IMAGES OF LEADERSHIP: CRITICAL INCIDENT ANALYSIS OF EFFECTIVE AND INEFFECTIVE BEHAVIORS AMONG COMMUNITY COLLEGE PRESIDENTS

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PREFACE

With the help and support of many individuals, this dissertation became a reality. To all persons who assisted me in this work and during my stay at Oklahoma State University, I wish to express my appreciation. Foremost among these individuals is Dr. John Gardiner, my adviser and friend. His expertise, advice, friendship and support all led to this study's completion and success. I was inspired by his leadership and the unselfish committment of countless hours he made helping me to do a study that I could feel good about. To this friend, I extend a sincere "thank you."

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To my wife Carole Beth for her encouragement, patience, friendship, understanding and moral support throughout my educational experience, I am forever indebted . To my "family," whose patience, faith, understanding and moral support throughout these years have sustained my spirit and helped me recognize and realize my goals, I give special thanks.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

"The strongest is never strong enough to always be the master unless he transforms strength into right and obedience into duty."
--Jean Jacques Rousseau--

"Leadership is the art of getting someone else to do something you want done because he wants to do it."
--Dwight D. Eisenhower--

"Yes, but it helps if you're tall and good looking."
--Lou Costello--

This investigation studied effective and ineffective leadership behaviors among presidents of certain Kansas and Oklahoma community colleges (see Appendix A) as perceived and reported by the presidents themselves and certain associated publics. An exploratory qualitative methodology using the critical incident technique was employed for the study. Chapter One begins with a brief overview of the study. It next presents a statement of the problem. Then, using a review of the literature, it provides evidence to support the purpose of the study, presents the study's research questions, defines operational terms of the study, offers rationale to validate the study's significance, and lists the study's assumptions and limitations. The chapter ends with a presentation of the study's organization.

A Statement of the Problem

When compared to the amount of research conducted on leadership behavior in public schools and business, the amount of research conducted on leadership behavior in higher education is relatively small. Much of what is written about leadership in higher education is based on the application of theoretical principles to higher education needs and problems and is not based on research conducted in higher education settings. The few education studies testing leadership theories, particularly Hersey and Blanchard's (1969) Situational Leadership Theory, have used leadership instruments designed for business and industry, which were of questionable validity for their chosen purposes (Beck, 1978; Clark, 1981; & Clothier, 1984). It seems inappropriate to continue to run tests of leadership theories in higher educational settings prior to conducting the preliminary descriptive studies necessary to ground the leadership concepts specifically within higher education.

As a part of such preliminary study, this investigation was designed to collect critical incidents describing effective and ineffective leadership behaviors of community college presidents. These incidents provided concrete illustrations of presidential leadership behaviors. They add to the knowledge base from which valid instruments, to measure such leadership behaviors, might be constructed.

Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this investigation was to identify effective and ineffective leadership behaviors of community college presidents as perceived by the presidents themselves and certain associated publics. Individuals reported their perceptions of effective and ineffective presidential leadership as critical incidents. Analysis of the critical incidents was conducted to answer the following research questions:

1. Which behaviors of selected Kansas and Oklahoma community college presidents are reported by certain community college publics and the presidents themselves as examples of effective and ineffective leadership?

2. Do reported effective and ineffective leadership behaviors of community college presidents differ among the two distinct publics of community colleges: internal publics (administrators, faculty, and student services personnel) and external publics (boards of trustees,2 state legislators and Chamber of Commerce officials) Further, do these two groups' perceptions differ from those of the presidents?

3. Are the effective and ineffective community college presidential leadership behaviors identified by this study consistent with prior research on the same topic?

Over the years, leadership has been studied from a number of perspectives (Stogdill, 1958; Kahn, 1959; Bennis, 1961; Likert, 1961; Argyris, 1962, 1976, 1980; Ghiselli, 1963; Lippitt, 1966; Fiedler, 1967; Hersey & Blanchard, 1969; House, 1971; Vroom & Yetton, 1973; and Burns, 1978). Recently, there has been wide use of Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory in a variety of settings (Clothier, 1984).

Some researchers (Beck, 1978; Clark, 1981; & Clothier, 1984) found difficulty validating situational leadership theory in an educational setting due to instrumentation problems; specifically, study sample subjects were unable to relate to the parlance of the instruments used to test situational leadership. Since these instruments were originally designed and developed for use in the business community, such difficulties are understandable.

This study was designed to illuminate the process of presidential leadership at the community college level rather than to test any particular leadership theory. The critical incidents in the study were collected to aid in the eventual development of valid instruments capable of measuring such leadership behavior in education settings.

Significance of the Study

According to Clark Kerr (1980), leadership will be the greatest problem higher education will have to face in the coming years. Alfred (1984) offered that tomorrow's community college leadership issues will be more challenging than fiscal or curricular problems. This increased emphasis on leadership has focused the public eye on some presidential behaviors not previously examined in detail. The result is that selection and retention of effective leaders becomes a growing problem at all educational levels. Clearly in higher education, the leadership actions and behaviors of college presidents are significant determinants in the effectiveness of their institutions. This holds true for community college presidents as well.

The community college is an integral part of the American higher education scene. Community colleges have greatly expanded the nation's higher education enrollment. The rapid growth of the community college in the last two decades is a testimony to the leaders, who have been involved in the community college system (Cohen and Brawer, 1984).

The community college president, as the chief executive officer, is the individual who provides leadership for the entire community college. The president is the person held accountable by the board of trustees for creating, shaping and implementing educational policy. Ideally, the president must be an effective leader who can successfully promote the goals of the institution. Since the community college president is such an important individual, a clearer understanding of presidential effectiveness is desireable (Vaughan, 1986).

