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AFRICAN-AMERICAN COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY PRESIDENTS' PERCEPTION OF EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP ATTRIBUTES

A Dissertation Presented to The Faculty of the Educational Leadership Doctoral Program Western Kentucky University Bowling Green Kentucky

> In Partial Fulfillment Of the Requirements for the Degree Doctor of Education

> > By Sidney (SG) Carthell, Sr.

> > > May 2018

AFRICAN-AMERICAN COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY PRESIDENTS' PERCEPTION OF EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP ATTRIBUTES

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To my mother, Emma Jean Crowe-Carthell, rest in Heaven. To my grandmother, Mable Evans-Crowe who instilled in me a thirst for knowledge, rest in Heaven. To my aunt, Garthenia Woodgett, you were like a mother to me, and the love you showed meant the world to me. You left too soon. Rest in Heaven. To Dr. Judy McConnell-Jackson for her mentorship and guidance, rest in Heaven. To my children and grandchildren, this work is for you.

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I have seen something else under the sun: The race is not to the swift or the battle to the strong, nor does food come to the wise or wealth to the brilliant or favor to the learned;

but time and change happen to them all.

-Ecclesiastes 9:11

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AFRICAN-AMERICAN COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY PRESIDENTS' PERCEPTION OF EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP ATTRIBUTES

Sidney (SG) Carthell, Sr.May 2018114 PagesDirected by: Randall Capps, Tim Todd, Richard C. Miller, and Robert LongEducational Leadership Doctoral ProgramWestern Kentucky University

This study examined how socio-demographic factors of gender, age, institution location, institutional Carnegie Classification, degree of residential students, and size of enrollment relate to the perceptions that African-American college and university presidents had relative to effective leadership attributes. The research was a quantitative study that employed a descriptive survey with correlational design. No statistically significant differences were found between the perceptions of successful leadership attributes in the study based on gender, education, position prior to the presidency, years of experience, school type, or location. Leadership attributes of Energetic with Stamina and Ideological Beliefs were found to be statistically significant at the 0.05 level by age. The mean score of 5.07 or a descriptive ranking was reported for all leadership attributes. The leadership attribute of Sensitivity and Respect was found to be statistically significant at the 0.05 level by Carnegie Classification. Out of 37 leadership attributes, 16 were found to be statistically significant at the 0.05 level by degree of residential students. The results of the study can be used to guide curriculum development and search committee selection processes.

CHAPTER I: STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Introduction

Dr. Ervin Griffin, president of Halifax Community College, (as cited in Sturdivant, 2016, p.8) recently stated, "As an administrator you have to be able to see around the corner before you get there so you can anticipate some of the things happening." The ability to anticipate challenges has become a compulsory skill for university presidents, as financial challenges, social media management, diverse needs of the millennial generation, and effective leadership skill development has shortened the tenure of university presidents from 7–10 years to 5–7 years in just a decade (Kim & Cook, 2013).

Understanding the fluctuating landscape of the college and university presidency has become critical to the success of current and future presidential candidates. This fluctuating landscape is particularly significance for current and potential African-American presidents attributable to the limited pool of African-American administrators and faculty who have career trajectories leading to a university presidency. This study attempts to address some of these important issues by assessing the leadership attributes of African-American college and university presidents.

African-American Presidents in Higher Education

In the past few years, there has been a fundamental shift in what colleges and universities desire in a president. Research has indicated that the desired characteristics of college presidents do not vary significantly across institution size and type (Mastopoulos, 2008). The tenure for college and university presidents was 8.5 years in 2007 (Cook & Kim, 2012. This number has decreased to 8.2 years over the past few years, increasing the number of former presidents and prospective presidents looking for senior administrative positions (Kim & Cook, 2013). African Americans comprise 6.4% of college and university presidents at four-year institutions compared to 88.1% of Caucasian Americans. Increasing this number will require concentrating on cultivating an environment that will lead to success for African Americans desiring senior academic affairs positions as 44% of presidents' immediate prior positions come from this area. African-American Senior Academic Offices declined by 3.7% in 2008 and 2.3% in 2013; these positions are typically the most traveled path to the college or university presidency (Kim & Cook, 2013).

Cannon (2003) studied the desired leadership attributes of technical college presidents in Georgia as perceived by the current presidents, the board of directors, and their vice presidents. Ten attributes indicated significant differences relative to gender. African Americans comprised 11% of the respondents. Cannon (2003) recommended future study involving social, cultural, and environmental bias that could be useful in identifying differences in responses to desired leadership attributes.

McKenzie (2010) examined the perceived leadership attributes of presidents in South Carolina's Technical College System. The findings did not indicate a significant difference between the self-perceptions of the presidents and the observed perceptions of subordinates. All 10 presidential respondents identified as Caucasian and 23% (n = 9) of the 38 subordinate respondents were African American. McKenzie's research was focused on the South Carolina's Technical College System. Seeking a presidential candidate from the current pool will become more difficult as current presidents and provosts retire and the experience in the pool diminishes. There will be a need to seek diverse candidates and develop programs and pathways to help those in senior faculty and staff positions develop into viable presidential candidates. However, like Mastopoulos (2008), McKenzie focused on a single state in the Southeast.

For this current study, the researcher utilizes an existing leadership attributes scale. Moss, Lambrecht, and Jensrud (1994) developed the Leader Attributes Inventory consistent with the Cannon (2003) and McKenzie (2010) studies, and is appropriate for this work.

Shortage of Qualified Minority College Presidents

One of the major findings of a survey conducted in 2008 by the American Council on Education was that 51% of all college presidents are 61 or older, which was up 49% from the American College President study conducted in 2007. A 30% retirement of this age group would result in over 50% of colleges and universities having vacancies. In addition, senior administrators that would feed into the pipeline of college and university presidencies were of similar age. According to Kim and Cook (2013), the length of service for college and university presidents declined from 8.5 years in 2006 to 7 years in 2011.

Between 1986 and 2012, ethnic minorities who were college and university presidents increased 4% (Cook & Kim, 2012). However, the number of college and university presidents of color decreased 13% between 2007 and 2012 (Cook & Kim, 2012). Currently this percentage decreases to 9% without the inclusion of those minority-serving institutions. There has not been any significant change in college and university presidencies reflected since 2006 (Cook & Kim, 2012). According to the recent American College President study, the racial and ethnic makeup of presidents decreased from 14% in 2006 to 13% in 2011 (Kim & Cook, 2013). Public doctorate-granting institutions reported more ethnic or racial presidential minorities at 18%, while private schools reported 5% of ethnic or minority college presidents (Cook & Kim, 2012; Kim & Cook, 2013). More research is needed in this area, generally, because a limited number of racially diverse senior administrators still exist at U.S. higher education institutions, and this continues to contribute

to the limited diversity in presidential candidate pools (Cook & Kim, 2012).

The Problem Defined

The two studies cited previously (Cannon, 2003; McKenzie, 2010) are representative of empirical issues in the literature. The following four sections describe specific deficits regarding the shortage of African-American presidents.

Finding Desirable Presidential Candidates

In the majority of studies related to leadership styles and attributes of college and university presidents, the researchers have focused on identifying success traits to enhance the mission of the institution the presidents will serve. This is necessary and useful information; nonetheless, as noted in Cook and Kim (2012), the impending retirement and turnover of current college presidents necessitates the identification and cultivation of a diverse pool of presidential candidates. The desired leadership characteristics of college presidents are relatively consistent across institution size and type. However, to the author's knowledge, little is known about the perceptions that successful African-American college and university presidents have about their leadership characteristics in relation to gender, type, size, and location of their perspective institutions, and the selfperceived desired leadership characteristics for potential African-American presidential prospects (cf., also, Cook & Kim, 2012).

Preparation and the Path to the College/University Presidency

According to the American College Presidents Study conducted by the Kim and Cook (2013), 70% of college and university presidents were former faculty. Presidents served an average of seven years in a faculty position, and 19.5% were former college presidents before assuming their current positions of leadership. According to the study, 20% of the presidents held prior CEO positions outside of higher education. Of those studied, 30% of college presidents had a terminal degree in education, with humanities and social sciences coming second and third respectively. About 15% of presidents had professional degrees in law, medicine, or a health-related field. Of those studied, 11% had degrees in STEM. Minorities made up 12.6% of college and university presidencies down from 13.6% in 2006 (Cook & Kim, 2012). Those who served as a provost or chief academic officer prior to their current position as president made up 34%, which was an increase from the 31% reported in 2006. Thirty-seven percent of presidents reported their field of study as education or higher education with the humanities and social sciences second and third at 14.2% and 11.9%, respectively (Kim & Cook, 2013). However, regarding the ethnic minorities who become college and university presidents, the author has found limited research focused specifically on their leadership preparation and career path.

Presidential Leadership Attributes

The academic preparation of current college and university presidents is broad and diverse. The current budget restraints that have affected higher education across the country have refined the "Gold Standard" relative to leadership attributes desired for today's college and university presidents. Presidents report that a considerable amount of their effort is spent dealing with fundraising, budget, community relations, and strategic planning (Kim & Cook, 2013). While presidents might possess divergent leadership styles, there is, according to Brown (2008), a core set of attributes that every president should have. These attributes comprise shared governance, effective listening skills, and effective consensus building.

In a 2008 study, Mastopoulos identified self-described leadership attributes of college and university presidents in the University System of Georgia and technical college

presidents in the Technical College System of Georgia. Coaching was the leadership attribute that had statistically significant differences based on the institutional size as opposed to institute type. Mastopoulos did not assess the race or gender of the presidents that participated in the study. Thus, due to the changing demographics in potential college presidents, broader research in relation to the race and gender of academic presidents' leadership perception is needed, specifically because little research has addressed race as a factor in presidential leadership. Mastopoulos (2008) did recommend future study in the area of comparison and contrast of self-described presidential leadership attributes outside of the State of Georgia, but to the author's knowledge, there has been limited followthrough on this. Further, such studies highlight the deficit in the knowledge base on the leadership attributes of presidents nationwide. However, additional empirical work is needed to confirm these traits for university presidents more consistently.

African-American Presidents in Higher Education

Over the past 30 years, the topic of African Americans and Hispanics has increased in the literature. Scholars and researchers have studied experiences of faculty, staff, and students across the academic spectrum. Most of the research centers on recruitment and retention. Limited attention has been given to African-American college and university presidents and administrators outside of the U.S. Department of Education, the American Council of Education (ACE), and Diverse Issues in Higher Education (Holmes, 2004, p. 21–22). There is a limited pool of qualified, accessible, and desirable African-American presidential candidates. The current talent pool of college and university presidents is getting older with the average president around 61 years of age, up from 52 years of age three decades ago (Cook & Kim, 2012). African Americans make up less than 10% of college and university presidents, and African-American women outnumber African-

American men in college and university presidencies.

African-American women represent less than 6% of the overall managerial positions in higher education in the United States (Holmes, 2004, p. 22). This presents a challenge for an already declining talent pool of potential presidential candidates. Most of the potential presidential candidates are in the faculty and administrative ranks in higher education. However, there are limited African Americans in positions of chief academic officer, dean, and vice president that typically lead to the presidency (Holmes, 2004, p. 23). Proactive efforts by colleges and universities in cultivating minority prospects for the anticipated college and university presidential vacancies projected that the next 5 to 10 years will be critical in addressing the aging talent pool. Yet few researchers have addressed the issue of African-American presidential leadership attributes. Even more to the point, little if anything is known about the leadership attributes of these minority presidents. Thus, studies examining these traits relative to the population of African-American presidents are sorely needed.

Purpose of the Study

This study brings together the deficits in the field as enumerated in **The Problem Defined.** Generally, there has been an increase in the diversity of college student bodies across the country; however, this has not resulted in an increase in the racial and ethnic composition of college and university presidents. First, filling the shortage of desirable college and university presidents has been a challenge due to the retirement and turnover rate of current college and university presidents. Second, the racial and ethnic diversity of senior administrative positions in the pool typically used for recruiting college and university presidents is limited; greater understanding of the career path of African-American presidents in higher education is needed. Third, while there have been numerous studies regarding leadership in higher education, more empirical evidence about the specific leadership traits of university presidents is needed. Finally, future study should be conducted with expanded emphasis on how race and gender factor into presidents' perceptions of leadership attributes.

Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine the perceptions of effective leadership attributes by African-American college and university presidents at both public and private institutions. Specifically, the research examined the perceptions of effective leadership of these leaders pertaining to the 37 attributes identified in the Leader Attributes Inventory (LAI) (Moss et al., 1994). The study employed a descriptive survey with correlation design relating socio-demographic factors to the 37 attributes. The population for the study was African-American college and university presidents in the United States; the sample comprised volunteer respondents to the census of that group. Data analysis included descriptive statistics and correlations. The survey was conducted electronically using Qualtrics, an online software platform that allows users to collect data and conduct analysis. The central research question summarizes this study: How do African-American college and university presidents perceive effective leadership attributes?

Empirical Research Questions

The central research question for this study frames the following empirical research questions, focused explicitly on the Moss et al. (1994) LAI. The empirical research questions listed below are followed by the logic model of the study depicted in Figure 1.

From the perspective of African-American college and university presidents:

 To what extent do the socio-demographic factors of gender, age, institution location, institutional Carnegie Classification, degree of residential students and size of enrollment relate to the 37 attributes identified in the Leader

Attributes Inventory?

2. What are the top five leadership attributes deemed necessary for success as

determined through the Leader Attributes Inventory?

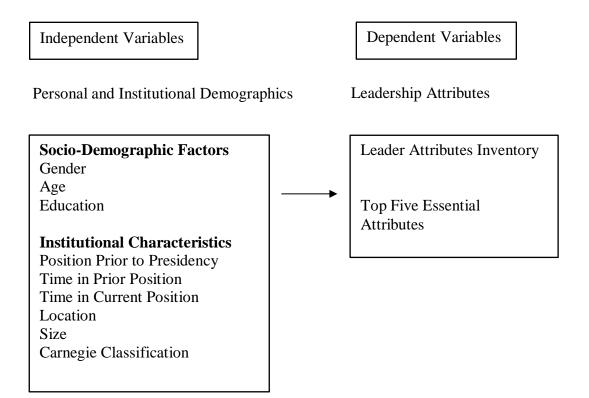


Figure 1. Logic Model for relationships between socio-demographic factors and the Leader Attributes Inventory

Significance of the Study

The results of this study contain useful data for potential presidential candidates, presidential search and screening committees, and associations dedicated to increasing the pipeline to the presidency. This study assists in addressing questions about how diversity at the senior administrative level is beneficial to higher education. The information can be relevant to those involved in executive coaching, training, or consulting to assist clients more effectively. The results can also be used for developing or enhancing curriculum objectives in leadership and organizational management programs. Specifically, the study benefits future research regarding diversity and educational leadership by addressing the following deficits in the field.

First, there is a shortage of African-American college presidents. In the mid-1980s, the average age of university presidents was 51, and currently the average age of university presidents has increased by 11 years to 62. This age increase has been attributed to the increased complexity involved in leading colleges and universities, which requires more experience. The typical pathway to the presidency comes from the senior administrative ranks of educational institutions, specifically from the ranks of chief academic officers. An ACE study in 2008 found that only 16% of senior administrators were from underrepresented groups. Only 10% were chief academic officers (Cook & Kim, 2012).

Second, finding desirable presidential candidates has been a challenge for search committees across the country. Finding candidates who are the "right fit" for an institution can be difficult. In addition, finding minority candidates who have had opportunities to gain the experience necessary to lead an institution has continued to be a challenge. The chief academic officer continues to be the most traveled path to the Presidency. More than 70% of the college and university presidents come from the ranks of chief academic officers. However, the percentage of minority faculty or chief academic officers has not increased over the last couple of decades, and this has contributed to the challenge of finding desirable presidential candidates (Cook & Kim, 2012).

Third, in preparation for the college/university presidency, most presidents have spent the majority of their professional experience in higher education and their "immediate prior position" has also been in higher education. There has, however, been an increase of about 20% in the number of presidents with experiences outside of higher

education in both the for-profit and non-profit sector (Cook & Kim, 2012).

Fourth, because the job of college and university president is a challenging position that requires multifaceted transformational leaders, institutions are looking for leaders who have the experience and proven leadership skills (Cook & Kim, 2012). While leadership attributes of presidents have been studied, to the author's knowledge, there is limited research on the presidential leadership attributes of African-American college and university presidents.

Limitations of the Study

The LAI instrument was developed during a six-year study funded by the National Center for Research in Vocational Education (NCRVE). The intent was to make a diagnostic assessment of 37 attributes—characteristics, knowledge, skills, and values possessed by individuals—that predispose successful performance as a leader in vocational education (Moss et al., 1994). The LAI model is designed to be inclusive and broad; however, no instrument can include all of the varied attributes that an effective leader might possess. This study was limited to the design of the LAI and the predetermined ranking of the attributes within that inventory. The LAI was later revised by Moss et al. in 1994, and that is the version used in this study. Several specific limitations follow from this.

First, this study was limited to African-American College and University Presidents at two-year, four-year, private, and public institutions. These institutions offer a variety of degrees and serve a diverse population of students from predominantly Caucasian, historically Black, and Hispanic backgrounds. Degree offerings include certificates, associates, bachelors, masters, and doctoral degrees.

Second, the study was limited to the perceived leadership attributes of the college and university presidents in the study. While observational assessment is a part of the LAI, that process was not used in this study.

Third, survey results presumed that respondents were sincere and honest in all of their responses. In addition, confidentiality was assured, and the expectation was that all responses were an accurate reflection of each respondent's feelings about what was being asked.

Finally, this study was limited to current African-American college and university presidents; consequently, any and all generalizations derived at the conclusion of this study were limited to African-American college and university presidents for applicability, but might have larger implications in some circumstances. Each respondent was asked to rate attributes for future leadership needs for this study with the assumption that all presidents have considerable responsibilities for leadership despite any specific differences in the mission statements and general objectives for their institution.

Definitions of Terms

Leader Attributes Inventory (LAI): a 37-item instrument contained on two independent forms (Self and Observer) consisting of positively phrased statements of leadership abilities as developed by Moss et al. (1994). Each attribute is rated on a sixpoint Likert scale as perceived to be possessed by the person being rated.

