaders and followers gained significance, the impact these two groups had on goal attainment and on each other generated the emergence of leadership effect. To illustrate, Cattell (1951) claimed a leader was a person who has a demonstrable influence on group syntality and stated that leadership is "the magnitude of the syntality change produced by that person" (p. 175). Syntality is a measure of the organization's effectiveness as a group, so Cattell concluded by defining leadership by the amount of change in group effectiveness. Additionally, Campbell (1956) professed: "Leadership may be defined as the contribution of a given individual to group effectiveness, mediated through the direct efforts of others rather than himself" (p. 1).

However, many authors disagreed with the researchers who used effect to define leadership during this decade. As a result, "effectiveness as a necessary ingredient of leadership was not a pervasive concept in the 1950's and those who included it in their definition seemed more absorbed in the effectiveness of the group's process than of the group's product" (Rost, 1991, p. 53).

Definitions of the 1960's

As political polarity swelled in the 1960's, the leadership phenomenon continued to support mutual goals. Additionally, leadership scholars began to focus on the behavioral practices of leaders as public mistrust of leaders grew. As such, the behavioral movement was kindled.

Seeman (1960) described leadership as behaviors "which influence other persons in a shared direction" (p. 127). Beal, Bohlen, and Randabough (1962) claimed that leadership was behavior that influenced people. Lowry (1963) said: "Leadership is the ability to influence the actions of others and exercise power over the decision-making process" (p. 8). In addition, Tarcher (1966) stated that leadership must shift from "'the power to influence the behavior of others to the art of influencing others through persuasion and guidance'" (p. 20). Finally, Tannenbaum, Weschler, and Massarick (1961) described leadership as "interpersonal influence exercised in a situation through communication... toward a goal" (p. 21).

While the above definitions all revolve around leadership as behavior influencing shared goals, not all scholars at this time understood leadership in such a frame. In truth, several of the more acclaimed authors in the 1960's did not view leadership in this light. Some researchers defined leadership in terms of A and B or X and Y theories, such as Bass (1960) and McGregor (1966) respectively.

Perhaps the most famous leadership theorist during the 1960's was Fiedler who wrote: "By leadership behavior we generally mean the particular acts in which a leader engages in the course of directing and coordinating the work of group members" (p. 36). Unfortunately, this definition failed to distinguish leadership from other human interactions and thus the 1960's added greatly to the ambiguity of leadership.

Definitions of the 1970's

The most significant aspect of defining leadership in the 1970's was that the term leadership was used to mean anything that had to do with leader/follower exchanges. As a result, the notion of shared goals began to diminish, while the conversation on organizational interaction grew. Cassel (1975) wrote:

For whenever two or more persons are involved in personal interactions, there is some form of leadership present. The concept present in leadership maintains

that one or more of the members in an interacting relationship contributes more to the meeting and directing of activities and it is this contribution that describes leadership (p. 87).

Unfortunately, Cassel's (1961) definition of leadership generalized almost every human interaction as leadership, an unfortunate feature common to other definitions that evolved in the 1970's. As such, when every act of socialization became leadership, the definition lost its legitimacy. Because of such, leadership explanations from numerous fields began to thrive. To illustrate, Stogdill (1974) offered a sociological explanation: Leadership is "the initiation and maintenance of structure in interaction" (p. 411). Moloney (1979), a health administrator, stressed goal achievement: "Leadership is...an interpersonal process of influencing the activities of an individual or group towards goal attainment in a given situation" (p. 11). In addition, Corwin (1978) the political scientist, alleged: "Leadership consists largely of the ability to influence organizational policy and practice to manipulate organizational resources" (p. 78). Finally, Filley (1978) in business administration, expressed a management-oriented explanation: Leadership is "the ability of an individual to establish and maintain acceptable levels of satisfaction and job-related performance so that organization needs are met as well" (p. 52).

Because concurrent definitions from various professions began to appear, synonymous terms began to crowd the literature. In essence, leadership and management became corresponding processes as they melded together in the literature. Glancing at the textbooks published during this time, they are packed with definitions that are repeated over and over again and use management and leadership interchangeably (Kellerman, 1984). Consequently, the synonymous use of these two words "was the standard, mainstream understanding of leadership in thousands of college classrooms throughout the country" (Rost, 1991, p. 59).

It is interesting to note that while the definitions of the 1970's were fastened to organizational needs, no reference is made to the rights or needs of individual group members. Burns (1978) came the closest when he established:

Leadership is leaders inducing followers to act for certain goals that represent the values and the motivations-the wants and needs, the aspirations and expectations-of both leaders and followers (p. 13).

Burns' explication of leadership is the most important conceptual framework of leadership to have emerged in the 1970's...As a result, leadership studies would never be the same, and the 1980's saw an explosion of new ideas about the nature of leadership and its study" (Rost, 1991, p. 65).

Definitions of the 1980's

The decade of the 1980's coded leadership into five frameworks: (1) doing the leaders's wishes; (2) achieving group goals; (3) managing; (4) influencing; and (5) transforming. James McGregor Burns (1978) introduced the idea of transformational leadership, and has become famous - and rightly so - for initiating a movement to reconceptualize leadership as a transformational process - "when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality" (1978, p. 20). The impact of this new and radical view of leadership generated many other definitions of leadership in the 1980's (Hunt, 1984).

For example, Peters and Waterman (1982) in their work, In Search of Excellence, adopted Burns' view of transformational leadership. One passage of their work is particularly insightful: "We are fairly sure that the culture of almost every excellent company that seems now to be meeting the needs of 'irrational man'...can be traced to transforming leadership somewhere in its history" (p. 82). Additionally, Bass (1985) suggested: "a shift in paradigm is in order. We see the transformational leader as one who motivates us to do more than we originally expected" (p. 20).

Bass was also responsible for bridging transformational leadership and charismatic leadership as witnessed in his 1981 revision of Stodgill's Handbook of Leadership, and again in his 1985 book entitled: Leadership and Performance Beyond Expectations. Other authors echoed this same equation of leadership as read in: The Spellbinders: Charismatic Political Leaders by Willner (1985); Conger and Kanungo's (1988) edition titled Charismatic Leadership Effectiveness; and Conger's (1989) The Charismatic Leader. As a result, charismatic leadership flourished into an important framework of the late 1980's.

Unfortunately, Burns' idea of transformational leadership did not receive significant credit in the 1980's as it was continuously trivialized and used to describe everything that it was never meant to be. Thus, a new paradigm of leadership did not take hold during this decade (Rost, 1991). "On the contrary, if any conclusion as to the 1980's concept of leadership is warranted, it would be that that concept reflected the conservative and individualistic Yuppie character of Western society and in the end articulated an updated version of the industrial view of the leadership paradigm" (Rost, 1991, p. 91), which is simply "leadership as good management" (p. 94).

In the final analysis, the evolution of leadership definition has gone full circle as it has passed through paradigms emphasizing leaders' traits, control by leaders,

group processes, shared goals, leaders' behaviors, and followers' needs. In its current state, leadership has become a synthesis of the above paradigms as modern leaders exhibit positive traits for personal influence in order to meet organizational objectives that reveal both group and leader effectiveness through the transformation of organizational members (Rost, 1991).

DEFINING LEADERSHIP IN HIGHER EDUCATION

In order to define leadership in the academy, clarification is needed on exactly how university presidents define leadership in terms of their position. According to Robert Birnbaum (1987), most college presidents considered leadership as a social influence process, even though there was a tendency to give greater emphasis to the influence of leaders on followers than to mutual influence of social exchange. Birnbaum (1987) also theorized that university presidents, in general, define leadership "as a process of influence directed towards the achievement of goals" (p. 11). After reviewing this definition, it is evident that there is nothing extraordinary about its message. Yet, it conceals within its boundaries, two important questions. First, what is the source of the goals that are to be pursued, and second, what is the process by which influence is to be exerted?

In 1987, Birnbaum conducted an empirical study of higher education leadership called the Institutional

Leadership Project, an extensive five-year examination of college and university presidents and other academic leaders. Birnbaum (1987) reported that almost 80% of the college and university presidents interviewed described their primary role as directing rather than as enabling. The directive view was described as times when leader were "responsible for determining the directions in which an institution should move and coordinating the structure and process to help it get there. Leadership was considered a manifestation of the behavior of an individual" (Birnbaum, 1992, p. 208).

On the other hand, over 20% of the presidents emphasized enabling and denoted leadership as a group process versus an individual approach. "The role of the president was not to direct the group but to serve as facilitator for pluralistic leadership lying latent within it" (Birnbaum, 1992, p. 208).

Birnbaum (1987) categorized executive collegiate leadership into four theories. The boundaries of these categories are fluid; they are neither mutually exclusive nor consistent. They do, however, provide a convenient way of organizing an otherwise overwhelming array of materials (Birnbaum, 1987, p. 3). The theories are: (1) behavioral; (2) power and influence; (3) traits; and (4) symbolic and cultural theories.

The majority of the research data collected to code these theories was performed through on-site, semi-structured interviews with the institutional presidents of varied institutions participating in the Institutional Leadership Project (Birnbaum, 1987). The project considered four aspects of how college presidents think - cognitive frames, cognitive complexity, strategy, and implicit leadership theories. Collected data was prepared from the presidents' responses to the following interview question:

Leadership is often defined, but people don't always agree on what it is. What does the word leadership mean to you (Birnbaum, 1987, p. 5)?

Answers to this question were typically brief, but did range from one sentence to several paragraphs in length. Each response was broken down into separate words, phrases, or other appropriate analytical components. These components were then aligned by Birnbaum (1987) with his four theoretical approaches to determine the extent to which any, or all, of them were reflected in presidential views of the meaning of leadership.

Although it is reasonable to believe that the theories implicit in a president's definition of leadership will affect what that president does, it should be remembered that what presidents say and what they do is not always consonant (McKee, 1990). Birnbaum's (1987) data therefore cannot be interpreted as actual behavior of college

presidents, and "distortions may have occurred even in an analysis of what presidents said" (p. 12). Additionally, it should be remembered that the mention of the word leadership to many college and university presidents may prompt certain responses that focuses on specific behaviors and deemphasizes others (Birnbuam, 1987).

METAPHORS OF LEADERSHIP

Generally, what researchers know about leadership has emerged by surveying the on-going practices of leaders. In fact, leadership continues to change as leaders and the organizations they direct change due to the emergence of new leadership roles. "Leaders articulate and define what has previously remained implicit or unsaid; then they invent images, metaphors, and models that provide a focus for new attention" (Bennis and Nanus, 1985, p.39).

Metaphors are a powerful tool to inspire and motivate organizational members. Plante (1990) stated that "metaphors have inspired martyrdoms, mobilized armies, founded religions, invented romantic love, and created new disciplines" (p. 29). She believes that there is a need for leaders in higher education to saturate their institutions with spirit by using new metaphors. "Whether this infusion is with metaphors, symbols, culture, myths, legends, stories, heroes and heroines, or shared visions and beliefs,

the valid existence of the cultural and symbolic goes unexplained by other theories" (Burks, 1992).

In the past, leadership roles have been described in such ways as: the leader as parent, the leader as mediator, and the leader as analyst to name just a few. The use of such metaphors confirm the idea that leaders and their leadership practices constantly receive new characterization. Hence, leadership is always evolving.

Higher education has not escaped the impact of leadership metaphors as college and university presidents themselves, and their constituents, continuously create new ways to interpret an institution's response to executive leadership. For instance, in past years the university has been perceived as an enterprise existing in a competitive market with the president described as its entrepreneur (Cohen and March, 1986). In addition, the metaphor of an orchestra has been used with the president labeled as the conductor. In 1967, Monson, in his article titled: "Metaphors for the University," three additional reflections were presented: (1) the university as a machine and the CEO as the operator; (2) the university as a zoo with the president as the keeper; and (3) the university as a cave with the president operating as the guide. The significance of such metaphors is that: "Each trustee, professor, student, legislator, and donor has a metaphor for the

college or university from which flows an image of the way a president is supposed to be" (Kauffman, 1980, p. 12).

In the late 1960's and early 1970's other leadership metaphors appeared on the college campus. One of these was the President as crisis-manager (Hyde, 1969). This description surfaced mainly because of the impact of the Vietnam War on higher education. Because this event precipitated swift and abrupt changes in college matriculations, student attitudes, and the national economy in general, many presidents were unable to adjust their leadership practices, or influence their campus governance, quickly enough to meet consumer needs and satisfy constituent demands. Thus, by the mid 1970's, the public's image of the college president was a harried and bustling executive rushing through a revolving door to race to another crisis. In addition, in 1976, hundreds of college alumni magazines headlined an article called, "The Impossible Job?" which concluded with a perplexing question:

Must tomorrow's college and university presidents, then, be mediators, low-profile crisis managers trained in the arts of conciliation? Apostles of efficiency? ...revolving from institution to institution... (Special Report of Editorial Projects for Education, 1976, p. 16)?

Other metaphors appeared during the late 1960's and early 70's. One of these was: University president as governor (Kauffman, 1980). Oddly enough the governing metaphor remains a commonly used description. Even today

among the many things that college leaders do, their role in the internal governance of their institutions is one of their more obviously important responsibilities (Cohen and March, 1986). Whether a president views that role as effective or ineffective, useful or useless, the fact is that almost any duty of the president requires some conception of decision making and governance. In short, "when presidents consider...governing activities, they bring along an assortment of metaphors" (Hayes and March, 1970, p. 6).

As a result, college and university presidents function with ideas about the kind of organized system their institution is. As such, they operate in relatively distinct ways regarding the leadership of their campuses. Some of these ways have been expressed through aged metaphors such as leader-as-commander or leader-as-director, while other ways include newer and complex metaphors such as leader as steward or leader-as-designer.

Whether the metaphor is dated or contemporary it may still be used today by college presidents to allocate authority. Although each of the metaphors may differ operationally - that is, the circumstances under which decisions are made, most significant is that each metaphor causes college presidents to behave differently and therefore requires a different conception of the presidential role. "The general point...is that the model

one has of the system of governance dictates a presidential style. The appropriateness of the style, however, is determined by the adequacy of the model" (Cohen and March, 1986, p. 37).

Cohen and March (1986) in their book, Leadership and Ambiguity, identified eight distinct leadership metaphors of the college campus and corresponding roles regarding presidential leadership. Respectively, these metaphors and prescribed roles are: (1) The university as a competitive market, with the president serving as entrepreneur; (2) the university as an administrative unit with the president serving as manager; (3) the university as a place of collective bargaining with the president being the mediator; (4) the university as a democracy with the president labeled as head politician; (5) the university as a consensus builder with the president functioning as the chairman; (6) the university as an anarchy with the president operating as the catalyst; (7) the university as a judicial system with the president facilitating as the judge; and (8) the university as an autocracy with the president serving as the king. "On the whole the literature of organizations and administration provides a firmer ideological and technical base for the metaphors of administration (manager), democracy (politician), collective bargaining (mediator), and consensus (chairman) than it does for the metaphors of the competitive market (entrepreneur),

anarchy (catalyst), independent judiciary (judge), or...autocracy (...king)" (Cohen and March, 1986, p.39).

The following section contrasts three seasoned, or familiar, leadership metaphors with three novel, or unfamiliar, ones. Upon reviewing their distinctions, it becomes clear that the nature of the leadership metaphor evolution has been a shift from directing others to developing others as the newer metaphors weigh the followers' needs, desires, and personal situations, whereas the older ones considered only the leader's wants and necessities.

Leader-as-Commander to Leader-as-Designer

It is a common notion that people appointed to their administrative role display leadership by virtue of their position (Rosenbach and Taylor, 1984). Industrial managers and military commanders in particular have been called leaders for no other reason than their status or title. "Not only have they been described as leaders, but it has been presumed that they always exercised leadership behavior in directing the activities of their subordinates" (Holloman, 1984, p. 39).

Perhaps the best example of commanding leadership rests within the military, known historically and distinctively as "the art of command" (Blumenson and Stokesbury, 1975, p. 1). "The mere fact that one man is allowed to play God with his decisions affecting the lives of hundreds, sometimes

thousands of persons, is naturally intriguing. This mixture of human resources and supernatural responsibilities has always engaged wonder among the public" (Blumenson and Stokesbury, 1975, p. 1). War is an impassioned drama, and no element of it is more engrossing than the command decisions that can mean life or death for men, as well as survival or disaster for states (Blumenson and Stokesbury, 1975).

Such superiority epitomizes leadership by command (Tead, 1955). Its methods push the supremacy of one individual over others, who are pressed into service in which they may or may not believe in and in whose formulation they had no say. Leadership characterized by command, based on discipline and unquestioning obedience, is the antithesis of leadership characterized by group processes. "It is not negative leadership. It is not bad leadership, because it is not leadership at all" (Tead, 1935, p. 38). For, instead of the leader uniting himself with his organizational members and generating power by directing human energy in a common cause, the leader is concerned in asserting his own will (Pigors, 1935).

In short, power is the key to commanding leadership. Commanders want to rule at all costs and they do not tolerate interference from their subordinates or relinquish their authority to a follower, or even a rivaling leader. Ferdinand LaSalle epitomized this power by choosing as his

creed the following line from Virgil (1961): "If I cannot bend the will of heaven, I will cause turmoil in hell" (p. 37). Individuals of this sort, who must rule or ruin, are usually too impatient to be effective leaders. They want to manipulate, or push. Their power depends on the ability to compel the obedience of their subjects, rather than on a capacity to enlist voluntary cooperation from followers (Gilbert, 1950).

Opposite of the leader-as-commander is the leader-as-designer. Peter Senge (1990) asks: "Imagine that your organization is an ocean liner and that you are 'the leader.' What is your role" (p. 341)? Such responses as captain, navigator, helmsman, engineer, and social director have been given. "While these are legitimate leadership roles, there is another which, in many ways, eclipses them all in importance. Yet, rarely does anyone think of it. The neglected leadership role is the designer of the ship. No one has more sweeping influence than the designer" (Senge, 1990, p. 341).

Although the metaphor of leader-as-designer is frequently ignored today, it strikes a leadership chord that has existed for thousands of years. To paraphrase an ancient Chinese proverb: The bad leader is one that people loathe; the good leader is one that people praise; the greatest leader is one who allows people to say: We did it ourselves. In other words, the most effective leader is one

that considers the role of collectivity, rather than individuality, or as Senge (1990) contends: the best leader is one who designs a learning process for group members.

Senge (1990) claimed that most leaders agree that the first leadership design task involves re-developing visions, values, and missions. Thus, designers are change agents. "'Organization design is widely misconstrued as moving around boxes and lines,'" says Bill O'Brien, CEO of Hanover Insurance (Senge, 1990, p. 345). The initial task of organizational design means re-charting the governing ideas - the core values - by which people live. Ray Strata, President of Analog Devices, claimed: "'Designing the organization as a whole includes the intangibles of even the more subtle values that knit things together'" (Senge, 1990, p. 344). Unfortunately, this is new territory for most experienced managers, who got to the top by their discerning talents, not their skills in mentoring or nurturing others. However, as Ed Simons, President of Herman Miller Inc., said, "'There is much we do not know about...build learning organizations, but one thing is certain, there is new work here, and we must be willing to abandon our whole paradigm of who we are as managers to master this new work'" (Senge, 1990, p. 345).

Leaders have a special freedom and responsibility as designers, because their design is never really finished. Equity, diversity, and freedom - all worthy design ideals - must be balanced with justice,

community and responsibility. It is in the practice of leadership that our design ideals become manifest (Bogue, 1994, p. xiii-xiv).

The above quote by E. Grady Bogue, Chancellor Emeritus of Louisiana State University at Shreveport, signifies the never-ending work of leaders as designers. In his book, Leadership by Design, Bogue (1994) outlines eight values or ideals regarding the leadership design process. These eight values, serving as chapter titles for his book, are:

- (1) The Call of Honor - expressions of ethical behavior;
- (2) The Dignity Test - treating others with respect;
- (3) The Habit of Curiosity - cultivating learning and creating visions;
- (4) The case for Candor - promoting open communication and discouraging duplicity;
- (5) The Touch of Compassion - loving and leading, and building a sense of community;
- (6) The Question of Courage - doing the right thing through duty, persistence, and affirming oneself;
- (7) The expectation of Excellence - actions of caring and daring; and
- (8) The Servant Exemplar - ideals of service and leadership effect.

According to Bogue (1994) these ideals "enable us to design environments in which our colleagues and our colleges reach the far edge of their promise, that will enable us to nurture the potential of our students and our other clients" (p. xiii).

Thus, designing leaders are pioneers - willing to take a stand and perhaps test unknown territory. They are

individuals willing to take risks, "to innovate and experiment in order to find new and better ways of doing things" (Kouzes and Posner, 1987, p. 8).

Bennis and Nanus (1985) and Kouzes and Posner (1987) believed that effective leaders must be designers of new organizational culture. "Perhaps more than anything else, leadership is about the 'creation of a new way of life.' And to make that happen, leaders must foster change, take risks, and accept the responsibility for making it happen" (Kouzes and Posner, 1987, p. 36). Whetten (1984) agreed when he stated:

Effective academic administrators encourage a risk-seeking fail-safe organizational climate. They protect opportunities for innovation...because they understand that in the minds of their most productive members there is a link between the attractiveness of staying in an institution and the emphasis its leaders place on innovation and creativity (p. 41).

Leader-as-Decision-Maker to Leader-as-Steward

Many leaders are first executives whose primary responsibility is to manage some enterprise of one of its departments or units. Naturally the leader as decision-maker must first be able to do the executive job - or see that it is done. However, questions often arise regarding how the leader demonstrates technical mastery, and how the leader uses power (Warner and Palfreyman, 1996).

The leader as decision-maker is vested with formal authority over his organizational unit which leads to two

basic roles: (1) manager of quality assurance so that the organization produces its specific goods or services efficiently; and (2) change-agent as the organization adapts to its circumstances.

Mintzberg (1973) identified ten other interrelated roles performed by the leader as decision-maker. Basically, these roles can be categorized into three groupings - three interpersonal roles termed as figurehead, leader, and liaison; three informational roles called monitor, disseminator, and spokesman; and four decisional roles defined as entrepreneur, disturbance handler, resource allocator, and negotiator.