This critical incident study of leadership behaviors among community college presidents, as perceived by certain groups associated with the community college, was a logical way to proceed with clarifying presidential effectiveness. Burnham (1983) using an assessment technique based on the critical incident technique, studied leadership behaviors in relation to successful developmental education programs in selected Texas community colleges. Her findings profiled behavioral competencies of effective leadership based on a sample of nine respondents. Descriptive data based on a large sample illustrating areas in which presidents are perceived as both successful and areas in which they are perceived as encountering difficulty is essential to explaining leadership in the community college setting. The absence of such a substantial qualitative study in the literature on the community college presidency presents a

considerable gap in our understanding of the presidential role. It is also a major obstacle in our ability to measure presidential performance from the perspective of leadership theory, as descriptive studies are needed in order to enable the operationalism of leadership variables in the community college setting.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions were adopted for the study:

Community College - an institution accredited to award the associate in arts, associate in science, or the associate of applied science, as its highest degrees and whose functions include: (1) academic transfer, (2) occupational/technical, (3) remedial/compensatory, (4) community education/services, and (5) student services (Cohen and Brawer, 1984).

Community College President - that individual appointed by the board of trustees to function as the chief executive officer of the community college.

Critical Incident Technique - a research method involving collection and analysis of specific incidents which identify and describe a behavior perceived as effective or ineffective.

Critical Incident - an episode in the role performance of a community college president, the consequences of which are judged by certain personnel associated with the community college as having either a positive or negative impact on the community college.

Effective Critical Incident - an episode where the president's own actions, or the actions he/she recommends, are perceived by certain

personnel associated with the community college to have resulted in a positive impact on the community college.

Ineffective Critical Incident - an episode where the president's own actions, or the actions he/she recommends, are perceived by certain personnel associated with the community college to have resulted in a negative impact on the community college.

Leadership - the process of influencing the activities of an individual or group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982b, p. 83).

Management - a special kind of leadership exercised through a vested formal authority to achieve organizational goals by work with individuals and/or groups (Hackman, Lawler, and Porter, 1983).

Public - a group or constituency of people sharing a common interest or characteristic.

Assumptions and Limitations

Consideration of the following assumptions and limitations is recommended in making interpretations and conclusions from this study:

1. Community college presidents and other community college publics were assumed to occupy positions that would allow them to have a working acquaintance with the community college, its purposes, and clientele served. Therefore, their perceptions were assumed to be grounded and accurate.

2. Identified by Stevens (1976), The data gathering instrument was limited by the investigator's inability to verify its responses which were reported anonymously.

3. Typically, sample size is determined on the basis of number of critical incidents and not number of people. There is no strict test for sample size, but a general rule of thumb is to collect incidents until redundancy appears. Flanagan (1954) stated that depending on the complexity of the data, it may require as few as 100 incidents or as many as 2,000 to 4,000.

4. The methodology employed in this study placed great reliance on the perceptions of the community college related personnel. This reliance on perception must be cited as a potential limitation. Owens (1970, p. 175) warned, "people see or perceive what they are prepared to see, or hear. Therefore, much of behavior is, like beauty, in the eye of the beholder."

5. Sample subjects included faculty, administrators, student services personnel, and presidents within Oklahoma community colleges. Other subjects were legislators with community colleges in their districts and Chamber of Commerce officials in cities where community colleges were located. Given the charter of community colleges to respond somewhat to their own unique community needs, the colleges used for this study may not adequately represent community colleges throughout the United States. For example, an article appearing in The Chronicle of Higher Education dated August 12, 1987 (pp. 33-39), reported that many community colleges in the midwest (Kansas and Oklahoma included) were to a significant degree tuition-driven, whereas California community colleges appeared to rely less on tuition for funding.

6. The critical incidents in this study reflect only the perspectives of those personnel associated with the community college who were

surveyed. Those perspectives are only a portion of the whole picture of perceived leadership behavior for the community college president. The Oklahoma State Regents for Higher Education, for example, may have a different perception of the president's leadership behavior (see Figure 8 Appendix B).

7. Subject participants were volunteers who may have disproportionately represented particular perspectives or not have addressed issues of a serious concern. Non-participant perceptions remain unknown but may have provided other perspectives or concerns.

8. Using the Critical Incident Technique as the method of data collection for the study may have potentially narrowed the views of leadership obtained. The respondents were asked to "write brief, objective and specific descriptions....of incidents which demonstrated the effective/ineffective leadership behaviors of the president....recalled from the past 12 months." Thus, effectiveness was described within the framework of single critical incidents which, like still frames, statically depict leadership at given points in time. Responses, therefore, may be reflecting various "stills" of leadership and not a total leadership picture.

Organization of the Study

Chapter I, the Introduction, contains the introduction to the problem, purpose of the study, research questions, definitions of terms, significance of the study and the assumptions and limitations.

Chapter II, the Review of the Literature, contains an historical review of research regarding leadership theory, a discussion of leader

ship theory research in higher education, research on the community college president, and an explanation of the Critical Incident Technique.

Chapter III, The Methodology, describes the population and sample, the instrumentation, and step-by-step procedures for data collection and analysis.

Chapter IV, the Results of the Study, includes both the descriptive treatment of the response and the results of the analysis of the findings of the critical incident data within which research questions one and two were addressed.

Chapter V, the Discussion and Conclusions, consists of a response to research question three, which involves a summary of the study's major findings, conclusions derived from the findings with recommendations for further research.

ENDNOTES

1. The term "staff" will be used throughout the dissertation to refer collectively to all employees of the college excluding the president.

2. The state of Oklahoma uses the term "board of regents" to denote boards of control for its community colleges. The State of Kansas uses the more widely used and accepted synonymous term "board of trustees" to denote its boards of control for community colleges, and it is this term that will be used throughout the dissertation.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter is offered in five parts. The introduction briefly restates the focus of the study. The remaining four parts review the literature on which the research was grounded and highlights the following areas: (1) leadership theory; (2) leadership in higher education; (3) the community college president; and, (4) the Critical Incident Technique.