Self-Rating Form: part of the LAI survey instrument administered to the persons designated as the one being rated or observed (Moss et al., 1994, p. 1).

Leadership: Leadership is the commitment and beliefs of *both* leader and follower resulting from an indirect and symbiotic impact blended by contemplation, sentiment, and accomplishment to yield collaboration (Bolman & Deal, 2008, pp. 344–345).

Summary

Effective leadership is key to the success of any organization. The leader must be able to foster teamwork and cooperation throughout an organization, must have a clear understanding of what is expected to lead an organization effectively, and should understand the perception that members of the organization have regarding attributes that senior leadership should possess. College and university presidents bear the primary responsibly for the success or failure of their institutions.

The role of the president has evolved over time. In recent years, there has been a change in expectations by governing boards, faculty, staff, and students. This study identifies and compares the differences in perceptions of African-American college and university presidents corresponding to gender, institution type, institution size, and institution location, all focused on leadership as embodied in Moss's 37 attributes (Moss et al., 1994). This information could be helpful in developing a blueprint for increasing the pipeline to the presidency for African Americans. This study could also be beneficial to African Americans in higher education interested in the presidency, as it can help them develop the leadership attributes that are consistent with what is needed to assume a presidency. The central research question summarizes the overall intent of the research: How do African-American college and university presidents perceive successful leadership attributes?

CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

According to the Cook and Kim (2012), the average longevity of a current president is 61 years. This will necessitate an increased need for a diverse pool of qualified potential leaders to lead colleges and universities. Increasingly, institutions across the country are searching for presidential candidates who can meet the multiple challenges facing higher education. Some notable challenges include increased fiscal accountability, decreased support from state governments, dependency on international enrollment, rising tuition costs, and campus safety concerns. Other complex challenges include a need for increased endowments, the rising cost of facility maintenance, increased accountability of Title IX requirements, the need for diverse faculty and staff, and the increase in students who are not college ready.

While there have been empirical research studies focused on many of these areas, to the researcher's knowledge, the decline in the pool of ethnic minorities available to presidential search committees has had limited research. While search committees seek to find transformational leaders to lead their institutions, few studies have been focused on the leadership perceptions of existing ethnic minority college and university presidents specifically African-American. Thus, the purpose of this study was to examine the perceived effective leadership attributes of African-American college and university presidents. This leads to the central research question: How do African-American college and university presidents perceive effective leadership attributes?

A review of the literature was performed by gathering sources from Google Scholar, ERIC database, the Murray State University Library database, and the author's personal library. The selected literature review includes studies on presidential leadership

and leadership attribute perceptions. There is an abundance of literature on these topics; however, empirical research on African-American presidential leadership is limited. For this study, the following terms were used: *leadership attributes, presidential leadership, underrepresented groups, African-American, faculty diversification, Leader Attributes Inventory, Historically Black Colleges and Universities, leadership characteristics, sociodemographic factors, and perceived leadership,* etc.

The remainder of this chapter covers the following primary topics:

College/University Presidency, Presidential Leadership, African Americans in Higher Education, and African-American Presidential Leadership. The chapter concludes with a **Summary**.

College/University Presidency

Cook and Kim (2012) asserted in their supplement to the American Council on Education American College President Study, that the demographics of the college president have not changed much since 1986. The average college president was a white male, 52 years of age, married with children, engaged in Protestant faith, earned a doctorate in education, held a previous position of Chief Academic Officer, and had a sixyear tenure in their current presidency. What has changed is the average age of a college president in 2012 was 61 and 54% were college presidents in their past positions. This represented an increase of 14% from 1986. Presidents also reported that the top four issues facing their presidency were (1) budget and financial management, (2) fundraising, community relations, (3) strategic planning, and (4) personnel issues (Cook & Kim, 2012). Cook and Kim attribute this to the changing complexity of leading colleges and universities through their internal and external challenges. Cook and Kim further assert that college campuses have seen growth in diversity relative to the racial and ethnic composition of their faculty, staff and students. However, the racial and ethnic diversity of college and university presidents has seen limited improvement. The racial demographics of colleges increased from 20% to 34% between 1986 and 2011; however, the rate of increase for college presidents was limited, rising from 8% to 13% (Cook & Kim, 2012). The challenges that presidents continue to face range from enrollment decline, pressure to fundraise, declining state support, managing changes in technology and cyber-security, changes in political climate and connecting with the diverse groups of internal and external constituents (Cook & Kim, 2012).

Assessing the salience of the faculty and president relationship, Fleming (2010) observed college and university presidential comportment, appropriate and unsuitable, from the perspective of faculty, noting that faculty control member behavior through the use of norms. Using a sampling of faculty senate members from American institutions, Fleming found that "normative patterns" embraced by faculty members exist for college and university presidents. The norms are not only imbued within the confines of the professoriate, but also infused within an institution's administrative ethos (Fleming, 2010). The results also revealed that standardized constructions control multiple behaviors of the president. For instance, a president's transmittal of information to institutional communities and compliance of institutional procedures are monitored. Moreover, the findings indicate that a president's financial guardianship is examined along with his/her vision and comprehension of the institution and overall morality (Fleming, 2010).

Based on the findings, Fleming (2010) recommends that institutions develop clear presidential expectations and reorganize the presidential selection process where illumination of presidential expectations and apprehensions about institutional well-being are presented. Fleming also recommends that institutions develop a curriculum for

presidents just as they do for faculty so that presidents are then socialized to the homogeneous constructs that govern their profession. In terms of study limitations, Fleming concedes the scarcity of faculty of color participation (gender and race) in the study, and believes that a perspective from faculty of color would provide broader clarification on evolving normative patterns in the context of race and gender. As well, the study did not examine assessments of other institutional consistencies outside of the professoriate, and did not explore presidents' perspectives and appraisals of their own behavior. Overall, Fleming asserts that college and university presidents are not the exclusive decision-makers of institutions, and that their efficacy is often contingent upon the trust and assistance of institutional constituents, primarily the faculty. This trust underpins presidents' leadership capacity (Fleming, 2010).

Gregorian (2005) was asked by the American Council on Education to provide perspectives on leadership challenges in education. Observing that more Americans work in higher education than in the car, steel, and textiles industries, Gregorian says that shielding diversity is one of the paramount challenges in higher education. He further asserts that solutions are varied and complex and necessitate critical analysis, logical thought, intellectual audacity, and persistent consultation. Other prominent challenges that must and can be met comprise preserving academic liberty, providing academic rationality in the information revolution, facing fiscal challenges, staying competitive with the international communities, and fixing the K-12 educational system (Gregorian, 2005). Similarly, Springer (2003) states that all presidents face challenges regardless of their degree or how they "fit" into an institution, and that diversity and tolerance, finances, physical facilities, faculty/staff salaries, and the well-being of students are all tests that presidents encounter.

Gregorian (2005) believes that to be effective, institutional presidents must understand the challenges and be cognizant of their institution's history and advancement, knowledgeable of the colleges and departments, and informed of the prevailing governmental policies. Further, presidents must understand their predecessor's accomplishments, the current financial standing of the institution, and accreditation data (Gregorian, 2005). In terms of interaction with institutional constituents, the president must develop a relationship with the faculty and become familiar with them (Gregorian, 2005), comparable to Fleming's (2010) findings on the salience of the president/faculty relationship. A president's acknowledgement and interactions with the staff and students is necessary to recognize and manage their aspirations (Gregorian, 2005). University presidents encounter two cultures: 1) academic, comprised of faculty, staff, and students, and 2) corporate, comprised of trustees and alumni (Gregorian, 2005). According to Gregorian, it is best practice to reconcile both relationships for the well-being of the institution.

Using extant data from the American Council of Education Survey of American College Presidents, Monks (2012) examined turnover rates for college and university presidents from 2001–2006. Analysis of the data showed that probabilities of departure for presidents of public institutions increased by 50% as compared to presidents of private institutions. Monks says that presidents of public institutions depart to accept positions at other institutions likely due to a "lack of earnings growth" as compared to presidents of private institutions. The higher salaries and salary increases for presidents at private institutions generate an advantage for private institutions to recruit and retain presidents. Monks cautions that if public institutions are powerless to compete with private institutions in terms of presidential compensation, such could result in a "brain drain" from the public

to the private sector. Furthermore, Monks believes that institutions that disregard this relevant problem might find themselves spending more money as a result of consistent recruiting and turnover. Monks concedes that many believe that presidential compensation is exorbitant; nevertheless, he admonishes institutions of the probability that they will lose their presidents to competitors that are prepared to compensate presidents a salary proportionate to the competition.

Presidential Search Process

A larger portion of university and college presidents are Baby Boomers, and because of impending retirement, institutions must recruit presidential candidates with divergent and contemporary perspectives, and those who are sufficiently cognizant of the current challenges in higher education (Skinner, 2010). While institutions must recruit candidates that meet leadership requirements for their specific intuitional mission, conditions, and location, all institutions should seek leaders who possess fundamental capabilities (Skinner, 2010).

First, Skinner (2010) postulates that campus leaders must possess "strategic resource management" skills that fortify intentional approaches to managing budgets and controlling costs. Skinner also posits the salience of accountability, since oftentimes campus leaders are required to prove to stakeholders that their fiscal needs are essential and congruent with performance. Skinner further notes that working cooperatively and within a collaborative structure with other educational entities (secondary and postsecondary) to promote readiness among high school students, to eliminate duplicate and competing programs at postsecondary institutions, and to ensure graduates have the compulsory skills that employers need is essential. Today, higher education necessitates skilled communicators; thus, committees should seek potential campus leaders that exhibit

the ability, via past and current experiences, to communicate with and engage both internal and external constituents (Skinner, 2010).

Moreover, Skinner (2010) contends that committees should search for campus leaders and presidents who have experience collaborating with international constituencies and developing international enterprises. Further, Skinner insists that committees must assess candidates who reveal some indication that they can work effectively with institutional boards; thus, a president's communication, openness, and overall relationship with a board is vital to the presidency. Today, higher education demands leaders who can navigate skillfully through the complexity of challenges and stakeholders (Skinner, 2010).

Employing a Delphi methodology, Plinske and Packard (2010) observed the leadership qualities, characteristics, and experiences of presidential candidates desired by a board at Illinois Community College in a time when presidential leadership is changing. Community colleges meet the distinct needs of students within their local communities and provide affordable and accessible education to students of divergent ethnicities, ages, cultures, and socio-economic statuses; as such, a board's criteria for presidential selection are useful for other institutions and for those wishing to become a community college president (Plinske & Packard, 2010). The researchers used the following three questions to guide their study: 1) What characteristics are critical for future community college presidents to exhibit? 2) What competencies are critical for future community college presidents to demonstrate? 3) What professional experiences are critical for future community college presidents to possess? (Plinske & Packard, 2010, p. 4).

Plinske and Packard (2010) found that passion for education, dependability, energy, and remaining calm under pressure ranked the highest among desired characteristics. Top preferred competencies comprised capacity to form trust, comprehension of accounting and fiscal issues, and community college funding. Among desired professional experiences, senior management/administrative experience, political environment experience, past employment at a reputable institution, and past experience as a senior administrator at a community college were the highest desired (Plinske & Packard, 2010). Based on their findings, the researchers posit that because of their significance within the higher education system and their strength to overarching economic development, community colleges must be positioned to successfully fill their presidential positions to preserve their life (Plinske & Packard, 2010).

Presidential Leadership

In an illuminating discussion about the fluctuating demands of presidential leadership, Ikenberry (2010) says that the presidency has changed in the last several decades, and although essential facets remain, presidents must embody a vision, have the capacity to make tough decisions, communicate effectually, and build bridges with internal and external constituencies. Unlike decades ago, notes Ikenberry, technology plays a critical role in the presidency, and the bulk of communication strains require a president's time and responsiveness. Through technology, more people are informed and in a shorter period of time, which means that a president's decision might result in swifter reaction, requiring a president to be cognizant of institutional image and reputation in print media and online (Ikenberry, 2010). Presidents run the risk of being involved with concerns that do not require or necessitate their contribution if they do not prioritize their time (Ikenberry, 2010).

Ikenberry (2010) highlights the changes in institutional environments. As a former president beginning in 1979, Ikenberry notes that decades ago institutional environments operated during a period of development and growth of diversity, access to education, and

an increase in research and scholarship programs. Now, he says, institutional environments are formidable and abstruse, and the survival of communities is contingent upon "highperforming colleges and universities." Meeting the expectations of academic quality and student performance presents challenges for presidents and institutional governing boards attributable to decreased endowments, major fiscal cuts, and increased tuition (Ikenberry, 2010).

Leadership, the most significant component of the presidency, has not changed, and continues to be a "core competency" of an operative presidency (Ikenberry, 2010). Ikenberry considers three broad dimensions of presidential leadership. First, through effective leadership, presidents must clearly communicate institutional mission and work collaboratively with others to realize the vision so that institutional identity is clear. Second, presidents are the embodiment or the "living logos" of the institution in exterior arenas, relaying institutional mission and vision to constituents. Most demanding is the third aspect of presidential leadership, which necessitates presidents to fuse distinct worlds of institutional objectives and operations with environmental restraints (Ikenberry, 2010). Such implores presidents to solicit both advice and guidance from the governing board and lead on two fronts: 1) lead change to help the campus community accept environmental realities in the midst of institutional mission and vision, and 2) work with the governing board to influence public policy and attitudes, increase alumni giving, and improve sustainability (Ikenberry, 2010). In this sense, leading during transformation has been and continues to be a salient responsibility for university presidents. With the challenges facing institutions, presidential leadership will be tested (Ikenberry, 2010).

Hornak and Garza Mitchell (2016) conducted an in-depth examination of the thought practices of presidents at community colleges to comprehend how they make

decisions and to observe the presidents' idiosyncratic moralities. The researchers interviewed 13 community college presidents at institutions in a mid-Western state and found that the presidents approached decision-making in a variety of ways. The results bared that institutional mission directed the presidents' decision-making, though the presidents' subjective understanding of the mission was framed by their individual decision-making styles and ethics. The findings indicate that newer presidents preferred to use a participatory style of decision-making in contrast to the conventional presidents who employed a vertical approach, as they believed that they were sufficiently knowledgeable and possessed the intellectual capacity to make decisions for the college. The data also revealed an affiliation between value alliance and institutional fit, and the presidents conceded to the salience of fit and decision-making effectiveness (Hornak & Garza Mitchell, 2016).

In addition, Hornak and Garza Mitchell (2016) found that the following four themes emanated from the study: 1) balancing resources, values, and mission, 2) presidential leadership, 3) difficult decisions, and 4) values and personal decisions. The presidents' decisions concerned fiscal matters, enrollment, and programs offered, and they depended on their intrinsic value structures to convey hard decisions. Further, the presidents' leadership styles influenced the varied decision-making processes. Also, of the presidents interviewed, three implemented an authoritarian leadership style and viewed decision-making as a "management tool" devoid of emotion or teamwork. However, the researchers note that the majority of the presidents implemented shared processes when making high-stakes and strategic decisions (Hornak & Garza Mitchell, 2016).

Moreover, Hornak and Garza Mitchell (2016) found that presidents who had held their positions for at least 5 years expressed ease when making decisions that were unpopular, controversial, and difficult. The researchers noted that all presidents indicated that their personal morals influenced their decision-making proportionate to institutional resources, employees, community matters, and student achievement. Quintessentially, the results revealed that the most noteworthy impact on the presidents' decision-making derived from their independent approach to making decisions, their understanding of institutional mission, and their guiding principles (Hornak & Garza Mitchell, 2016).

African-Americans in Higher Education

Cross (2010) says that the prohibition of African Americans in higher education in the middle and latter period in the 20th century was ultimately deemed indefensible. Later, to reconcile the educational hindrances, progressive entities that controlled the government instituted affirmative action policies (Cross, 2010). Regarding racial issues today, the politics lean to the right, which has resulted in institutions being viewed as racially insensitive. Thus, Cross says that deans, presidents, and administrators are searching profusely for African-American professors and students. As a result, African-American faculty are obtaining tenure-track appointments and obtaining high-level leadership positions, as institutions want to ensure a reputation of acceptance (Cross, 2010).

Karanja and Austin (2014) used extant data from the National Center for Education Statistics (Aud et al., 2011) for the 2005–2009 academic years. Resources to enhance access to higher education and raise graduation rates for low socio-economic African-American students have seen an increase among institutions and government entities; however, African Americans still comprise a lesser proportion of the U.S. workforce (Karanja & Austin, 2014). Because many African Americans desire to improve their earning status by attending college, the researchers sought to determine if the college degrees they primarily pursue are proportionate to the economic environment and job

market fluctuations. Therefore, the researchers examined fields of study that are likely to produce jobs. The findings revealed that African-American females graduate at a higher rate than African-American males, with the females earning degrees in the social sciences and business and the males earning degrees in STEM-related majors (e.g., engineering and computer science). Based on these findings, the researchers note that men select fields of study that comprise high-paying and less laborious jobs. Consequently, the researchers say that if African Americans wish to improve their economic plight, they must pursue and obtain degrees with a greater return on investment, such as degrees in STEM and STEMrelated majors. The deficiency of African-American graduates in these fields and majors poses a threat to the progress of African Americans in STEM industries and to the longterm socio-economic standing of the African-American community overall (Karanja & Austin, 2014).

Observing from the perspective of Critical Race Theory, Harper, Patton, and Wooden (2009) analyzed significant and reformist strides concerning access and equity in higher education for African-American students. The researchers note that racial matters have reemerged in most stages in American education, and based their analysis on the notion that, historically, African Americans were considered intellectually inferior and therefore undeserving of a higher education. This notion stemmed from the overarching and entrenched societal views about African Americans. The researchers illuminate some much needed attention to policy issues that include affirmative action, access, enrollment drops, unequal funding, and forced desegregation at historically black colleges and universities. Further, they concede that while progress has been made from an historical viewpoint, new policy efforts are needed to resolve insistent problems. The significant advancement has been seen concerning African Americans' access to higher education,

and the analysis lays bare the need to guarantee fairness and increase involvement (Harper et al., 2009).