It has been noted that the leader as decision-maker must: (1) take responsibility for the operation of his organization's strategy-making system; (2) find and process a significant amount of its important information; and (3) perform a number of housekeeping duties. Added to all this is the open-ended nature of his job, which allows no clear mileposts in the job, never an indication that nothing more needs to be done for the moment. Hence, the leaders's responsibility is enormous (Bruton, 1987).

Decision making is often alluded to as the heart of the administrative process. If decisions are conceived as separate events that can be made sequentially, then it is difficult to surmise that such decision making is central to organizational administration. "There is a kind of chaining

effect in university decision making that gives it an interrelated and organic feel; and furthermore, that interrelatedness frequently exists in a political ambience" (Walker, 1979, pp. 123-124).

Accordingly, if making decisions is viewed in political terms, then one can argue that decision making is essential to the administrative efforts on college campuses. Yet, the requirements of the president's position call him or her to be something bigger than a decision-maker - a problem-solver.

Problem solving consists not only of being 'a part of outcomes'.. It consists of interpreting...and operating within the interstices of bargaining, compromising, and decision making...(Walker, 1979, p. 125).

According to Donald E. Walker (1979), former president of Idaho State University, institutional presidents do make decisions in the traditional sense. Most university presidents that Walker (1979) analyzed perceived themselves as presiding over decision making processes rather than responsible for every decision. "Their job as they see it, is to ensure that decisions are in fact made, and within appropriate time limits (p. 125).

While the leader as decision-maker is concerned with doing, the leader as steward is concerned with being or a larger "pattern of becoming" (Senge, 1990, p. 345). This becoming implies purpose which gives leaders unique meaning to their personal aspirations and their hopes for their

organizations. In essence, stewardship translates the evolution of a leaders's story - why they do what they do, how they want to see their organization evolve, and how that evolution is part of something bigger. Senge (1990) stated:

The leader's purpose story is both personal and universal. It defines his or hers life's work. It ennobles his efforts, yet leaves an abiding humility that keeps him from taking his own successes and failures too seriously. It brings a unique depth of meaning to his vision, a larger landscape upon which his personal dreams and goals stand out as landmarks on a larger journey. But what is most important, this story is central to his ability to lead (p. 346).

Peter Block (1993) defined stewardship as: "a way to use power to serve through the practice of partnership... This is the alternative to the conventional notions of 'strong leadership' for implementing changes. The intent is to redesign our organizations so that service is the centerpiece and ownership and responsibility are strongly felt..." (p. 63).

In reality, stewardship assists the leader in placing his organization's purpose and reason for existence within a context of past accomplishments and future goals. This combining of old and new commitments, takes the organization beyond itself to its people. Thus, leaders see their organization as a catalyst for increasing learning and changing society. "This is the power of the purpose story - it provides a single integrating set of ideas that gives

meaning to all aspects of the leader's work" (Senge, 1990, p. 346).

"Because it exercises accountability but centers on service rather than control, stewardship is a means to impact the degree of ownership and responsibility each person feels for the success ...organizations ...society ...and...lives" (Block, 1993, p. 19). According to Block (1993), stewardship makes us "accountable for the outcomes of an institution, without acting to define purpose for others, control others, or take care of others" (p. 18).

Thus, stewardship involves developing a new type of organization that is more consistent with human nature, that "enables people to balance the desire for continuity with the desire to be creative," (Senge, 1990, p. 351), and links the big picture with testing ideas in practice (Senge, 1990). However, most leaders' stories are incomplete. They are usually evolving as they are being told - in fact, they are a result of being told. This is one reason why vision has such special significance to leaders: Vision is a vehicle for advancing the larger story. As Green (1988) argued:

Effective leaders are often described as individuals of great personal strength who are 'visionaries'...Leaders take the long view, see the big picture," and are able to project beyond the boundaries of the here-and-now to set a course for an organization. They are creators, the energizers (p. 16).

According to Kouzes and Posner (1987) the visionary leader is one who is both forward-thinking and forward-looking, which they defined as "the ability to set or select a desirable destination toward which the organization should head...a well-defined orientation toward the future" (p. 20). Additionally, Nanus (1989) said the visionary leader should possess farsightedness, keeping "the eye firmly fixed on the far horizon" (p. 82).

Greenleaf (1977) had similar thoughts as he identified foresight as an essential skill of the visionary leader. He characterized this skill as a "better than average guess about what is going to happen when in the future" (p. 24) or "the 'lead' that the leader has" (p. 26). Finally, Bennis and Nanus (1985) stated:

Leaders require foresight, so they can judge how the vision fits into the way the environment of the organization may evolve; hindsight, so that the vision does not violate the traditions and culture of the organization; a world view, within which to interpret the impact of possible new developments and trends; depth perception, so that the whole picture can be seen in appropriate detail and perspective; peripheral vision, so that the possible responses of competitors and other stakeholders to the new direction can be comprehended...(pp. 102-103).

Leader-as-Director to Leader-as-Exemplar

Another popular metaphor of leadership is that of one person directing another or a group of people, such as a conductor over an orchestra, a coach over a sports team, a captain over a platoon, or a manager over a corporation.

Thus, the leader as director is concerned with what he or she does to a group of people who make up an organization (Rost, 1991).

This meaning of leadership - the collectivity of workers in an organization with one person directing the efforts of the group members - is a legitimate use of the term leadership because it reflects the dominant characteristics of the industrial paradigm as people have experienced it for the past century or more. Thus, directing others does not come from nowhere. It comes from the lived experiences of people in the United States and other western societies. It is part of our heritage and how people make sense of life. "Being number one, putting top officials into a collective unit, and having one person in charge are how people have made sense of the world in the industrial era" (Rost, 1991, p.98).

Briefly defined, leadership by directing is steering others by utilizing the efficient and effective resources of an organization to achieve the objectives or goals of the organization (Simonds, 1988). Resources may include money, facilities, equipment, but most importantly, people.

The director of any type of organization functions as the manager of that group. The work of the director includes such duties as planning, organizing, communicating, training, decision-making, motivating, coaching, delegating, evaluating, and disciplining. Oddly, doing is not listed as

a director function. Therefore, directors who spend their time doing are non-managing (Simonds, 1988).

Many times leadership by directing is referred to as "administration from the top down" (Walker, 1979, p. 104). In August, 1974, The Chronicle of Higher Education illustrated this view through a quote by the chairman of the board of Southwestern Michigan College:

They (the trustees) think it (the college) ought to be run from the top down - the people elect the trustees, the trustees set the policies, and the faculty and administrators carry them out...A lot of colleges wouldn't be in the mess they are in if the trustees had remembered that simple hierarchy of authority and had stood up to the demands of their faculties... At a lot of these colleges the tail has been wagging the dog for years...we've got to move to...where the dog wags the tail again (Walker, 1979, p. 105).

Additionally, the chancellor of a large state system of universities paraphrased the same leadership philosophy when he stated:

I am drawing a conclusion based on history with which some of you may not agree - to the effect that human institutions are simply not operable in an effective way for very long periods of time without strong and responsible leadership. There are cycles in which this leadership is questioned...and there are subsequent periods when authority is temporarily decentralized, but inevitably, in order to make human institutions work, they must return, and always have, to the concept of strong individual leadership, whatever the pattern of government in which it operates (Walker, 1979, p. 105).

Leaders as directors often portray one of four leadership styles: Telling, selling, participating, or

delegating. Telling involves a high task and low relationship style of leading. This leadership practice is characterized by one-way communication in which the leader as director defines the roles of followers and tells them what, how, when, and where to do various tasks (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977).

Selling involves similar direction from the leader. However, two-way communication is attempted in order to gain the emotional support of followers to buy into the decisions made by the director-leader (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977).

Participating involves a high relationship and low task style of leadership. In this mode, the leader and followers share in decision making through two-way communication and facilitating behavior from the leader (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977).

Lastly, delegating allows the followers to manage themselves, and "run their own show" (Simonds, 1988). Thus, the leader-as-director permits the followers to take responsibility for directing their own behavior (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977).

This idea of followers taking responsibility for their actions, and eventually their organization, has lead to the management of organizational culture. "Schein (1985) suggest that such activity is one of the primary role responsibilities of leaders in the management of culture...The unspoken but widely held assumptions and

values of a unit or organization constitute its culture" (Bogue, 1994, pp. 64-65). Kuh and Whitt (1988) defined culture in the college or university setting as:

the collective, mutually shaping patterns of norms, values, practices, beliefs, and assumptions that guide the behavior of individuals, and groups in an institution of higher education and provide a frame of reference within which to interpret the meaning of events and actions on and off campus (pp. 12-13).

Thus, culture is a glue that holds various units of an institution together (Kuh and Whitt, 1988; and Smircich, 1983) and "conveys a sense of identity...facilitates commitment to an entity...other than self...and enhances the stability of a group's social system" (Kuh and Whitt, 1988, p. 10).

Organizational culture is often enhanced through communication among campus personnel as innovative ideas often come from constituencies associated with the organization (Kouzes and Posner, 1987). "The leader's primary contribution is in the recognition of good leaders, the support of those ideas, and the willingness to challenge the system in order to get new products, processes, and services adopted" (Kouzes and Posner, 1987, p. 8).

Kanter (1983) stated that the sharing of information should be a tool to help share the power of an organization. In fact, she (1983) claimed that communication is "the first in the generation of an innovative accomplishment" (p. 218). Bennis and Nanus (1985) said that through dialogue

"the leader and the organization nurture each other, guiding the process of creative self-discovery by which each learns how to be most effective in a complex and changing environment" (p. 205). Schein (1985) emphasized the importance of communication regarding the enhancement of organizational culture by claiming that constituents should be involved in the identification and achievement of organizational goals, which occurs only when people share with one another. Finally, Kouzes and Posner (1987) believed that in order to develop the kind of communication that effects innovation, and eventually leads to organizational culture, leaders must "establish more relationships, connect with more sources of information, and get out and walk around more frequently...Leaders stay in touch...with trends in the market place...with ideas and advice of others...with social, political, technological, economical, and artistic changes" (p. 60).

Culture is also portrayed through candor, which is closely associated with two other obligations: Responsibility and credibility (Bogue, 1994). Candor involves elements of truth, respect, and the sharing of knowledge. Yet, candor goes further than human expressions, it is also witnessed in organizational policies. For example, in the collegiate setting the control of the knowledge of salary profiles, financial records, and balance sheets speaks loudly about the candor of an institution

(Bogue, 1994). "The sharing of information involves the sharing of power, and this is part of the new culture of collegiate leadership. There is a correlate of that new culture, however: the sharing of responsibility" (Bogue, 1994, p. 65).

Responsibility involves service, partnership, and being accountable as the organization and its people strive to better the organization, impact its stakeholders, and change society. The culture of responsibility involves stewardship (Bogue, 1994). This obligation includes vision for the future, helping constituents develop ownership for the college and instilling a sense of purpose through the campus (Block, 1993).

Finally, candor is closely linked to credibility. Kouzes and Posner (1993) stressed the desire for credible leaders, especially ones that can be "honest, forward looking, inspiring, and competent. In short, we want leaders who are credible and who have a clear sense of direction" (p. 1). In their book Credibility: How Leaders Gain and Lose it, Why People Demand it, Kouzes and Posner (1993) stated that credibility is learned through six practices: "discovering self, appreciating constituents, affirming shared values, developing capacity, serving a purpose, and sustaining hope" (Bogue, 1994, p. 71).

While the leader-as-director is concerned with orchestrating a group of people for goal attainment, the

leader as exemplar is concerned with setting an example for followers to model so that empowerment may occur.

"The fundamental characteristic of modeling is that learning takes place, not by actually experiencing the target behavior, but by observing or imagining another's behavior" (Manz and Sims, 1989, p. 81). Nanus (1989) identified the process of leading by example and assisting others to do the right thing as personal leadership. Similarly, Batten (1989) stated that "leadership is an example" (p. 145).

According to Shapiro, Haseltine, and Rowe (1978) exemplar leaders are described as "individuals whose behaviors, personal styles, and specific attributes are emulated by others" (p. 52). They are the leaders who set goals. They provide road maps for others on how to get from here to there (Gilson and Kane, 1987).

The exemplary leader amplifies the learning process and "teaches behavior through modeling" (Blanchard and Sargent, 1984, p. 84) and passes "on the appropriate 'lore' and 'culture' of organizational leadership" (Manz and Smith, 1989, p. 84). In addition, the role model leader is particularly significant during times of transition when decisions are risky (Mercer, Nichols, and Doyle, 1989).

Levinson and Rosenthal (1984) claimed that exemplary leaders "teach others how to persevere in the face of defeat, how to develop their abilities, and how to pursue

goals that are worthy" (p. 13). In this role, the leader personifies the loftiest goals of the institution so that the future of the college may be uplifted, and so that followers may visualize their potential (Nanus, 1989).

Whetten (1984) surmised that "key leaders personify an institution's image - both internally and externally. They try to exemplify an image consistent with core institutional values" (p. 42). The leader thus, embodies the very essence of the organization (Bass, 1988; Gardner 1986a). Conger (1989) stated:

subordinates come to believe that the leader knows what it takes to succeed...By demonstrating confidence in their own abilities and by understanding some of the same tasks subordinates are expected to accomplish, leaders can model the outcomes of...empowerment p. 19).

Thus, through exemplary behavior, the leader lives his or her values as well as those of the organization..." (Kouzes and Posner, 1987).

"A leader's behavior sets a...moral tone and reinforces its purpose" (Badaracco and Ellsworth, 1989, p. 72). Exemplary leaders know that their behaviors may be imitated by others. Additionally, these leaders recognize that there "is virtually no limit to potential accomplishments if leaders set the example of looking for strengths and expecting the best" (Batten, 1989, p. 131). Thus, leaders' behaviors should be exemplary. Finally, Kouzes and Posner (1987) stated:

Leaders model the way. They establish values about how employees, colleagues, and customers ought to be treated...create standards of excellence and then set an example for others to follow...(p. 280).

Part of the exemplary leadership involves empowerment as well as cultivating others through collectivity.

Exemplary leaders enlist the support and assistance of all those who must make the projects work. They involve...those who must live with the results, and they make it possible for others to do good work... They encourage collaboration, build teams, and empower others. They enable others to act (Kouzes and Posner, 1987, p. 10).

In addition, Kouzes and Posner (1987) claimed that in order to empower others a collective process must be nurtured in order to encourage cooperative goal-setting and problem solving. "Shared leadership is desirable. Most work and personal endeavors are enhanced more by collaboration than by top-down authority" stated Sagaria and Johnsrud (1988, p. 16). Atwell and Green (1987) acknowledged that organizational boundaries do not limit collaborative efforts. Upon empowering collective teams in higher education, these authors suggested:

The more administrators are exposed to each other's operation and participation in...decisions in other areas, the more faculty and nonacademic administrators work together in meaningful ways, the more they will feel invested in a shared goal (p. 7).

Finally, Conger (1989) stated: "By demonstrating confidence in their own abilities and by understanding some

of the same tasks subordinates are expected to accomplish, leaders can model the outcomes of personal empowerment" (p. 119).

According to Bennis, empowerment is defined as "the collective effect of leadership" (p. 19). Furthermore, he identified four themes of empowerment that constitute effective leadership: (1) "people feel significant," (2) "learning and competence matter," (3) "people are part of a community," and (4) "work is exciting" (p. 19).

Bringing out the best in others is one of the goals of the empowering leader said Maccoby (1981). "If a leader wants to have far-reaching influence, he must make his followers feel powerful and able to accomplish on their own" (McClelland, 1975, p. 263).

Leaders demonstrate their empowering effect by "visibly recognizing people's contributions to the common vision...(they) let others know how much they mean to the organization" (Kouzes and Posner, 1987, p. 239). The empowering leader must celebrate the successes of his organizational members through inspiration and empowerment in order to enhance their commitment to the organization. "People need appreciation, recognition, and a feeling of accomplishment, and the confidence that people who are important to them believe in them" (Burns, 1978, p. 374). Such behavior increases employee motivation and performance (Kouzes and Posner, 1987).

"Empowerment works because it supports the deepest psychological needs of followers. People want to make a difference...and want recognition for it" (Nanus 1989, p. 51). Through empowerment, leaders encourage group efforts, acknowledge individual achievement, and thus celebrate the successes of the entire organization (Kouzes and Posner, 1987). In reality, they encourage the heart of their followers to carry on (Kouzes and Posner, 1987, p. 12). Encouraging the heart "is not the end of the process but a continued part of the leadership journey. It is vital that leaders give courage, spread joy, and care about people, product, and processes along the way" (Kouzes and Posner, 1987, pp. 275-276). Perhaps Kouzes and Posner (1989) said it best when they stated:

Empowering others is essentially the process of turning followers into leaders themselves. The process of building and enhancing power is facilitated when people work on tasks that are critical to the organization's success...(p. 179).

In conclusion, the effects of leadership metaphors have been two-fold: (1) the recognition that organizational members provide a set of theories about how an organization, such as a university, might be led; and (2) the development of a language for describing leadership within organizations. In reality, the advent of new metaphors serves as a constant stimulus for the unremitting changes of leadership. This evolution clearly denies any equation for

leadership to follow. Thus, there are no set rules or formulas for leaders to adopt; only guidelines and concepts, perceptions and ideas, abstractions and generalities. Leaders must therefore depend on their own styles, personal efficiency, and organizational culture to guide their effectiveness (Bass, 1990). The result is perhaps a new leadership metaphor: Leader-as-artist with leadership itself becoming an art form. As Bogue (1994) claimed, good ideas and practice allow the learning leader to fortify the art form of leadership. "Leadership is an integrative art form that begins with knowledge. Every leaders carries multiple theories across the threshold of his or her office door every day" (Bogue, 1994, p. 38).

Additionally, Max DePree (1987) stated: "Leadership is an art, something to be learned over time, not simply by reading books. Leadership is more tribal than scientific, more a weaving of relationships than an amassing of information..." (p. 3). Furthermore, DePree (1987) claimed: The artful leader is, "in the words of the gospel writer Luke, 'one who serves'" (p. 12). Thus, artful leadership insinuates that the leader is obligated to the institution. Some of the obligations that DePree (1987) profiled are:

- (1) artful leaders owe the university financial stability;
- (2) artful leaders are responsible for people through the cultivation of the values of the institution;
- (3) artful leaders are responsible for future leadership, as

expressed in a sense of belonging, a sense of equality, and a sense of accountability; and (4) artful leaders provide their people a vision statement. DePree (1987) added:

Leadership is much more an art, a belief, a condition of the heart, than a set of things to do. The visible signs of artful leadership are expressed, ultimately, in its practice (DePree, 1987, p. 142)

Finally, Max DePree believed that the first responsibility of a leader is defining reality. "While it is clear that leaders draw their inspiration and spiritual reserves from their sense of stewardship, much of the leverage leaders can actually exert lies in helping people achieve more accurate, more insightful, and more empowering views of reality" (Senge, 1990, p. 353). Yet, how, exactly, do leaders help people create a sense of reality? This is the task of the artful leader.

Reality can be taught through four distinct levels: Events, behaviors, structures, and purpose. Artful leaders pay close attention to all four levels, with extreme caution given to purpose and structure. In essence, the leader who views his or her leadership as an art is not about teaching people how to achieve their vision. "It is about fostering learning, for everyone" (Senge, 1990, p. 356).

Researchers claim that leadership as an art form involves a departure from leadership definitions and theories, yet a possession of leadership ability (Wren, 1995). "While the definition of 'the ability to lead' is

open to interpretation, it would seem that there are some competencies that are indispensable to artful leadership" (Wren, 1995, p. 375). These competencies include: the ability to think critically (Brookfield, 1987); the ability to solve problems (Bolman and Deal, 1985); the ability to cope with change (Kotter, 1990); and the ability to facilitate activities (Wren, 1995).

Finally, in a study of 90 chief executive officers, Walter Bennis (1982) discovered the following competencies of artful leadership: (1) vision - a paradigm that induces commitment; (2) communication and alignment - a paradigm that communicates vision to constituencies; (3) focus - a paradigm that maintains the organization's direction; and (4) empowerment - a paradigm that fosters "the capacity to create environments...that can tap and harness the energies and abilities necessary...to translate intention into reality and sustain it" (p. 378).

LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS IN COLLEGIATE SETTINGS

Leadership effectiveness, as a dynamic of presidential administration, certainly deserves attention. In 1988, James L. Fisher, Martha W. Tack, and Karen J. Wheeler (1988a) polled 2,800 college presidents to determine their effectiveness. Surprisingly, only 15%, or 420 of the 2,800 presidents questioned, were considered effective by their peers. Add to this statistic the fact that only 95 presidents, or approximately 3.5% of those in the sample,

were identified by three or more of their colleagues as being effective leaders, and the problem of ineffective leadership in the college presidency becomes very real. Additionally, Fisher, Tack, and Wheeler (1988a) discovered that the 420 presidents labeled as effective were viewed as less collegial and distant, more likely to rely on respect than affiliation, more committed to a vision than to the college, more devoted to the concept of merit pay, and more supportive of institutional flexibility than rigidity.

Follow-up research by Fisher and Tack in 1990 led them to conclude that effective college presidents think and behave differently from their non-effective counterparts. Specifically:

Effective college presidents are extremely self-confident and positive...Effective leaders tend to view problems as unrealized opportunities...Effective presidents are completely committed to their goals, and work to achieve their goals (p. 7).

Finally, Fisher and Tack (1990) proposed two other areas in which fundamental differences emerge between effective and non-effective presidents. These areas are organizational structure and institutional affiliation. As such, effective college presidents respect but do not feel as bound by administrative structure as do non-effective presidents. In addition, effective presidents are more committed to a grander cause by which they define their institutions. Non-effective presidents believe in the

institution at all costs. Next, effective university presidents have a broader vision for higher education regarding what it should become, the services it should provide, and the contribution it should make. Like all presidents, they value strategic and long-range planning. Yet, effective presidents believe more strongly in the power of ideas and vision. They work arduously to ensure that their campuses are responsive to their citizens' needs. Effective presidents view their institutions as facilitators for achieving society's broad goals (Fisher and Tack, 1990).

While president of Southeastern Massachusetts University from 1972-1982, Donald Walker wrote The Effective Administrator. In this insightful work, Walker (1979) stated that ineffective college presidents are absorbed with status and rank, regard complainants as antagonists, and view their role as disdained decision-makers. On the other hand, Bogue (1994), former chancellor of Louisiana State University at Shreveport, described effective presidents as those that: "wear the symbols of privilege and office lightly, view their role as one of reconciling dissent, do not make enemies out of dissenters, see the university in a healthy political sense, are confident and assured, and assume that the university...is healthy rather than pathological" (p. 138).