Introduction

According to Clark Kerr (1980), leadership will be the greatest concern higher education will have to face in the coming years. A recent Carnegie report concluded that in the face of the pressures of governments, unions, and corporations, the rebirth of strong leadership "may well be the central question facing American higher education." David Riesman (1978) noted that, "increasingly, the American college presidency appears to be faceless." Joseph Kauffman (1980) writes how democratization, system centralization, and collective bargaining may have weakening effects on the presidency. Richard Cyert (1980) concluded that all institutions--whether public or private, large or small, rich or poor, coeducational or single sex--will require effective presidents who can lead and act. Robert Kamm (1982) indicated that many presidents,

although able administrators, managers, and "keepers of the shop," were not effective leaders in higher education. Unhappily, there is a shortage of effective leaders in American Higher Education today.

The literature has indicated that leadership will be a greater challenge during the 1980s and 1990s than either financial strategies or curriculum rebuilding. Yet most writers have not addressed presidents as "effective" leaders. Instead, they have painted images that have portrayed presidents as "mediators," "support mechanisms," "chairs," "managers of human resources," "apostles of efficiency," "energy maximizers," "reasonable adventurers," "catalysts of dynamic contacts," "sweepers and dusters," and even "headmen" (Pray, 1979; Walker, 1979; Chickering, 1981; Mayhew and Glenny, 1975; Hodgkinson, 1970; Cohen and March, 1974; Editorial Projects for Education, 1976; and Cowley, 1980). Stephen Bailey referred to American college presidents as a "beleaguered lot," citing Charles Eliot's suggestion that the major prerequisite of presidential success is a "willingness to give pain" (Argyris and Cyert, 1980). A former president expressed it this way: "The president seldom has time to take stock of how well or how badly he is doing until he bails out or runs screaming for the horizon or achieves the inner peace of complete breakdown" (Carbone, 1981).

If one were to consider conditions on American campuses during recent years, many of these images may be insightful and logical, however to some they may be rationalizations for weak or ineffective presidential leadership. The writers have, in effect, been telling presidents that conditions were just not appropriate for good leadership--that students, faculty, trustees, politicians, and the public would no longer support

effective leadership--thus giving presidents, particularly the more recently appointed ones, respectable excuses for being less effective. Why have an "effective" presidential image?

The president's image is composed of a myriad of impressions formed by relatively inattentive publics. However, these images combine to be the major factors in developing an aura of effectiveness. In most cases, interactive critical incidents are the prime instruments for creating effective or ineffective impressions. These impressions form the prevailing presidential image and set the tone and limits of what faculty, staff, alumni, students, trustees, politicians, public figures, bureaucrats, and potential benefactors will do for the president. For even the most experienced, important, sophisticated people make judgments based on how an individual is perceived to be effective or ineffective (Benezet, Katz and Magnussen, 1981).

Leadership ability is not an innate characteristic of only the privileged few; people are not born with it. Leadership subsumes certain measurable behaviors that can be cultivated by virtually all college or university presidents (Birnbaum, 1983).

Leadership is a misunderstood but valued commodity in community college education. Subject to the law of supply and demand, it is perhaps the single most important dimension linking institutional development with change in society's expectations and needs. There have always been questions concerning the quality of leadership. Not until recent times, however, have the leadership behaviors of community college presidents been so vigorously and widely questioned (Alfred, 1984). The fiscal stringency that affects most states, organized efforts to redefine

the mission and purposes of higher education, and pressure to restructure the distribution of functions among institutions have made leadership a challenging and difficult task. This task can bring great satisfaction or deep depression, depending on the availability of success indicators and on the collective perceptions of effectiveness or ineffectiveness of peers, subordinates, and valued constituencies (Vaughan, 1986).

This study was designed to gather critical incidents describing effective and ineffective leadership behaviors among community college presidents as discerned by certain selected groups associated with the community college. Leadership behavior studies in higher education settings have been scant when compared to research conducted on leadership behavior in the public schools and in business. Choice and retention of effective leaders in a higher education setting has been a growing concern in relation to the consequences of leader-follower behavior. Keen (1986) reported that community college presidents, state coordinators for higher education, and state chamber of commerce leaders viewed "leadership" to be a "priority-one element of the quality two-year college." The need to conduct more leadership studies in higher education seemed apparent.

Community colleges are institutions of higher education that have enabled a nation-wide increase in post-secondary enrollments. Community college presidents hold the chief leadership roles in these institutions (Veysey, 1965). Blocker (1972) portrayed the role of the president in the center of the institution and interacting with administrators, faculty, students, trustees, and other groups. He posited that the presidential "role" was shaped by, and therefore ought to be viewed

through, the perceptions of persons from various groups that surround and interact with the president in various environments (see Appendix B). Subjects from some suggested groups as well as the presidents themselves produced the critical incidents analyzed in this study.

Well constructed descriptive studies are a prerequisite research effort for the development of valid leadership instruments. The critical incident approach is excellent in identifying behaviors particularly important for effective or ineffective performance (Howell, 1976). Such a critical incident study was needed to produce improved descriptive literature of community college presidential leadership behaviors. The results, of which, would enhance any effort to construct instruments to better measure such behaviors.