Madyun, Williams, McGee, and Milner (2013) argue for the increase in faculty from diverse backgrounds to assist college and university students develop intercultural *competence*, which they define as "people's ability to communicate and function across varying cultures" (p. 65). As faculty of color, Madyun et al. explicate how they believe their presence at predominantly white institutions heightens the intercultural competency of students. They posit that students in higher education be presented with opportunities to increase intercultural competence and illuminate how faculty of color could contribute. To explain the role of faculty of color in the development of intercultural competence for students of divergent racial and ethnic makeups, Madyun et al. discuss self-authorship and cultural capital—two theoretical paradigms that they contend are suitable diagnostic tools. The researchers site Kegan (1994) who created the phrase *self-authorship* in the context of student development in higher education, and illumine how students analyze external views and compare them to their own idiosyncratic beliefs. From Kegan's definition, Madyun et al. say that one can determine from Kegan's theory that inner identity is controlled by one's philosophies, morals, attitude, and deeds.

In addition to self-authorship, Madyun et al. (2013) believe that *cultural capital*, "an individual's ability to advantage himself or herself in a given context" (p. 71), impacts intercultural competency development. They assert that faculty of color are able to give back to their campuses and to classrooms because of the cultural capital they have amassed from experiences of being former African-American students who experienced life on predominantly white campuses. Further, they assert that faculty of color in the classroom present opportunities for all students to cultivate intercultural competence and recommend that postsecondary institutions actively recruit faculty of color (Madyun et al., 2013).

Sutton and Kimbrough (2001) studied African-American student participation in traditional campus organizations at predominantly white institutions (PWI) to determine co-curricular experience for black student participants and non-participants in historically Black Greek letter organizations at PWIs. Involvement in Black Greek letter organizations is important to leadership development and social identity for African-American students. Sutton and Kimbrough cite the utilization of the Student Involvement and Leadership Scale (SILS) by Kimbrough, which is a tool to assess student involvement in various groups on and off campus. People who worked in Student Activities and Greek Affairs distributed the surveys. A total of 989 surveys were given to African-American students at PWIs and historically Black institutions. The final number of surveys returned was 405, which constituted a 41% return rate. Of this number, 96% were able to be analyzed (Sutton & Kimbrough, 2001, p. 34).

According to Sutton and Kimbrough (2001), on campus, 85% of students view themselves as leaders, while only 49.5% actually held any campus organizational leadership positions. The percentage of those involved in student government and orientation was 17%. The percentage of those who served as resident advisors was 11% and 10% were members of the residential hall governing system. Multicultural student organizations were found to be the main source of co-curricular participation for African-American students. Of the students surveyed, 79% who attended PWIs were members of the campus NAACP or the campus black student governing organization. The grade point average for students in Greek organizations was higher (M = 3.03, M = 2.86) than that of non-Greek students. Females comprised 62.3% of the students involved in the study

(Sutton & Kimbrough, 2001, p. 34). Students attending PWIs participated in more "black student groups," and students at historically Black institutions were more likely to participate in student government, orientation leaders, or ambassadors' activities. Academic and honor societies also had more participation from students on historically Black institutions (Sutton & Kimbrough, 2001, p. 35). The researchers concluded that African-American students viewed leadership differently than other ethnic groups. Their participation in structured student organizations did not define their perception of themselves as leaders. They viewed their service to others as a more definitive characteristic of leadership than the attainment of an officer position in a student organization (Sutton & Kimbrough, 2001, p. 36).

The researchers suggest three areas for future study and work relative to black student involvement in campus groups on PWIs: (a) focusing on increasing black student participation in student government, (b) achieving "racial parity" in the recruitment and hiring of support staff, and (c) creating bridges to "traditional campus organizations" through partnerships and collaborative efforts with existing black student organizations (Sutton & Kimbrough, 2001, p. 38).

Arminio et al. (2000) conducted a three-year qualitative study of student involvement in "leadership development programs" at two separate universities. The research included students from a middle-sized public university and a large public university. The study was done to assess low participation rates in leadership development programs compared to that of white student participation rates. The researchers' purpose was to determine if leadership programs were consistent with value orientations and leadership experiences for students of color and to identify methods for improvement (Arminio et al., 2000).

The researchers performed 106 interviews at both institutions, and the proportion of students was as follows: 22 African-American women, 12 African-American men, 18 Asian-American women, 25 Asian-American men, 12 Latinas, and 17 Latinos; all were college students age 18–21. International students were excluded from the research (Arminio et al., 2000, p. 499).

Eight major themes became apparent from the research of Arminio et al., 2000: the leader label, personal cost of leadership, role models, involvement in same-race groups, predominantly white groups, multiracial groups, group orientation, and the intersection of gender differences. These factors emphasized the incongruent traits concerning the leadership experience of students of color and the typical principles of leadership.

Results of the study were limited to the two institutions that participated in the research. The Arminio et al. (2000) study also did not expose contradictions in life experiences and value orientation that existed in the literature relative to leadership. Arminio et al. determined that student leaders of color were not being reaffirmed in established research on leadership, and that leadership training programs are designed to illuminate the importance of collaboration, but policies concerning student activities at colleges and universities do not promote collaboration. There are a limited number of identifiable role models for students of color to engage and interact with on campus, and the importance of racial identity must be considered when trying to understand student choices for student organization membership and participation (Arminio et al., 2000, pp. 500-505). Further study was suggested relative to how diverse cultures identify and express their needs (Arminio et al., 2000, p. 506).

Harper and Quaye (2007) studied African-American male racial identity related to involvement in student organizations. Specifically, they looked at how participation in

student organizations enabled opportunities for "Black identity expression and development" for African-American male student leaders (p. 127). This qualitative study consisted of personal interviews with high achieving undergraduate African-American male student leaders from the University of Illinois, Indiana University, University of Michigan, Michigan State University, The Ohio State University, and Purdue University, all of which are PWIs. For this phenomenological study, the researchers explored the environment that exists on PWIs for African-American student leaders and the criteria those students employed in their selection of student organization membership, the co-curricular activities, and the factors that affected the growth and outward presentation of their racial identities. Administrators from each of the six campuses were requested to identify African-American male students who had at least a 3.0 GPA on a 4.0 scale and a record of "leadership and involvement" in various organizations and campus activities. Students selected for the study were also well respected by faculty, staff, and students on campus.

The sample size of the Harper and Quaye (2007) study included 32 students in their sophomore to senior year, 12 from single-parent homes and the rest had both parents in the household, and over \$489,000 in "merit-based scholarships had been awarded to the participants, and of them, 72% had plans for graduate study" (p. 132). None of those who participated in the study were student-athletes. The students participated in a 2- to 3-hour personal interview with two follow-up interviews via telephone. A semi-structured interview style was utilized that allowed the students to reflect on the issues they found to be most important concerning their involvement on campus (Holstein & Gubrium, as cited in Harper & Quaye, 2007, p. 133). Attention to credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability was taken to ensure the "trustworthiness and quality assurance of the

study" (Guba, as cited in Harper & Quaye, 2007, p. 133).

The Harper and Quaye (2007) research yielded two major findings. First, participants related that by working with diverse populations they developed enhanced leadership and cooperative skill sets and gained a better understanding and value for diversity, which they viewed to be a benefit to African-American and other underrepresented communities. Second, the researchers cited the negotiation of "access" and motivation factors that encourage White students to provide opportunities for African-American students in their "clubs and organizations as topics worthy of additional study" (pp. 141-142). Despite efforts by the researchers to ensure the trustworthiness of the study, they indicated that selection bias, limited transferability, and the absence of an inventory or instrument to quantify racial identity attitudes were limitations.

HBCUs

Joseph (2013) sought to ascertain the effect that historically black colleges and universities (HBCUs) have on African-American doctoral students, and found that due to racism, discrimination, and segregation, African Americans (freed slaves early on) were required to attend HBCUs until the early 1960s when schools were desegregated. Today, African Americans continue to attend HBCUs to obtain undergraduate and graduate degrees especially in STEM fields. Joseph examined the organizational culture at HBCUs and focused on distinctive features of their educational settings that underwrite success among students of color. Joseph specifically wanted to observe the influence of the environments on students who plan to pursue a doctoral degree in the STEM fields, and notes that students who attend HBCUs are more likely to obtain a doctoral degree. In the inquiry of HBCU environments, Joseph found that HBCUs embolden students to pursue a doctoral degree, actually offer doctoral degrees, and are vehicles of social capital because they underline the benefits to African-American education, the community, and society.

Similar to Madyun et al. (2013), Joseph (2013) illuminates the role of faculty in students' academic and social success, and believes that the interaction encourages social group involvement and participation in organizations and student government. As well, formation of peer relationships also supports community and social engagement. Observing the organizational environments of HBCUs and their success in educating students of color, Joseph argues that having access is insufficient; rather, postsecondary institutions should ponder the core curriculum experiences of students of color and the impact of those experiences on their academic success. The distinct environments of HBCUs serve as exemplars from which other types of institutions can learn (Joseph, 2013).

African-American Presidential Leadership

Jackson and Harris (2007) observed the experiences and perceptions of obstacles to college and university presidents among 43 African-American female presidents and sought to explore the strategies implemented to conquer those obstacles. The researchers illuminated gate-keeping, the glass ceilings, myths, lack of networking, and organizational barriers among the hindrances faced by women in higher education. Using descriptive inquiry, the researchers surveyed 43 African-American female presidents. The finding indicated that exclusion from network opportunities posed the greatest impediment to the presidency. The findings also showed that the presidents believed that a lack of academic preparation and absence of career advancement planning were additional obstructions for ascent to the presidency. Furthermore, stereotypes and biased notions about females and casual recruiting efforts also emerged as barriers. Though the glass ceiling was

acknowledged, the presidents indicated that the ceiling was not a deterrent in their rise to the presidency.

Further, concerning approaches used to secure a presidency, the presidents in the study revealed that staying visible, surpassing job expectations, cultivating leadership capacity external to education, and being mentored were strategies they implemented to become a president (Jackson & Harris, 2007). The researchers underscore that though African-American female presidents are making advancements, they are still in the minority. Notwithstanding, the prominence of female underrepresented leaders invite change to the observance of leadership in colleges and universities and illuminate methods to circumnavigate the obstacles of gender and race for future generations (Jackson & Harris, 2007).

Using a qualitative meta-synthesis process, Wolfe and Dilworth (2015) studied historical and current research about diversity leadership theory with respect to African-American administrators at predominantly white institutions. The retrievable inquiry comprised over 500 works of articles, research papers, books, and reports about higher education African-American administrators spanning 1965 to 2014. The researchers observed the leadership inequality of African Americans and other administrators of color through a Critical Race Theory perspective, and examined the cultural framework by which predominantly white institutions occur, originate, and function at the crossing of group relations. Through an historical motif of exclusion in higher education, the researchers found that the label *administrator* is deemed "whiteness property." Consequently, the preservation of incongruence between African-American and Caucasian administrators remains a structural norm in higher education (Wolfe & Dilworth, 2015). The researchers postulate that perception and inclusion of underrepresented groups must

advise stakeholders and must be evident in the recruiting and retention efforts in high education administration. An increase in diverse leadership in institutions necessitates an embracing of "cultural pluralism and multiculturalism" (Wolfe & Dilworth, 2015).

Empirical Studies

Cannon (2003) studied the desired leadership attribute of technical college presidents in Georgia as perceived by the current presidents, the board of directors, and their vice presidents. Canon wanted to establish a ranked listing of desired leadership attributes and to determine if a correlation exists between those desired leadership attributes and the demographics of gender, college size, and position held in the university system. Cannon used the LAI survey instrument developed by Moss and Johansen (1991) and distributed it to 402 respondents, with 219 instruments collected that provided a descriptive overview of the participants surveyed. Ten significant differences based on gender were found in the study. Five leadership attributes were identified as having statistically significant differences based on position as it related to vice-presidents and board members. One of the recommendations for future research was to examine cultural differences in leadership perception. Cannon addressed the following research questions:

- 1. What are the desirable leadership attributes of a president of a Georgia technical college as determined through the Leader Attributes Inventory?
- 2. Are the ratings and ranking of the desired leadership attributes of a technical college president independent of the following demographics and experience, gender, size of the technical college, and technical college position?

Vice-presidents and university board members have the most input, direct access, and influence to future presidential vacancies. The local board of directors is responsible for the hiring process of future presidents. Vice presidents typically fill most presidential vacancies within the Georgia technical college system. This study could be useful for curriculum in leadership programs, screening of potential presidential candidates, and developing leadership programs to prepare future presidential candidates (Cannon, 2003).

The methodology section found in chapter three gives a detailed account of how the population was identified for the study. The research study utilized a quantitative methodology. Data for the study utilized the LAI survey instrument, which was developed by Moss and others and revised to its current version in 1994 (Moss & Johansen, 1991; Moss, Lambrecht, & Jensrud., 1994). The population response from the presidents was enhanced because the researcher was able to distribute the survey during a monthly meeting of the Georgia Department of Technical and Adult Education Presidents' Council. This resulted in surveys of presidents, vice presidents, and the board of directors for each participating college in the Georgia technical colleges system. The participants were requested to self-report on 37 desirable perceived leadership attributes contained in the survey. The return rate was 29 surveys out of 32 distributed. Surveys were mailed to 240 local boards of directors and 130 vice presidents. This resulted in 93 board member surveys and 88 vice president surveys returned for a total of 219 surveys out of 402 respondent survey instruments returned. This resulted in a 91% return rate for presidents, 41% return rate for local board members, and 71% return rate for vice presidents. The total response rate for the study was 54% which will exceeds the acceptable response rate (Cannon, 2003).

Statistical tests were conducted using data from respondents to the LAI. The Visionary attribute was determined to have the highest ranking mean and was found to be the most valued attribute. Ten attributes--Adaptable, Visionary, Confident, Personal Integrity, Intelligent, Ethical, Motivating, Networking, Planning and Leadership Style--

were found to have significant difference based on gender. Enthusiastic, Tolerant of Frustration, and Team building were found to have significant differences based on college size (Cannon, 2003). This study was limited to the Georgia technical college system and the results are more associated with the environmental factors in the Georgia technical college system and may not be applicable to other technical college systems in other states or four year public or private institutions (Cannon, 2003).

Mastopoulos (2008) identified self-described leadership attributes of college and university presidents in the University System of Georgia and technical college presidents in the Technical College System of Georgia. Mastopoulos also examined commonalities in the leadership attributes between both groups. The purpose of the study was to identify the self-described leadership attributes of college or university presidents in Georgia to determine similarities and differences after 10 years of "status realignments" (Mastopoulos, 2008). Mastopoulos developed the following sub questions to address the overarching question:

- 1. What are the major self-described leadership attributes of presidents of public colleges or universities in the State of Georgia?
- 2. What are the major self-described leadership attributes of public technical college presidents in the State of Georgia?
- To what extent do the self-described leadership attributes of public college and university presidents and public technical college presidents in the State of Georgia overlap? (p.15)

Data for the study were collected using the LAI survey instrument developed by Moss and Johansen (1991) that was distributed to all of the presidents in the University of Georgia System. A survey was mailed to the respondents with an email preceding the survey mailing. A letter thanking the respondents and a reminder letter to non-responding presidents in the population followed this. The population for the study consisted of the 35 college and university presidents in the University System of Georgia and the 33 presidents of the technical colleges in the Technical College System of Georgia, for a total population of 68 presidents. The researcher's goal was to attain a 51% response rate. The actual response rate received was 59% or 40 respondents, which exceeded the target response rate (Mastopoulos, 2008). The research study utilized a quantitative methodology using SPSS Version 15.0 as an analysis tool. Similar to the Cannon (2003) study, data for this study came from the LAI survey instrument, which was developed by Moss and others and revised to its current version in 1994 (Moss & Johansen, 1991; Moss et al., 1994).

No statistically significant differences in leadership attributes identified by college or university presidents and technical college presidents were found (Mastopoulos, 2008). Of the 40 surveys returned, 19 (47.5%) were from technical college presidents and 21 (52.5%) were from college or university presidents. The only demographic questions asked were the size and type of the institution. Respondents from institutions with fewer than 5,000 students made up 20 (50.8%) of the results. Respondents with an enrollment of 5,000 or more made up 14 (41.2%) of the results. Six respondents did not indicate their school enrollment size (Mastopoulos, 2008). The top 25 attributes for all respondents were as follows: committed to the common good, accountable, ethical, visionary, and energetic with stamina, personal integrity, dependable/reliable, enthusiastic/optimistic, and willing to accept responsibility (Mastopoulos, 2008).

Overlap was found in seven of the top 25% of leadership attributes with coaching being statistically significant at the 0.05 level when associated with institutional size and not institutional type. For colleges or universities with less than 5,000 students enrolled,

coaching was found descriptive of presidents at a higher rate than institutions with more than 5,000 students enrolled. "Committed to the Common Good" was the attribute that had the highest overall mean score (5.90) among all respondents (Mastopoulos, 2008). Based on analysis of variance, there was no statistical difference between leadership attributes of college or university presidents and technical college presidents.

Mastopoulos (2008) noted the limitation of sample size. The population size of 68 college and university or technical college presidents was small, which necessitated a higher response rate to validate the study. While the response rate of (40) 59% was higher that the desired 51%, the population size still exists as a limitation. McKenzie (2010) examined the perceived leadership attributes of presidents in South Carolina's Technical College System. Participants in the study were 16 presidents and 80 subordinates selected by the presidents. The researcher used the LAI survey instrument developed by Moss and Johansen (1991). The survey participants identified and ranked the desired presidential leadership attributes for their respective institution (McKenzie, 2010). The purpose of the study had four components: (a) examine self-perceptions of leadership attributes by South Carolina Technical College presidents, (b) examine the observed perceptions of possessed leadership attributes by South Carolina Technical College presidents as observed by directreport subordinates selected by the presidents, (c) examine similarities or differences between the presidents' self-perceptions and the observed perceptions of the presidents by their selected direct-report subordinates, and (d) determine the top 10 leadership attributes in rank order, necessary for further presidents as perceived by both the presidents and their selected subordinates (McKenzie, 2010).