Jeanette T. Wright (1988), in her article "Conditions for Effectiveness," claimed that effective personal

leadership involves the ability to guide, organize, motivate, and manage others to achieve common objectives. Therefore, a college president needs to excel in both leadership and management. "Since leadership style is a function of the leader's personality, effective presidents possess leadership styles natural to them and appropriate to their particular organization. The most effective college presidents are those whose leadership styles are more dominate, more decisive, less democratic, and, when appropriate, autocratic. The leadership style most appropriate to a particular organization is contingent on the organization itself" (Wright, 1988, p. 87). Wright (1988) also said many institutional executives try to look upon their campuses as democratic organizations and thus try desperately to lead by consensus. The truth of the matter is that educational institutions are not at all democratic, but rather highly structured organizations with a variety of constituents.

Robert Birnbaum (1989) claimed that even if a university president is effective within his or her term, personal success, administrative success, or even institutional success is not guaranteed. Thus, a president evaluated with a high degree of effect does not ensure the success of an administration nor enhance the organizational performance of an institution.

Using the Institution Functioning Inventory, Birnbaum (1992) sampled full-time instructors at 93 colleges and universities at two separate times, first from 1968 to 1970 and then again from 1980 to 1982. One of Birnbaum's questions included: If presidents, on average, make a significant difference in university performance, should it not be expected that at least some measure of institutional functioning be linked to presidential succession? The collected data suggested that leadership effectiveness, whether performed over a brief time at an institution with many presidents with each president implementing new programs and policies, or performed at an institution with long term presidents with repeated and consistent efforts, has no direct impact on university success.

This data can be used to support two contrary views regarding the effect of presidential leadership on institutional functioning. One view suggests that institutional stability over time limits presidential influence. The second view suggests that presidents are influential causes of institutional stability. The first explanation debates whether or not colleges are inherently stable. However, this argument is valid only if one believes that the existing programs, personnel, budgets, and institutional missions inhibit the agent of change (Birnbaum, 1992). Thus, this data suggests that the same factors that buffer the institution against external

influence may constrain attempts at internal influence by the president even more.

College presidents themselves have offered meaningful thoughts on effective presidential leadership. When asked what he considered the key ingredient of effective academic leadership, David Williams, President of Wolfson College said: "Courtesy" (Kingsley, 1992, p. 67). The president of Clarion University said: "Vision" (Kingsley, 1992, p. 67). Still yet, the president of Magdalen College said simply: "Vision, there is no other" (Kingsley, 1992, p. 67).

Fisher (1984), a former college president himself, agreed that vision is essential to effect. He explained vision as the ability of making dreams come true. Dreams become reality because vision, at an intense level, incorporates the deepest values of the people and the place. In advocating the larger interests of the college, the leader is felt to be advocating the deeper interests of the individual members of the institution. Vision, therefore, becomes an intense motivator and a guide to effective leadership.

The measure of leadership effect has not been limited to educational leaders. A number of settings ranging from private corporations to non-profit organizations have also addressed the subject. Two such works profiling corporate America are Den of Thieves, by James Stewart (1991) and Some Do Care, by Colby and Damon (1992). These two manuscripts

contrast each other sharply regarding the merits of effective leadership. Den of Thieves provides record of financial dishonor on the New York stock market regarding the duplicity of four financial brokers. On the other hand, Some do Care offers a motivational story of five corporate leaders and their integrity at an exemplary level. Yet, perhaps the most important theme in Colby and Damon's work is the idea of service. In support of this model, Bogue (1994), claimed:

The leader who neglects or abandons the servant ideal will sooner or later fall victim to arrogance, and the departure of her or his nobility will manifest itself in destructive behavior...Academic leaders who invest their early attention in worrying about the size of the office...the location of a reserved parking place, and a box seat at the stadium telegraph a potential neglect of the servant motive (p. 133).

In his work, Leadership by Design, Bogue (1994) offers a personal reflection of his leadership effectiveness while serving as a university president. When asked how he evaluated his performance, how he assessed his execution; in essence, how he measured his degree of effect, Bogue (1994), suggested the following conditions of effectiveness: (1) the condition of longevity: leadership built on long-term commitments and contributions; (2) the condition of mission and goal achievement: leadership marked by outcome and results; (3) the condition of organizational integrity: leadership founded on ethical and model behavior; (4) the condition of diversity: leadership promoting efforts

of variance among students, faculty, and staff;

(5) the condition of consumer fulfillment: leadership grounded on stakeholder satisfaction; (6)) the condition of climate: leadership illustrated through campus optimism resulting in a community spirit; and (7) the condition of personal development: nurturing and caring leadership.

In conclusion, effective leadership does not drive people, instead it involves them. It never loses sight of the most important principle governing any project involving human beings: Namely, that people are more important than things (Walters, 1991). Yet, how do leaders get other people to want to follow them? How do leaders get other people, by free will and free choice, to move forward together on a common purpose (Kouzes and Posner, 1987)? To accomplish such devotion and commitment, Kouzes and Posner (1987) believed that leaders must be at their personal best. They must be extraordinary. As such, Kouzes and Posner (1987) identified five leadership practices most common to effective leaders. These five practices include: Challenging the Process, Inspiring a Shared Vision, Enabling Others to Act, Modeling the Way, and Encouraging the Heart. Each of these practices are also aligned with two components, which Kouzes and Posner (1987) describe as the 10 commitments of effective leadership. These commitments include: Searching for opportunities, taking risks, envisioning the future, enlisting the support of others,

fostering collaboration, strengthening others, setting an example, planning small wins, recognizing contributions, and celebrating accomplishments. Their instrument the Leadership Practices Inventory (1991) was developed as an empirical measure of this leadership framework.

SUMMARY

The idea of leadership is complex, difficult to define, and open to countless interpretations. Neither in everyday conversation nor in scholarly literature is there consensus about the definition of leadership, or the means by which it has or can be identified, achieved, or measured (Bennis and Nanus, 1985). Although spoken about as a concrete and observable phenomenon, leadership remains elusive. As such, leadership is likely to consist of varied interests, perspectives, and of a number of separate elements, which only in combination represent the whole. (Rost, 1991).

In addition, the study of leadership has intrigued many authors representing a number of academic disciplines ranging from political science to history. As such, different leadership perspectives have influenced the assumptions that underline current leadership research. These perspectives can be witnessed in numerous leadership theories, frames, and metaphors that help describe and identify collegiate presidential roles.

The characterization of leaders in new metaphors such as designers, stewards, and exemplars has increased since

the publication of many reports whose running theme is that higher education is suffering from inadequate leadership. The message in these reports is that presidents of colleges and universities need to direct their campuses in more creative, and thus perhaps more effective, ways if the problems of higher education are to be confronted and resolved.

Leadership is often treated as something tangible and effectual. Thus, authors act as though they know what forms of leadership are best. Similarly, educational researchers act as though they know which type of leadership provides the best effects for desired outcomes in higher education. However, the research record is not as unambiguous as their rhetoric, and summaries of the voluminous literature suggest that the assumed relationship between leaders and organizational effectiveness is tenuous at best (Hollander, 1987). In retrospect, instead of focusing on what leadership is, perhaps the attention should be on why leadership is needed and under what conditions leaders are most effective.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHOD

This chapter describes the selection of the sample, and explains the development of the research instrument. In addition, it describes the methods used to collect and treat the data.

SELECTION OF THE SAMPLE

A 25% stratified random sampling technique was used to comprise the sample for the study. Four hundred colleges and universities were selected for the research sample as this number constitutes 25% of the 1,547 public institutions in the United States. In addition, six types of institutions were used to guide the study. Institutional type originated from A Classification of Institutions of Higher Education (1996) by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (Appendix 1). These six institutional types included: Research Universities; Doctorate-Granting Universities; Masters Colleges and Universities; Baccalaureate Colleges; Associate of Arts Colleges; and Specialized Institutions.

To explain, there are 85 American public research universities, thus 22 research universities were selected for the project sample. In addition, there are 66 public doctorate-granting institutions in the United States; therefore, 17 doctorate-granting universities were selected for the study. Masters colleges and universities constitute

275 public American institutions of higher education; thus, 71 masters institutions were chosen for the study. There are 86 public baccalaureate colleges; thus, 22 baccalaureate colleges were selected for the sample. Associate of arts colleges constitute for 963 U.S. public colleges; therefore, 249 two-year colleges were chosen. Finally, there are 72 public specialized colleges; thus, 19 specialized institutions comprised the research sample.

The 400 institutions and their presidents chosen for the study were identified from The Higher Education Directory (1996). In addition, each president selected to participate in the project had to currently serve a public college or university. Only state-funded or federally-supported institutions were chosen for the study.

SELECTION OF THE INSTRUMENT

In an effort to select the most appropriate instrument for the study, more than twenty assessment instruments were examined. Some of the more notable leadership instruments analyzed were: (1) The Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (Hemphill and Coons, 1957); (2) The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (Fleishman, 1960); (3) The Leadership Behavior Analysis II (revised) (Cassel and Stancik, 1981); (4) The Leadership Development Questionnaire (Alleman, 1982); (5) The Campbell Leadership Index (Campbell, 1990); (6) The Leadership Ability Evaluation (Zigarmi, Forsyth,

Blanchard, and Hambleton, 1991); (7) The Leadership Competency Inventory (Kelner, 1993); and (8) The Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (Center for Leadership Studies, 1993).

After reviewing these research instruments, all developed over the past forty years, the Leadership Practices Inventory-Self was selected for use in the project. This instrument was chosen for several reasons. Besides, its clarity, brevity, and ease of scoring, the LPI-S was developed as an empirical measure of a conceptual leadership framework, and is thus well established. Additionally, both qualitative and quantitative analyses were used in the original validation of the LPI-S (Kouzes and Posner, 1987) which strengthens its design. Moreover, the psychometric properties of the LPI-S - its reliability and validity - have been tested and well established, which we will address in the next section.

Next, the instrument integrates dimensions of leadership definition and effectiveness. The thirty items comprising the instrument appear to be appropriately worded for use in an educational setting.

Perhaps most important, the element of perception is permitted to be an integral part of the test. McGregor (1966) concluded that the behavior of humans is rarely a direct response to reality, and thus objectivity is diminished. His conclusion, based on scientific research,

is that people usually respond to their perception of reality, rather than to reality itself, and it is this response that influences and guides behavioral practices. Because institutional presidents have a profound influence on their campuses, their perceptions of themselves, their constructed reality, and their leadership behaviors are of capital importance.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE LPI-S INSTRUMENT

Kouzes and Posner (1987) requested more than 3,000 leaders attending management development seminars, to describe a personal best as a leader. This description was provided through a 12-page survey in which these leaders recounted an experience in which they had led, not managed, a situation that rose beyond traditional expectations (Kouzes and Posner, 1987). The current version of the LPI-S (1991) was validated by the responses of 1,567 managers of both public and private sectors. A separate sample of international managers was also collected with executives from Australia, England, and Germany. "While no attempts have been made to generate 'representative' sample populations of managers, the relatively large total sample size involved increases the potential generalizability of these findings. The .01 level of probability was adopted throughout the analyses as the appropriate level of statistical significance" (Kouzes and Posner, 1987, p. 312).

In addition to their original personal-best survey,

Kouzes and Posner (1987) supplemented their research with forty-two In-depth interviews with mid to senior-level managers in public and private agencies. These studies were then content analyzed by the two researchers and validated by outside raters. "While the categorical labels have evolved through several iterations, the fundamental pattern of leadership behavior which emerges when people are accomplishing extraordinary things in organizations is best described by the following five practices, each of which consists of two basic-strategies" (Kouzes and Posner, 1987, p. 310): (1) *Challenging the Process* - searching for opportunities and taking risks; (2) *Inspiring a Shared Vision* - envisioning the future and enlisting the support of others; (3) *Enabling Others to Act* - fostering collaboration and strengthening others; (4) *Modeling the Way* - setting an example and planning small wins; and (5) *Encouraging the Heart* - recognizing successes and celebrating accomplishments.

Challenging the Process

According to Kouzes and Posner (1987), challenging leaders are people who seek out new opportunities and are willing to change the status quo. They innovate, experiment, and explore ways to improve the organization. Challenging leaders find a new way to keep doing their existing types of work.

Inspiring a Shared Vision

Kouzes and Posner (1987) suggested that inspiring leaders "envision an uplifting and ennobling future in which they think first about past peaks and valleys, strengths and weaknesses; determine what they want; test their assumptions; become futurists; and use positive self-talk" (Bauer, 1993, p. 26). Leaders should also enlist others in a common vision by appealing to their values, interests, hopes, and dreams through the identification of constituents (Kouzes and Posner, 1987).

Enabling Others to Act

Team building, collaborative goals, and mutual respect are the tools utilized to successfully create a climate of trust and interaction stated Kouzes and Posner (1987). They also claimed that people are strengthened by the sharing of information and power. This fortification is performed through getting to know people, enlarging peoples' spheres of influence through training, connections, and communication.

Modeling the Way

Kouzes and Posner (1987) support the idea that while positions give leaders authority, it is behavior that earns them respect. They claimed that there are procedural methods through which leaders set examples for others by

behaving in ways that are consistent with stated values. Walk your talk through clarity, intensity, and consensus (Deal, 1987).

Encouraging the Heart

Measurable performance standards, formal reward systems, non-monetary compensation systems, and publicizing recognition are the structural means by which Kouzes and Posner (1987) encourage the recognition of contributions. These authors suggest celebrating team accomplishments and recognizing individual contributions on a regular basis. "Cheerleading and celebrating are the processes of honoring people and sharing with them in the sweet taste of success" (Kouzes and Posner, 1987, p. 260).

For design purposes, the LPI-S was originally piloted with 120 students working on their MBA. These students worked full-time and attended a small, private, west coast university. The average age of the students was 29 years. Sixty percent were Male and one-half had management experience. An item-by-item analysis was conducted after these subjects completed the instrument. Revision occurred for items declared as ambiguous, inconsistent, or difficult. Furthermore, nine professionals representing the fields of psychology, organizational behavior, and human resource management - experienced in psychometric issues, test construction, and management development - refined the inventory (Kouzes and Posner, 1987).

Two forms of the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) were designed by Kouzes and Posner (1987): (1) The LPI-Self: Designed to measure a person's leadership style through self analysis; and (2) the LPI-Observer: Designed to measure a person's leadership style through others such as peers and co-workers. For this project, only the LPI-Self was used as the Observer test was not employed as part of the research design.

Psychometric Properties of the LPI-Self

The internal consistency estimates of the LPI-Self range from .70 to .85. Kouzes and Posner (1987) used the test-retest method to establish the reliability of the model and obtained an average reliability coefficient of .98. A sample of another 175 MBA students yielded re-test estimates ranging from .93 to .95 for the five leadership practices.

Studies of gender differences revealed two significant differences between males and females: Women scored higher than men on encouraging the heart and modeling the way (Kouzes and Posner, 1987). Cross-cultural analysis established few significant differences among various ethnic and cultural groups such as African-Americans, Asian-Americans, and Hispanic Americans. Thus, the opportunities for leading and the process of leading are unrelated to individual differences such as functional background for

technical expertise, race, gender, organizational position, or cultural background (Leong, 1995).

A principal factor analysis of the thirty test items resulted in five factors with all the items loading in the appropriate dimension. The five factors accounted for 60.2% of the variance. In addition, all thirty items were able to be interpreted regarding the five practices.

The internal reliabilities for the five leadership practices of the LPI-S tested from .69 to .85. In addition, the reliability of the LPI-S over time has proven to be strong. "Researchers have shown how leadership practices, as measured by the LPI, are related to organizational effectiveness, group or team vitality, and individual levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment" (Kouzes and Posner, 1993, p. 14).

Effectiveness of the LPI-Self

In order to refine the construct validity and assess the discriminant validity of the LPI, Kouzes and Posner developed a leadership effectiveness scale for their instrument. This measure of effectiveness contained six Likert-type questions which requested managers of public and private agencies to evaluate their leaders regarding:

- (1) job-related needs of subordinates;
- (2) committed work group;
- (3) influence on upper management;
- (4) satisfaction with leadership;
- (5) managers' leadership practices; and
- (6) feelings of empowerment.

The coefficient alpha for the leadership effectiveness scale was .98 and a test-retest reliability based on 57 MBA students was .96. Using a multiple regression, the five component practices of the LPI-S significantly predicted the leadership effectiveness scale ($F = 318.9, p < .001$).

Additional studies showed there was a significant relationship discovered between performance on the LPI-S and the assessment of a leader's effectiveness. There were also significant relationships found between the scales and job satisfaction, commitment, and productivity (Smith, 1991).

Past research using the LPI-Self

Scott (1989) utilized the LPI-S in conjunction with the Human Information Processing Survey to determine the leadership practices of California community college leaders. The results showed no significance between the two tests and no interaction between leaders and followers leadership perceptions.

Tarazi's (1990) study revealed no significant difference in the testing of traditional versus non-traditional leadership practices between male and female leaders. She used Fleishman's Leadership Opinion Questionnaire to measure traditional leadership and the LPI-S to measure non-traditional practices. The most significant finding revealed that Inspiring a Shared Vision occurred more often in upper management.

Plowman (1991) used the LPI-S to assess the leadership practices of college presidents in Florida and to determine if the institutional environment is significantly related to presidents' leadership practices. The results of his study revealed no significant correlation between the presidents' leadership practices and their perceptions of the institutional environment.

Kuehler (1992) used the California Psychological Inventory in conjunction with the LPI-S to examine the profile of personality traits associated with transformational leadership styles used by secondary school principals. His analysis revealed a significant difference between principal's self-described leadership practices compared to principals' leadership practices described by others.

Finally, Bauer (1993) employed the Leadership Practice Inventory-Self to compare college presidents with leaders in business and industry. Statistical tests revealed that LPI-S scores for academic leaders were significantly higher than business leaders. Specifically, the practice of Enabling Others to Act was ranked highest by college presidents, as was true for business executives.

Criticisms of the LPI-Self

Although there is much empirical research that supports the LPI-S, there are several weaknesses related to some of the supporting evidence. First, according to Frederick

Leong (1995), Associate Professor of Psychology at The Ohio State University, the LPI-S revealed no significant correlations regarding social desirability effects, especially response bias, when tested against the Marlowe-Crowne Personal Reaction Inventory (Crowne and Marlowe, 1960). The Marlowe-Crowne test consists of 33 items representing behaviors that are culturally sanctioned and approved but are improbable of occurrence. This relationship however was examined on a sample of only 30 mid-level managers, which is peculiar as the statistical significance of correlations is highly dependent on sample size. It would only seem logical to perform additional studies of the potential social desirability effects of the LPI-S with larger and diverse samples. "This research is especially important given that the LPI-Self and the LPI-Observer versions tend to produce different results" (Leong, 1995, p. 556).

Second, further research is needed to examine the validity of the LPI-S version, as in the original validation study much of the evidence for predictive and discriminant validity of the LPI was based on the LPI-Observer version only. In brief, "we need to know if the LPI-Self version, relative to the LPI-Observer version, provides the same level of discriminant and predictive validity with regards to the typical outcomes used in the various studies" (Leong, 1995, p. 556). Finally, the LPI-S suffers from the

perennial "'criterion problem'" (Leong, 1995, p. 556) regarding leadership research. Namely, what is a good leader and how do we recognize one? According to the LPI-S model, a good leader is one who engages in five specific leadership practices. Yet Leong (1995) asked: "Are leaders who engage in this set of practices better or more effective leaders? Better or more effective than what (differential validity question)? Better or more effective at what (criterion problem)? According to whose perspective (another part of the criterion problem)" (p. 556)?

DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

Each president selected for the sample was mailed an individual packet requesting his or her participation in the research project. This packet included: (1) a cover letter explaining who the researcher is, the purpose of the study, and how the collected data would be used (Appendix 2); (2) the Leadership Practices Inventory-Self (Appendix 3); (3) an unpublished survey requesting personal information about race, age, gender, academic discipline, and years of experience (Appendix 4); and (4) a self-addressed stamped envelope. In addition, the cover letter ensured the confidentiality of the respondents and requested they return the questionnaire within a two-week time period. Each president was also furnished a code number so that the researcher could contact the non-respondents.

Approximately two weeks after the initial mailing, a follow-up procedure was implemented to assist in a higher percentage of return. This procedure consisted of forwarding a postcard reminder (Appendix 5) to those presidents who had not yet responded to the survey. After another two weeks had passed, a new cover letter (Appendix 6) and a new packet was sent to those presidents who still had not provided a response. After the third mailing, the researcher provided data analysis for the returned responses.

TREATMENT OF THE DATA

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) (1996) was used to analyze the research questions of this project. Multivariate statistics were employed to analyze and interpret the data. A repeated measures form of an analysis-of-variance (ANOVA) was utilized to test each of the null hypotheses. This technique was selected for two reasons: (1) it could determine interactions between dependent variables; and (2) it allowed a comparison of several interrelated dependent variables based on selected independent variables. Specifically, for this project, the five leadership practices of Challenging the Process, Inspiring a Shared Vision, Enabling Others to Act, Modeling the Way, and Encouraging the Heart served as the dependent variable. In addition, the six institutional types, and the

personal classification variables were treated as the independent variable.

Repeated measures analysis can be applied to situations where the same measurement is made multiple times on each subject or case. In using the repeated measures form of ANOVA two types of factors are distinguished: between-subjects factors and within-subjects factors. A between-subjects factor is any factor that divides the sample of subjects or cases into discrete subgroups. A within-subjects factor is any factor that distinguishes measurements made on the same subject or case rather than distinguishing different subjects or cases.

Finally, the repeated measures form of multivariate statistics employs several tests of significance. For the purposes of this study, the Wilks' Lambda criterion was selected for three reasons: (1) its accuracy and exactness; (2) an investigation of significant differences between LPI scores, and (3) the analysis of interactions between LPI practices and the independent variables.