Leadership Theory

The amount of literature on leadership is voluminous and evidences the serious and continuing interest in the subject. It has been reported that 130 definitions of "leadership" exist (Burns, 1978, p. 2); a myriad of taxonomies to describe leadership have been developed; and, most leadership dynamics have several theories to explain them. Six approaches to the study of leadership offered by Stogdill (1974) were: (1) great man theories, (2) environment theories, (3) personal-expectations theories, (4) interaction-expectation theories, (5) humanistic theories, and (6) exchange theories. Howell (1976), on theories of leadership effectiveness, presented three main theoretical orientations: personality theory, style theory, and situational theory. These orientations were more completely covered when Ivancevich, Szilagy and Wallace (1977) used

the theoretical framework involving "trait," "behavioral," and "situational" categories to organize their study of leadership. The historical overview presented here uses a categorization of leadership theories that includes major studies from both Stogdill's review of the literature and Ivancevich, Szilagy, and Wallace's theoretical framework. This combination of classification systems allows simplicity and thoroughness. The overview presents the following general headings: (1) early studies, (2) studies of leader's traits, (3) studies of leader's behavioral style, (4) studies of leadership functions, and (5) studies of the situational aspect of leadership.

Early Studies

Perhaps the first theory of leadership, "the great man theory" discusses leaders as individuals with special qualities that allow them to secure the approval of the publics they serve. These special qualities were explained by Galton to be the result of genetic inheritance and by Dowd as a result of the intelligence, energy and moral force of the leader (Stogdill, 1974).

Early environmental theorists suggested that a person was considered great, not because of inheritance or biological energy, but as the result of time, place and circumstance. Murphy (1941) holds that leadership is not an internal resource, but is a function of circumstance. That is, a leader does not inject leadership when a situation requires a certain type of action. Rather, the leader is the instrumental factor through which a resolution to the situational problem is achieved.

The limited success of the great man theory and the environmental theory seemed to be a result of each insisting that leadership was accounted for solely because of inherent leader characteristics or simply due to the results of situational factors (Stogdill, 1974, p. 18).

Studies of Leaders' Traits

While early theories of leadership had only limited success in explaining leadership, the great man theory did leave researchers with the question - "If a leader is endowed with special qualities that separate him or her from followers, is it possible to identify these qualities?" This question effected the most common approach to the study of leadership from the beginning of this century until World War II, the study of leadership traits. The studies were done under the assumption that leaders possess a trait or a combination of traits that distinguish them as leaders. Traits studies concentrated on physical characteristics, age, intelligence, insight, judgement, originality, adaptability, dominance, initiative, persistence, introversion-extroversion, ambition, responsibility, integrity, conviction, self-confidence, emotional control, social skills, popularity, cooperation, masculinity, sensitivity, discreetness, and others. These physical, intellectual, and personality traits were researched in hopes of finding the most critical traits of effective leadership and of using that information to select people for leadership positions.

In an extensive research review relevant to leadership traits, Stogdill (1958) found few traits that were common in fifteen or more of the studies surveyed. These traits were intelligence, scholarship,

dependability, activity, social participation and socioeconomic status. Traits that were common in ten or more of the studies surveyed would increase Stogdill's list to include sociability, initiative persistence, knowing how to get things done, self-confidence, alertness to and insight into situations, cooperatives, popularity, adaptability and verbal facility. In spite of these findings, Stogdill (1958) concluded that a person does not become a leader by virtue of a combination of traits, but the patterns of a leader's personal behaviors must bear some relationship to the characteristics, activities, and goals of the follower.

In general, research focusing on leadership traits alone has not had lasting value in explaining leadership. Hemphill (1949) after reviewing many non-significant empirical studies, using the trait approach, suggested that leadership is a dynamic process varying from situation to situation with changes in leaders, followers, and situations. Jennings (1961) reviewed fifty years of trait theory research and concluded it had failed to produce a single personality trait or set of qualities that could be used to discriminate between leaders and non-leaders.

Ghiselli (1963) did find significant correlation between leadership effectiveness and traits of intelligence, supervisory ability, initiative, self-assurance, and the way performance of work was carried out. However, these correlations were not impressive enough to reignite research interest in the traits listed above. One of the reasons for this lack of inspiration might have been the failure of many other studies to show a significant correlation between traits and instances of incidents of leadership. Also, such studies failed to show that leaders were the only people possessing so-called leadership traits. In spite of

the lack of results in trait theory research, evidence did continue to show that a new variable for selection of a leader was the social situation. This indicated that certain traits of leaders in one situation were different from the leader's traits in other situations. Stogdill (1974) reported that it is not especially difficult to find persons who are leaders. However, it is quite another matter to place those persons in different situations where they will be able to function as leaders. His findings indicate that an adequate analysis of leadership involves not only a study of leaders, but also of situations. The findings suggest that leadership is not a matter of passive status, or of the mere possession of certain traits. It appears rather to be a working relationship among members of a group, in which the leader acquires status through active participation and demonstration of his capacity for carrying cooperative tasks through to completion.

Sleeth (1977) reported that the combined analysis of leadership research by Bird (1940), Stogdill (1948), and Jenkins (1974) suggested four conclusions: (1) selection of leaders on the basis of traits was largely unsuccessful; (2) leaders and followers might differ on many traits; (3) traits necessary in a successful leader differed with the situation; and (4) the interaction between leaders and followers could not be ignored.

Studies of Leaders' Behavioral Style

As trait theory research continually failed to produce definitive results during the 1940's, the study of leadership shifted to the behavior of the leader. Researchers began to focus on the set of

behaviors or the observed style that characterized the leader's performance. The style, or set of behaviors, of the leader, was not investigated in the hope of finding a reflection of the personality attributes of the leader. The three better known researchers in the area of leadership styles are Kurt Lewin, Ronald Lippitt, and Ralph White.

While Lewin and Lippitt (1938) initially researched leadership styles using the polar functions of democratic and autocratic, Lewin, Lippitt and White (1939) described three leadership styles: democratic; laissez-faire; and authoritarian.

In their studies, democratic leadership produced group cohesiveness, the greatest originality in output, and motivation to perform in the absence of the leader. Laissez-faire leadership led to poor performance, low morale and a lack of group unity. Authoritarian leadership manifested more time on task but greater hostility, especially when the leader was absent.