The study hypothesizes that there is a statistically significant difference between the presidents of the South Carolina Technical College system and their self-perceived leadership attributes relative to the subordinates' observed leadership attributes processed by the presidents. McKenzie (2010) addressed the following eight questions of primary research:

- To what degree do the SC Technical College presidents perceive they possess each attribute of leadership using Moss' [sic] 37 different attributes contained on the Leader Attributes Inventory Self Rating form?
- 2) To what degree do the subordinate observers perceive that the SC Technical
 College presidents possess each attribute of leadership when using Moss' [sic]
 37 different attributes on the Leader Attributes Inventory Observer Rating form?
- 3) Are the technical college presidents' self-perceptions of their leadership attributes consistent with the perceptions of those attributes by the subordinate observers? What are the mean differences between the two perceptions?
- 4) What are the mean differences between the self and observer perceptions of SC Technical College presidents' using Moss's Leader Attributes Inventory when clustered into the groups of "Management Skills," "Personal Characteristics," and "Social Skills and Characteristics"?
- 5) Using the Leadership Effectiveness responses, what is the perceived leadership effectiveness of the SC Technical College presidents by their chosen observers/subordinates?
- 6) Using Moss' [sic] 37 attributes, what were the top 10 selections of leadership skills needed in future leadership of South Carolina Technical College presidents as perceived by current presidents?
- Using Moss's 37 attributes, what were the top 10 selections of leadership skills 39

needed in future leadership of South Carolina Technical College presidents as perceived by selected observers/subordinates?

8) What are the differences between future leadership attribute needs as reported by the rankings of both the presidents and chosen observers? How do the two rankings compare to one another in future presidential attribute needs? (pp.10-11).

McKenzie (2010) utilized a quantitative methodology using the LAI survey instrument developed by Moss and Johansen (1991). The survey was quantitative and descriptive in nature, and the instrument consisted of 37 questions using a Likert Type scale and a number of descriptive questions to give the researcher a "snapshot of data" about the population. The population consisted of the 16 technical college presidents in South Carolina and 80 direct-report subordinates selected by the presidents to observe their leadership attributes. Each president was asked to select 5 direct-reports such as vice presidents, deans, directors or department heads, to complete a survey identifying observed leadership attributes by the president (McKenzie, 2010). The LAI instrument used for the study was developed by Moss, Johansen, and Preskill in 1991 and updated by Moss et al. in 1994. The presidents were asked to provide their gender, ethnicity, age, years of experience in higher education, years of experience in current role as president or CEO and prior position before their appointment as president as descriptive information (McKenzie, 2010).

McKenzie (2010) wanted to do a point-in-time assessment, which the LAI is used to measure, and obtained contact information from the Commission on Higher Education website and sent an email outlining the survey and requesting their support for the study. A survey packet consisting of one presidential packet and five observer packets was subsequently mailed to each president. The packets contained instructions on how to administer and return the survey. A descriptive and inferential statistical analysis was conducted of the resulting data.

McKenzie (2010) sought to determine the self-perceptions of possessed leadership attributes held by the presidents as compared to the perceptions of direct-report subordinates observed perceptions of the president's leadership attributes. The findings from the study did not indicate a significant difference between the self-perceptions of the presidents and the observed perceptions of their selected subordinates (McKenzie, 2010). Surveys were sent to 16 presidents and 11 responded. One survey was not usable, which resulted in a 62.5% (10 of 16) response rate for the presidents. Only 39 subordinate observer packets were returned for a response rate of 48.75%. Of all respondents 90% (n =9) were male and 10% (n = 1) were female. All respondents reported their ethnicity as Caucasian. Age was divided in two categories: 50-59 (n = 5) and 60-69 (n = 5). Seven of the 10 responding presidents had over 28 or more years of experience in higher education (McKenzie, 2010). Of the subordinate observers, gender was evenly divided at 19 respectively. African-American respondents were 23% (n = 9) and Caucasian respondents totaled 77% (n = 33) (McKenzie, 2010). The experience level in higher education was 29% (n = 11) with less than 10 years, 21% (n = 8) with 10 to 21 years, and 51% (n = 20) with more than 22 years of experience (McKenzie, 2010). The data analysis did not produce enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis with no statistically significant differences existing between the presidents' perceptions and the subordinate observers' perceptions relative to the LAI attributes (McKenzie, 2010). The three clustered groups of Management Skills, Personal Characteristics, and Social Skills and Characteristics did not demonstrate enough data to reject the null hypothesis with the largest difference in mean

being in the category of Managerial Skills at .148 (McKenzie, 2010).

McKenzie's (2010) study was limited to only 16 two-year colleges within the Technical College System in South Carolina, and was limited to leadership attributes perceived to be possessed and displayed by those only in the position of president. Observations were limited to those that were direct reports to the president and selected by the president being rated (McKenzie, 2010). The study was cross-sectional, a single survey instrumentation was administered with no follow-up survey conducted for comparison; therefore, the data only reflected what was occurring at the time the survey was administered (McKenzie, 2010).

In two studies, the researchers focused on Technical College presidents in Georgia and South Carolina respectively (Cannon, 2003; McKenzie, 2010). Cannon (2003) surveyed the technical college presidents, board of directors, and their vice presidents to access their perceptions of the president's leadership attributes. McKenzie (2010) surveyed technical college presidents to assess their perceived leadership attributes. Mastopoulos (2008) identified self-described leadership attributes of college and university presidents in the University System of Georgia and technical presidents in the Technical College System of Georgia, finding commonalities between both systems. All three researchers (Cannon, 2003; Mastopoulos, 2008; McKenzie, 2010) used the LAI instrument developed by Moss and Johansen (1991).

In all three empirical studies, the researchers addressed common themes relative to college and university presidents' leadership self-perceptions. Each researcher (Cannon, 2003; Mastopoulos, 2008; McKenzie, 2010) also addressed attributes necessary for success at the presidents' level as perceived by the survey respondents. All three researchers (Cannon, 2003; Mastopoulos, 2008; McKenzie, 2010) employed a quantitative

methodology, used the LAI and surveys mailed to the respondents for their sample groups, and conducted quantitative analysis based on the data collected. Mastopoulos (2008) utilized SPSS Version 15.0 as the analysis tool.

Cannon (2003), Mastopoulos (2008), and McKenzie (2010) identified their population through institutions that were members of their college and technical college systems. All three studies included specific demographic criteria for the selection of the sample groups based on personal and professional characteristics, such as gender, race, institution type, educational level. Two researchers (Cannon, 2003; McKenzie, 2010) also surveyed observers to access the perceived presidential leadership attributes. Cannon (2003) included board members and vice presidents in their population sample. McKenzie (2010) included "direct report" subordinates that were selected by the presidents responding to the survey.

Cannon (2003) found 10 significant differences based on gender and found five leadership attributes statistically significant based on the position as reported by vicepresidents and board members. Mastopoulos (2008) found no significant differences in perceived leadership attributes reported by college or university presidents and technical college presidents. The McKenzie (2010) study did not reveal a significant difference between the self-perceptions of the presidents and their selected observer perceptions.

All three researchers addressed various limitations for each study such as population size, survey results limited to the environment within the respective college or university and technical college state systems. No follow-up survey was conducted for comparison (Cannon, 2003; Mastopoulos, 2008; McKenzie, 2010).

Summary

The studies in this review of the literature highlight how social identity theory and

leadership development can be incorporated into the curricular and co-curricular processes of African-American students to increase retention and college success for leadership program participants, to understand better the relationship between social identity and leadership development, to determine the effectiveness of support services relative to leadership development, and to enhance positive social identity development in academic and leadership program participants. Increased success of African-American college students could attribute to an increase in the number of students entering the pipeline to the presidency.

The potential utility of this literature review could be to obtain an increased knowledge of what leadership attributes search committees and governing boards should incorporate in their search processes to assist in the development of professional opportunities for potential presidential prospects coming through the academic pipeline in the future, specifically leadership development programs for mid-level and senior administrators. An increase in the success of mid- to senior-level college administrators and faculty could lead to an increase in the pool of candidates entering the pipeline to the presidency.

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study was threefold: (a) access the self-perceptions of desirable leadership attributes by African-American college and university presidents as it pertains to Moss's 37 attributes identified in his Leader Attributes Inventory (LAI), (b) examine through statistical analysis associations present between the related socio-demographic factors, institutional characteristics, and the 37 attributes of African-American presidents, and (c) determine the top 5 leadership attributes needed for future African-American presidential leadership as perceived by the responding presidents. Specifically, the research examined the self-perceptions of these desirable leadership attributes pertaining to the 37 attributes identified in the LAI (Moss et al., 1994). The central research question embodies this work: How do African-American college and university presidents perceive effective leadership attributes?

The remainder of this chapter covers the following primary topics: Empirical Research Questions, Research Design, Population and Sample, Instrumentation, Description of the Variables, Procedures/Data Collection, Analysis Plan, Validity and Reliability, and Ethical Issues. The Chapter concludes with a Summary.

Empirical Research Questions

The following empirical research questions, focused explicitly on the Moss et al. (1994) LAI, are consistent with the logic model for the study as depicted in Figure 1. Both are repeated here for the convenience of the reader.

From the perspective of African-American college and university presidents:

 To what extent do the socio-demographic factors of gender, age, institution location, institutional Carnegie Classification, degree of residential students 45 and size of enrollment relate to the 37 attributes identified in the Leader Attributes Inventory?

2. What are the top five leadership attributes deemed necessary for success as determined through the Leader Attributes Inventory

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables
Personal and Institutional Demographics	Leadership Attributes
Socio-Demographic Factors Gender	Leader Attributes Inventory
Age	➤ Top Five Essential
Institutional Characteristics	Attributes
Position Prior to Presidency	
Time in Prior Position	
Time in Current Position	
Location	
Size	
Carnegie Classification	

Figure 1. Logic Model for relationships between socio-demographic factors and the Leader Attributes Inventory

Research Design

This research was a quantitative study that used a descriptive survey with

correlational design. Surveys are the prominent medium employed by researchers utilizing

the self-report methodology (Gay, 1996). Surveys are an effective means to gather

descriptive and opinion related data and can be efficient and reliable in identifying

individual values and beliefs (Creswell, 2012). The two basic types of surveys are cross-

sectional and longitudinal. Cross-sectional surveys allow researchers to collect information during a specific "point in time" (Creswell, 2012). This study employed the LAI as a cross-sectional survey to access African-American presidents' current perceptions of leadership.

Wang and Fan (1998) recommends six criteria for survey research:

- 1. A clearly specified population;
- 2. An explicitly stated unit of analysis;
- 3. A specification of determining a desired sample size;
- 4. An informative description of the selection procedures;
- 5. A description of response rate and non-response treatment; and
- 6. Demonstration of appropriate estimation procedures. (p. 3)

This study meets all of the above criteria for survey research and explored the phenomena relative to the limited number of African Americans in the pipeline for college and university presidencies with the individual as the unit of analysis. The survey design promoted the desired response rate and minimized "item nonresponse," because of the limited number of African-American college and university presidents. The LAI survey instrument has been used in previous research studies (Cannon, 2003; Mastopoulos, 2008; McKenzie, 2010). A clear description of the sample selection of at least 60 respondents was identified as a goal of the study.

Population and Sample

The population consisted of African-American college and university presidents in the United States compiled by the researcher from various sources publically available online, such as the American Council on Education, Association of Colleges and Universities, National Association of Independent Colleges and Universities, Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges, and the National Association of Historically Black Colleges & Universities Title III Administrators. African-American presidents serving in acting or interim positions were considered a president in the study. The population of African-American college and university presidents is over 185 potential respondents.

The population included community college, public and private four-year institutions and Historically Black colleges and Universities (HBCUs) to address estimation procedures (Wang & Fan, 1998). A census of the population was conducted. The sample consisted of the set of volunteer responses from the census.

Instrumentation

According to Moss et al. (1994, p. 1), the LAI identifies desirable leadership skills. The LAI instrument was the product of a six-year study, across seven institutions in various states, funded by the National Center for Research in Vocational Education (NCRVE). The study was conducted to produce a "diagnostic assessment" of 37 attributes--characteristics, knowledge, skills, and values possessed by individuals—that predispose successful performance as a leader in vocational education. While the instrument created by Moss et al. (1994) contains a self-rating and observer-rating component, for the purposes of this study only the 37 question self-rating component of one item per attribute were used, as the focus of this study was on perceptions of effective leadership attributes by existing African-American college and university presidents at public and private institutions. The researcher received permission from Dr. Jerome Moss, Jr., via email to use the LAI survey instrument to complete the study (see Appendix A).

Survey Development

The African-American Presidents' Leadership Survey (AAPLS) for the study included both the LAI and selected socio-demographic factors. The AAPLS is included 48 (see Appendix E). The questions in the LAI and the socio-demographic section represent the variables in the study and are described in this section.

The AAPLS instrument consisted of two parts. Part I, Personal and Professional Inventory, requested demographic information. Part II consisted of the LAI, which utilizes a Likert-type format on a 6-point scale, and *very undescriptive* to *very descriptive* to rate the 37 attributes for their importance to a successful college university president. This part of the survey also asked respondents to list their priority and ranking of the top five essential traits. The respondents were required to rank the attributes in descending order from 1 to 5, with 1 being the most essential and 5 being the 5th most essential attribute.

Description of the Variables

The independent variables for this study were organized by two types—Socio-Demographics and Institutional Characteristics. Dependent variables were contained within the LAI and the associated top five essential attributes identified by the respondents.

Independent Variables

Socio-Demographic Factors. As identified in Figure 1, the socio-demographic factors of gender, age, and education reflect the personal identity of the respondents. These operational definitions are modeled on or taken directly from Lynes (2008, pp. 490-494).

Gender (GEN). Nominal level, coded, 1 = female, 2 = male from Part I of AAPLS, Personal and Institutional Demographics, SQ1.

Age (AGE). Ordinal level in age ranges coded 1 = 25-34, 2 = 35-44, 3 = 45-54, 4 = 55-64, 5 = 65-74, 6 = 75 or older, from Part I of AAPLS, SQ2.

Education (EDUC). Nominal level, coded 1 = Bachelors, 2 = Masters, 3 = Doctorate, 4 = Professional (Law Degree), 5 = Medical Degree (MD), from part I of AAPLS, SQ3.

Institutional Characteristics. The position prior to presidency, years of experience in prior position, years of experience in current position, years of experience working in higher education, Carnegie Classification, institution type, institution geographical location, degree of residential students and percentage of fulltime enrollment, and the institution size, reflect the institutional characteristics associated with each respondent.

Position Prior to Presidency (PPP). Nominal level, coded 1= Vice-President/Provost, 2 = Vice-President Student Affairs, 3 = Vice Chancellor, 4 = Associate/Assistant Vice-President, 5 = Dean, 6 = Director, 7 = Department Head, 8 = Other Internal Position, 9 = Other External Position, from Part I of AAPLS, SQ4.

Years of Experience in Prior Position (YEXPPP). Ratio level recorded as actual years in position, from Part I of AAPLS, SQ5.

Years of Experience in Current Position as President (YEXPCPP). Ratio level recorded as actual years in position, from Part I of AAPLS, SQ6.

Years of Experience Working in Higher Education (YEXPWHE). Ratio level recorded as actual years in higher education, from Part I of AAPLS, SQ7.

Carnegie Classification (CARNEGIE). Nominal Level, coded 1 = Associates College (Community College), 2 = Baccalaureate College, 3 = Baccalaureate College/Associate's College, 4 = Master's College University, 5 = Doctorate Granting University, 6 = Special Focus Institution 2 year, 7 = Special Focus Institution 4 year, 8 = Tribal College, from Part I of AAPLS, SQ8.

Institution Type (IT). Nominal level, coded 1 = Public Research, 2 = Public

Master's, 3 = Public Bachelor's, 4 = Public Associate's, 5 = Private Nonprofit Research, 6

= Private Nonprofit Master's, 7 = Private Nonprofit Bachelor's, from Part I of AAPLS,

SQ9.

Geographic Location (GEOLOC). Nominal level coded 1 = Urban, 2 = Suburban, 3 = Rural, from Part I of AAPLS, SQ10.

Degree of Residential Students (DRESSTUD). Nominal level coded 1 = Primarily nonresidential (NR) 25% or less degree seeking 50% enrolled fulltime, 2 = Primarily residential (R) 25% live on campus but less than 80% attend fulltime, 3 = Highly residential (HR) 50% live on campus and 80% attend fulltime, from Part I of AAPLS, SQ11.

Size of Institution Two Year (SIZETY). Nominal level coded 1 = < 499, 2 = 500-

1,999, 3 = 2,000-4,999, 4 = 5,000-9,999 5 = 10,000+, from Part I of AAPLS, SQ12.

Size of Institution Four Year (SIZEFY) Nominal level coded 1 = < 1,000, 2 =

1,000-2,999, 3 = 3,000-9,999, 4 = 10,000+, from Part I of AAPLS, SQ13.

Dependent Variables

The dependent variables are divided into two areas: LAI and the top five essential attributes identified by the respondents.

Leader Attributes Inventory. This instrument is designed to assess

descriptiveness for successful college university presidents of the 37 leadership attributes as rated by the African-American sample of presidents (Moss et al., 1994). The listing of attributes constitutes 37 separate dependent variables, defined operationally as follows:

Leader Attributes Inventory: 37 constructs, each rated on the same 6-point Likerttype response:

1 = Very Undescriptive

2 =Undescriptive

3 = Somewhat Undescriptive

- 4 = Somewhat Descriptive
- 5 = Descriptive
- 6 = Very Descriptive
- Energetic with stamina Approaches tasks with great energy and works long hours when necessary.
- Insightful Reflects on the relationship among events and grasps the meaning of complex issues quickly.
- 3. Adaptable, open to change Encourages and accepts suggestions and constructive criticism from co-workers, and is willing to consider modifying plans.
- Visionary Looks to the future and creates new ways in which the organization can prosper.
- 5. Tolerant of ambiguity and complexity -- Comfortably handles vague and difficult situations where there is no simple answer or no prescribed method of proceeding.
- Achievement-oriented -- Shows commitment to achieving goals and strives to keep improving performance.
- 7. Accountable -- Holds self-answerable for work and willingly admits mistakes.
- 8. Initiating -- Frequently introduces new ideas.
- Confident, accepting of self -- Appears secure about abilities and recognizes personal shortcomings.
- 10. Willing to accept responsibility -- Willing to assume high level duties and functions within the organization.
- 11. Persistent -- Continues to act on beliefs despite unexpected difficulties.
- 12. Enthusiastic, optimistic -- Thinks positively, approaches new tasks with excitement, and deals with challenges as opportunities.