Following data collection, presidents' individual scores for each of the five leadership practices were determined. Next, mean scores for each of the five scales were computed. The primary purpose of acquiring this data was to explore the differences between presidents' self-described ratings on each of the five leadership practices. An analysis of the mean scores followed in order to examine

information about: (1) the leadership styles used by the presidents of different institutional types; and (2) the leadership styles used by college and university presidents regarding different races, ages, genders, academic disciplines, and years of experience. Finally, these mean scores were transferred to summary tables for data analysis.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

This chapter analyzes the data from the collected surveys from the participating presidents. The project sample consisted of 400 college and university presidents. A 25% stratified random sampling technique was used to identify the colleges and universities to guide the study. There are 1,547 public institutions in the United States; thus, 400 college and university presidents were selected to comprise the research sample. Each president chosen presently serve six distinguishable types of institutions as defined by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. One purpose of this research project was to explore variations in public college and university presidential reports of their leadership practices as a function of institutional type and as a function of personal classification variables. A second purpose was to compare the perceptions of effective leadership practices of college leaders with the perceptions of effective leadership practices of senior leaders of other organizations.

The Leadership Practices Inventory-Self (LPI-S) developed by Kouzes and Posner (1991) was employed to identify the college and university presidents' leadership practices. Additionally, an unpublished survey sent with the LPI-S was used to collect the data on the classification variables of race, age, gender, discipline background, and

years of service for each college and university president. The returned surveys total 329, yielding an 82.3% response rate. This percentage represents a very high return rate regarding written survey analysis. Table 1 provides a summary of the survey data by institutional type.

Next, normative data previously collected by Kouzes and Posner (1993) in other research was used to compare the perceptions of leadership practices of top executives of other organizations with the perceptions of leadership practices of institutional presidents.

Finally, for statistical testing, mean scores were computed, as well as tests of between-subjects factors to determine the interaction effects of race, age, gender, academic discipline, and experience on the presidents' five leadership practices.

PRESIDENTS' SELF-DESCRIBED LEADERSHIP PRACTICES

As noted earlier, presidents were asked to evaluate their leadership practices according to the set responses of: rarely or very seldom, once in a while, sometimes, fairly often, and very frequently. These categorical labels were paired with the numerical ratings of 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 respectively. The maximum score a president could receive was thirty and the minimum possible score was six on each of the five leadership practices. Table 2 provides a summary of presidents' mean leadership scores for each LPI-S inquiry, ranked highest to lowest, within each practice.

TABLE 1**Summary of Presidents' Responses by Institutional Type**

Institutional Type (public)	Population	Requested	Returned	Percent
Research Universities	85	22	20	86.9
Doctorate-Granting Universities	66	17	15	83.3
Masters Colleges and Universities	275	71	61	84.7
Baccalaureate Colleges	86	22	19	82.6
Associate of Arts Colleges	963	249	197	80.4
Specialized Institutions	72	19	17	89.5
Total	1,547	400	329	82.3

TABLE 2

**Presidents' Mean LPI-S Ratings
Ranked Highest to Lowest Within Each Practice**

LPI-S Practice	LPI-S - Item #	Mean
#1 Challenging	16. Looks for way to innovate	4.07
	6. Stays up to date	4.01
	21. Asks "What can we learn?"	3.78
	11. Challenges the status quo	3.77
	1. Seeks challenges	3.76
	26. Experiments and takes risks	3.77
	Presidents' Mean Challenging Rating	3.80
#2 Inspiring	12. Communicates positive outlook	4.20
	27. Contagiously excited about future	4.02
	22. Forecasts the future	4.00
	2. Describes a future we can create	3.88
	7. Shares future dreams	3.69
	17. Enlist a common vision	3.66
	Presidents' Mean Inspiring Rating	3.90
#3 Enabling	8. Treat others with dignity and respect	4.68
	3. Involves others in planning	4.37
	18. Develops cooperative relationships	4.33
	23. Creates atmosphere of trust	4.31
	13. Allows others to make decisions	4.30
	28. Gets others to own project	4.24
	Presidents' Mean Enabling Rating	4.37
#4 Modeling	24. Practices what is espoused	4.24
	4. Clear on leadership philosophy	4.21
	19. Lets others know beliefs/values	3.91
	9. Breaks projects into manageable steps	3.76
	29. Sets clear goals and milestones	3.75
	14. Assures values are adhered to	3.68
	Presidents' Mean Modeling Rating	3.92
#5 Encouraging	10. Recognizes others' contributions	4.27
	15. Gives praise for job well done	4.26
	20. Gives team appreciation/support	4.14
	25. Finds ways to celebrate	3.81
	30. Tells others about group's work	3.83
	5. Celebrates milestones	3.75
	Presidents' Mean Encouraging Rating	4.01

Additionally, for data comparison, a normative scale was established by Kouzes and Posner (1993). Table 3 presents the high and moderate rankings of this normative comparison scale. The column to the far left in Table 3 represents the high and moderate LPI-Self percentile rankings of more than 5000 senior-level leaders since 1988. A percentile ranking is determined by the percentage of executives who rated themselves at or below a given number. Therefore, if a college or university president's total self-rating for Challenging the Process fell at the 70th percentile line it would mean that he or she assessed him or herself higher than 30% of all leaders in that practice.

In addition, research by Kouzes and Posner (1987) indicated that a high score is one at or above the seventieth percentile, and a moderate score is one at or above the thirtieth percentile.

TESTS OF THE NULL HYPOTHESES

In testing the following null hypotheses for this study, it is important to know how the scales of the Leadership Practice Inventory-Self were compared and analyzed. The scores on each of the five scales were not treated as a total score, as the LPI-S does not yield a total score that has meaning. Instead, the instrument yields five sub-scores, one score for each of the five leadership scales. Each of the means of the five scores were then compared through repeated measures within-subjects

TABLE 3

Percentile/Mean Rankings of LPI-S Practices for all
Senior Leaders since 1988

	Percent	Challenge	Inspire	Enable	Model	Encourage
H I G H	99	30	30	30	30	30
		29	29		29	
		28	28	29	28	29
			27			28
		27	26		27	
	90		25	28	26	27
		26			25	26
			24			
	80	25		27		25
					24	24
M O D E R A T E	70		23			
		24		26		
	60		22		23	23
		23	21	25		
			20			22
		22		24	22	21
30	40					
		21				
			19		21	20
				23		

Source: Kouzes and Posner (1993)
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analysis. In essence, the repeated measures design used in this study analyzed the five sub-scores as comparable scores because each of the subscores originated from six questions with a possible minimal score of 6 and a possible maximum score of 30 for each of the five leadership practices.

In a repeated measures design each subject is measured under several treatments. When comparing means of the treatments applied to each subject, a within-subjects analysis occurs. There may also be a between-subjects analysis if there are several groups of subjects that need comparison such as different races, genders, ages, or other variables (Rencher, 1995).

Research Question #1: What are there differences in the perceptions of effective leadership practices among college and university presidents serving different types of institutions?

Null Hypothesis #1: There will be no significant difference in the perceptions of effective leadership practices among college and university presidents serving different types of institutions.

Analysis of Hypothesis #1: The six institutional types were treated as the independent variable and the five LPI-S scales were treated as the dependent variable.

Table 4 provides a summary of presidents' responses by institutional type and LPI-S mean. Appendix 7 provides a graphical display of this means analysis.

TABLE 4

**Summary of Presidents' Responses by Institutional Type
and LPI-S Mean**

LPI-S Practice	Res	D-G	Mast	Bacc	A-A	Spec	TOTAL MEANS
Challenge	23.12	23.35	23.53	22.43	23.04	23.45	23.13
Inspire	23.87	24.32	23.35	22.11	23.38	24.28	23.43
Enable	26.21	26.52	26.25	26.34	25.98	26.33	26.26
Model	23.98	23.85	23.71	23.08	23.11	23.66	23.54
Encourage	24.40	24.43	23.78	23.79	23.85	24.85	24.09
Number/ Total	23	18	72	23	245	19	329

Employing the Wilks' Lambda criterion the following results were determined: (1) significant difference in presidents' scores: $F(4, 320) = 53.066, p < .001$; significant difference in institutional types: $F(5, 323) = .892, p = .487$; and (3) no significant interaction between scores and institutional types: $F(20, 1062) = .790, p = .728$. Table 5 provides an ANOVA summary of these interactions.

Table 6 provides a comparison of mean scores and percentile rankings of college and university presidents serving different institutional types in regards to normative data collected earlier by Kouzes and Posner (1993).

In sum, no significant difference was found between the leadership practices of college and university presidents and different institutional types based on LPI-S responses. As a result of these findings, the null hypothesis is not rejected.

Research Question #2: What are there differences in perceptions of effective leadership practices among college and university presidents as related to the classification variables of race?

Null Hypothesis #2: There will be no significant difference in the perceptions of effective leadership practices among college and university presidents as related to race.

TABLE 5

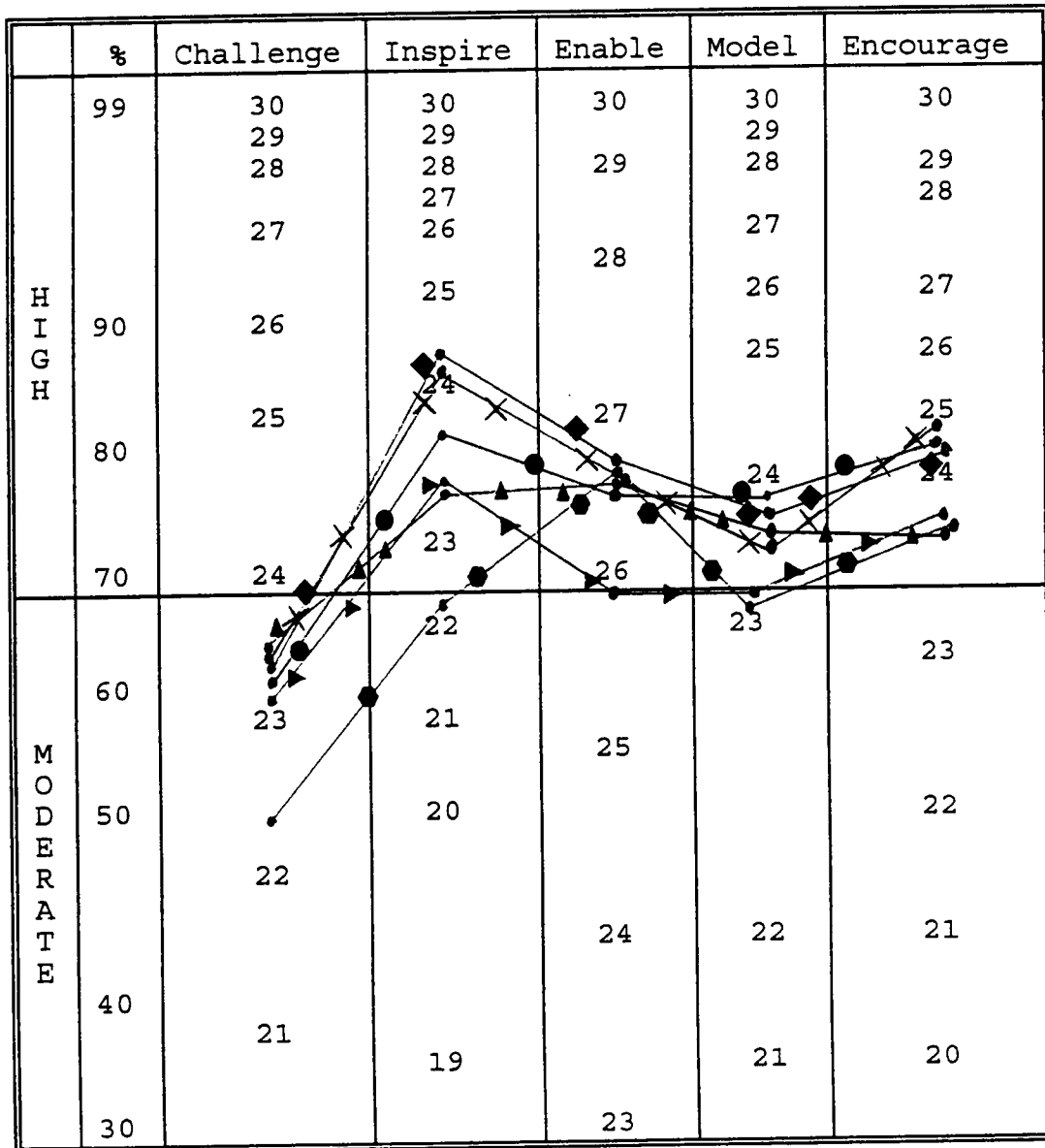
**Summary of Analysis of Variance:
LPI-S Practice by Institutional Type**

Source of Variance	df	F	p value	Power
Between LPI-Scales	4, 320	53.066	< .001*	1.000
Between Institutional Types	5, 323	.892	.487	1.000
Interaction of Scales and Institutional Types	20, 1062	.790	.728	1.000

Statistical Significance is p value < or = .05.

TABLE 6

Percentile/Mean Rankings of LPI-S Practices for all
College and University Presidents regarding
Institutional Type



● = Research

◆ = Doctorate-Granting

▲ = Masters

● = Baccalaureate

▶ = Associate of Arts

X = Specialized

Analysis of Hypothesis #2: In this hypothesis, the five leadership practice scales were treated as the dependent variable. The following categories initially defined the independent variable of race: African-American, Asian-American, Hispanic-American, Native-American, Caucasian, and Other. Yet, no survey responses were received from Asian-American, Hispanic-American, or Native-American presidents. In addition, none of the respondents marked Other as a race or ethnicity. Therefore, only the two races of African-American and Caucasian were employed for data analysis and statistical testing. Table 7 provides a summary of presidents' responses by race and LPI-S mean. In addition, Appendix 8 presents a graphical display of this means analysis.

The Wilks' Lambda criterion revealed the following: (1) significant difference in scores: $F(3, 312) = 14.572$, $p = < .001$; (2) significant difference between African-American and Caucasian presidents: $F(1, 315) = 5.013$, $p = .026$; and (3) no significant interaction between scores and races: $F(4, 312) = 1.087$, $p = .363$. Table 8 provides an ANOVA summary of these results.

Table 9 provides a comparison of mean scores and percentile rankings of college and university presidents regarding race in relation to the normative data collected earlier by Kouzes and Posner (1993).

TABLE 7

**Summary of Presidents' Responses by Race
and LPI-S Mean**

LPI-S Practice	African- American	Caucasian	Total Means
Challenge	24.77	22.96	23.16
Inspire	24.89	23.29	21.18
Enable	27.20	26.12	26.24
Model	24.45	23.44	23.55
Encourage	24.39	24.03	24.06
Number/ Total	27	302	329

TABLE 8

Summary of Analysis of Variance: LPI-S Practice by Race

Source of Variance	df	F	p Value	Power
Between LPI-S Scales	3, 312	14.572	<.001*	1.000
Between Races	1, 315	5.013	.026*	1.000
Interaction of Scales and Races	4, 312	1.087	.363	1.000

* Statistical Significance is p value < or = .05.

TABLE 9

Percentile/Mean Rankings of LPI-S Practices for all
College and University Presidents regarding
Race

	%	Challenge	Inspire	Enable	Model	Encourage
H I G H	99	30	30	30	30	30
		29	29		29	
		28	28	29	28	29
			27			28
		27	26	28	27	
			25		26	27
90		26			25	26
		25	24	27		25
80					24	
		24	23	26		24
70					23	
M O D E R A T E	60		22			23
		23	21	25		
	50		20			22
		22		24	22	21
	40		19		21	20
	30			23		

◆ = African-American

● = Caucasian

In addition, Appendix 9 provides a more detailed analysis of the presidents' responses by race and institutional type.

In sum, no significant interaction was discovered between the leadership practices of college and university presidents and different races. Yet, a significant difference did result between races. As a result of these findings, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Null Hypothesis #3: There will be no significant difference in the perceptions of effective leadership practices among college and university presidents as related to age.

Analysis of Hypothesis #3: In proposing this hypothesis, the five leadership scales served as the dependent variable. The following classification intervals served as the independent variable: 31-40, 41-50, 51-60, and 61-70. However, due to low representation of some ages, some age groups were collapsed into others. For instance, only 10 presidents of the 329 surveyed, 3.1% of the research population, comprised the 31-40 age bracket. Therefore, these presidents were included in the 41-50 age grouping and the interval was re-defined as 31-50 years of age. Thus, the following age intervals resulted: 31-50, 51-60, and 61 years of age and older. Table 10 provides a summary of presidents' responses by age and LPI-S mean. Additionally, a graphical display of this means analysis is provided in Appendix 10. The Wilks' Lambda test provided the following

TABLE 10

**Summary of Presidents' Responses
by Age and LPI-S Mean**

LPI-S Practice	31-50	51-60	Over 61	Total Means
Challenge	21.90	23.53	23.48	23.08
Inspire	21.91	23.86	24.05	23.41
Enable	25.91	26.20	26.51	26.08
Model	23.14	23.57	23.87	23.59
Encourage	23.47	24.10	24.43	23.60
Number/ Total	75	164	90	329

results: (1) significant difference between presidents' scores: $F(3, 323) = 61.392, p = < .001$; (2) significant difference between ages: $F(2, 326) = 4.464, p = .012$; and (3) no significant interaction between ages and LPI scores: $F(8, 646) = 1.551, p = .136$. Table 11 provides an ANOVA summary for this analysis.

Table 12 provides a comparison of mean scores and percentile rankings of college and university presidents regarding age in relation to Kouzes' and Posner's (1993) previously collected normative data. In addition, Appendix 11 provides a more detailed analysis of the presidents' responses by age and institutional type.

In sum, this test revealed significant difference between the leadership practices of college and university presidents and different ages. As a result of these findings, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Null Hypothesis #4: There will be no significant difference in the perceptions of effective leadership practices among college and university presidents as related to gender.

Analysis of Hypothesis #4: The five LPI-S practices were treated as the dependent variable for this hypothesis. Gender served as the independent variable. Table 13 affords a summary of presidents' responses by gender and LPI-S mean. A graphical presentation of this means analysis is provided in Appendix 12.

TABLE 11

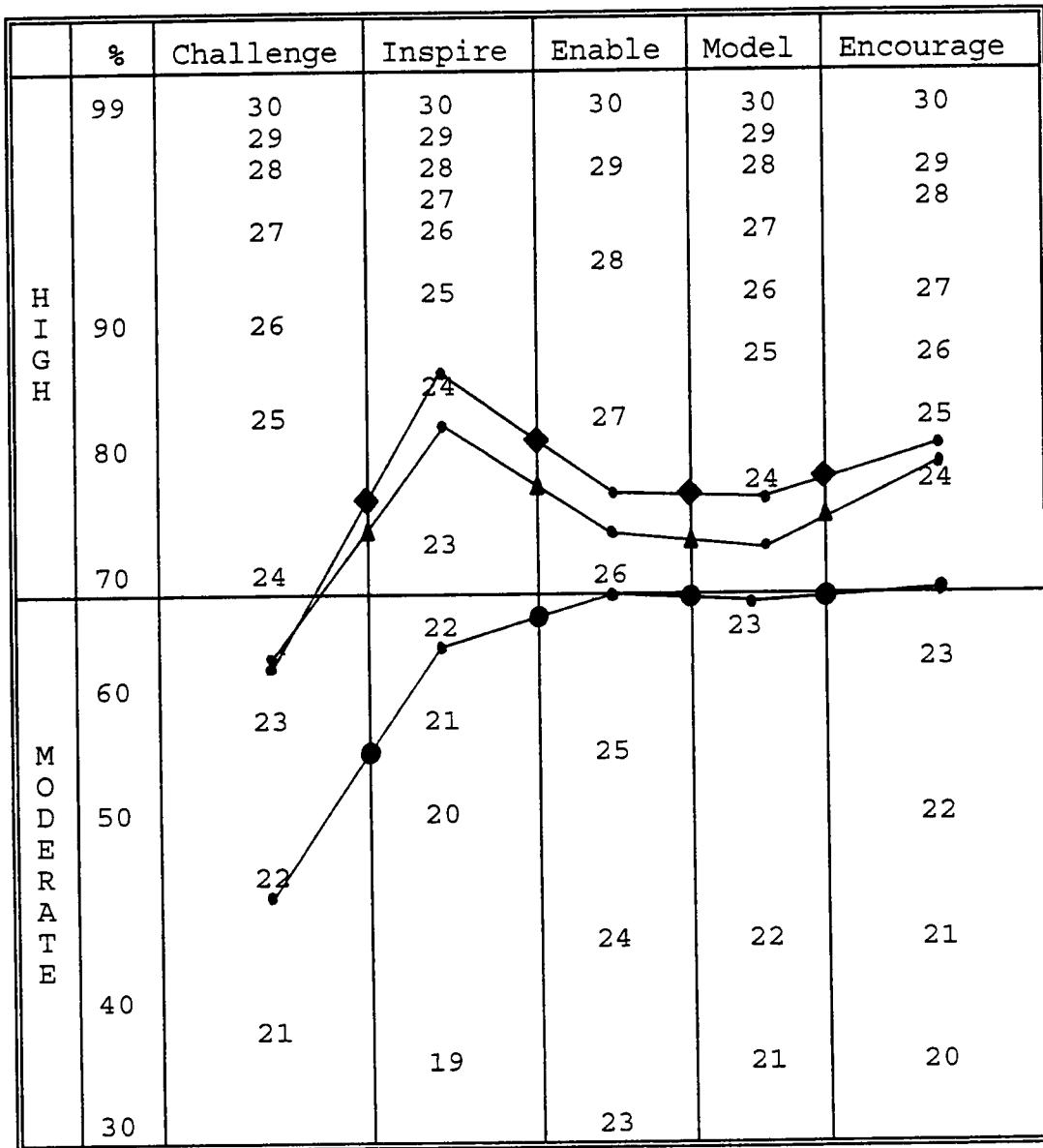
Summary of Analysis of Variance: LPI-S Practice by Age

Source of Variance	df	F	p Value	Power
Between LPI-S Scales	3, 323	61.392	<.001*	1.000
Between Ages	2, 326	4.464	.012*	1.000
Interaction of Scales and Ages	8, 464	1.551	.136	1.000

* Statistical Significance is p value < or = .05.