The effects of these different styles of leadership behavior on groups of young people were investigated at the University of Iowa in 1938-1940. Study participants responded best in the democratic leadership situation. However, research subsequent to these studies has indicated that it is incorrect to stereotype a leader as being democratic, autocratic or laissez-faire, because leaders tend to vary their behavior according to the situation (Lippett, 1966).

A popular theory for explaining styles of leader behavior is the Ohio State Model developed by the staff of the Bureau of Business Research at Ohio State University (Stogdill and Coons, 1957). The model is based on the two dimensions of initiating structure and consideration,

which refer to task behavior and relationship behavior. Initiating structure is described as the extent an individual is likely to define and structure his/her role and those of subordinates toward goal attainment (Fleishman and Peters, 1962). Consideration is the extent to which an individual is likely to have job relationships with subordinates and share mutual trust, respect for their ideas, sensitivity to their feelings and a show of warmth (Fleishman and Peters, 1962). These two dimensions are scaled from low to high and plotted on horizontal and vertical axis to define four leadership styles as depicted by the quadrants in Figure 1.

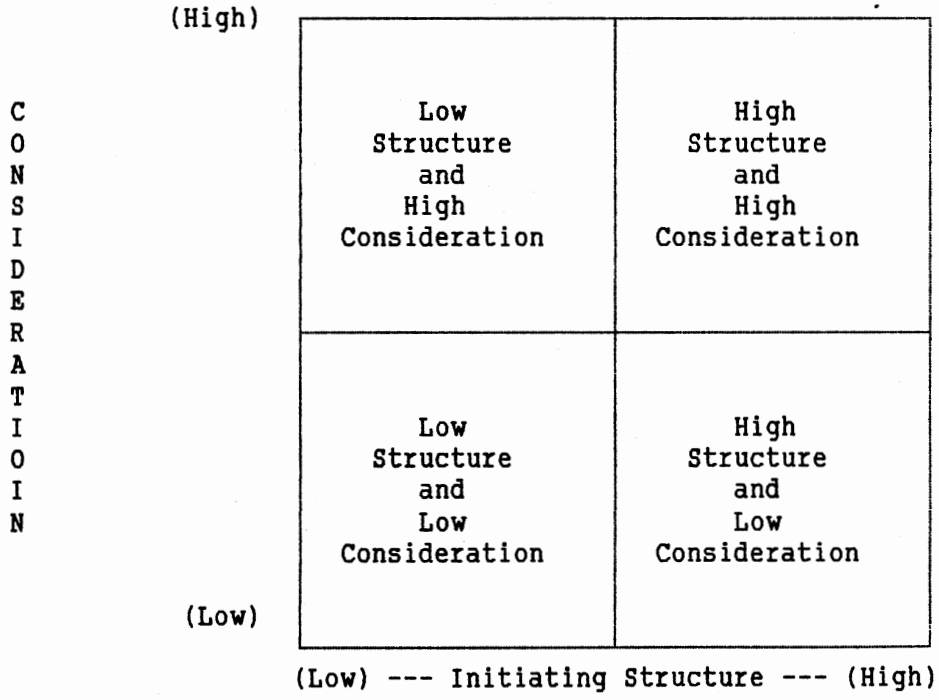

Figure 1: Leadership Styles According to the Ohio State Model.

NOTE: Ralph M. Stogdill and Alvin E. Coons, eds., Leader Behavior: Its Description and Measurement, Research monograph No. 88 (Columbus: Bureau of Business Research, The Ohio State University, 1957).

Korman (1966) reviewed the research with the Ohio State Model, and concluded:

> Despite that fact that "Consideration" and "Initiating Structure" have become almost bywords in American industrial psychology, it seems apparent that very little is now known as to how these variables may predict work group performance and the conditions which affect such predictions. At the current time, we cannot even say whether they have any predictive significance at all...
>
> ...There is as yet almost no evidence on the predictive validity of "Consideration" and "Initiating Structure" nor on the kinds of situational moderators which might affect such validity (p. 360). The Ohio State studies were summarized by Porter, Lawler, and Hackman (1975):
>
> ...reviews (e.g., Korman, 1966; Sales, 1966) fail to reveal any substantial consistent effects associated with given behavioral styles of leaders nor any consistent trend for one or another style to be particularly effective in terms of individual or group performance--although there do seem to be some tendencies for employee morale to be positively associated with a considerate, employee-oriented style (p.424).

The Ohio State studies were further popularized by Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton (1978) in their Managerial Grid which has been extensively used in management development programs.

In the Grid, the concepts of concern for production and concern for people are the basis for five types of leadership behavior described as follows:

1. IMPOVERISHED: Exertion of minimum effort to get required work done is appropriate to sustain organizational membership.

2. COUNTRY CLUB: Thoughtful attention to needs of people for satisfying relationships leads to a comfortable friendly organization atmosphere and work tempo.

3. TASK: Efficiency in operations results from arranging conditions of work in such a way that human elements interfere to a minimum degree.

4. MIDDLE-OF-THE-ROAD: Adequate organization performance is possible through balancing the necessity to get out work while maintaining morale of people at the satisfactory level.

5. TEAM: Work accomplishment is from committed people's interdependence to a "common stake" in organizational purposes and leads to relationships of trust and respect.

These styles are plotted on a scale from one to nine and divided into four quadrants as shown in Figure 2.