- 13. Tolerant of frustration -- Acts calmly and patiently even when things do not go as planned.
- 14. Dependable, reliable -- Can be counted on to follow through to get the job done.
- 15. Courageous, risk-taker -- Willingly tries new ideas in spite of possible loss or failure.
- 16. Even disposition -- Displays a sense of humor and a stable temperament even in stressful situations.
- 17. Committed to the common good -- Works to benefit the entire organization, not just self.
- 18. Personal integrity -- Speaks frankly and honestly and practices espoused values.
- 19. Intelligent with practical judgement -- Learns quickly, and knows how and when to apply knowledge.
- 20. Ethical -- Acts consistently with principles of fairness and right or good conduct that can stand the test of close public scrutiny.
- 21. Communication (listening, oral, written) -- Listens closely to people at work, and organizes and clearly presents information both orally and in writing.
- 22. Sensitivity, respect -- Shows genuine concern for the feelings of others and regard for them as individuals.
- 23. Motivating others -- Creates an environment in which people want to do their best.
- 24. Networking -- Develops cooperative relationships within and outside of the organization.
- 25. Planning -- In collaboration with others, develop tactics and strategies for achieving organizational objectives.
- 26. Delegating -- Appropriately and effectively assigns responsibility and authority.

- 27. Organizing -- Establishes effective and efficient procedures for getting work done in an orderly manner.
- 28. Team building -- Facilitates the development of cohesiveness and cooperation among people at work.
- 29. Coaching -- Helps people develop knowledge and skills for their work assignments.
- Managing conflicts -- Brings conflict into the open and uses it to arrive at constructive solutions.
- 31. Time Management -- Schedules own work activities so that deadlines are met and work goals are accomplished in a timely manner.
- 32. Stress management -- Effectively deals with the tension of high pressure work situations
- Appropriate use of leadership roles -- Uses a variety of approaches to influence and lead others.
- 34. Ideological beliefs are appropriate to the group -- Models and demonstrates belief in the basic values of the organization.
- 35. Decision-making -- Makes timely decisions that are in the best interest of the organization by analyzing all available information, distilling key points, and drawing relevant conclusions.
- 36. Problem-solving -- Effectively identifies, analyzes, and resolves difficulties and uncertainties at work.
- 37. Information management -- Identifies, collects, organizes, and analyzes the essential information needed by the organization.

Top Five Essential Attributes. The top five leadership attributes were selected from the 37 leadership attributes contained in the LAI. Each respondent ranked his/her top

five most essential leadership traits (32 of 37 are *not* marked). The top five were calculated by summing the five rankings across all respondents based on reverse scoring (1 = 5 to 5 = 1). The five items with the highest totals are the five most essential traits.

Procedures/Data Collection

Names of African-American presidents were obtained from various professional academic association membership lists publically available online complied by the researcher (see **Population and Sample**). The contact information was confirmed from their respective websites. The goal was to get as comprehensive a list as possible of the population of African-American college presidents from across institution types. An email explaining the study in detail with the survey link attached was sent to all presidents.

Approval was obtained by the Western Kentucky University Institutional Review Board (IRB) on February 6, 2017 (See Appendix B). The AAPLS was administered utilizing the Qualtrics online survey system. Two emails were sent to presidents: one invitation email message with a link to the survey, and a follow-up email message with a link to the survey reminding recipients about the research and participation (See Appendix D).

Analysis Plan

The summary of the data was reported through narrative description and tables. Statistical analysis of the data was both descriptive and inferential. Analysis was conducted from the data collected using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 24.0.0 and Excel version 2013.

Descriptive statistics were first computed for both independent and dependent variables. The independent variables included the personal and institutional demographics. For the dependent variables (leadership attributes), item characteristics for each separate attribute were calculated. For the Top Five Essential Attributes, the top five attributes (per ranking from each survey) were summed based on their weights (1 = most essential; 5 = 5th most essential). For the computation, the responses were reverse scored (1 = 5 to 5 = 1), because 32 of the 37 attributes are not ranked. Reverse scoring essentially gives a zero weight to the other 35 attributes. Attributes receiving the most weighted support (five highest totals) across the sample identified the five essential leadership attributes.

For the two research questions, inferential analysis (correlations) were calculated between the two types of demographic variables (Personal and Institutional) and the dependent variables--the leadership 37 attributes and each of the top five essential attributes. The specific type of correlation was determined by the scale of measurement for the two variables in each calculation (cf. McMillan & Schumacher, 2010, p. 168). All inferential statistics were tested at the 0.05 level of significance.

Validity and Reliability

An instrument is considered valid if it measures what it states it is designed to measure. In studies utilizing the LAI, respondents indicated that the attributes were consistent with leadership, which denotes a high level of face and content validity (Moss et al., 1994, p. 26). The 37 leadership attributes have shown empirically to be highly related to the conceptualization of leadership (Mastopoulos, 2008, p. 35).

Reliability refers to measurement relative to the consistency of a survey instrument. Reliability can be tested through internal consistency, interrater reliability, and re-test reliability. The LAI has reliability in each of these three methods (Mastopoulos, 2008; Moss et al, 1994). Studies by Moss and Liang (1990) and Moss et al. (1991) have been completed utilizing the LAI with a re-test reliability average correlation coefficient of .97. The internal consistency using Cronbach's alpha rated at .97 and .98 respectively. Interrater reliability for the instrument ranges between .75 and .84 (Mastopoulos, 2008; Moss et al, 1994).

Ethical Issues

Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval from Western Kentucky University (WKU) was required and was received prior to the administration of the survey instrument. IRB procedures at WKU were followed regarding human subjects research (see Appendix B). Confidentiality of the respondents was strictly maintained. In all phases of the study no data identifying the respondents' name, institution, or specific institution location was collected for analysis. Information on the purpose of the study and opt-out procedures were provided during the on-line administration of the survey (see Appendix C).

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine the perceived effectiveness of leadership attributes from the perspective of current African-American college and university presidents in the United States. The study utilized the African-American Presidents' Leadership Survey (AAPLS) which included the Leader Attributes Inventory (LAI) developed by Moss et al., (1994) and a section soliciting respondents' top five leadership attributes. The study also examined the relationship between reported leadership attributes and the personal and institutional demographics of the respondents. Survey instruments were sent to a census of the 185 African-American college and university presidents with an anticipated return of at least 32% (n = 60). These voluntary responses represented the sample. The resulting data was used to complete a descriptive analysis of leadership attribute perceptions for the population of African-American college and university presidents. The central research question summarizes the study's focus: How do African-American college and university presidents perceive their leadership attributes?

CHAPTER IV: RESULTS

For this study, 185 African-American college and university presidents were emailed the African-American Presidents Leadership Survey (AAPLS) using Qualtrics, an online data collection platform. This chapter comprises the results of data analyzed from 65 Leader Attributes Inventory (LAI) survey instruments completed by survey respondents. Of the 70 surveys completed, 65 were determined to be usable. The 65 usable surveys submitted via the Qualtrics online survey platform represent a yield of 35.1%, at the confidence level of 95% and a 10% margin of error. The yield of 35.1% (n = 65) exceeds the minimum target yield of 32% (n = 60).

The data was downloaded in SPSS version 24.0.0 and Excel version 2013 for compilation by the researcher. This chapter is divided into three sections. **Participant Socio-Demographics information**, **Participants Institutional Demographics information**, and **Analysis of Data** from respondents of the LAI related to the research questions and **Summary of Findings**.

Participant Socio-Demographics

The population for the study consisted of 185 African-American college and university presidents within the United States. Of the 185 surveys emailed, 70 were returned and 65 were determined to be usable. Tables 1 and 2 summarize the personal demographic data from the 65 usable responses submitted by presidents on the AAPLS. The data indicates that 40% (n = 26) of the respondents were female and 60% (n = 39) were male. The age distribution of the respondents was as follows: 3.1% (n = 2) were between the ages of 35–44, 38.5% (n = 25) were between the ages of 45–54, 35.4% (n =23) were between the ages of 55–64, and 23.1% were between the ages of 65–74. The highest level of education attained by the respondents was distributed as follows: 87.7% (n = 57) had doctorate degrees, 9.2% (n = 5) had a professional law degree, and 3.1% (n = 2) had a medical degree. Prior to the presidency, 44.6% (n = 29) held the position of Vice President/Provost, 10.8 % (n = 7) held the position of Vice President for Student Affairs, 20% (n = 13) held the position of Vice Chancellor, 7.7% (n = 5) held the position of Associate/Assistant Vice President, 10.8% (n = 7) held a Dean position, 1.5% (n = 1) held the position of Director, 1.5% (n = 1) held an internal position not listed on the survey, and 3.1% (n = 2) held an external position outside the institution. See Table 1.

Table 1

Personal Demographi	ics
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Demographic Category	Frequency	Percent
Gender		
Female	26	40.0%
Male	39	60.0%
Total	65	100.0%
Age		
35-44	2	3.1%
45-54	25	38.5%
55-64	23	35.4%
65-74	15	23.1%
Total	65	100.0%
Education		
Doctorate	57	87.7%
Professional Law	5	9.2%
Medical Degree MD	2	3.1%
Total	65	100.0%
Position Prior to Presidency		
Vice President/Provost	29	44.6%
Vice President Student Affairs	7	10.8%
Vice Chancellor	13	20.0%
Assoc./Assistant Vice President	5	7.7%
Dean	7	10.8%
Director	1	1.5%
Other Internal Position	1	1.5%
Other External Position	2	3.1%
Total	65	100.0%

The average time in the previous position prior to the presidency for all respondents was 9.31 years, and 9.38 years for females compared to 9.26 for males. The average time in the current position of president for all respondents was 5.47 years, 5.31 years for females, and 5.58 years for males. The total years of experience in higher education for all respondents was 27.39 years, 26.81 years for females, and 27.39 years for males as outlined in Table 2.

Table 2

Presidents Average Years of Experience

Average Years of Experience	Female	Male	All
Previous Position	9.38	9.26	9.31
Current Position	5.31	5.58	5.47
Total Experience in Higher Education	26.81	27.79	27.39
Total	26.00	39.00	65.00

Participant Institutional Demographics

Respondents were asked to give their institutional Carnegie Classification, and the

results are as follows: 35.6% (n = 22) reported Associate College (Community College),

18.6% (n = 13) reported Baccalaureate College, 10.8% (n = 7) reported

Baccalaureate/Associate's College, 18.5% (n = 12) reported Master's College and

University, and 16.9% (n = 11) reported doctorate-granting as outlined in Table 3.

Table 3

School Carnegie Classification

School Classification Type	Frequency	Percent
Associate College (Community College)	22	35.6%
Baccalaureate College	13	18.6%
Baccalaureate/Associate's College	7	10.8%
Master's College and University	12	18.5%
Doctorate-Granting	11	16.9%
Total	65	100.0%
	60	

Respondents were asked to give their institution type, and the results are as follows: 6.2% (n = 4) reported Public Research, 6.2% (n = 4) reported Public Master's, 10.8% (n = 7) reported Public Bachelor's, 40% (n = 26) reported Public Associate's, 7.7% (n = 5) reported Private Nonprofit Research, 13.8% (n = 9) reported Private Nonprofit Master's, and 15.4% (n = 10) reported Private Nonprofit Bachelor's and outlined in Table 4.

Table 4

Institution Type

Institution Category	Frequency	Percent
Public Research	4	6.2%
Public Master's	4	6.2%
Public Bachelor's	7	10.8%
Public Associate's	26	40.0%
Private Nonprofit Research	5	7.7%
Private Nonprofit Master's	9	13.8%
Private Nonprofit Bachelor's	10	15.4%
Total	65	100.0%

Respondents were asked to give the type of location where their institution was located, and the results are as follows: 52.3% (n = 34) reported Urban, 33.8% (n = 22) reported Suburban, and 13.8% (n = 9) reported Rural as outlined in Table 5.

Table 5

Institution Location

Location	Frequency	Percent
Urban	34	52.3%
Suburban	22	33.8%
Rural	9	13.8%
Total	65	100.0%

Respondents were asked to report the degree of residential student enrollment at their institution, and the results are as follows: 43.1% (n = 28) reported primarily nonresidential, 6.2% (n = 4) reported primarily residential, and 50.8% reported highly residential as outlined in Table 6.

Table 6

Degree of Residential Student Enrollment

Student Residential Enrollment	Frequency	Percent
Primarily nonresidential (NR) 25% or less degree seeking or 50% enrolled fulltime	28	43.1%
Primarily residential (PR) 25% live on campus but less than 80% attend fulltime	4	6.2%
Highly residential (HR) 50% live on campus and 80% attend fulltime	33	50.8%
Total	65	100.0%

Respondents at two-year schools were asked to give their fall 2015 enrollment, and the results are as follows: 13.8% (n = 9) reported 500–1,999, 12.3% (n = 8) reported 2000–4,999, 1.5% (n = 1) reported 5,000-9,999, and 12.3% (n = 8) reported 10,000 and above as outlined in Table 7. Respondents at four-year institutions reported 20% (n = 13) of 1,000 or less, 10.8% (n = 7) reported 1,000–2,900, 18.5% (n = 12) reported 3,000–9,999, and 10.8% (n = 7) reported 10,000, as outlined in Table 7.

Table 7

Fall 2015 Enrollment

	Frequency	Percent
Two-Year Schools Fall 2015 Enrollment 500-1,999	9	13.8%
2,000-4,999	8	12.3%
5,000-9,999	1	1.5%
10,000+	8	12.3%
Total	26	40.0%
Four-Year Schools Fall 2015 Enrollment <1,000	13	20.0%
1,000-2,900	7	10.8%
3,000-9,999	12	18.5%
10,000	7	10.8%
Total	39	60.0%

The responses to the LAI section of the AAPLS ranged from a high score of 5.80 (Q39 Ethical) to the lowest score of 3.97 (Q49 Coaching). The average rating for all leadership attributes was 5.08 or rating of a "descriptive" trait for a successful president with a standard deviation of .440. Attributes that received a mean score of descriptive or higher were as follows: Insightful, Adaptable, Open to Change, Visionary, Achievement Oriented, Accountable, Confident, Accepting of Self, Dependable, Reliable, Committed to the Common Good, Personal Integrity, Intelligent with Practical Judgement, Ethical, Communication (listening, oral, written), Sensitivity, Respect, Motivating Others, Networking, Delegating, Team Building, Time Management, Stress Management, Appropriate use of Leadership, Decision Making and Problem Solving, as outlined in Table 8.

Table 8

Leader Attributes Means and Standard Deviations

Q#	Leader Attribute	М	SD
Q20	Energetic with Stamina	4.80	.814
Q21	Insightful	5.17	.601
Q22	Adaptable, Open to Change	5.03	.790
Q23	Visionary	5.68	.886
Q24	Tolerant of Ambiguity and Complexity	4.71	.897
Q25	Achievement Oriented	5.57	.612
Q26	Accountable	5.37	.821
Q27	Initiating	4.72	.839
Q28	Confident, Accepting of Self	5.08	.756
Q29	Willing to Accept Responsibility	5.38	.842
Q30	Persistent	4.74	.834
Q31	Enthusiastic, Optimistic	4.94	.834
Q32	Tolerant of Frustration	4.57	.935
Q33	Dependable, Reliable	5.23	.656
Q34	Courageous, Risk-Taker	4.37	1.024
Q35	Even Disposition	4.74	.871
Q36	Committed to the Common Good	5.74	.538
Q37	Personal Integrity	5.66	.735
Q38	Intelligent with Practical Judgement	5.12	.801
Q39	Ethical	5.80	.617
Q40	Communication (listening, oral, written)	5.25	.771
Q41	Sensitivity, Respect	5.12	.801
Q42	Motivating Others	5.34	.815
Q43	Networking	5.38	.784
Q44	Planning	4.94	.788
Q45	Delegating	5.23	.915
Q46	Organizing	4.60	.680
Q47	Ideological Beliefs are appropriate to the	4.63	.762
Q48	Team Building	5.32	.793
Q49	Coaching	3.97	1.199
Q50	Managing Conflicts	4.65	.909
Q51	Time Management	4.62	.878
Q52	Stress Management	5.45	.867
Q53	Appropriate use of Leadership	5.69	.727
Q54	Decision Making	5.62	.764
Q55	Problem Solving	5.15	.939
Q56	Information Management	4.48	.903

The research questions were addressed using the following descriptive statistics to summarize and analyze the response data and inferential statistics from *t*-tests to conduct a comparison of means. SPSS version 24.0.0 and Excel version 2013 were the two statistical software programs used to analyze the data for this study. The following Central Research Question directed this study: How do African-American college and university presidents perceive their leadership attributes?

Data from the respondents was used to address the empirical research questions below.

From the perspective of African-American college and university presidents:

- To what extent do the socio-demographic factors of gender, age, institution location, institutional Carnegie Classification, degree of residential students and size of enrollment relate to the 37 attributes identified in the Leader Attributes Inventory?
- 2. What are the top five leadership attributes deemed necessary for success as determined through the Leader Attributes Inventory?

Analysis of Data

Through both descriptive and inferential methods, the subsequent sections encompass analysis of responses by presidents on the LAI section of the AAPLS.

An independent samples *t*-test was conducted to compare means to assess if there were any differences in the presidents' perceptions of leadership attributes based on gender. Table 9 outlines the mean scores of each leadership attribute based on gender. The results of the *t*-test revealed no statistically significant difference at the 0.05 level of significance between male and female respondents.