TABLE 12

Percentile/Mean Rankings of LPI-S Practices for all
College and University Presidents regarding
Age



● = 31-50 years of age

▲ = 51-60 years of age

◆ = Over 61 years of age

TABLE 13

**Summary of Presidents' Responses
by Gender and LPI-S Mean**

LPI-S Practice	Male	Female	Total Means
Challenge	23.28	22.50	23.15
Inspire	23.74	22.09	23.47
Enable	26.20	26.43	26.24
Model	23.63	23.14	23.55
Encourage	24.21	23.26	24.06
Number/ Total	276	53	329

The Wilks' Lambda test revealed the following conclusions: (1) significant difference in scores: $F(4, 324) = 43.348, p = <.001$; (2) no significant difference in genders: $F(1, 327) = 3.278, p = .071$; and 3) no significant interaction between scores and genders: $F(4, 324) = 2.366, p = .053$. Table 14 provides an ANOVA summary of these tests. Table 15 provides a comparison of mean scores and percentile rankings of college and university presidents regarding gender in relation to the normative data collected by Kouzes and Posner (1993) in earlier studies. In addition, Appendix 13 provides a detailed summary of presidents' responses by gender and institutional type.

In sum, this test revealed no significant difference between the perceptions of effective leadership practices among college and university presidents and gender. As a result of these findings, the null hypothesis is not rejected.

Null Hypothesis #5: There will be no significant difference in the perceptions of effective leadership practices among college and university presidents as related to academic discipline.

Analysis of Null Hypothesis #5: In testing this hypothesis, the five leadership practices served as the dependent variable. The following academic disciplines were established to define the independent variable:

TABLE 14

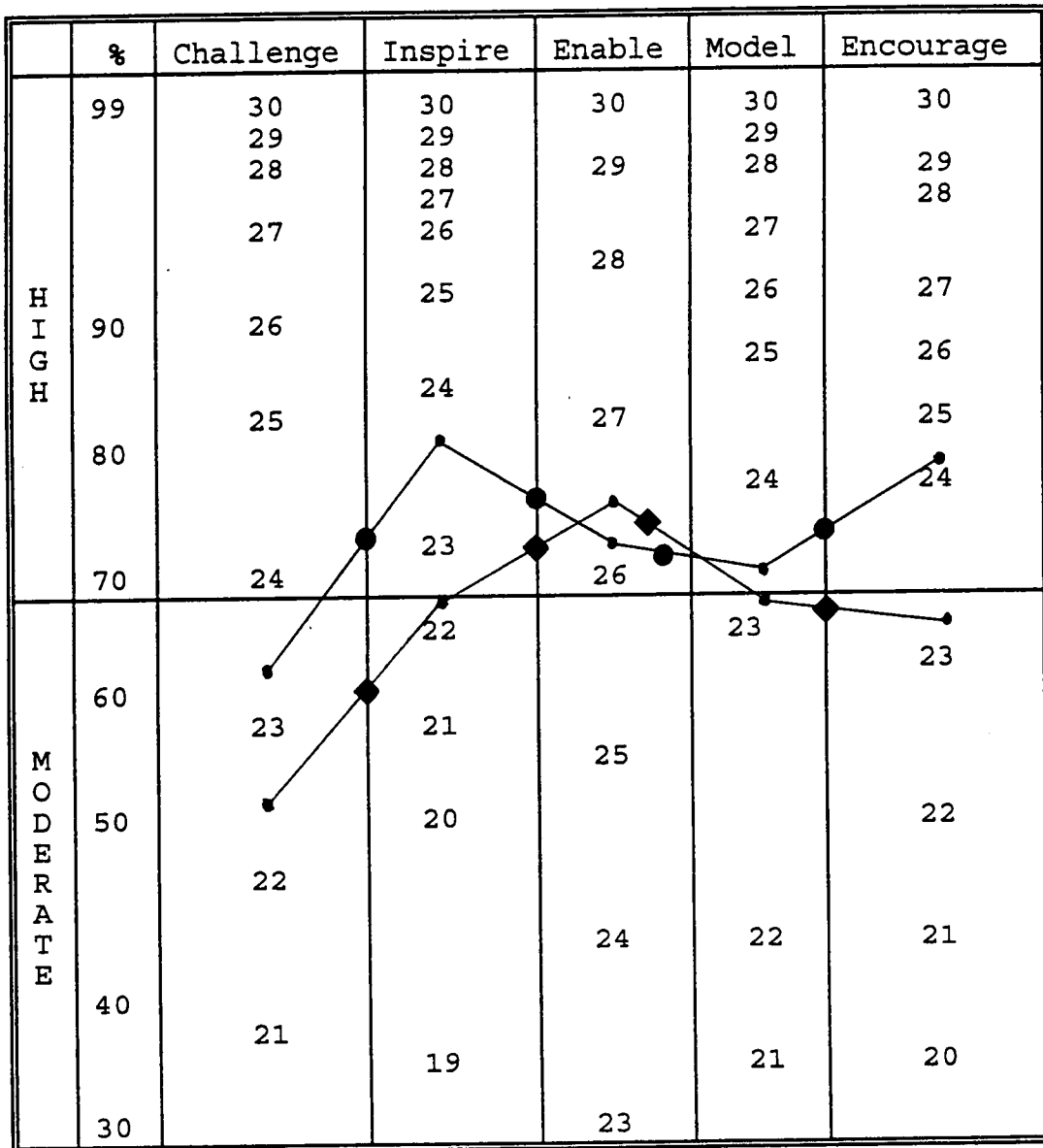
Summary of Analysis of Variance:
LPI-S Practice by Gender

Source of Variance	df	F	p Value	Power
Between LPI-S Scales	4, 324	43.348	< .001*	1.000
Between Genders	1, 327	3.278	.071	1.000
Interaction of Scales and Genders	4, 324	2.366	.053	1.000

* Statistical Significance is p value < or = .05.

TABLE 15

Percentile/Mean Rankings of LPI-S Practices for all
College and University Presidents regarding
Gender



● = Male

◆ = Female

Agriculture, Biology, Business, Education, Engineering, Health, Humanities/Fine Arts, Law/Jurisprudence, Medicine, Natural Science, Religion, Social Science, and Other. However, for purposes of analysis, some disciplines were collapsed into the category labeled Other due to a low response number representing some fields. Those disciplines placed in the Other category included: Agriculture; Biology; Health; Law/Jurisprudence; Medicine; Natural Science; Religion; and Social Science. Table 16 provides a summary of the presidents' responses by academic discipline and LPI-S mean. Appendix 14 presents this means analysis in a graphical display.

The Wilks' Lambda test revealed the following statistics: (1) significant difference between presidents' scores: $F(4, 321) = 47.445$, $p = < .001$; (2) no significant difference between academic disciplines: $F(4, 324) = 1.616$, $p = .170$; and (3) no significant interaction between academic disciplines and LPI-S Scores: $F(16, 981.309) = 1.282$, $p = .201$. Table 17 provides an ANOVA summary of these interaction effects.

Table 18 provides a comparison of mean scores and percentile rankings of college and university presidents regarding academic discipline in relation to the normative data previously collected by Kouzes and Posner (1993). In addition, Appendix 15 provides a more detailed analysis

TABLE 16

**Summary of Presidents' Responses by Academic Discipline
and LPI-S Mean**

LPI-S Practice	Bus.	Educ.	Eng.	Hum/FA	Other	TOTAL MEANS
Challenge	22.52	23.58	21.95	23.60	22.95	23.68
Inspire	22.41	23.80	23.17	24.37	22.75	23.31
Enable	25.81	26.62	25.73	26.52	25.68	26.06
Model	23.52	23.74	23.08	23.70	23.05	23.56
Encourage	24.27	23.63	23.21	24.48	24.38	24.06
Number/ Total	69	100	23	95	42	329

TABLE 17

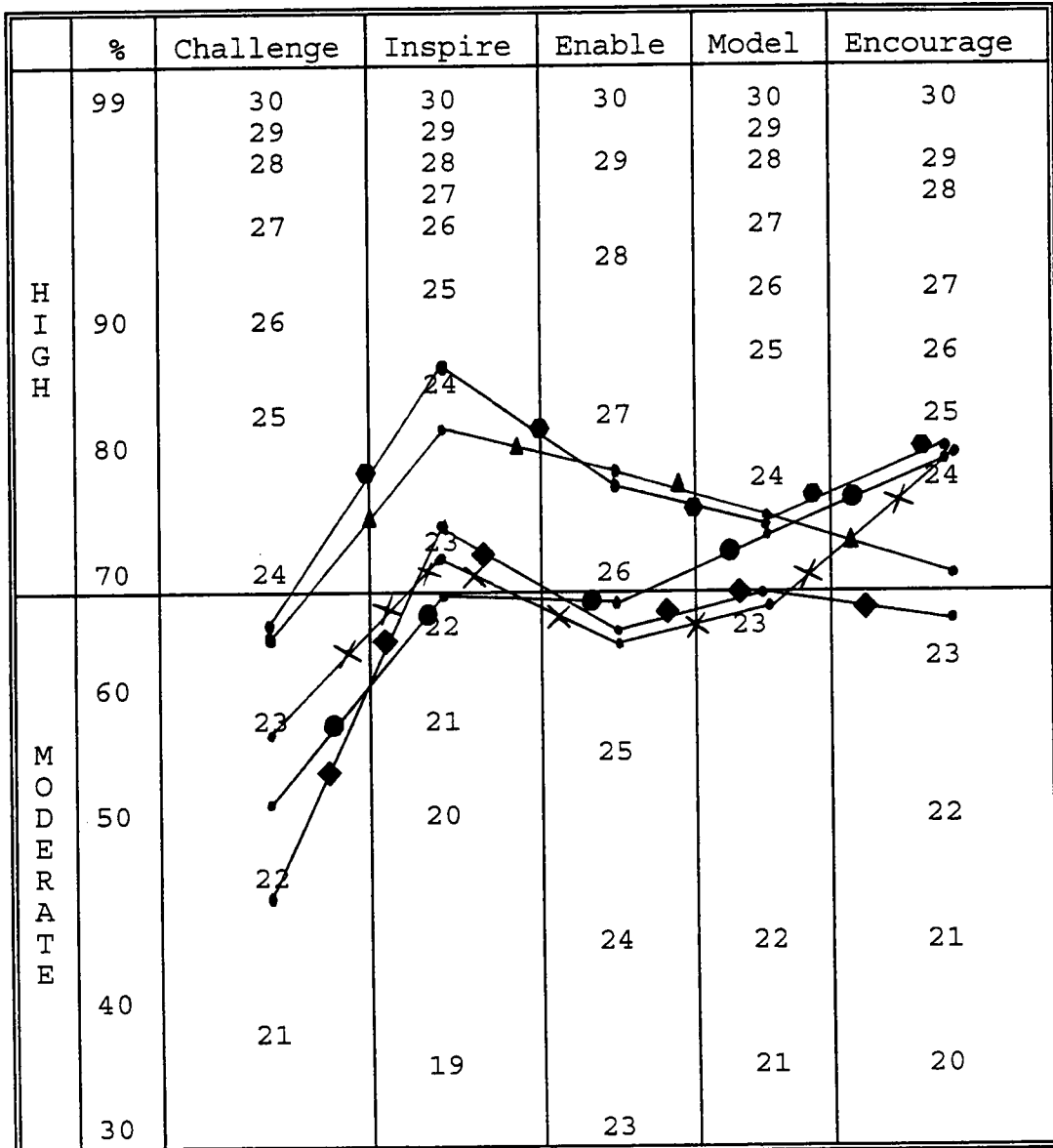
**Summary of Analysis of Variance:
LPI-S Practice by Academic Discipline**

Source of Variance	df	F	p Value	Power
Between LPI-S Scales	4, 321	47.445	< .001*	1.000
Between Academic Disciplines	4, 324	1.616	.170	1.000
Interaction of Scales and Disciplines	16, 981	1.282	.201	1.000

* Statistical Significance is p value < or = .05.

TABLE 18

Percentile/Mean Rankings of LPI-S Practices for all
College and University Presidents regarding
Academic Discipline



of the presidents' responses mean scores by academic discipline and institutional type.

In sum, no statistical significance was found between the leadership practices of college and university presidents and different academic disciplines. As a result of these findings, the null hypothesis is not rejected.

Null Hypothesis #6: There will be no significant difference in the perceptions of effective leadership practices among college and university presidents as related to years of experience.

Analysis of Hypothesis #6: In testing this hypothesis, the five leadership scales comprised the dependent variable, while years of experience comprised the independent variable.

The following intervals were used to classify the number of years participating presidents had served in their current presidency: 0-5; 6-10; 11-15; 16-20; and over 21 years of service. However, since only 5 presidents, or 1.5% of the population, had more than 21 years of service, this interval was collapsed into the interval of 16-20 years and was re-defined as over 16 years of service. Table 19 provides a summary of presidents' responses by years of experience of LPI-S mean. A graphical display of these means is given in Appendix 16.

The Wilks' Lambda test provided the following interpretation: (1) significant difference between

TABLE 19

**Summary of Presidents' Responses by Years of Experience
and LPI-S Mean**

LPI-S Practice	0-5	6-10	11-15	Over 16	Total Means
Challenge	22.20	23.32	23.88	23.04	23.15
Inspire	22.43	23.52	24.21	23.75	23.47
Enable	26.05	26.43	26.13	26.15	26.20
Model	22.98	23.57	23.74	24.63	23.54
Encourage	23.70	23.84	24.20	25.10	24.20
Number/ Total	77	155	72	25	329

presidents' scores: $F(4, 322) = 38.957, p = < .001$;
(2) no significant difference between years of service:
 $F(12, 1300) = 1.306, p = .208$; and (3) no significant
interaction between years of experience and presidents'
LPI-S scores: $F(12, 852.223) = 1.220, p = .264$. An ANOVA
summary of these interactions is provided in Table 20.

Table 21 provides a comparison of mean scores and
percentile rankings of colleges and university presidents
regarding years of experience in relation to the previously
collected normative data by Kouzes and Posner (1993).
In addition, Appendix 17 provides a detailed analysis of the
presidents' responses by years of experience and
institutional type.

In sum, no significant difference was found between the
leadership practices of college and university presidents
and years of service. As a result of these findings, the
null hypothesis is not rejected.

Research Question #3: What are the differences in
perceptions of effective leadership practices among college
and university presidents compared to the perceptions of
effective leadership practices of top executives of other
organizations?

Analysis of Research Question #3: The procedure to
examine this hypothesis consisted of comparing the mean
scores of the five leadership scales for the institutional

TABLE 20

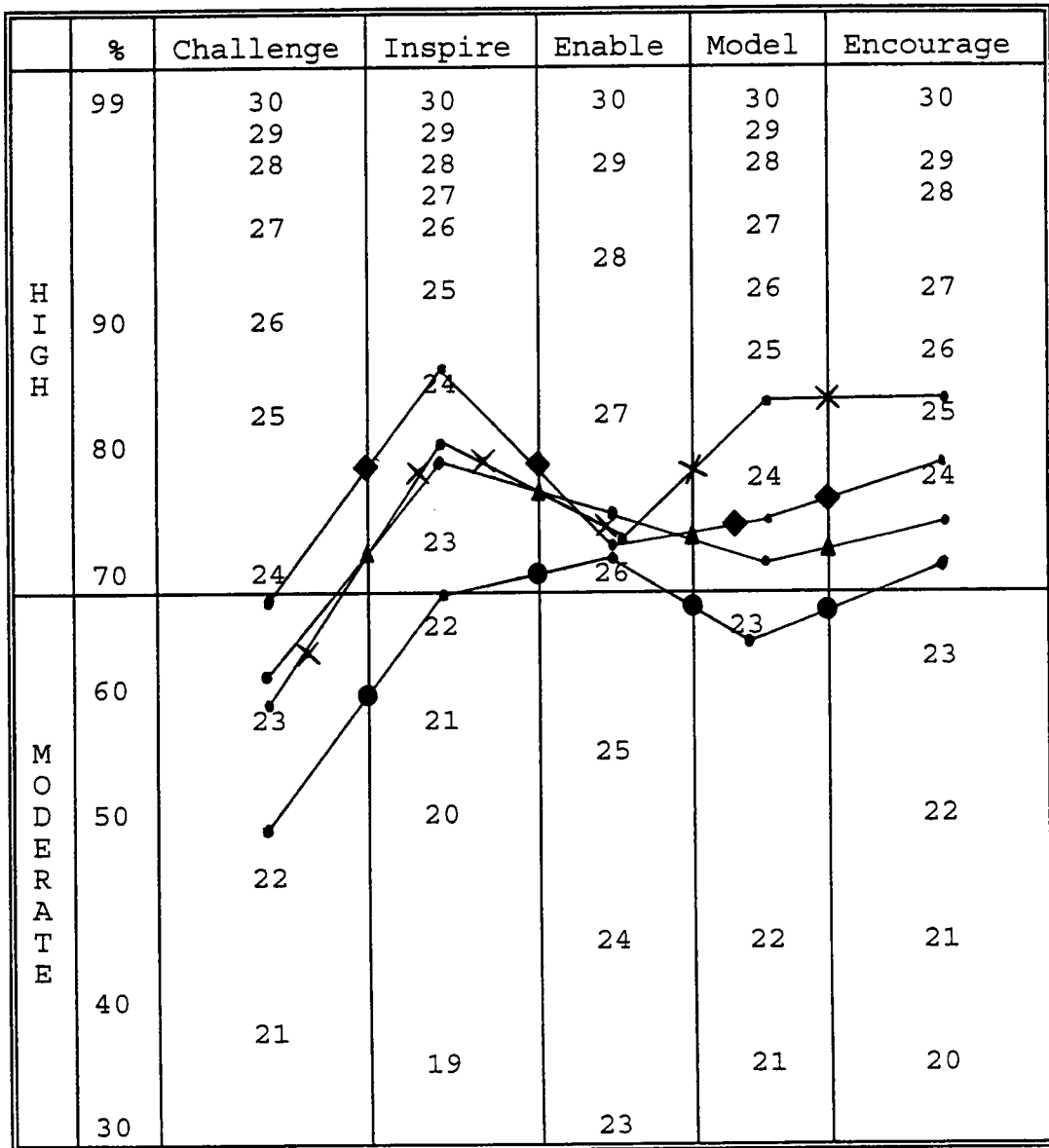
**Summary of Analysis of Variance:
LPI-S Practice by Years of Experience**

Source of Variance	df	F	p Value	Power
Between LPI-S Scales	4, 322	38.957	< .001*	1.000
Between Years of Experience	12, 1300	1.306	.208	1.000
Interaction of Scales and Years of Experience	12, 852	1.220	.264	1.000

* Statistical Significance is p value < or = .05.

TABLE 21

Percentile/Mean Rankings of LPI-S Practices for all
College and University Presidents regarding
Years of Experience



● = 0-5 years

▲ = 6-10 years

◆ = 11-15 years

X = Over 16 years

presidents to the mean scores of the five leadership scales for all other top executives who had completed the LPI-Self. This information about other executives leadership practices was collected by Kouzes and Posner (1987) through earlier research.

The mean scores of the leadership practices of Inspiring a Shared Vision, Enabling Others to Act, Modeling the Way, and Encouraging the Heart for the college and university presidents were higher than the mean scores for the other senior leaders. Only the Challenging mean was not higher. Interestingly, this mean was equal to the Challenging mean of the other senior leaders. Table 22 provides a summary of this means analysis. In addition, Appendix 18 provides a graphical display of this means comparison.

A review of the normative data reveals there are important differences in the perceptions of effective leadership practices reported by public college and university presidents as compared to effective leadership practices reported by senior leaders of other organizations. Table 23 indicates that college and university presidents rank themselves in the "high" percentile, while senior leaders of other organizations rank themselves in the "moderate" percentile.

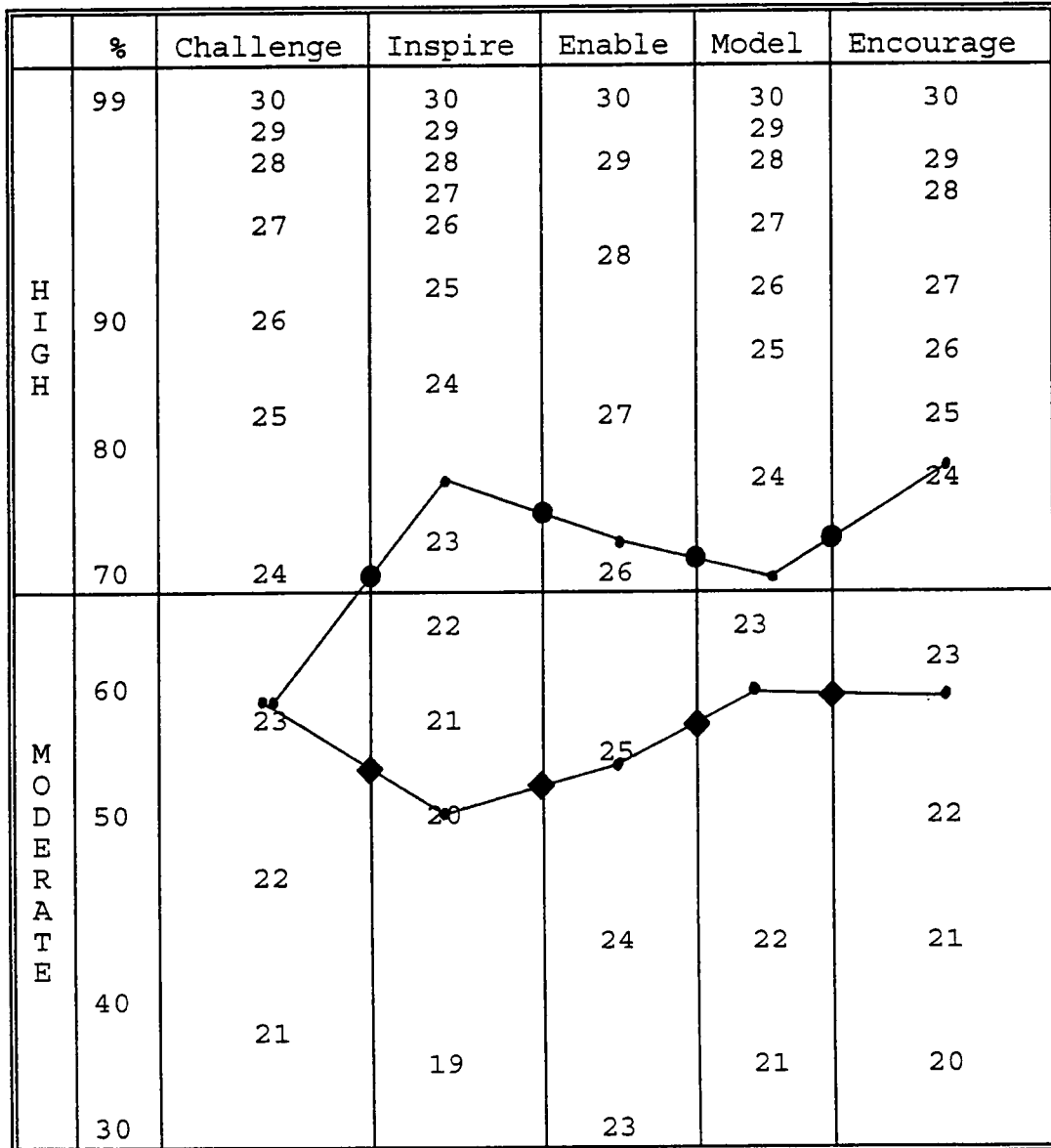
TABLE 22

**Comparison of Senior Leaders Mean LPI-S Scores with
College and University Presidents Mean LPI-S Scores**

LPI-S Practice	Mean Scores of Senior Leaders	Mean Scores of College and University Presidents
Challenging the Process	23.1	23.1
Inspiring a Shared Vision	20.0	23.4
Enabling Others to Act	24.9	26.2
Modeling the Way	22.7	23.5
Encouraging the Heart	22.7	24.1

TABLE 23

Percentile/Mean Rankings of LPI-S Practices for all
College and University Presidents as Compared to
Senior Leaders of Other Organizations



Post Tests

Means analysis showed that the presidents' scores on the Enabling scale were much higher than the other four leadership practices. As a result, follow-up tests were executed to measure significance (see Table 23).