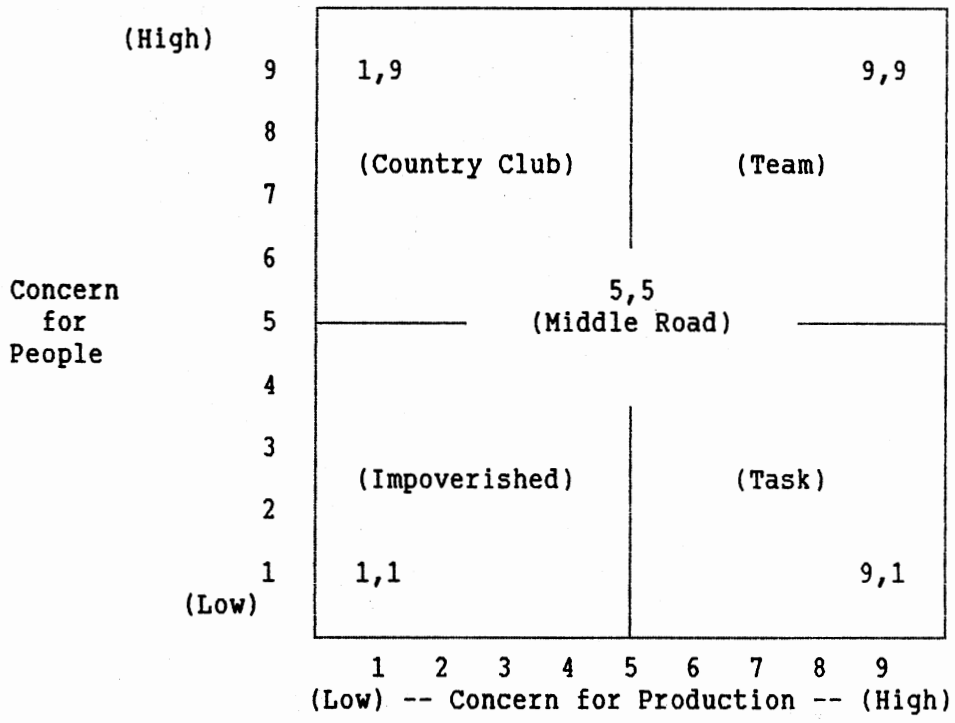

Figure 2: Managerial Grid Model of Leadership Styles.

NOTE: Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton, The Managerial Grid (R) (Houston: Gulf Publishing Co., 1964).

The Managerial Grid and the four quadrants of the Ohio State studies may be superimposed as shown in Figure 3.

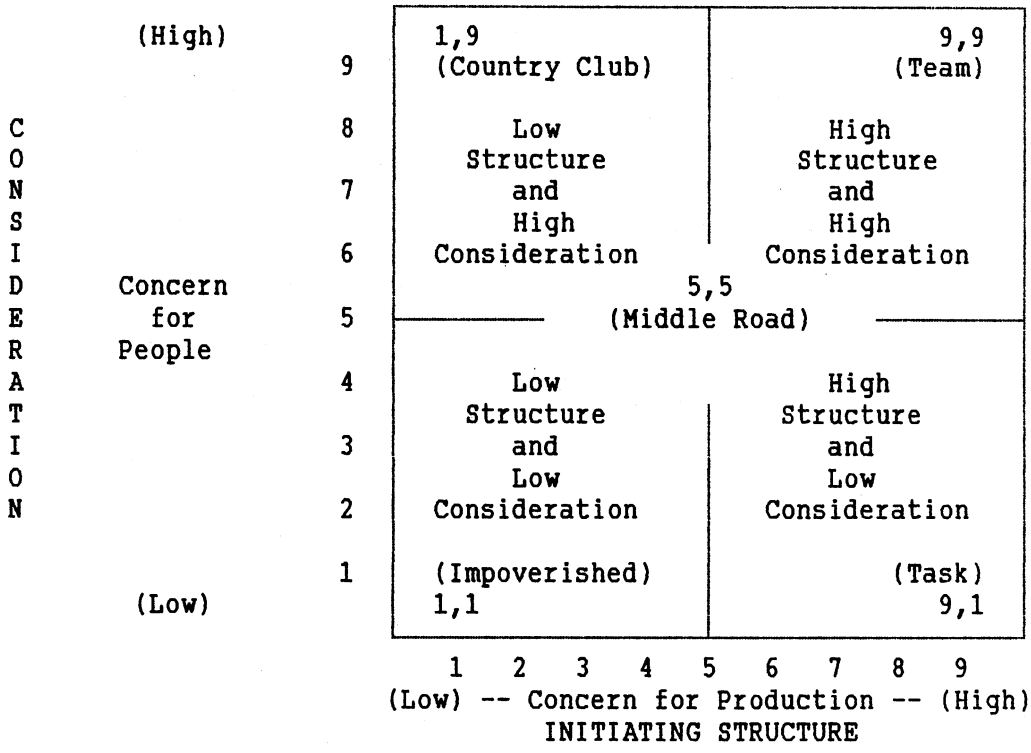

Figure 3: Superimposed Managerial Grid and Ohio State Model.

It should be noted that a significant difference exists between the two frameworks. "CONCERN FOR" is used in the Managerial Grid and is an attitude toward production and people, while the Ohio State model tends to describe observable behavior of a leader.

Beck (1978) summarized the Ohio State Studies by stating that leaders should use task-oriented and relationship-oriented styles of leadership. However, it is not clear if a leader should use Style 2

(high/high), Style 1 (high task) and Style 3 (high relationship), or all three. Also, there is no indication of when a leader should use each type of behavior.

Clothier (1984) states that the Ohio State Model and the instruments which were developed along with it, Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), Leader Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ), and Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ), are frequently used in leadership research. He further states that this line of research has indicated positive correlations between a high Initiating Structure style and increased worker productivity and between a high Consideration style and increased worker satisfaction. Yet in spite of these findings, no single style has been identified as a "best" style for all circumstances.