Table 9

Means, Standard Deviations, and t-test Results of LAI based on Gender

#	Attribute	Gender	Ν	М	SD	t	Sig.
1	Energetic with Stamina	Female	26	4.88	.816	.681	.498
		Male	39	4.74	.818		
2	Insightful	Female	26	5.23	.430	.671	.505
		Male	39	5.13	.695		
3	Adaptable, Open to Change	Female	26	5.04	.720	.064	.949
		Male	39	5.03	.843		
4	Visionary	Female	26	5.62	1.098	454	.651
		Male	39	5.72	.724		
5	Tolerant of Ambiguity	Female	26	4.77	.815	.449	.655
		Male	39	4.67	.955		
6	Achievement Oriented	Female	26	5.54	.582	329	.743
		Male	39	5.59	.637		
7	Accountable	Female	26	5.38	.752	.122	.903
		Male	39	5.36	.873		
8	Initiating	Female	26	4.73	.827	.060	.952
		Male	39	4.72	.857		
9	Confident, Accepting of Self	Female	26	5.15	.732	.667	.507
		Male	39	5.03	.778		
10	Willing to Accept	Female	26	5.23	1.070	-1.207	.232
	Responsibility	Male	39	5.49	.644		
11	Persistent	Female	26	4.77	.587	.241	.810
		Male	39	4.72	.972		
12	Enthusiastic, Optimistic	Female	26	4.92	.744	122	.904
		Male	39	4.95	.887		
13	Tolerant of Frustration	Female	26	4.42	.809	-1.030	.307
		Male	39	4.67	.1.009		
14	Dependable, Reliable	Female	26	5.23	.430	.000	1.00
	•	Male	39	5.23	.777		
15	Courageous, Risk Taker	Female	26	4.12	.864	-1.653	.103
	-	Male	39	4.54	1.097		
16	Even Disposition	Female	26	4.65	.797	637	.527
	-	Male	39	4.97	.923		
17	Committed to the Common	Female	26	5.69	.471	561	.577
	Good	Male	39	5.77	.583		
18	Personal Integrity	Female	26	5.69	.471	.274	.785
		Male	39	5.64	.873		
19	Intelligent with Practical	Female	26	5.08	.875	377	.707
-	Judgement	Male	39	5.15	.402		

Table 10 (continued)

#	Attribute	Gender	Ν	М	SD	t	Sig.
20	Ethical	Female	26	5.81	.402	.081	.935
		Male	39	5.79	.732		
21	Communication	Female	26	5.38	.571	1.186	.240
	(Listening, Oral, Written)	Male	39	50.15	.875		
22	Sensitivity, Respect	Female	26	5.62	.653	063	.950
		Male	39	5.72	.894		
23	Motivating Others	Female	26	5.31	.618	247	.806
		Male	39	5.36	.932		
24	Networking	Female	26	5.31	.736	643	.523
		Male	39	5.44	.821		
25	Planning	Female	26	4.73	.724	-1.763	.083
		Male	39	5.08	.807		
26	Delegating	Female	26	5.27	1.151	.275	.784
		Male	39	5.21	.732		
27	Organizing	Female	26	4.50	.648	967	.337
		Male	39	4.67	.701		
28	Ideological Beliefs are	Female	26	4.54	.761	795	.429
	appropriate to the group	Male	39	4.69	.766		
29	Team Building	Female	26	5.19	.634	-1.088	.281
	_	Male	39	5.41	.880		
30	Coaching	Female	26	3.69	.970	-1.537	.129
	-	Male	39	4.15	1.309		
31	Managing Conflicts	Female	26	4.42	.578	-1.637	.107
		Male	39	4.79	1.056		
32	Time Management	Female	26	4.50	.707	863	.391
	-	Male	39	4.69	.977		
33	Stress Management	Female	26	5.46	.706	.116	.908
	C	Male	39	5.44	.968		
34	Appropriate use of	Female	26	5.69	.618	.000	1.000
	Leadership Roles	Male	39	5.69	.800		
35	Decision Making	Female	26	5.65	.485	.329	.743
	č	Male	39	5.59	.910		
36	Problem Solving	Female	26	5.15	.732	.000	1.000
	<u> </u>	Male	39	5.15	.1.065		
37	Information Management	Female	26	4.31	.736	-1.238	.220
	C	Male	39	4.59	.993		

There were no other statistically significant differences at or below the 0.05 level between respondents of the LAI based on gender, education, position prior to the presidency, years of experience, school type, or location. One-way ANOVA and post hoc Tukey tests were conducted to compare the means of the participants' responses to the LAI by age. The analysis was based on the following age categories: 35–44, 45–54, 55–64, 65–74 and 75 and above. The leadership attributes of Energetic with Stamina and Ideological Beliefs were found to be statistically significant at the 0.05 level as presented in Table 10.

The mean responses to Energetic with Stamina were lowest for presidents between the 33–44 age group (M = 3.00, SD = .000), followed by presidents in the 45–54 age group (M = 4.76, SD = .926), followed by presidents in the 55–64 age group (M = 4.83, SD = .576) with the mean being highest in the 65–74 age group (M = 5.07, SD = .704). A one-way between-subjects ANOVA found significant differences between the participants responses to the LAI based on age, F(3, 61) = 4.442, p = .007. A post hoc Tukey test indicated significant differences between the 35–64 age group (MD = -1.826, p = .009), and 65–74 age group (MD = -2.067, p = .003). No statistically significant differences were found between the 45–54, 55–64, 55–64, and 65–74 age groups. These results suggest that older African-American presidents place more value in showing energy with stamina and working long hours than their younger counterparts. However, it should be noted that this difference is significant only between the 35–44 and 65–74 age groups. See Table 10.

The mean responses to Ideological Beliefs were the lowest for presidents between 45– 54 age group (M = 4.44, SD = .762) followed by presidents in the 34–44 age group (M = 4.50, SD = 707), and followed by presidents in the 55–64 age group (M = 4.52, SD = .730). The mean was highest in the 65–74 age group (M = 5.13, SD = .640). The one-way betweensubjects ANOVA found significant differences between the participants F(3, 61) = 3.168, p =.031. A post hoc Tukey test showed significant differences between the 45–54 age group and the 65–74 age group (MD = -.693, p = .024). No statistically significant differences were found between the 35–44, 55–64, and 55–64 age groups. The results suggest that African-American presidents in the 45–54 age group place a lower value on matching their ideological beliefs with that of their institution. See Table 10. There were no other statistical differences between respondents of the LAI based on age.

Table 11

Attribute		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Energetic with Stamina	Between Groups	7.602	3	2.534	4.442	.007*
	Within Groups	34.798	61	.570		
	Total	42.400	64			
Ideological Beliefs	Between Groups	5.006	3	1.669	3.168	.031*
	Within Groups	32.132	61	.527		
	Total	42.400	64			

ANOVA Between Groups by Age

**p* < 0.05

There were no other statistically significant differences at or below the 0.05 level between respondents of the LAI based on gender, education, position prior to the presidency, years of experience, school type, or location.

One-way ANOVA and post hoc Tukey tests were conducted to compare the means of the participants' responses to the LAI by Carnegie Classification. The analysis was based on the following categories: Associates College (Community College), Baccalaureate College, Baccalaureate/Associate's College, Master's College and University, and Doctorate Granting University. The leadership attribute of Sensitivity, Respect was found to be statistically significant at the 0.05 level and is outlined in Table 11. The mean responses to Sensitivity and Respect were lowest for African-American presidents at Baccalaureate Colleges (M = 4.62, SD = .650), followed by African-American presidents at Baccalaureate/Associate's Colleges (M = 4.86, SD = .690), followed by African-American presidents at Associate Colleges (M = 5.09, SD = .610), and followed by African-American presidents at Master's Colleges and Universities (M = 5.33, SD = 1.155). African-American presidents at Doctoral-Granting Universities (M = 5.73, SD = .467) showed the highest mean. A one-way between-subjects ANOVA found significant differences between the participant responses to the LAI based on Carnegie Classification, F(4, 60) = 3.872, p = .007. See Table 11.

A post hoc Tukey test showed significant differences between African-American presidents at Baccalaureate Colleges and Doctoral-Granting Institutions (MD = -1.112, p = .004). No statistically significant differences were found between Associate Colleges, Baccalaureate/Associate's Colleges, and Master's Colleges and Universities related to Carnegie Classification. The results suggest that African-American presidents at Doctoral-Granting institutions value the importance of Sensitivity and Respect related to their leadership in comparison to their counterparts. There were no other statistical differences between respondents of the LAI based on Carnegie Classification.

Table 12

		Sum of	df	Mean		
Attribute		Squares		Square	F	Sig.
Sensitivity, Respect	Between Groups	8.415	4	2.104	3.872	.007*
	Within Groups	32.601	60	.543		
	Total	41.014	64			

ANOVA Between Groups by Carnegie Classification

**p* < 0.05

One-way ANOVA and post hoc Tukey tests were conducted to compare the means of the participants' responses to the LAI by degree of residential students (DRESSTUD) at the 0.05 level. The analysis was based on the following age categories: Primarily nonresidential (NR), Primarily residential (R), and Highly residential (HR). The following 18 leadership attributes of Tolerant of Ambiguity and Complexity, Accountable, Initiating, Confident, Accepting of Self, Persistent, Even Disposition, Personal Integrity, Ethical, Communication, Networking, Planning, Ideological Beliefs, Team Building, Managing Conflicts, Time Management, Stress Management, Appropriate use of Leadership Roles, and Decision Making were found to be statistically significant at the 0.05 level. See Tables 12 and 13.

Post hoc multiple comparisons from the Tukey test are presented in Table 13. In the attribute Tolerant of Ambiguity and Complexity, the lowest mean was R (M = 4.00, SD = 1.414), followed by HR (M = 4.55, SD = .754), with the highest mean in the NR category (M = 5.00, SD = .754). While the attribute Tolerant of Ambiguity and Complexity was found to be statistically significant, the post hoc Tukey test did not indicate a statistically significant difference between DRESSTUD. This limitation could be attributed to the post hoc test's examination of multiple combinations of variables and responses known to dilute the strength of the test (Gay, 1996). The researcher also ran the Bonferroni post hoc test for this attribute, which yielded the same results.

The mean response to the attribute Accountable was lowest for R (M = 3.75, SD = 1.258), followed by HR (M = 5.39, SD = .747), with the highest mean being R (M = 5.57, SD = .573). The post hoc Tukey test revealed significant difference between NR and R (MD = 1.821, p < .000), and R and HR (MD = 1.644, p < .000). See Table 13.

The mean response to the attribute Initiating was the lowest for R (M = 3.50, SD = 1.291), followed by HR (M = 4.79, SD = .740), with the highest mean in the NR category (M = 4.82, SD = .772). The post hoc Tukey test showed a significant difference between NR and R (MD = 1.321, p = .007), HR and R (MD = 1.288, p = .008). See Table 13.

The mean response to the attribute Confident, Accepting of Self was the lowest for R (M = 4.25, SD = 1.500), followed by NR (M = 5.00, SD = .667), with HR (M = 5.24, SD = .663) having the highest mean. The post hoc Tukey test showed a significant difference between HR and R (MD = .992, p = .033). See Table 13.

The mean response to the attribute Persistent was the lowest for R (M = 3.75, SD = .957), followed by HR (M = 4.61, SD = .827), with NR (M = 5.04, SD = .744) having the highest mean. The post hoc Tukey test showed a significant difference between NR and R (MD = 1.286, p = .008). See Table 13.

The mean response to the attribute Even Disposition was the lowest for R (M = 3.75, SD = 1.258), followed by HR (M = 4.73, SD = .801), with NR (M = 4.89, SD = .832 having the highest mean. The post hoc Tukey test showed a significant difference between NR and R (MD = 1.143, p = .036). See Table 13.

The mean response to the attribute Personal Integrity was the lowest for R (M = 4.25, SD = 2.062), followed by HR (M = 5.70, SD = .529), with NR (M = 5.82, SD = .390) having the highest mean. The post hoc Tukey test showed a significant difference between NR and R (MD = 1.571, p < .001) and HR and R (MD = 1.447, p < .001). See Table 13.

The mean response to the attribute Ethical was the lowest for R (M = 5.00, SD = 2.00), followed by HR (M = 5.85, SD = .442) with NR (M = 5.86, SD = .801) having the highest mean. The post hoc Tukey test showed significant difference between NR and R (MD = .857, p = .023) and HR and NR (MD = -.009, p = .998). See Table 13.

The mean response to the attribute Communication was the lowest for R (M = 3.75, SD = 1.893), followed by HR (M = 5.27, SD = .574), with NR (M = 5.43, SD = .504) having the highest mean. The post hoc Tukey test showed significant difference between NR and R (MD = 1.679, p < .001) and R and HR (MD = -1.523, p < .001). See Table 13.

The mean response to the attribute Networking was the lowest for R (M = 4.25, SD = 1.70) followed by NR (M = 5.32, SD = .723) with HR (M = 5.58, SD = .561) having the highest mean. The post hoc Tukey test showed a significant difference between NR and R (MD = 1.071, p = .021) and R and HR (MD = -1.326, p = .003). See Table 13.

The mean response to the attribute Planning was the lowest for R (M = 3.75, SD = 1.258), followed by HR (M = 4.88, SD = .696), with NR (M = 5.18, SD = .670) having the highest mean. The post hoc Tukey test showed a significant difference between NR and R (MD = 1.429, p = .001) and R and HR (MD = -1.129, p = .012). See Table 13.

The mean response to the attribute Ideological Beliefs was the lowest for R (M = 4.00, SD = .816), followed by HR (M = 4.52, SD = .762), with NR (M = 4.86, SD = .651) having the highest mean. While the attribute Ideological Beliefs was found to be statistically significant, the post hoc Tukey test did not indicate a statistically significant difference between DRESSTUD. See Table 13.

The mean response to the attribute Team Building was the lowest for R (M = 4.25, SD = 1.708), followed by HR (M = 5.30, SD = .793), with NR (M = 5.50, SD = .638) having the highest mean. The post hoc Tukey test showed a significant difference between NR and R (MD = 1.250, p = .008) and R and HR (MD = -1.053, p = .027). See Table 13.

The mean response to the attribute Stress Management was the lowest for R (M = 4.00, SD = 2.160), followed by NR (M = 5.43, SD = .634), with HR (M = 5.64, SD = .653)

having the highest mean. The post hoc Tukey test showed a significant difference between NR and R (MD = 1.429, p = .003), R and HR (MD = -1.636, p = .001). See Table 13.

The mean response to the attribute Appropriate use of Leadership Roles was the lowest for R (M = 4.25, SD = 1.708), followed by NR (M = 5.79, SD = .568) and HR (M = 5.79, SD = .485). The post hoc Tukey test showed a significant difference between NR and R (MD = 1.536, p < .001) and R and HR (MD = -1.538, p < .001). See Table 13.

The mean response to the attribute Decision Making was the lowest for R (M = 4.50, SD = 2.380), followed by NR (M = 5.61, SD = .497), with HR (M = 5.76, SD = .764) having the highest mean. The post hoc Tukey test showed a significant difference between NR and R (MD = 1.107, p = .014) and R and HR (MD = -1.258, p = .004). See Table 13.

The results outlined in Table 12 and Table 13 suggest statistical significance relative to how the participants' responses are affected by one of the three residential categories. There were no other statistical differences between respondents of the LAI based on DRESSTUD.