Post-hoc analysis included contrasts tests of within-subjects on all five leadership scales. Contrasts tests were computed to examine the significant difference between the Enabling scale and the other four scales. Specifically, these tests compared the Challenging scale with the Enabling scale, Inspiring with the Enabling scale; Modeling with the Enabling scale, and finally, Encouraging with the Enabling scale. Statistical results revealed a significant difference between Enabling and the other four leadership practices. Table 24 provides a summary of these tests and their statistical significance.

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

In brief, no significant interactions were revealed between college and university presidents' leadership practices and institutional type. Additionally, no significant interactions were discovered between presidents' leadership practices and the classification variables of race, age, gender, academic discipline, and years of experience.

A significant difference was revealed between the two races of African-American presidents and Caucasian

TABLE 24

**Summary of Contrast tests Comparing the
Enabling Practice with the
Challenging, Inspiring, Modeling and Encouraging Practices**

LPI-S Practice	df	F	p Value
Enabling with Challenging	1, 328	181.121	< .001*
Enabling with Inspiring	1, 328	134.219	< .001*
Enabling with Modeling	1, 328	227.220	< .001*
Enabling with Encouraging	1, 328	71.225	< .001*

Statistical Significance is p value < or = .05.

presidents. A significant difference also occurred between the three age intervals of 31-50, 51-60, and over 61 years of age. In addition, a significant difference was found between the presidents' five LPI-S scores. Specifically, the presidents' scores on the practice of Enabling Others to Act were significantly higher than the scores on the other four leadership practices.

In regards to the normative data, college and university presidents scored themselves higher on four of the five leadership practices as compared to senior leaders of other organizations. The exception was the scale of Challenging the Process which received an equal rating by the presidents and the senior leaders of other organizations.

PROFILE COMPARISON OF NATIONAL SAMPLE WITH PROJECT SAMPLE

The American College President provides a summary of the findings of a longitudinal study about the personal characteristics of more than 75% of the U.S. college and university presidents in 1990. This report incorporates the responses of more than 2,400 college and university presidents, three out of every four institutional leaders, who responded to surveys administered by the American Council on Education (ACE). (This is the most recent publication regarding the American College presidency by ACE).

In essence, this project validates the information about American college and university presidents revealed by the national study by ACE. The majority of the presidents in both the project's sample and those comprising the national sample were Caucasian, between 51 and 60 years of age, male, had an academic background in the field of education, and had served in their current presidency between 6 and 10 years.

Table 25 provides an summary of the presidents' personal characteristics acquired from this study as compared to the national study performed by the American Council of Education. The data for the national sample is taken from The American College President by Ross, Green, and Henderson (1993).

TABLE 25

**Profile Comparison of National Sample of
Public College and University Presidents with
Project Sample of Public College and University Presidents**

Characteristic	National Sample (in percentages) N = 1293	Project Sample (in percentages) N = 329
RACE	100.0	100.0
African-American	5.4	8.2
Caucasian	90.2	91.8
Other	4.4	0.0
AGE	100.0	100.0
31-50	17.9	19.5
51-60	61.5	55.6
Over 61	20.6	24.9
GENDER	100.0	100.0
Female	8.8	16.1
Male	91.2	83.9
ACADEMIC DISCIPLINE	100.0	100.0
Business	28.0	31.0
Education	47.6	52.9
Engineering	3.7	5.8
Humanities/ Fine Arts	16.5	7.3
Other	4.2	3.0
YEARS OF EXPERIENCE	100.0	100.0
0-5 Years	23.9	29.5
6-10 Years	59.5	53.5
11-15 Years	11.1	10.6
Over 16 Years	5.5	6.4

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter summarizes the study, and reviews findings of the project. In addition, conclusions of the study, and recommendations for further research are provided in this chapter.

SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

Our understandings of leadership have evolved through many philosophic stances, perceptions, theories, definitions, and metaphors. The debate over the most effective way to define leadership has been on-going. In addition, most leadership analysis has been performed in business, political, or military arenas. Thus, the leadership literature regarding colleges and universities is small compared to other fields. In addition, the number of literature sources related to college and university presidents and their leadership practices revealed even fewer studies.

The study of leadership of college and university presidents is relevant for two reasons. First, college and university presidents lead our nations' institutions and therefore directly impact society. Second, institutional presidents help shape academic leadership in general, which has a significant effect on the development of future leaders.

The purposes of this research project were:

(1) to explore variations in public colleges and university presidential reports of their leadership practices as a function of institutional type; (2) to explore variations in public college and university presidential reports of their leadership practices as a function of the selected classification variables of race, age, gender, discipline background, and years of experience; (3) to compare college and university presidential reports of their leadership practices to the reports of leadership practices of senior leaders of other organizations; and (4) to increase the existing knowledge base about leadership by extending Kouzes' and Posner's earlier normative analysis.

The information gathered on the presidents' leadership practices was assembled from returned surveys completed by the presidents themselves. Two instruments were used to collect this data: (1) The Leadership Practices Inventory-Self (LPI-S); and (2) an unpublished demographic survey.

The LPI-S was mailed to 400 randomly selected college and university presidents to code their perceptions of effective leadership practices. A total of 329 questionnaires were returned, representing an 82.25% return rate. This percentage rate represents a high return regarding written instrument analysis.

The unpublished survey, sent with the LPI-S, was used to collect information regarding each president' race, age, gender, academic discipline (of terminal degree), and years of experience (in current job).

Data were coded and subjected to analysis through the SPSS program file. Means analysis, analysis-of-variance, and the Wilks' Lambda criterion were used to determine specific results.

FINDINGS

Research Question #1: What are the differences in perceptions of effective leadership practices among college and university presidents serving different types of institutions?

Statistical tests revealed no difference in the perceptions of effective leadership practices of college and university presidents serving different institutional types (see Table 5). Thus, institutional type showed no impact on the selected leadership practice of a college or university president. Put succinctly, there is no association between institutional type and a college or university president's leadership style.

Means analysis revealed that the Enabling mean score for all presidents at all six types of institutions was higher than the mean scores of the other four leadership

practices. The total mean score for the Enabling scale was 26.26, followed by the Encouraging scale with a mean score of 24.09. Next, was Modeling the Way with a mean of 23.54; fourth was Inspiring a Shared Vision with a mean score of 23.43, and the lowest mean was Challenging the Process with a score of 23.13 (see Table 4 and Appendix 7).

Research Question #2: What are the differences in perceptions of effective leadership practices among institutional presidents as related to race, age, gender, academic, and years of experience?

Race

Statistical tests revealed no significant difference in the perceptions of effective leadership practices of college and university presidents regarding race (see Table 8). Therefore, no association was discovered between a president's ethnic background and his or her perceptions of leadership practices. Thus, norms were not revealed regarding presidents of particular races leading by particular leadership styles.

Means analysis revealed that African-American presidents scored repeatedly higher on all five leadership practices than Caucasian presidents. The highest score represented the Enabling scale with a mean score of 27.20. In contrast, Caucasian presidents scored lowest between the two races. This low score represented the Inspiring scale with a mean score of 22.96 (see Table 7).

Age

Statistical analysis revealed no significant difference between the perceptions of effective leadership practices among institutional presidents regarding age (see Table 11). In short, the age of a college president did not impact the leadership style a president chooses to lead his or her campus. Put succinctly, no association was discovered between a college or university president's age and his or her chosen leadership style.

Means analysis showed that presidents 61 years of age and older using the Enabling practice had the highest score among all age intervals and leadership scales. This score was 26.51. The lowest score was identified by presidents between the ages of 31 and 50 who lead by Challenging the Process. This mean score was 21.90. However, the mean scores of Challenging and Inspiring for these same aged presidents followed very closely with scores of 21.91 (see Table 10).

Gender

Statistical tests determined no significant difference in the perceptions of effective leadership practices of college and university presidents regarding gender (see Table 14). Thus, gender did not influence the leadership practice chosen by a college or university president.

The mean scores revealed that male presidents scored higher on all leadership practices, except the Enabling

scale (see Table 13). This data matches Kouzes' and Posner's previous research comparing male and female leaders, which states that women executives score higher on Enabling Others to Act (Kouzes and Posner, 1987). In addition, women presidents who lead by Inspiring a Shared Vision had the lowest mean score of 22.09.

Academic Discipline

Analysis revealed no significant difference between the perceptions of effective leadership practices among institutional presidents and academic discipline (see Table 17). Therefore, no association between discipline background and selected leadership style of a college or university president was determined. In essence, the chief executive of an institution could have a terminal degree in any discipline ranging from agriculture to zoology and his chosen leadership style could remain the same. Means analysis revealed that college presidents who have a background in Education and lead by Enabling Others to Act had the highest mean score, while presidents with a terminal degree in Engineering leading by Challenging the Process had the lowest mean score. These scores were 27.52 and 21.95 respectively (see Table 16).

Years of Experience

Statistical analysis revealed no significant difference between the perceptions of effective leadership practices among college and university presidents regarding years of

experience in their current positions (see Table 20). Thus, experience did not impact the perceptions of effective leadership practices of college and university presidents. In other words, there is no association between a chosen leadership style and the number of years a president serves in one particular presidential position.

Means analysis revealed that college presidents with 0-5 years of service in their current position who Challenge the Process had the lowest mean of 22.20, while presidents with 6-10 years in their current job using the Enabling leadership style had the highest mean of 26.43 (see Table 19).

Research Question #3: How are the perceptions of effective leadership practices of college and university presidents different from the perceptions of effective leadership practices of senior leaders of other organizations?

Comparative analysis revealed that the perceptions of effective leadership practices of college and university presidents are different from the perceptions of effective leadership practices of executives of other organizations (see Table 22 and Appendix 18).

This question was addressed through analysis of Kouzes' and Posner's (1987) previously collected data regarding the leadership practices of executive leaders of other organizations. The Enabling practice scored the highest by

top managers in other organizations, as well as by college and university presidents. "Inspiring a shared vision was the leadership practice perceived as least frequently engaged in by managers" (Kouzes and Posner, 1987, p. 313).

In brief, four of the five mean scores of the leadership practices of the college and university presidents were higher than the mean scores of the executives of other organizations. Specifically, the four leadership practices of Inspiring a Shared Vision, Enabling Others to Act, Modeling the Way, and Encouraging the Heart were ranked higher by the college and university presidents. Only the practice of Challenging the Process was not ranked higher. It was ranked equally by the college and university presidents and the other senior leaders (see Table 22).

DISCUSSION

The outcomes of this project revealed several interesting results. First, it is interesting to note that no significant difference was revealed regarding institutional type and leadership practice. This fact is particularly interesting when comparing research universities with smaller, less complex institutions. For example, it would seem that the role complexities of presidential leadership of a research university might compel a different leadership expression than the style adopted by the president of a two-year institution. "Presidential activities are to a great extent contingent on

the characteristics of the institutions" (Birnbaum, 1993, p. 34). The research president may find him or herself meeting with a potential donor, responding to a parking complaint, presiding over a solemn ceremony, calming an irate athletic booster, preparing testimony for legislative hearing, convening a meeting of vice-presidents, and reviewing a budget that can run into hundreds of millions of dollars all over a span of several hours. Thus, the typical research president might spend very little time on academic matters.

On the other hand, the president of a two-year college might be more concerned with academic program enhancement, student recruitment, retention efforts, transfer requirements, vocational opportunities, and institutional accreditation. Thus, academic matters might more fully occupy the presidents daily responsibilities. Thus, it is feasible that different presidential activities could require different leadership roles which in turn might require different leadership practices. However, the results of this study confirmed otherwise.

A second surprise was that no significant difference was revealed regarding gender and leadership style. However, caution might be used with this outcome as the number of female presidents ($N = 53$) was much lower than the number of male presidents ($N = 276$). Of particular interest is the fact that male presidents scored higher on every

leadership practice, except Enabling Others to Act. This effect is not surprising since the Enabling scale emphasizes teamwork, collaboration, and empowerment - leadership practices often associated with women (Kouzes and Posner, 1987). Female leaders are "oriented toward cooperation, teamwork, and concern for others" states Schein (1989, p. 154). In addition, Gardner (1988) suggested that women leaders are "more intuitive, creative, adaptive, flexible, oriented toward people and sensitive to the needs of others" when compared to men (p. 21). Finally, Baird and Bradley (1979) stated that female leaders place great emphasis on happy interpersonal relationships, are very receptive to subordinates ideas, and encourage subordinates.

Third, it was surprising that no more variance resulted between academic disciplines regarding presidential leadership. Particularly interesting were the four disciplines most highly represented - Business, Education, Engineering, and Humanities/Fine Arts - as compared to very low representation in the sciences, medicine, and law. In addition, with so much leadership literature (Bolman and Deal, 1986; Bennis, 1989; and Birnbaum, 1992) claiming that colleges and universities lead differently from corporations, it is surprising that no significant difference was found between those presidents with a academic background in Business and those presidents with an academic background in Education. However, mean scores

revealed that college and university presidents in Education scored themselves higher than presidents in Business on all five leadership scales.

Finally, it was not surprising to find that institutional leaders have different perceptions of effective leadership practices as compared to the perceptions of effective leadership practices of senior leaders of other organizations. Although the pace, intensity, and comprehensiveness of the college presidency are in many ways comparable to those of executives in other settings (Mintzberg, 1973), there is one fundamental difference. Governance on the college campus is not solely an administrative prerogative, but rather a shared responsibility and a joint effort that involves multiple stakeholders and campus constituencies. Indeed, the presence of so many stakeholders - students, faculty, alumni, board members, civic and corporate leaders constitutes a distinct environmental condition for college and university leadership.

As established earlier in the study, leadership has evolved through various metaphors as leaders have been described as commanders, controllers, and directors. However, in more recent years, leaders have been described in more interactional roles such as designers, stewards, and exemplars. In the historical, but still used, roles of commander, controller, and director, the leader functions as

authoritarian. Thus, the leader makes all decisions, interprets all policies, and manages all personnel conflicts. Unfortunately, such leadership behavior promotes a culture of blame, rather than one of organizational duty or obligation. In other words, if decisions are made that workers do not agree with or are not pleased with, employees blame the leader solely. Because the leader has all the power, such blame is warranted.

On the other hand, the leader who sanctions organizational interaction, teamwork, and collaboration, promotes a culture of responsibility. In this leadership model, followers share in decision making and conflict resolution. Thus, the leader calls followers to integration. At this point, organizational culture evolves from one of blame to one of accountability. In other words, if workers are not pleased or satisfied with decisions, policies, or management, then it becomes the responsibility of the members of the organization to resolve conflicts.

Often times, colleges and universities, as well as their presidents, have been pioneers or pacesetters regarding leadership that fosters organizational interaction and advances cultural responsibility. Such leadership can be seen in the ideas of committee work, organized commissions, and task forces. "Institutions meet the conflicting demands of interest groups by decentralizing and

permitting subunits to operate in a quasi-autonomous fashion. Subunits can then meet different needs..." (Birnbaum, 1993, p. 44). In addition, effective college and university presidents recognize that in order to maintain influence the:

inherent specialization and fractionation essential to the maintenance of quality and responsiveness must be coordinated unobtrusively in order to avoid alienation. They do this in part by establishing formal opportunities for interaction, and they emphasize particularly forums such as senates, cabinets, retreats, and task forces, that bring together persons representing different constituencies and different institutional levels. Senate presidents who sit on administrative councils, deans who attend senate meetings, and students, faculty, and administrators who serve on joint committees, interact in ways that make their perceptions and interests more consistent. Presidential effectiveness is based as much upon influence as upon authority. Influence in an academic institution depends upon mutual and reciprocal processes of social exchange. Effective presidents influence others by allowing themselves to be influenced (Birnbaum, 1993, p. 47).

Another aspect of the college and university presidency that strengthens institutional interaction and cultural responsibility is the unique dualism of organizational structure as two structures exist in parallel. One is the conventional hierarchy of the trustees, the other is the structure of the faculty who make decisions regarding those aspects of the institution over which they have professional jurisdiction. Often times college and university presidents find themselves caught between the demands of these two

groups. The president therefore relies on the energies, talents, and experiences of the members of these two groups, so that the desires of both factions may be met, and thus exist harmoniously.

Finally, colleges and universities exist to transmit values, discover knowledge, and improve the world. Other purposes of higher education such as development of the individual, advancing society, providing for educational justice, and supporting artistic creativity requires college and university presidents to rely on campus constituents. Thus, the president must encourage collaboration, build teams, and empower others.

In conclusion, one of the reasons that colleges and universities have been successful is because as their environments become complex, they have responded through the creation of decentralized, flexible, and interdependent structures that have collectively been more effective in responding to environmental change than any centralized mechanisms could be. This employment of collaborative leadership in the collegiate setting is encouraging as college and university presidents reflect newer and contemporary understandings of leadership. In essence, institutions help mold new leadership roles that will hopefully be adopted by other organizations.

CONCLUSIONS

The following section presents conclusions drawn from the investigation of this project.

1. College and university presidents accent the Enabling practice. Perhaps this occurs because of the consensual approach to leadership is more common on the college and university campus versus other corporate organizations.

2. No dramatic variances in patterns of preferred academic disciplines resulted. However, all disciplines tested accented the Enabling Others to Act leadership practice. Perhaps this outcome resulted because the men and women who eventually serve as college and university presidents accent the Enabling practice before selecting or beginning their terminal degree. In other words, perhaps their leadership style is constructed by other elements prior to academic discipline selection.

3. College and university presidents with any number of years of experience emphasize the Enabling leadership scale. Thus, speculation can be made that the Enabling practice for college and university presidents is determined at an age earlier than thirty. Perhaps the Enabling practice is a combined function of family, socialization, early mentors, and role models.

4. College and university presidents have a different perception of leadership practices than senior leaders of

other organizations. Based on the normative data, college and university leaders ranked themselves higher in the following practices: Inspiring a Shared Vision, Enabling Others to Act, Modeling the Way, and Encouraging the Heart. The remaining practice, Challenging the Process, was ranked equally by the presidents and other leaders.

Because the practices of Inspiring a Shared Vision, Enabling Others to Act, Modeling the Way, and Encouraging the Heart are practices consistent with the nature of collegiate organizations, it is no surprise that presidents maximize these practices as they accentuate consensual leadership.

Finally, since college and university presidents scored lowest on Challenging the Process, speculation can be made that the leadership strategies associated with this practice need to be encouraged in the collegiate environment. Specifically, these strategies include: risk-taking, experimenting, searching for opportunities, and questioning the status quo.

RECOMMENDATIONS

This study has provided baseline information about the differences in the perceptions of effective leadership practices among college and university presidents regarding institutional type, race, age, gender, academic discipline, and years of experience.

This study has also provided information about institutional leaders and other leaders in other organizations including corporations, non-profit organizations, churches, volunteer offices, and government agencies. The previous collected data by Kouzes and Posner (1993) provides support in comparing college and university presidents with senior leaders of other organizations.

However, "as the demands and universities grow, the search for answers to questions about the...strategies that contribute to successful leadership intensifies" (Ross, Green, and Henderson, 1993, p. 1). Knowledge about decreasing years of service...low representation of minorities, and aging trends of college presidents is not enough. "Other concerns about the state of higher education are reflected in questions about the characteristics of its leaders. Thus, a...study of who leads higher education institutions has much to tell us not only about these individuals, but also about the state of higher education" (Ross, Green, and Henderson, 1993, p. 1).

Thus, recommendations for further study are given below.

1. The present study was delimited to investigating the perceptions of effective leadership practices of college and university presidents at public institutions only. Similar studies of presidents in private and independent institutions would provide data which would help to discover

any differences and/or similarities between the two institutional control types.

2. There are several other institutional and personal characteristics which could effect how a university president leads. Additional studies should be conducted to determine such effects. Some of the institutional characteristics include: (1) financial condition - the fiscal stability or instability of an institution could have some impact on the way a college president leads his or her campus; (2) geographic culture or location - both the location of an institution and the culture of the people it serves could cause a president to alter his or her leadership style.

In addition, some of the personal characteristics that might affect the leadership style of a college or university president include: (1) religious doctrine/values - presidents bring to the presidency a set of values and beliefs which could certainly impact their leadership practices; (2) employment history - service at other universities and in other presidential positions could impact how a college president leads; and (3) previous mentors - other individuals serving as personal counselors and role models for university presidents could greatly effect the leadership style they adopt.

3. Other studies using other population samples, or additional analysis with the participants of this project

should be performed so that patterns of the college presidency may be more readily identified. Specifically, longitudinal studies should be performed so that trends about the American college presidency may be obtained.