Studies of Leadership Functions

Weinholtz (1981) looking at the numerous studies done on leadership during the 1940's and 1950's discerned that while many researchers focused on leadership styles (Lewin, Lippitt and White, 1939; McCandless, 1942; Gibb, 1951; Berkowitz, 1953; Hare, 1953; Torrance, 1953; Adams, 1954; Christner and Hemphill, 1955; Horowitz and Perlmutter, 1955; and Anderson, 1959), many other researchers (Redl, 1942; Kretch and Crutchfield, 1948; Hemphill, 1949; Prentice, 1953; Medalia, 1955; Stogdill and Coons, 1957; and Roby, 1961) examined leadership functions. These researchers dealt with observable functions of the leaders, i.e., what the leader does and what the leader should do to be effective.

Studies looking at the observable functions of leaders appear to have roots in the scientific management movement, founded by Frederick W.

Taylor (1911) and the human relations movement, generally associated with Elton Mayo (1945). Researchers using the scientific management approach were concerned with discovering the key variable in an organized and efficient environment. Human relations researchers attempted to discover the extent to which interpersonal relationships related to work. The human relations approach to leadership inquiry came about mostly due to the failure of those using the scientific management approach to attend to interpersonal variables. Leavitt (1962) reported a comparison of scientific management approach and the human relations approach (see Table I).

Hersey and Blanchard (1982b) summarized the essence of these two approaches to leadership by noting that the scientific management movement had a task (output) concern, while the human relations movement had a relationships (people) concern. They further noted that these two concerns have characterized the writings on leadership ever since the conflict between the scientific management and human relations schools of thought became evident.

This conflict between the scientific management movement and the human relations movement might have caused the disparity in the studies of leader functions. Hemphill (1949) reported five functions common to a wide variety of leaders. They were: (1) advancement of group members; (2) administration; (3) inspiring group activity and setting the group pace; (4) lending a feeling of security to individual members; and (5) acting without regard to their own self-interest. This list seems to offer a balance between the two approaches of leadership functions. However, Kretch and Crutchfield (1948) offer a list of fourteen functions

TABLE I

COMPARISON OF LEADERSHIP APPROACHES BETWEEN SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT STUDIES AND HUMAN RELATIONS STUDIES

Dimensions of Approaches	Scientific Management	Human Relations
1. Management's goal for worker	Productivity-by satisfying his economic needs.	Productivity-by satisfying his social needs.
2. Theoretical orientation	If material rewards are closely related to the employees' work efforts, they will respond with the maximum performance they are capable of.	If work and organizational structure were related to social needs of employees they would be happy, organization therefore would obtain full cooperation and effort and thus increase its efficiency.
3. Regard for the worker	Individual compared to a machine.	Individual considered with desires, emotions, feelings, and attitudes.
4. Consideration of the work process	Standardized-worker is dependent upon the organization, hence no conflict between him and organization.	Flexible-worker is independent hence conflict is inevitable; in a sense, conflict is considered desirable.
5. Organizational structure	Firm and rigid supervision is needed; centralized.	Informal and not much need for supervision; decentralized.
6. Nature of authority	Autocratic - the top management decides.	Democratic - anyone is allowed to take part.

TABLE I (Continued)

Dimensions of Approaches	Scientific Management	Human Relations
7. Participation in decision-making	Top manager's responsibility; therefore, nil for low level management.	Views and concerns of workers who are allowed to take part.
8. Communications set-up	A one-way direction from top to bottom and almost nil among peers.	Very permissive between and among horizontal and vertical levels of management.

that seem to favor mostly the scientific management school. They included: "executive; planner; policy-maker; expert; external group representative; controller of internal relationships; purveyor of rewards and punishments; arbitrator; exemplar; group symbol; surrogate for individual responsibility; ideologist; father figure; and scapegoat." Stogdill (1974) identified leader functions as follows:

1. defining objectives and maintaining goal directions;
2. providing means for goal attainment;
3. providing and maintaining group structure;
4. facilitating group action and interaction;
5. maintaining group cohesiveness and member satisfaction; and
6. facilitating group task performance.

All of the above lists of functions can easily be broken down into two main concerns associated with (1) task achievement (output), and (2)group maintenance (people). Many researchers have found these two

categories to exist. Bales (1958) discussed the task leader and the socio-emotional leader. In their factor analysis study, Fleishman, Harris, and Burtt (1955) found the factors of task achievement and group maintenance accounted for 83 percent of the explainable variance in leader behavior. Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1957) perceived leadership behavior as existing on a continuum ranging from boss-centered (or authoritarian leadership) to subordinate-centered (or democratic leadership). Cartwright and Zander (1960) offers his Theory X, where the goals of the organization are emphasized and Theory Y, which takes into account a balanced view of the worker in the context of the organization. Likert (1961) describes the functions of leader behavior as job-centered, a concern for the production of the organization, and employee-centered, a concern for the people in the organization. Katz, et al., (1950,1951) after conducting survey research to identify indicators of effectiveness at the University of michigan, found two concepts which were labeled production orientation, emphasizing production and technical aspects of the job, and employee orientation, which emphasizes the human relationships aspects of the job. Fiedler (1967) described two major functions of leadership. They are task-oriented, which satisfies the leader's need to gain satisfaction by performing a task, and relationship-orientation, which emphasizes attaining a position of prominence and achieving good interpersonal relations. Blake and Mouton (1964) proposed a managerial grid that has two orthogonal dimensions. These dimensions are labeled, "concern for production" which includes the kinds of policies that are established and the methods to maintain organizational growth and development. The "concern for people" dimension includes good working

conditions and a commitment to one's job and self-esteem and trust for the organization. Vroom and Yetton (1963) described autocratic and democratic models of leader behavior. Reddin (1967, 1970) perceived leadership behavior as a function of task and relationship. Citing research that was conducted at Harvard, the University of michigan, and The Ohio State University, Reddin (1970) describes the function of task orientation as the direction of the manager for his or her own efforts and for the efforts of his or her subordinates. This direction could be carried out by organizing or initiating. The function of relationship orientation centers on the leader's personal job relationships that are characterized by listening, trusting and encouraging. According to Reddin, both of these functions are independent of each other. Hersey and Blanchard (1969) use the term task and relationship to describe the functions of a leader much the same as Reddin, but the descriptions are more specific. Task behavior is as follows:

> the extent to which leaders are likely to organize and define the roles of the members of their group (followers); to explain what activities each is to do and when, where, and how tasks are to be accomplished; characterized by endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organizations, channels of communication and ways of getting jobs accomplished (pp. 103-104).