Table 13

ANOVA Between Groups by Student Residential Enrollment
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Attribute		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Tolerant of Ambiguity	Between Groups	5.264	2	2.632	3.534	.035*
and Complexity	Within Groups	46.182	62	.745		
1 5	Total	51.446	64			
Accountable	Between Groups	11.653	2	5.826	11.473	.000*
	Within Groups	31.486	62	.508		
	Total	43.138	64			
Initiating	Between Groups	6.393	2	3.197	5.131	.009*
-	Within Groups	38.622	62	.623		
	Total	45.015	64			
Confident, Accepting	Between Groups	3.805	2	1.902	3.595	.033*
of Self	Within Groups	32.811	62	.529		
	Total	36.615	64			
Persistent	Between Groups	6.961	2	3.480	5.740	.005*
	Within Group	37.593	62	.606		
	Total	44.554	64			
Even Disposition	Between Groups	4.580	2	2.290	3.229	.046*
	Within Groups	43.974	62	.709		
	Total	48.554	64			
Personal Integrity	Between Groups	8.727	2	4.364	10.475	.000*
	Within Groups	25.827	62	.417		
	Total	34.554	64			
Ethical	Between Groups	2.729	2	1.365	3.904	.025*
	Within Groups	21.671	61	.350		
	Total	24.400	64			
Communication	Between Groups	9.909	2	4.954	10.911	.000*
(Listening, oral, written)	Within Groups	28.153	62	.454		
	Total	38.062	64			
Networking	Between Groups	6.467	2	3.233	6.090	.004*
	Within Groups	32.918	62	.531		
	Total	39.385	64			
Planning	Between Groups	7.382	2	3.691	7.069	.002*
	Within Groups	32.372	62	.522		
	Total	39.754	64			

Table 14 (continued)

		Sum of		Mean		
Attribute		Squares	df	Square	F	Sig.
Ideological Beliefs	Between Groups	3.467	2	1.734	3.192	.048*
C	Within Groups	33.671	62	.543		
	Total	37.138	64			
Team Building	Between Groups	5.496	2	2.748	4.907	.011*
-	Within Groups	34.720	62	.560		
	Total	40.215	64			
Managing Conflicts	Between Groups	6.118	2	3.059	4.057	.022*
	Within Groups	46.744	62	.754		
	Total	52.862	64			
Time Management	Between Groups	4.726	2	2.363	3.280	.044*
-	Within Groups	44.726	62	.720		
	Total	49.385	64			
Stress Management	Between Groups	9.568	2	4.784	7.705	.001*
	Within Groups	38.484	62	.621		
	Total	48.062	64			
Appropriate use of	Between Groups	8.867	2	4.433	11.004	.000*
Leadership Roles	Within Groups	24.979	62	.403		
	Total	33.846	64			
Decision Making	Between Groups	5.645	2	2.823	5.514	.006*
	Within Groups	31.739	62	.512		
	Total	37.385	64			
*m < 0.05						

*p < 0.05

Table 15

Attribute		Residential Type	MD	Sig.
Tolerant of Ambiguity and	Non Residential	Primarily Residential Highly Residential	1.000	.085
Complexity				
	Primarily	Non Residential	-1.000	.085
	Residential	Highly Residential	-545	.461
	Highly	Non Residential	455	.109
	Residential	Primarily Residential	.545	.461
Accountable	Non Residential	Primarily Residential	1.821*	.000
		Highly Residential	.177	.599
	Primarily	Non Residential	-1.821*	.000
	Residential	Highly Residential	-1.644*	.000
	Highly	Non Residential	177	.599
	Residential	Primarily Residential	1.644*	.000
Initiating	Non Residential	Primarily Residential	1.321*	.007
Initiating		Highly Residential	.034	.985
	Primarily	Non Residential	-1.321*	.007
	Residential	Highly Residential	-1.288*	.008
	Highly	Non Residential	034	.985
	Residential	Primarily Residential	1.288	.008
Confident		•		
Confident, Accepting of Self	Non Residential	Primarily Residential Highly Residential	.750 242	.139 .402
Accepting of Sen		•••		
	Primarily	Non Residential	750	.139
	Residential	Highly Residential	992*	.033
	Highly	Non Residential	.242	.402
	Residential	Primarily Residential	.992*	.033
Persistent	Non Residential	Primarily Residential	1.286*	.008
		Highly Residential	.430	.089
	Primarily	Non Residential	-1.286*	.008
	Residential	Highly Residential	856	.103
	Highly	Non Residential	430	.089
	Residential	Primarily Residential	.856	.103

Post hoc Tukey HSD Results for Residential Type

Table 16 (continued)

Attribute		Residential Type	MD	Sig.
Even Disposition	Non Residential	Primarily Residential Highly Residential	1.143* .166	.036 .726
	Primarily Residential	Non Residential Highly Residential	-1.143* 977	.036 .081
	Highly Residential	Non Residential Primarily Residential	166 .977	.726 .081
Personal Integrity	Non Residential	Primarily Residential Highly Residential	1.571* .124	.000 .734
	Primarily Residential	Non Residential Highly Residential	-1.571* -1.447*	.000 .000
	Highly Residential	Non Residential Primarily Residential	124 1.447*	.734 .000
Ethical	Non Residential	Primarily Residential Highly Residential	.857* .009	.023 .998
	Primarily Residential	Non Residential Highly Residential	857* 848*	.023 .023
	Highly Residential	Non Residential Primarily Residential	009 .848	.998 .026
Communication	Non Residential	Primarily Residential Highly Residential	1.679* .156	.000 .642
	Primarily Residential	Non Residential Highly Residential	-1.679* -1.523*	.000 .000
	Highly Residential	Non Residential Primarily Residential	156 1.523*	.642 .000
Networking	Non Residential	Primarily Residential Highly Residential	1.071* 254	.021 .369
	Primarily Residential	Non Residential Highly Residential	-1.071* -1.326*	.021 .003
	Highly Residential	Non Residential Primarily Residential	.254 1.326*	.369 .003
Planning	Non Residential	Primarily Residential Highly Residential	1.429* .300	.001 .247
	Primarily Residential	Non Residential Highly Residential	-1.429* -1.129*	.001 .012
	Highly Residential	Non Residential Primarily Residential	300 1.129*	.247 .012

Table 17	(continued)
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Attribute		Residential Type	MD	Sig.
Ideological	Non Residential	Primarily Residential	.857	.083
Beliefs		Highly Residential	.342	.176
	Primarily	Non Residential	857	.083
	Residential	Highly Residential	515	.389
	Highly	Non Residential	342	.176
	Residential	Primarily Residential	.515	.389
Team Building	Non Residential	Primarily Residential Highly Residential	1.250* .197	.008 .564
	Primarily	Non Residential	-1.250*	.008
	Residential	Highly Residential	-1.053*	.027
	Highly	Non Residential	197	.564
	Residential	Primarily Residential	1.053*	.027
Stress	Non Residential	Primarily Residential	1.429*	.003
Management		Highly Residential	208	.563
	Primarily	Non Residential	-1.429*	.003
	Residential	Highly Residential	-1.636*	.001
	Highly	Non Residential	.208	.563
	Residential	Primarily Residential	1.636*	.001
Appropriate use of Leadership Roles	Non Residential	Primarily Residential Highly Residential	1.536* 002	.000 1.000
	Primarily	Non Residential	-1.536*	.000
	Residential	Highly Residential	-1.538*	.000
	Highly	Non Residential	.002	1.000
	Residential	Primarily Residential	1.538	.000
Decision Making	Non Residential	Primarily Residential Highly Residential	1.107* 150	.014 .693
	Primarily Residential	Non Residential Highly Residential	-1.107* -1.258*	.014 .004
	Highly Residential	Non Residential Primarily Residential	.150 1.258*	.693 .004

Presidents were asked to identify their top five leadership attributes necessary for success as a college or university president. The top five attributes deemed necessary for success rated in order of importance by presidents were Visionary, Ethical, Accountable, Achievement Orientated, and Committed to the Common Good. The top five attributes were also assessed by their level of frequency. See Table 14.

Table 18

Top Five Leadership Attributes

Leader Attribute	М	SD
Ethical	5.80	.617
Committed to the Common Good	5.74	.538
Appropriate use of Leadership Roles	5.69	.727
Visionary	5.68	.886
Personal Integrity	5.66	.735

Summary of Findings

Findings related to the overarching research question and two empirical research questions were presented in this chapter. Descriptive and inferential data analysis was conducted using SPSS version 24.0.0 and Excel version 2013. Mean frequencies of the participants' responses were determined utilizing descriptive statistics. Inferential statistics, such as one way ANOVA and *t*-tests were used to test the differences between group means of the participants' responses. This study employed a significant level lower or equal to 0.05. Questions that showed differences between groups with a level lower or equal to 0.05 were reviewed. The attribute with the highest mean for the African-American college and university presidents was Ethical with a score of 5.8, and the attribute with the lowest mean was Coaching with a score of 3.97.

The leadership attributes of Energetic with Stamina and Ideological Beliefs were found to be statistically significant at the 0.05 level by age. When a comparison of means was conducted, the analysis of the data revealed no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of successful leadership attributes by the presidents who participated in the study based on gender, education, position prior to the presidency, years of experience, school type, or location. The mean score of 5.07 or a descriptive ranking was reported overall by the presidents for all leadership attributes.

The leadership attribute of Sensitivity and Respect was found to be statistically significant at the 0.05 level by Carnegie Classification. The following leadership attributes were statistically significant at the 0.05 level by degree of residential students: (1)Tolerant of Ambiguity and Complexity, (2) Accountable, (3) Initiating, (4) Confident, Accepting of Self, (5) Persistent, (6) Even Disposition, (7) Personal Integrity, (8) Ethical, (9) Communication, (10) Networking, (11) Planning, (12) Ideological Beliefs, (13) Team Building, (14) Managing Conflicts, (15) Time Management, (16) Stress Management, (17) Appropriate use of Leadership Roles, and (18) Decision Making. The top five attributes deemed necessary for success rated in order of importance by presidents were Visionary, Ethical, Accountable, Achievement Orientated, and Committed to the Common Good. The top five attributes reported on the LAI by the presidents in order of their highest mean were Ethical, Committed to the Common Good, Appropriate use of Leadership Roles, Visionary, and Personal Integrity.

CHAPTER V: CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this descriptive research study was designed to assess African-American college and university presidents' perception of successful leadership attributes. Specifically, the study compared personal and institutional demographics to the perceived leadership attributes to determine if any differences existed related to factors of gender, age, institution location, institutional Carnegie Classification, degree of residential students and size of enrollment. The Leader Attributes Inventory (LAI) was incorporated into the African-American Presidents Leadership Survey (AAPLS) developed by the researcher. The population consisted of 185 African-American presidents. This group represented the entire population for the study. Of the 185 surveys distributed via Qualtrics online survey platform, 70 were submitted and 65 were determined to be useable for the study.

Conclusions

Two empirical research questions guided this study:

From the perspective of African-American college and university presidents:

- To what extent do the socio-demographic factors of gender, age, institution location, institutional Carnegie Classification, degree of residential students and size of enrollment relate to the 37 attributes identified in the Leader Attributes Inventory?
- 2. What are the top five leadership attributes deemed necessary for success as determined through the Leader Attributes Inventory?

The conclusions were developed from data analyzed from the responses to the AAPLS.

Empirical Research Question 1

To what extent do the socio-demographic factors of gender, age, institution location, institutional Carnegie Classification, degree of residential students and size of enrollment relate to the 37 attributes identified in the Leader Attributes Inventory?

The researcher found that the attribute with the highest mean for the African-American college and university presidents was Ethical with a score of 5.8, and the attribute with the lowest mean was Coaching with a score of 3.97. All of the attributes other than Coaching averaged a rating of somewhat descriptive and above. Gender, education position prior to the presidency, years of experience, and school type (Carnegie Classification) or location did not show any statistically significant differences at or below the 0.05 level between respondents of the LAI. The leadership attributes of Energetic with Stamina and Ideological Beliefs were found to be statistically significant at the 0.05 level as related to age. The difference was highest between the age group of 33-44 and 65-74, with the age group of 65-74 rating Energetic with Stamina and Ideological Beliefs higher. The results of the study also suggested that African-American presidents at Doctoral-Granting institutions value the importance of sensitivity and respect related to their leadership in comparison to presidents at non Doctoral-Granting institutions.

Of the 37 leadership attributes, the following 18 attributes of Tolerant of Ambiguity and Complexity, Accountable, Initiating, Confident, Accepting of Self, Persistent, Even Disposition, Personal Integrity, Ethical, Communication, Networking, Planning, Ideological Beliefs, Team Building, Managing Conflicts, Time Management, Stress Management, Appropriate use of Leadership Roles, and Decision Making were found to be statistically significant at the 0.05 level for the following categories: Primarily nonresidential (NR), Primarily residential (R), and Highly residential (HR). The

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significance was most prevalent between primarily nonresidential institutions making up 45.31% of the total respondents and highly residential institutions making up 48.44% of the total respondents. Respondents from highly residential institutions rated the aforementioned 18 leadership attributes higher than those responding from primarily nonresidential institutions. This suggests that the number of students who live on campus influences the type of leadership attributes perceived by African-American presidents to be necessary for success.

Empirical Research Question 2

What are the top five leadership attributes deemed necessary for success as determined through the Leader Attributes Inventory?

The top five highest rated attributes reported on the LAI by the presidents in order of their highest mean were Ethical, Committed to the Common Good, Appropriate use of Leadership Roles, Visionary, and Personal Integrity. The top five attributes deemed necessary for success rated in order of importance by presidents were as follows: Visionary, Ethical, Accountable, Achievement Orientated, and Committed to the Common Good. All of the attributes were rated at Descriptive or Very Descriptive by all respondent and the attributes were also rated at similar levels in the Canon (2003), Mastopoulos (2008) and McKenzie (2010) studies. By all accounts, the leadership attributes of Ethical, Personal Integrity, and Accountable have become important leadership attributes for presidents and presidential candidates in the last five years. The literature supports leaders being visionaries, exercising appropriate use of leadership roles, and being committed to the Common Good (Canon, 2003; Mastopoulos, 2008; McKenzie, 2010).

Corresponding to the presidents' top five attributes, researchers who study leadership pronounce the significance of vision, ethics, accountability, achievementorientation, and commitment to the common good necessary for effectual leadership. Kouzes and Posner (2007) say that vision is the power that creates the future for organizations, and they offer five practices for exemplary leadership. One central practice of commendable leadership is that leaders must inspire a shared vision where they seek to change the status quo and create something new and share their vision with followers so that they accept the vision as their own (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). When developing vision, effective leaders are able to imagine positive future results and articulate them to others, and vision impacts how leaders influence followers and how followers respond to their leadership (Northouse, 2012). Bennis and Nanus (2007) say that the art of leadership comes to fruition when leaders understand that they must fuse all information gathered from questions and patterns into a single vision. Within organizations, vision is established by influence, enthusiasm, and dedication to the vision, because it is implemented at the appropriate time for both the organization and its people (Bennis & Nanus, 2007). Vision for the future of an organization must be presented frequently, be merged through policy and decision-making processes, and be continually assessed to determine if modifications are needed based on new circumstances (Bennis & Nanus, 2007). While leaders are the ones who communicate visions and legitimize them, visions must develop from the needs of the organizations they serve (Bennis & Nanus, 2007).

Ethics must be fixed in an organization's dedication to its imbedded principles and identity, and leadership frames offer outlooks on the ethical authority of leaders and ethical obligations of organizations (Bolman & Deal, 2014). In the context of ethics, leaders serve a more profound, influential, and continuing part if they are representations and promoters of excellence, compassionate, fairness, and trust (Bolman & Deal, 2014). Illuminating the relationship between leadership and ethics, Burn's (1978) view of transformational

leadership relied heavily on ethics, and he argued that ethics is requisite to leadership. Within the transformational leadership framework, leaders and followers work to elevate both theirs and the morality of others (Burns, 1978). Ethics are a vital component of leadership because leaders have influence on followers, they have influence on the values of organizations, and they need to involve followers in realizing organizational goals (Northouse, 2016).

Dubois (2006) insisted that accountability begins at the top, and he discussed how 23 college presidents, a statewide governing board, and a CEO created an accountability agenda. Dubois noted that successful college presidents working in conjunction with their boards have the capacity to create accountability plans that, if operative, can describe a compelling future for both their colleges and communities. To exhibit accountability, leaders must set clear and quantifiable goals and be responsible for them. The appropriate goals can outline an accountability agenda and offer an enthralling vision that illuminates the desired future of an organization (Dubois, 2006).

Within the path-goal theory, House and Mitchell (1974) examined four leadership behaviors to include achievement-oriented leadership. Achievement-oriented leadership is exemplified by leaders who urge followers to perform at their peak (House & Mitchell, 1974). Achievement-oriented leaders institute elevated levels of excellence, pursue constant improvement, and display confidence in followers to achieve challenging goals (House & Mitchell, 1974). Inside the theory, achievement-oriented leaders are most effective in environments where followers are charged with performing indistinct tasks, because in such settings, leaders who challenge followers and raise standards assist in fortifying followers' confidence to meet their objectives (House & Mitchell, 1974). In a discussion of leadership principles and the common good, Schuchardt (2006) contended that by challenging conventions, accepting uncertainty, taking risks, and celebrating coincidence, all leaders can improve the common good, operationalize ideas, and thus achieve positive results. Shaker (2016), in a discussion of higher education and the common good, answered a request for colleges and universities and educators to reexamine education in the modern age. Shaker focused on ways in which scholastic initiatives should operate in service to a universal common good, and emphasized that academic personnel needs to be re-envisioned simultaneously while re-examining the systems of education that will guarantee the world and humanity to which we hope. A change in direction approach to higher education might generate discernible results (Shaker, 2016).

Limitations

The study was limited by the small sample size of African-American College and University presidents and by the distribution of respondents across the demographic attributes.

Discussion

The results of this study are consistent with research conducted by Canon (2003), Mastopoulos (2008) and McKenzie (2010), which concluded that the majority of the 37 leadership attributes presented in the LAI were perceived to be descriptive or higher across personal, professional, and institutional demographics. There was consistency across the frequency of responses to the LAI in this study with Coaching (M = 3.97, SD = 1.199) being the only leadership attribute having an average rating below 4 (Somewhat Descriptive). The study found that there were no significant differences in the majority of the perceptions of the leadership attributes related to personal, professional, and

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institutional demographics, which is consistent with the Cannon (2003), Mastopoulos (2008), and McKenzie (2010) studies.

Notable personal and institutional demographic differences this study had with the other three studies were related to the number of residential students enrolled on campus, and more than half of the attributes (18) indicated statistical significance in how African-American presidents view leadership attributes based on the level of students residing on campus. The differences were found between institutions with primarily nonresidential enrollment and institutions with high residential enrollment. The impact that students living on campus have on how presidents lead those institutions was shown to be significant in this study. This suggests that the presence of intergenerational students, particularly millennial and centennial students, have an effect on the perception of leadership styles African-American presidents deem necessary for success. However, future research would be needed to further determine this hypothesis.

As it relates to the top five attributes reported by the comparison of means and frequency, the literature supports the results of this study relative to leaders being visionaries, ethical, having personal integrity, being accountable, exercising appropriate use of leadership roles, and being committed to the common good (Canon, 2003; Cook & Kim, 2012; Kim & Cook, 2013; Mastopoulos, 2008; McKenzie 2010). In the opinion of the researcher, the leadership attributes of Ethical, Personal Integrity, and Accountability have become important leadership attributes for presidents and presidential candidates. The challenges facing presidents in these areas have been documented in academia extensively and in the media over the last decade. This study and similar studies can assist institutions in their curriculum development, training initiatives, hiring and promotion selection, and performance evaluation processes.

Suggestions for Future Research

- Replicate this study to include the board of trustees and direct reports to conduct a comparison of their perception of leadership attributes against the findings of this study.
- Replicate this study utilizing the LAI with African-American students specifically seniors and graduate students across various institution types and residential enrollment size to assess their perceptions of leadership attributes necessary for success.
- 3. Replicate this study to include all college and university presidents to compare with the results of this study and review for consistency.

Recommendations for Practice

- Use the results of this study to guide search committees on the selection of senior administrators. The findings of this study could be used as a tool to more closely align the perception of leadership of the candidates with the desired leadership attributes of the institution.
- Use this study to help search committees determine the type of leadership perceptions that potential candidates may have to compare with their body of work prior to the presidency to determine if the two are adequately aligned.
- 3. Use the results of this study to help guide the development of curriculum and training initiatives to increase the pipeline of potential African-American presidential candidates. Leadership institutes like AABHE, ACE, and the Harvard Leadership Institute could use the results of this study to enhance their leadership curriculum.