4. Finally, a study using a different methodology should be executed to both verify, and extend the knowledge base regarding presidents' responses to their own leadership practices. For example, a study using the Leadership Practice Inventory-Other should be implemented so that researchers could have the opportunity to analyze the perceptions of presidents' leadership styles based on the ratings of people who work for and report directly to college and university presidents.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

DEFINITION OF INSTITUTIONAL CATEGORIES BY CARNEGIE CLASSIFICATION

The 1996 Carnegie Classification includes all colleges and universities in the United States that are degree-granting and accredited by an agency recognized by the U.S. Secretary of Education.

Research Universities: These institutions offer a full range of baccalaureate programs, are committed to graduate education through the doctorate, and give high priority to research. They award 50 or more doctoral degrees' each year. In addition, they receive annually at least \$15.5 million or more in federal support. (1) (2)

Doctoral Universities: These institutions offer a full range of baccalaureate programs and are committed to graduate education through the doctorate. They award annually at least ten doctoral degrees-in three or more disciplines-or 20 or more doctoral degrees in one or more disciplines. (3)

Master's Colleges and Universities: These institutions offer a full range of baccalaureate programs and are committed to graduate education through the master's degree. They award at least 20 or more master's degrees annually in one or more disciplines. (3)

Baccalaureate Colleges: These institutions are primarily undergraduate colleges with major emphasis on baccalaureate degree programs. They award at least 40 percent of their baccalaureate degrees in liberal arts and are restrictive in admissions. (4)

Associate of Arts Colleges: These institutions offer associate of arts certificate or degree programs and, with few exceptions, offer no baccalaureate degrees. (5)

Specialized Institutions: These institutions offer degrees ranging from the bachelor's to the doctorate. At least 50 percent of the degrees awarded by these institutions are in a single discipline. Specialized institutions include:

Theological seminaries, Bible colleges, and other institutions offering degrees in religion: This category includes institutions at which the primary purpose is to offer religious instruction or train members of the clergy.

Medical schools and medical centers: These institutions award most of their professional degrees in medicine. In some instances, their programs include other health professional schools, such as dentistry, pharmacy, or nursing.

Other separate health profession schools: Institutions in this category award most of their degrees in such fields as chiropractic, nursing, pharmacy, or podiatry.

Schools of engineering and technology: The institutions in this category award at least a bachelor's degree in programs limited almost exclusively to technical fields of study.

Schools of business and management: The schools in this category award most of their bachelor's or graduate degrees in business or business-related programs.

Schools of art, music, and design: Institutions in this category award most of their bachelor's or graduate degrees in art, music, design, architecture, or some combination of such fields.

Schools of law: The schools included in this category award most of their degrees in law. The list includes only institutions that are listed as separate campuses in the 1994 *Higher Education Directory*.

Teachers colleges: Institutions in this category award most of their bachelor's or graduate degrees in education or education-related fields.

Other specialized institutions: Institutions in this category include graduate centers, maritime academies, military institutes, and institutions that do not fit any other classification category.

Tribal colleges and universities: These colleges are, with few exceptions, tribally controlled and located on reservations. They are all members of the American Indian Higher Education Consortium.

Notes on Definitions

1. Doctoral degrees include Doctor of Education, Doctor of Juridical Science, Doctor of Public Health, and the Ph.D. in any field.
2. Total federal obligation figures are available from the National Science Foundation's annual report called *Federal Support to Universities, Colleges, and Nonprofit Institutions*. The years used in averaging total federal obligations are 1992, 1993, and 1994.
3. Distinct disciplines are determined by the U.S. Department of Education's *Classification of Instructional Programs* 4-digit series.
4. The liberal arts disciplines include English language and literature, foreign languages, letters, liberal and general studies, life sciences, mathematics, philosophy and religion, physical sciences, psychology, social sciences, the visual and performing arts, area and ethnic studies, and multi-interdisciplinary studies. The occupational and technical disciplines include agriculture, allied health, architecture, business and management, communications, conservation and natural resources, education, engineering, health sciences, home economics, law and legal studies, library and archival sciences, marketing and distribution, military sciences, protective services, public administration and services, and theology.
5. This group includes community, junior, and technical colleges.

APPENDIX 2

INITIAL COVER LETTER

DATE

501 Bretton Woods Dr.
pt. #102
Knoxville, TN 37919

PRESIDENTS NAME
TITLE, INSTITUTION
CITY, STATE, ZIP

Dear TITLE/NAME:

As a part of my doctoral study at the University of Tennessee, I am researching presidential perceptions of effective practices. The survey instrument employed in the study is the Leadership Practices Inventory.* **It takes less than five minutes to complete.**

My study involves a sample of 400 presidents selected from different Carnegie classifications. No individual respondent will be identified in the study. To respect your time and to encourage your response, the survey is brief and this letter will be brief.

If you would be willing to invest five minutes in completing the instrument, I would be appreciative. **Only your responses to the 30 survey items in needed. You do not need to make the entries on the back under "Transfer Ratings."** An addressed and stamped envelope is attached for your convenience.

Finally, it would be most appreciate if you could return your completed material by (two week time frame stated with date).

In appreciation,

Clay E. Brown

* The LPI was designed by Barry Z. Posner and James M. Kouzes. Its research background and technical characteristics are described in their book The Leadership Challenge (Jossey-Bass, 1987).

APPENDIX 3

LEADERSHIP PRACTICES INVENTORY-SELF (LPI-S)

On the next two pages are thirty descriptive statements about various leadership behaviors and activities. Please read each statement carefully; then rate yourself in terms of how frequently you engage in the practice described. Record your response by drawing a circle around the number that corresponds to the frequency you have selected. You are given five choices:

1. If you rarely do what is described, circle "1."
2. If you do what is described once in a while, circle "2."
3. If you sometimes do what is described, circle "3."
4. If you do what is described fairly often, circle "4."
5. If you do what is described very frequently circle "5."

In selecting the answer, be realistic about the extent to which you actually engage in each behavior. Do not answer in terms of what you should be doing. Answer in terms of how you like to see yourself or in terms of what you should be doing. Answer in terms of how you typically behave. For example, the first statement is "I seek out challenging opportunities that test my skills and abilities." If you believe you do this "once in a while," circle "2." If you believe you seek out challenging opportunities "fairly often," circle "4."

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1	2	3	4	5		
Rarely/ Seldom	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Frequently		
1.	I seek out challenging opportunities that test my skills and abilities.....	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I describe to others the kind of future I would like for us to create together.....	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I involve others in planning actions we take.....	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I am clear about my own philosophy of leadership.....	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I take the time to celebrate accomplishments when project milestones are reached.....	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I stay up-to-date on the most recent developments affecting our organization.....	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I appeal to others to share my dream of the future as their own.....	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I treat others with dignity and respect.....	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I make certain that the projects I lead are broken down into manageable steps.....	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I make sure that people are recognized for their contributions to the success of our projects.....	1	2	3	4	5

1 Rarely/ Seldom	2 Once in a while	3 Sometimes	4 Fairly Often	5 Frequently
11. I challenge the way we do things at work.....1	2	3	4	5
12. I clearly communicate a positive and hopeful outlook for the future of our organization.....1	2	3	4	5
13. I give people a lot of discretion to make their own decision.....1	2	3	4	5
14. I spend time and energy making certain that people adhere to the values that have been agreed on.....1	2	3	4	5
15. I praise people for a job well done.....1	2	3	4	5
16. I look for innovative ways we can improve what we do in this organization.....1	2	3	4	5
17. I show others how their long-term future interests can be realized be enlisting in a common vision.....1	2	3	4	5
18. I develop cooperative relationships with the people I work with.....1	2	3	4	5
19. I let others know my beliefs on how to best run the organization I lead.....1	2	3	4	5
20. I give the members of the team lots of appreciation and support for their contributions.....1	2	3	4	5

1 Rarely/ Seldom	2 Once in a while	3 Sometimes	4 Fairly Often	5 Frequently
21. I ask "What can we learn?" when things do not go as expected.....1	2	3	4	5
22. I look ahead and forecast what I expect the future to be like.....1	2	3	4	5
23. I create an atmosphere of mutual trust.....1	2	3	4	5
24. I am consistent in practicing the values I espouse.....1	2	3	4	5
25. I find ways to celebrate accomplishments.....1	2	3	4	5
26. I experiment and take risks with new approaches to my work even when there is a chance of failure.....1	2	3	4	5
27. I am contagiously excited and enthusiastic about future possibilities.....1	2	3	4	5
28. I get others to feel a sense of ownership for the projects they work on.....1	2	3	4	5
29. I make sure the work group sets clear goals, makes plans, and establishes milestones for the projects I lead.....1	2	3	4	5
30. I make it a point to tell the rest of the organization about the good work done by my group.....1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX 4

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION SURVEY

Please complete the following demographic information sheet by placing a check-mark by the blank that applies.

- I. GENDER: ☐ Male ☐ Female
- II. RACE: ☐ African-American ☐ Native-American
☐ Asian-American ☐ White
☐ Hispanic-American ☐ Other
- III. AGE: ☐ 31-40 ☐ 51-60
☐ 41-50 ☐ 61 and older
- IV. EDUCATION/MAJOR:
- | | | |
|---|--|---|
| ☐ Agriculture | ☐ Engineering | ☐ Medicine |
| ☐ Biological Science | ☐ Health Profession | ☐ Natural Science |
| ☐ Business | ☐ Humanities/ Fine Arts | ☐ Religion/ Theology |
| ☐ Education | ☐ Law/ Jurisprudence | ☐ Social Science |
| | | ☐ Other |
- V. EXPERIENCE: NUMBER OF YEARS IN CURRENT PRESIDENCY
- | | |
|--------------------------------------|--|
| ☐ 0-5 years | ☐ 16-20 years |
| ☐ 6-10 years | ☐ over 21 years |
| ☐ 11-15 years | |

APPENDIX 5

POSTCARD REMINDER

Approximately two weeks ago you should have received a questionnaire related to leadership styles within the college presidency. In order to complete my research I am again requesting that you respond to the instrument as soon as possible.

Thank you for your assistance in this matter.

Clay E. Brown
501 Bretton Woods Dr.
Apt. 102
Knoxville, TN 37919

APPENDIX 6

SECOND COVER LETTER

DATE

501 Bretton Woods Dr.
Apt. #102
Knoxville, TN 37919

PRESIDENT'S NAME
TITLE, INSTITUTION
CITY, STATE, ZIP

Dear TITLE/NAME:

In order to attain the maximum level of response and increase the degree of validity, I am sending this reminder that I have not yet received your completed questionnaire pertaining to leadership style within the college presidency. I am quickly nearing the projected deadline to the study and need your assistance for its completion.

Since the original research instrument was sent to you four weeks ago and may have been misplaced, I am enclosing another inquiry. I would greatly appreciate your response.

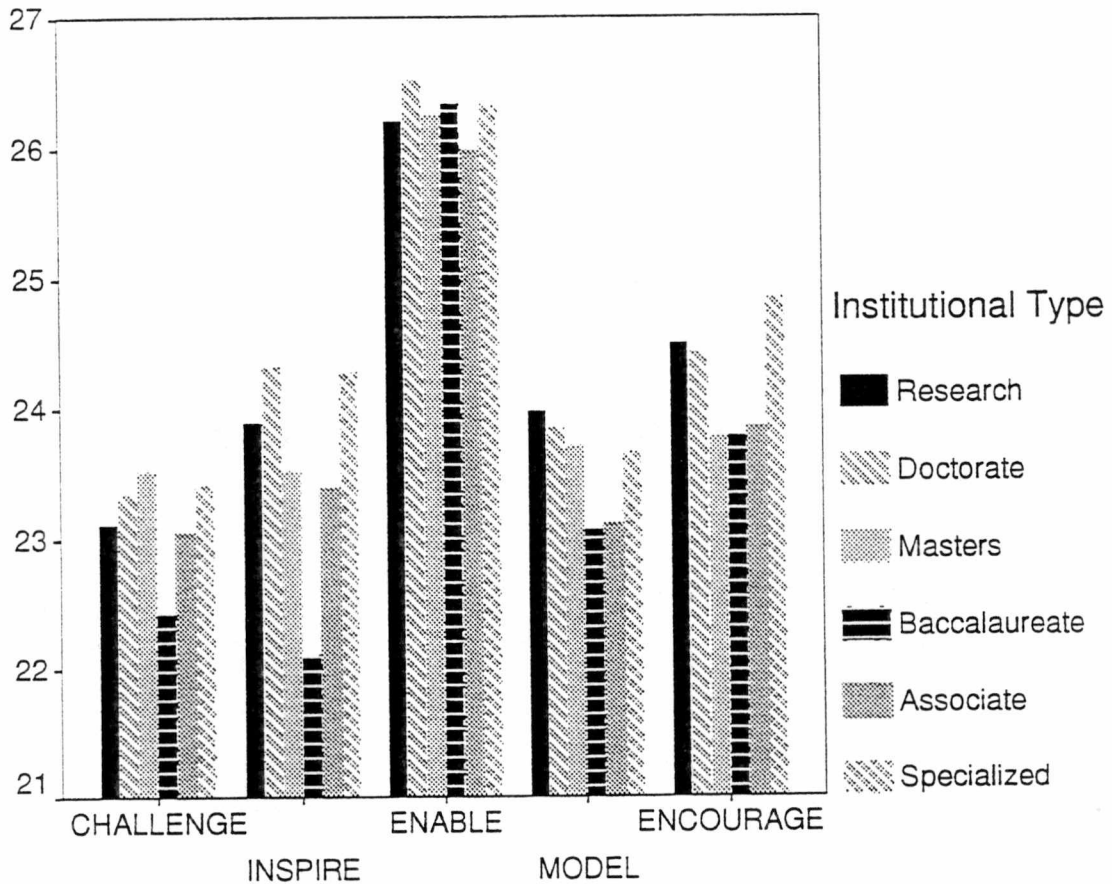
Thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Clay E. Brown
Attachments

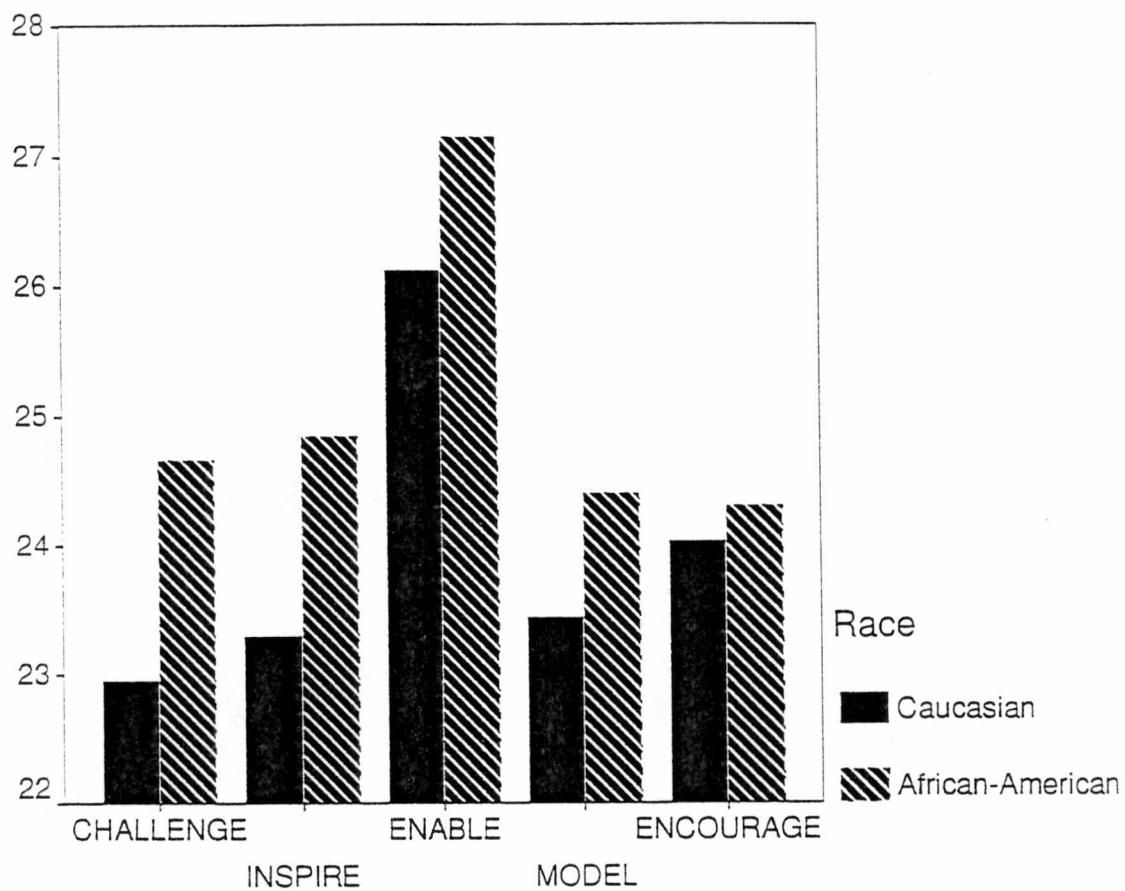
APPENDIX 7

Graphical Display of LPI-S Means by Institutional Type



APPENDIX 8

Graphical Display of LPI-S Means by Race



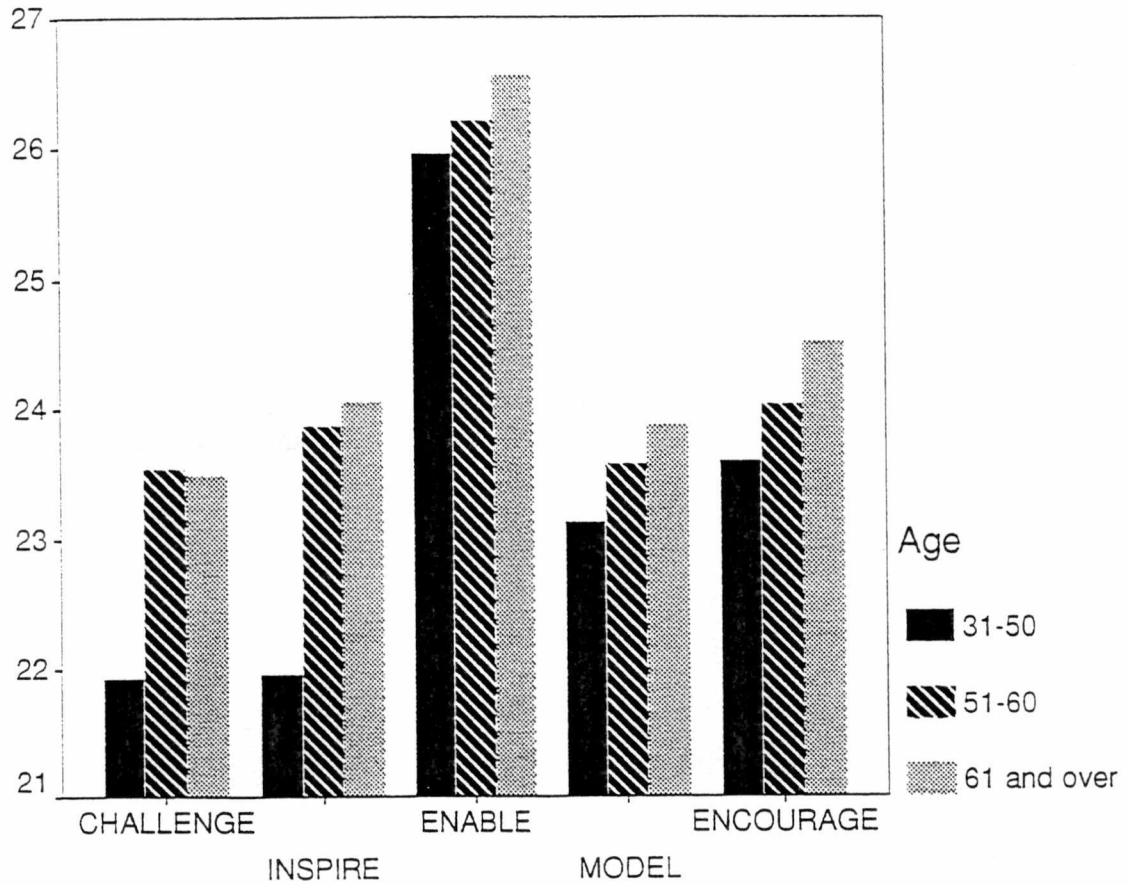
APPENDIX 9

Summary of Presidents' Responses by Race, Institution Type, and LPI-S Mean

Race/ Institution	Number	Percent	Challenge	Inspire	Enable	Model	Encourage
African-American	27	8.2	24.77	24.89	27.20	24.45	24.39
Research	2	7.4	23.67	24.00	27.67	26.67	25.33
Doctorate	1	3.7	27.40	26.40	28.40	25.20	25.20
Masters	6	22.2	24.54	24.63	26.36	24.81	23.72
Baccalaureate	2	7.4	22.66	25.33	26.66	24.00	24.66
Associate of Arts	15	55.6	27.50	26.00	26.00	24.00	22.50
Specialized	1	3.7	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Caucasian	302	91.8	22.96	23.29	26.12	23.44	24.03
Research	18	6.0	23.07	23.94	26.11	23.79	24.37
Doctorate	14	4.6	22.77	24.02	26.25	23.65	24.31
Masters	55	18.2	23.32	23.26	26.15	23.58	23.76
Baccalaureate	17	5.6	22.28	21.65	26.23	22.86	23.69
Associate of Arts	182	60.3	22.84	23.14	25.89	23.14	23.89
Specialized	16	5.3	23.45	24.65	26.20	23.75	24.90
TOTAL/MEAN	329	100.0	23.16	21.18	26.24	23.55	24.06