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APPENDIX A: Permission from Dr. Jerome Moss, Jr.

From: Jerome Moss Jr <<u>mossj001@umn.edu</u>> Date: May 25, 2013, 10:11:17 AM CDT To: Sidney Carthell <<u>scarthell@murraystate.edu</u>> Subject: Re: Permission to use LAI Survey Instrument

Mr. Carthell, I would be very pleased if you use the LAI as a part of your dissertation. Jerome Moss, Jr.

On Sat, May 25, 2013 at 1:03 AM, Sidney Carthell <<u>scarthell@murraystate.edu</u>> wrote:

Dr. Moss,

I am in the Educational Leadership Doctoral Program at Western Kentucky University. I will be completing my comprehensive exams this summer. Dr. Randy Capps Professor Management/Organizational Leadership is my dissertation chair. I am contacting you relative to the use of your LAI survey instrument to complete a study of African American College Presidents.

I found a number of dissertations that have used your survey. I found that Dr. Kevin Mckenzie from Clemson University (at the time of the request) had requested your permission to use the survey to complete his dissertation in 2009. I could not find any information on how to obtain permission, so I am contacting you directly via email. I am requesting permission to use your survey instrument. I will not change the instrument in any way and I will acknowledge you and your colleagues and cite accordingly.

Please let me know if there is another process in which to obtain appropriate permission.

Thank you for your consideration.

SG Carthell, Director Office of Multicultural Affairs 110 Curris Center Murray, KY 42071 <u>www.murraystate.edu/oma</u> <u>270-809-6836</u>-Office <u>270-226-8159</u>-cell

APPENDIX B: IRB Approval

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD OFFICE OF RESEARCH INTEGRITY

DATE: TO: FROM:	February 6, 2017 Sidney (SG) Carthell, BS, MS Western Kentucky University (WKU) IRB
PROJECT TITLE: Presidents'	[1021269-1] African-American College and University Perception of Successful Leadership Attributes
REFERENCE #:	IRB 17-244
SUBMISSION TYPE: ACTION:	New Project APPROVED
APPROVAL DATE:	February 6, 2017
EXPIRATION DATE:	December 15, 2017
REVIEW TYPE:	Expedited Review

Thank you for your submission of New Project materials for this project. The Western Kentucky University (WKU) IRB has APPROVED your submission. This approval is based on an appropriate risk/benefit ratio and a project design wherein the risks have been minimized. All research must be conducted in accordance with this approved submission.

This submission has received Expedited Review based on the applicable federal regulation.

Please remember that informed consent is a process beginning with a description of the project and insurance of participant understanding followed by an implied consent form. Informed consent must continue throughout the project via a dialogue between the researcher and research participant. Federal regulations require each participant receive a copy of the consent document. Please note that any revision to previously approved materials must be approved by this office prior to initiation. Please use the appropriate revision forms for this procedure.

All UNANTICIPATED PROBLEMS involving risks to subjects or others and SERIOUS and UNEXPECTED adverse events must be reported promptly to this office. Please use the appropriate reporting forms for this procedure. All FDA and sponsor reporting requirements should also be followed.

All NON-COMPLIANCE issues or COMPLAINTS regarding this project must be reported promptly to this office.

This project has been determined to be a Minimal Risk project. Based on the risks, this project requires continuing review by this committee on an annual basis. Please use the appropriate forms for this procedure. Your documentation for continuing review must be received with sufficient time for review and continued approval before the expiration date of December 15, 2017.

Please note that all research records must be retained for a minimum of three years after the completion of the project.

If you have any questions, please contact Paul Mooney at (270) 745-2129 or irb@wku.edu. Please include your project title and reference number in all correspondence with this committee.

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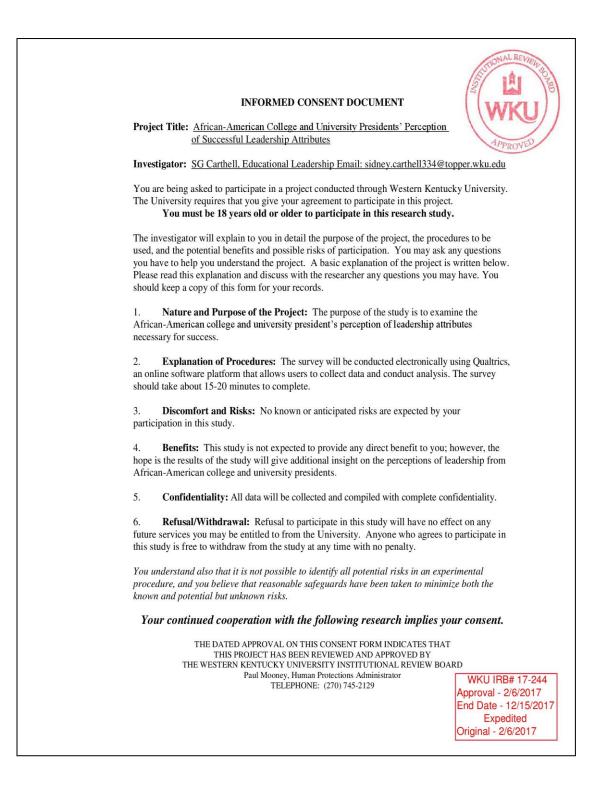
This letter has been electronically signed in accordance with all applicable regulations, and a copy is retained within Western

Kentucky University (WKU) IRB's records.

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APPENDIX C: Informed Consent Document



APPENDIX D: Invitation Email and Follow-up Email

Dear College/University President,

My name is SG Carthell and I am a doctoral candidate at Western Kentucky University and Senior Director of Diversity Initiatives at Murray State University. My research topic is African-American College and University Presidents' Perception of Successful Leadership Attributes.

The purpose of the study is to examine the African-American college and university president's perception of leadership attributes necessary for success. The survey should take about 15-20 minutes to complete. The hope is the results of the study will give additional insight on the perceptions of leadership from African-American college and university presidents.

Please find a secure link below to a short survey, I would respectfully ask that you complete the survey by______. I understand you are very busy however, I hope you will assist me in my study. The survey population is African-American college and university presidents and since the population is small each survey completed is crucial to the success of my study.

The survey will be conducted electronically using Qualtrics, an online software platform that allows users to collect data and conduct analysis. All data will be collected and compiled with complete anonymity. A summary of the research outcomes will be made available to you upon request.

The secure survey link is located at: A LINK TO THE SURVEY WILL BE INSERTED HERE

If you need any additional information please contact me at <u>scarthell@murraystate.edu</u> or via phone at 270-809-6836.

I appreciate your consideration to participate in this important research.

Sincerely,

SG Carthell Senior Director of Diversity Initiatives Murray State University Doctoral Student Western Kentucky University

Dear College/University President,

My name is SG Carthell and I am a doctoral candidate at Western Kentucky University and Senior Director of Diversity Initiatives at Murray State University. My research topic is African-American College and University Presidents' Perception of Successful Leadership Attributes. A few weeks ago I sent you an email about participating in my study. In order to get a successful response I am resending the message below with a link to the survey. If you have already responded, thank you for taking the time to complete the survey. If you have not yet completed the survey, I hope you will consider doing so.

Over the past decade there has been an increase in the turnover of college and university presidents. Recruiting and retaining a skilled and diverse pool of potential and current presidents is more important than ever. I would greatly appreciate you assisting me in my research by completing the short survey at the link below. I estimate it should take about 15-20 minutes to complete. All data will be collected and compiled with complete anonymity. A summary of the research outcomes will be made available to you upon request.

The secure survey link is located at ______.

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APPENDIX E: Presidents Leadership Survey

Note to Committee Members Printed version: Online Version formatted differently,

Preview the online version at: https://col.qualtrics.com/jfe/preview/SV_eP2i1gna7zqKSnr

COLLEGE & UNIVERSITY PRESIDENTS LEADERSHIP ATTRIBUTES SURVEY

The purpose of the study is to examine the African-American college and university president's perception of leadership attributes necessary for success. This study is not expected to provide any direct benefit to you; however, the hope is the results of the study will give additional insight on the perceptions of leadership from African-American college and university presidents. Answering the question in the survey involves no foreseeable risks. Participation is voluntary and you may cease taking the survey at any time without penalty. By completing the survey you are giving consent to participate and confirming that you are at least 18 years old. Your answers will remain confidential and will be protected by confidentiality.

The survey consists of three parts and should take less than 20 minutes to complete. Please follow the instructions for each part of the survey.

PART I: PERSONAL AND INSTITUTIONAL DEMOGRAPHICS

Gender:

- **O** Female
- O Male

Age:

- **O** 25 34
- **O** 35 44
- **O** 45 54
- **O** 55 64
- **O** 65 74
- **O** 75 or older

Ethnic Group:

- **O** African-American
- Hispanic
- O Multi-racial
- Caucasian
- **O** Asian/Pacific Islander

Education (Highest Degree Earned)

- **O** Bachelors
- O Masters
- **O** Doctorate
- **O** Professional (Law Degree)
- O Medical Degree MD

Position prior to Presidency

- **O** Vice-President/Provost
- **O** Vice-President Student Affairs
- Vice Chancellor (3)
- **O** Associate/Assistant Vice-President
- O Dean
- **O** Director
- **O** Department Head
- **O** Other Internal Position
- **O** Other External Position

Years of experience in prior position:

Years of experience in current position as President:

Years of experience working in Higher Education:



School Carnegie Classification

- Associates College (Community College)
- **O** Baccalaureate College
- **O** Baccalaureate/Associate's College
- **O** Master's College and University
- **O** Doctorate-Granting University
- **O** Special Focus Institution 2 year
- **O** Special Focus Institution 4 year
- **O** Tribal College

Institution Type:

- Public Research
- **O** Public Master's
- **O** Public Bachelor's
- **O** Public Associate's
- **O** Private Nonprofit Research
- Private Nonprofit Master's
- **O** Private Nonprofit Bachelor's

Select the geographical description that describes your institution's location:

- Urban
- **O** Suburban
- O Rural

Select the degree of residential students that best describes your institution

- Primarily nonresidential (NR) 25% or less degree seeking or 50 % enrolled fulltime (1)
- Primarily residential (R) 25% live on campus but less than 80% attend fulltime (2)
- Highly residential (HR) 50% live on campus and 80% attend fulltime (3)

(Two Year Schools): Select the category that describes the Fall 2015 enrollment for your institution: (Carnegie Classification Two Year Institutions)

- **O** <499 (1)
- **O** 500-1,999 (2)
- **O** 2,000-4,999 (3)
- **O** 5,000-9,999 (4)
- **O** 10,000+ (5)

(Four Year Schools): Select the category that describes the Fall 2015 enrollment for your institution: (Carnegie Classification Four Year Institutions)

- **O** <1000(1)
- **O** 1,000-2,999 (2)
- **O** 3,000-9,999 (3)
- **O** 10,000+ (4)

PART II: LEADER ATTRIBUTES INVENTORY (LAI)

There are thirty-seven (37) leader attributes with a statement describing each. The statements are intended to help clarify the meaning of the attributes and do not reflect a complete definition of the attributes. You are asked to rate each leader attribute to the degree you perceive each to be very undescriptive to very descriptive as it relates attributes necessary for a successful college/university president. Please be as discriminating in your rating as possible. Your response will assist in the development of a profile of effective college/university presidents. Please respond to each item representing your choice following each attribute.

The rating scale is: 1=Very Undescriptive 2=Undescriptive 3=Somewhat Undescriptive 4=Somewhat Descriptive 5=Descriptive 6=Very Descriptive

*This survey was adapted from the Leader Attributes Inventory Manual develop by Jerome Moss, Jr., Edith J Lambrecht, and Qutler Jenrud, 1989 and 1993, at the University of Minnesota, and Curtis R. Finch, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University. Supported by the Office of Vocational and Adult Education. U.S. Department of Education

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Energetic with Stamina

	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
Approaches tasks with great energy and works long hours when necessary	O	0	0	O	O	O

Insightful

	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
Reflects on the relationship among events and grasps the meaning of complex issues quickly	0	0	0	0	O	0

Adaptable, Open to Change

	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
Encourages and accepts suggestions and constructive criticism from co- workers, and is willing to consider modifying plans	O	O	0	O	O	0

Visionary

	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
Looks to the future and creates new ways in which the organization can prosper	O	О	O	0	O	О

Tolerant of Ambiguity and Complexity

	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
Comfortably handles vague and difficult situations where there is no simple answer or no prescribed method of proceeding	0	0	0	0	0	0

Achievement-Oriented

	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
Shows commitment to achieving goals and strives to keep improving performance	O	O	O	0	O	O

Accountable

	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
Hold self- answerable for work and willingly admits mistakes	О	О	О	О	О	о

Initiating

	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
Frequently introduces new ideas	0	0	0	0	0	О

Confident, Accepting of Self

	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
Appears secure about abilities and recognizes personal shortcomings	0	0	0	0	0	О

Willing to Accept Responsibility

winnig to Accept K	esponsionity					
	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
Willing to assume high level duties and functions within the organization	O	O	O	0	O	0

Persistent

	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
Continues to act on beliefs despite unexpected difficulties	O	0	0	0	O	O

Enthusiastic, Optimistic

	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
Thinks positively, approaches new tasks with excitement, and deals with challenges as opportunities	O	0	0	0	O	•

Tolerant of Frustration

	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
Acts calmly and patiently even when things don't go as planned	O	0	0	0	0	0

Dependable, Reliable

	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
Can be counted on to follow through to get the job done	0	0	0	О	0	О

Courageous, Risk-Taker

0 /	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
Willingly tries out new ideas in spite of possible loss or failure	O	0	O	0	0	О

Even Disposition

	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
Displays a sense of humor and stable temperament even in stressful situations	O	O	O	O	O	0

Committed to the Common Good

	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
Works to benefit the entire organization, not just self	O	О	О	О	О	О

Personal Integrity

	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
Speaks frankly and honestly and practices espoused values	O	O	O	0	0	0

Intelligent with Practical Judgement

	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
Learns quickly, knows how and when to apply knowledge	O	О	О	О	О	О

Ethical

	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
Acts consistently with principles of fairness and right or good conduct that can stand the test of close public scrutiny	0	О	О	0	O	•

Communication (Listening, Oral, Written)

	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
Listens closely to people at work, and organizes and clearly presents information both orally and in writing	O	0	O	O	O	О

Sensitivity, Respect

	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
Shows genuine concern for the feelings of others and regard for them as individuals	O	0	O	0	O	0

Motivating Others

	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
Creates an environment in which people want to do their best	O	О	О	О	О	О

Networking

	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
Develops cooperative relationships within and outside of the organization	0	0	0	0	0	O

Planning

	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
In collaboration with others, develop tactics and strategies for achieving organizational objectives	0	0	0	0	0	•

Delegating

	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
Appropriately and effectively assigns responsibility and authority	O	O	О	О	0	О

Ideological beliefs are appropriate to the group

Ŭ	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
Models and demonstrates belief in the basic values of the organization	O	O	O	0	0	О

Organizing

	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
Establishes effective and efficient procedures for getting work done in an orderly manner	O	O	0	0	0	0

Team Building

	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
Facilitates the development of cohesiveness and cooperation among the people at work	O	O	O	0	O	0

Coaching

8	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
Helps people develop knowledge and skills for their work assignments	O	О	О	O	O	0

Managing Conflicts

	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
Brings conflict into the open and uses it to arrive at constructive solutions	O	0	O	0	O	0

Time Management

8	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
Effectively deals with the tension of high pressure work situations	O	O	O	О	O	0

Stress Management

	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
Effectively deals with the tension of high pressure work situations	O	0	0	0	0	0

Appropriate use of Leadership Roles

	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
Uses a variety of approaches to influences and lead others	O	O	O	0	O	О

Decision Making

	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
Makes timely decisions that are in the best interest of the organization by analyzing all available information, distilling key points, and drawing relevant conclusions	O	0	O	O	0	O

Problem Solving

	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
Effectively identifies, analyzes, and resolves difficulties and uncertainties at work	O	0	0	0	O	O

Information Management

	Very Undescriptive	Undescriptive	Somewhat Undescriptive	Somewhat Descriptive	Descriptive	Very Descriptive
Identifies, collects, organizes, and analyzes the essential information needed by the organization	O	0	0	0	O	O

PART III: TOP FIVE LEADERSHIP ATTRIBUTES RATING

From the list of 37 leadership attributes below, select your top five essential attributes.

- 1 = Most important
- 2 = Second most important
- 3 = Third most important
- 4 = Fourth most important
- 5 = Fifth most important

For all other (32 of 37) attributes do not rate that item. Move your selected leadership attributes into the top five positions in order of importance.

LEADERSHIP ATTRIBUTES

- 1. _____ Energetic with Stamina
- 2. ____ Insightful
- 3. Adaptable, Open to Change
- 4. _____ Visionary
- 5. _____ Tolerant of Ambiguity and Complexity
- 6. _____ Achievement Oriented
- 7. _____ Accountable
- 8. _____ Initiating
- 9. ____ Confident, Accepting of Self
- 10. _____ Willing to Accept Responsibility
- 11. _____ Persistent
- 12. _____ Enthusiastic, Optimistic
- 13. Tolerant of Frustration
- 14. _____ Dependable, Reliable
- 15. _____ Courageous, Risk Taker
- 16. _____ Even Disposition
- 17. _____ Committed to the Common Good
- 18. _____ Personal Integrity
- 19. _____ Intelligent with Practical Judgment
- 20. _____ Ethical
- 21. _____ Communication (listening, oral, written)
- 22. _____ Sensitivity, Respect
- 23. _____ Motivating Others
- 24. _____ Networking
- 25. _____ Planning26. _____ Delegating
- 27. ____ Organizing
- 28. _____ Team Building
- 29. ____ Coaching
- 30.
 _____ Managing Conflicts

 31.
 _____ Time Management
- 32. _____ Stress Management
- 33. _____ Appropriate Use of Leadership Roles
- 34. _____ Ideological Beliefs are Appropriate to the Group
- 35. _____ Decision Making
- 36. Problem Solving
- 37. _____ Information Management