APPENDIX 10

Graphical Display of LPI-S Means by Age



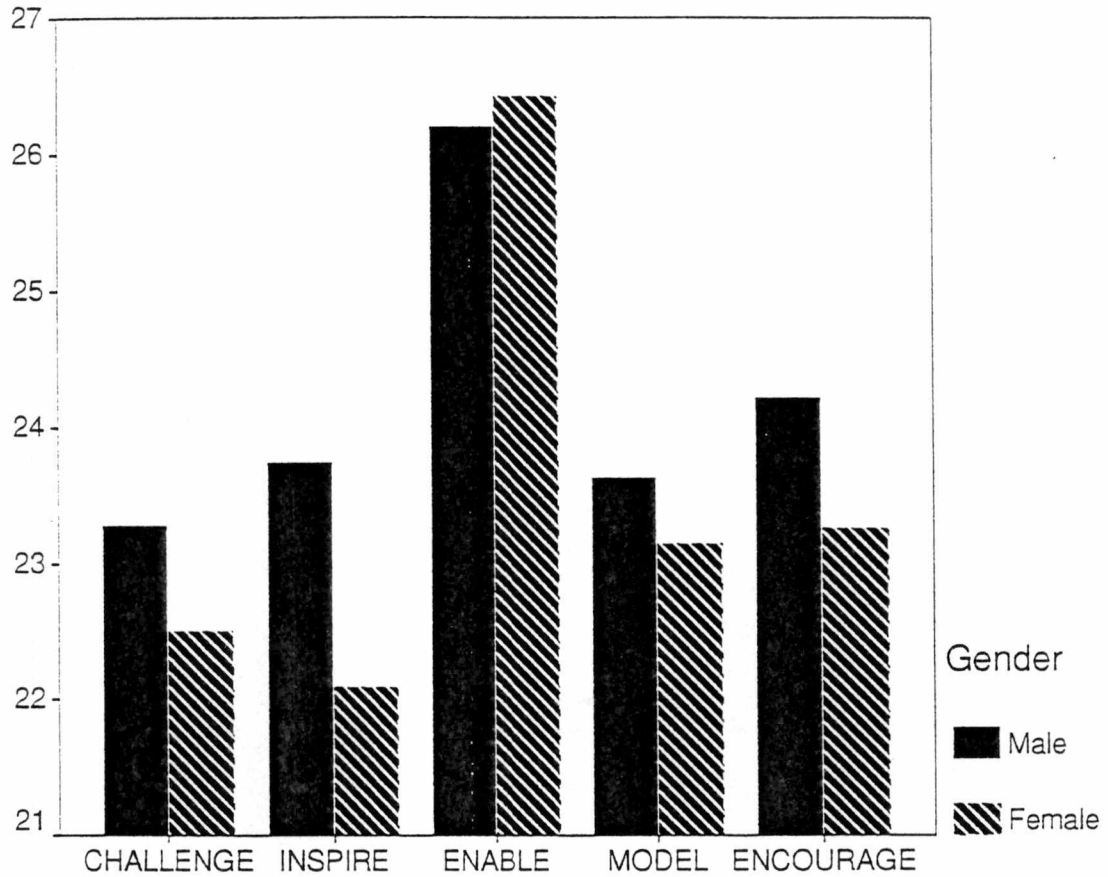
APPENDIX 11

Summary of Presidents' Responses by Age, Institutional Type, and LPI-S Mean

Challenge	Inspire	Enable	Model	Encourage	Age/ Institution	Number	‡
21.90	21.91	25.91	23.14	23.47	31 - 50	64	19.5
20.37	21.74	26.49	23.49	21.61	Research	3	4.7
20.71	20.57	27.00	23.00	22.28	Doctorate	2	3.2
23.19	22.59	26.35	23.64	23.79	Masters	12	18.8
20.79	20.39	25.19	22.73	24.46	Baccalaureate	4	6.2
22.09	22.23	25.28	22.47	23.38	Associate of Arts	38	59.3
24.25	25.99	27.50	28.24	28.49	Specialized	5	7.8
23.53	23.86	26.20	23.57	24.03	51 - 60	183	55.6
23.73	24.47	25.76	23.79	25.35	Research	14	7.6
24.86	24.93	27.73	24.20	25.06	Doctorate	8	4.4
23.29	23.48	25.36	23.48	23.46	Masters	40	21.9
22.92	22.62	26.74	23.29	22.88	Baccalaureate	11	6.0
23.60	24.42	26.96	24.00	24.28	Associate of Arts	101	55.2
23.53	23.76	25.92	22.30	23.30	Specialized	9	4.9
23.48	24.05	26.51	23.87	24.53	61 or Older	82	24.9
23.18	23.74	26.99	24.62	24.19	Research	3	3.7
23.10	25.27	25.21	23.88	24.72	Doctorate	5	6.1
24.14	24.25	26.67	24.14	24.28	Masters	9	10.9
23.45	23.18	26.90	23.00	25.09	Baccalaureate	4	4.9
23.38	22.99	25.00	23.22	24.22	Associate of Arts	58	70.7
22.25	24.25	26.50	23.50	26.25	Specialized	3	3.7
23.08	23.41	26.08	23.59	23.60	MEAN/TOTAL	329	100

APPENDIX 12

Graphical Display of LPI-S Means by Gender



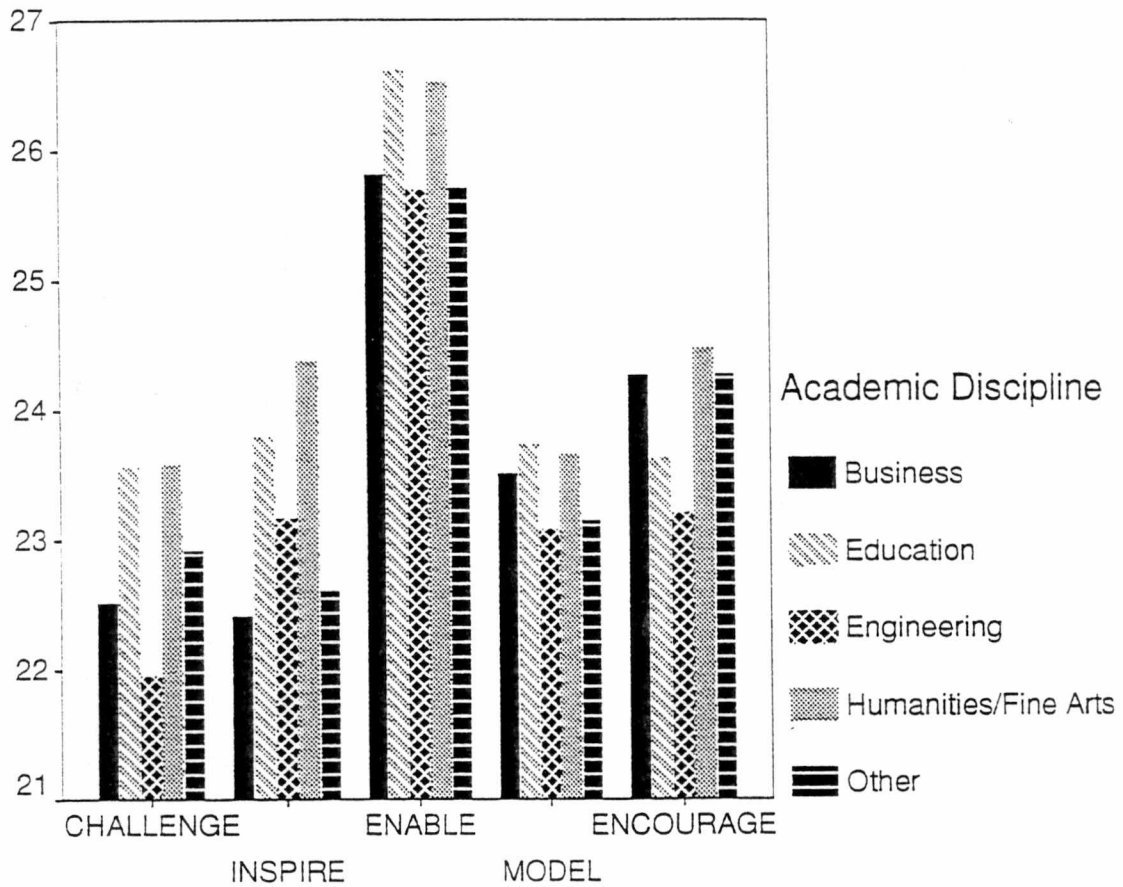
APPENDIX 13

Summary of Presidents' Responses by Gender, Institutional Type, and LPI-S Mean

Gender/Institution	Number	Percent	Challenge	Inspire	Enable	Model	Encourage
WOMEN	53	16.1	22.50	22.09	26.43	23.14	23.26
Research	1	1.9	20.00	20.50	26.50	23.25	24.00
Doctorate	3	5.7	21.00	21.50	27.50	23.00	20.50
Masters	12	22.6	23.60	24.06	25.93	25.06	24.06
Baccalaureate	6	11.3	21.71	19.07	27.14	21.71	23.92
Associate of Arts	24	45.2	23.63	23.54	25.63	23.27	23.63
Specialized	7	13.3	23.00	24.33	26.33	20.00	19.33
MEN	276	83.9	23.28	23.74	26.20	23.63	24.21
Research	19	6.9	23.35	24.14	26.18	24.03	24.53
Doctorate	12	4.3	23.76	24.82	26.35	24.00	25.11
Masters	49	17.8	23.51	23.42	26.31	23.46	23.72
Baccalaureate	13	4.7	22.69	23.20	26.05	23.56	23.74
Associate of Arts	173	62.7	22.92	23.35	26.05	23.07	23.90
Specialized	10	3.6	23.50	24.27	26.33	24.27	25.77
TOTAL/MEAN	329	100.0	23.15	23.47	26.24	23.55	24.06

APPENDIX 14

Graphical Display of LPI-S Means by Academic Discipline



APPENDIX 15

Summary of Presidents' Responses by Academic Discipline, Institutional Type, and LPI-s Mean

Background/ Institution	Number	Percent	Challenge	Inspire	Enable	Model	Encourage
Business	102	31.0	22.52	22.41	25.81	23.52	24.27
Research	7	6.7	22.66	22.83	25.33	23.50	25.83
Doctorate	4	3.9	22.75	22.16	25.58	24.00	25.41
Masters	13	12.8	22.85	23.20	26.90	24.60	24.15
Baccalaureate	6	5.9	21.44	21.33	26.00	22.88	23.33
Associate of Arts	67	65.8	22.83	21.33	24.08	22.00	23.50
Specialized	5	4.9	21.25	23.75	27.25	22.75	21.25
Education	174	52.9	23.58	23.80	26.62	23.74	23.63
Research	10	5.7	22.20	22.70	26.50	23.60	23.20
Doctorate	8	4.6	22.63	24.90	27.63	23.36	21.90
Masters	33	18.9	24.14	24.21	26.21	24.39	23.53
Baccalaureate	11	6.3	24.00	22.26	26.86	23.26	23.73
Associate of Arts	103	59.2	23.41	23.86	26.65	23.51	24.06
Specialized	9	5.3	24.42	25.00	26.14	24.00	25.42

APPENDIX 15 Continued

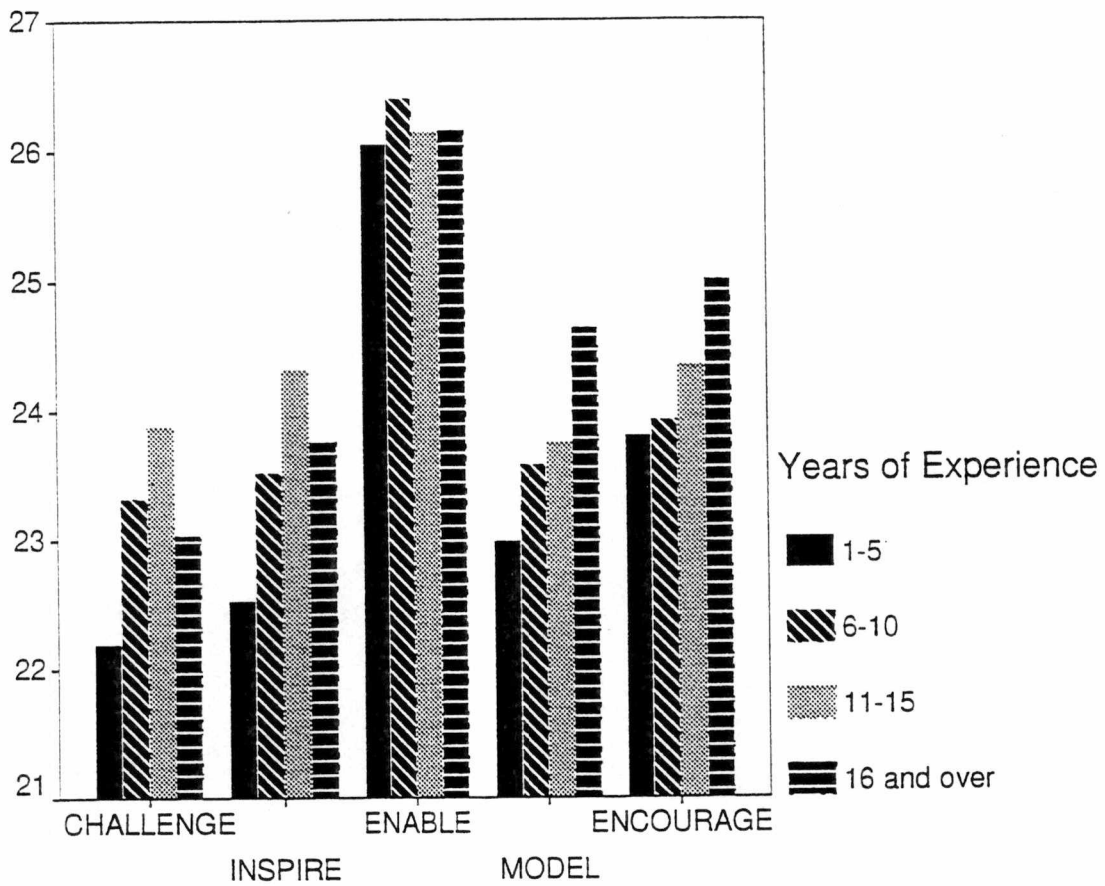
Background/Institution	Number	Percent	Challenge	Inspire	Enable	Model	Encourage
Engineering	19	5.8	21.95	23.17	25.73	23.08	23.21
Research	1	5.2	22.20	23.20	26.20	24.00	23.40
Doctorate	1	5.2	20.00	22.00	25.00	25.00	27.00
Masters	2	10.5	22.28	22.42	25.42	22.14	21.71
Baccalaureate	2	10.5	21.28	23.42	25.42	22.57	23.42
Associate of Arts	10	52.7	25.00	25.50	29.00	25.50	26.50
Specialized	3	15.9	19.00	23.00	21.00	22.00	21.00
Humanities/Fine Arts	24	7.3	23.60	24.37	26.52	23.70	24.48
Research	1	4.1	23.88	24.82	26.52	24.41	24.23
Doctorate	2	8.3	23.81	25.72	25.54	23.00	25.00
Masters	12	50.0	24.20	24.96	26.75	23.96	25.00
Baccalaureate	0	0.0	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Associate of Arts	9	37.6	22.53	24.30	26.84	23.69	23.07
Specialized	0	0.0	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00

APPENDIX 15 Continued

Background/Institution	Number	Percent	Challenge	Inspire	Enable	Model	Encourage
Other	10	3.0	22.95	22.75	25.68	23.05	24.78
Research	1	10.0	23.83	24.16	25.16	22.66	25.16
Doctorate	1	10.0	27.00	28.00	28.66	26.00	25.66
Masters	1	10.0	21.00	20.00	25.60	21.80	22.20
Baccalaureate	0	0.0	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Associate of Arts	8	80.0	21.00	21.00	22.50	19.00	22.50
Specialized	0	0.0	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
TOTALS/MEANS	329	100.0	23.68	23.31	26.06	23.56	24.06

APPENDIX 16

Graphical Display of LPI-S Means by Years of Experience



APPENDIX 17

Summary of Presidents' Responses by Experience, Institutional Type, and LPI-S Mean

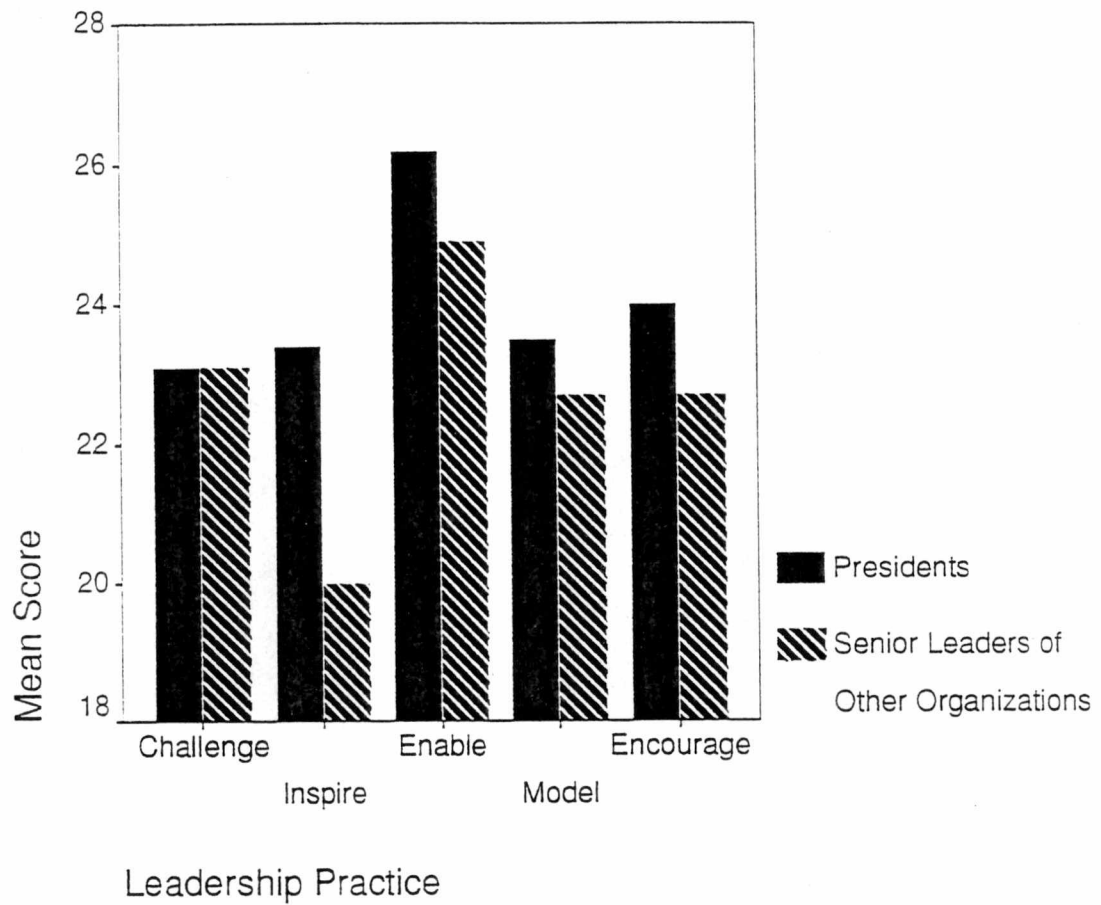
Years/Institution	Number	Percent	Challenge	Inspire	Enable	Model	Encourage
0-5 years	97	29.5	22.43	22.53	26.05	22.98	23.70
Research	4	4.1	21.70	22.60	25.60	23.20	22.90
Doctorate	4	4.1	20.22	22.67	27.33	21.44	20.44
Masters	17	17.5	24.06	23.82	27.17	24.76	24.64
Baccalaureate	5	5.2	21.58	21.16	25.73	22.26	24.15
Associate of Arts	63	65.0	22.12	21.82	24.88	22.05	24.11
Specialized	4	4.1	23.00	25.40	26.00	25.20	26.40
6-10 years	176	53.5	23.32	23.52	26.43	23.57	23.84
Research	10	5.7	24.04	24.20	26.60	24.56	24.60
Doctorate	8	4.5	23.94	24.33	25.77	24.66	25.61
Masters	28	15.9	22.82	22.87	25.80	23.02	23.56
Baccalaureate	10	5.7	22.67	22.37	26.66	23.25	22.91
Associate of Arts	109	61.9	23.54	24.35	27.25	23.70	23.77
Specialized	11	6.3	23.50	23.50	26.50	22.33	23.75

APPENDIX 17 continued

Years/Institution	Number	Percent	Challenge	Inspire	Enable	Model	Encourage
11-15 years	35	10.6	23.88	24.21	26.13	23.74	24.20
Research	4	11.4	23.33	24.83	25.61	23.72	25.11
Doctorate	2	5.7	24.00	24.66	26.77	23.33	25.44
Masters	8	22.9	24.08	24.11	26.26	23.53	25.44
Baccalaureate	3	8.6	24.43	23.57	27.28	24.00	25.00
Associate of Arts	16	45.7	24.00	23.62	25.12	23.75	22.87
Specialized	2	5.7	23.75	25.25	26.25	25.75	26.25
Over 16 years	21	6.4	23.04	23.75	26.15	24.63	25.10
Research	2	9.5	20.60	21.60	27.60	23.60	25.00
Doctorate	1	4.8	26.25	27.24	27.49	26.75	25.75
Masters	8	38.1	24.72	24.85	26.86	26.28	25.14
Baccalaureate	1	4.8	21.33	22.67	25.33	24.66	25.66
Associate of Arts	9	42.8	21.83	22.50	23.66	22.16	24.83
Specialized	0	0.0	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
TOTAL/MEAN	329	100.0	23.15	23.47	26.20	23.54	24.20

APPENDIX 18

Comparison of Leadership Practices of College and University Presidents to Senior Leaders of Other Organizations



VITA

Clay E. Brown, son of James R. Brown and Dorothy J. Brown, was born in Atlanta, Georgia on December 6, 1959. He attended the public school system in Atlanta, where he graduated from Tucker High School in June of 1977.

He began his collegiate experience in 1977 at Georgia State University and then transferred to Auburn University in Auburn, Alabama. He graduated from Auburn University in June of 1983 with a Bachelor of Arts in public relations.

After working in the computer industry for one year, he began his Masters work at Mississippi State University in Starkville, Mississippi in August of 1984. He graduated from Mississippi State University in May of 1986 with a Masters degree in Counselor Education with an emphasis in administration.

He worked in student affairs at the University of Tennessee from 1986-1993. In 1993 he began to pursue the Doctorate of Philosophy of Education with an emphasis in Leadership Studies at the University of Tennessee. In December, 1997 he received his terminal degree.

He presently works for the American Red Cross teaching safety education classes for local corporations and civic organizations. He is also employed by a local health club as a fitness instructor and trainer.