Relationship behavior is as follows:

> the extent to which leaders are likely to maintain personal relationships between themselves and members of their group (followers) by opening up channels of communication, providing socio-emotional support, "psychological strokes," and facilitating behaviors (p. 104).

From much of the research on leadership, the breakdown of leadership functions into the two broad categories of task and maintenance or the breakdown of leadership style into the two dimensions of initiating

structure and initiating consideration as mentioned above, helps to integrate leadership theory, and provides categories for further study. Interestingly enough, Carter, et. al., (1968, pp. 381-387) reports that both leadership styles and leadership functions have been shown to be related to the situations in the studies.

Studies of the Situational Aspect of Leadership

As the limitations of the "best style" or "best function" approach to leadership became apparent, there was increasing evidence of leadership's situational nature. Many studies showed that if leaders varied their behavioral style or function to a variety of situations, they were more successful. In his 1948 review of the literature, Stogdill analyzed 124 studies which indicated that patterns of leadership traits differed as the situation was changed. As an example, Stogdill used Terman's 1940 study where it was found that children who are leaders in one situation may not be the group leader when placed with different children in other settings.

Weinholtz (1981) cited the following studies indicating the situational nature of leadership. Hemphill (1950) demonstrated that leaders can be created by unequal distribution of power, prestige and skill, or by providing a task that requires a division of labor. Leavitt (1951) showed that central figures in communications networks tend to become leaders. Ruding (1964) and Katzel, et al., (1970) found that authoritarian, centralized leadership is more effective for simple tasks; while Torrance (1961), Korten (1962) and others found it preferable when stress is high. Several researchers (e.g., Greening, 1973, and Stinson and

Robertson, 1973) found that group member satisfaction is improved when leadership style is consistent with member expectations.

These studies provided the evidence necessary for a new group of theories about leadership to evolve. The theories or lines of research that subsequently emerged were all founded on the premise that leader behavior must vary to fit a variety of situations.

The first major line of research focusing on situational leadership was initiated by Fiedler (1964), who offered his contingency model of leadership effectiveness. Fiedler postulated "that the performance of interacting groups is contingent upon the interaction of leadership style and situational favorableness." His model specified that "so-called 'task-oriented' leaders perform more effectively in very favorable and very unfavorable situations, while 'relationship-oriented' leaders perform more effectively in situations intermediate in favorableness." Fiedler operationalized leadership style through a measure of leaders' attitudes concerning their least preferred co-workers (LPC). He theorized that autocratic leaders would view LPC's less favorable than would democratic leaders (Fiedler, 1971, pp. 128-129). This instrument measures esteem for the leader's least preferred co-worker. Leadership style is generalized form this score. A low LPC score indicates a tendency for a leader to be task-oriented, and high LPC score indicates a tendency toward relationship-orientation (Weinholtz, 1981).

Situational favorableness was operationalized through ratings of leader-member relations, task structure and positions power. Fiedler and Chemers (1974) define these as follows:

> Leader-Member Relations is the acceptance of the leader by the workers,the climate of their relationships, the communication

and trust existing between them, and feelings the worker has toward the leader.

Task Structure is the clarity of the task that the work group is to perform, how easily and carefully it can be measured, the completeness and simplicity of directions given, and the degree to which job assignments are procedurized.

Positive Power is the amount of power the organization invests in the leader to affect workers' standards, rewards, and evaluations.

The theory predicts which of two leadership styles is most effective in each of eight situations defined by various combinations of three contingency factors. Fiedler's studies correlated the leader's LPC scores with group performance in each of the various octants. Results of his research and the predicted most effective leadership style are summarized in Table II.

Fiedler's theory measured leadership effectiveness based on how well the group performed its major assigned task. Aspects of group behavior such as morale, member satisfaction, and personal growth were viewed as contributors to performance, but were not considered to be the primary criterion (Weinholtz, 1981). The principal value of this theory is that it lends support to the premise that different leadership styles are appropriate in different situations.

Weed, Mitchell and Moffitt (1976) found a significant three-way interaction (p .05) among leadership style, subordinates' personality, and type of task, supporting the assumption of effective leadership as situationally determined. They concluded that supervisors who are considerate of people may be liked best, but may not necessarily be the most effective. To be most effective, considerate supervisors must also have a good match between leadership style, subordinate personality, and

TABLE II

MOST APPROPRIATE LEADERSHIP STYLE FOR MAXIMIZING GROUP PERFORMANCE, ACCORDING TO FIEDLER'S CONTINGENCY THEORY

	Leader-Member Relations	Task Structure	Position Power	Favorable Leadership Style
Octant I	Good	Structured	Strong	Task Oriented
Octant II	Good	Structured	Weak	Task Oriented
Octant III	Good	Unstructured	Strong	Task Oriented
Octant IV	Good	Unstructured	Weak	Relationship Oriented
Octant V	Poor	Structured	Strong	Relationship Oriented
Octant VI	Poor	Structured	Weak	Relationship Oriented
Octant VII	Poor	Unstructured	Strong	Relationship Oriented
Octant VIII	Poor	Unstructured	Weak	Task Oriented

NOTE: Fred E. Fiedler, A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967), p. 142.

task type. Weinholtz (1981) addressed out the validity of Fiedler's theory as follows:

> Although the validity of the LPC measures has been questioned (see Fishbein, et al., 1969; Muller, 1970; Stinson, 1972; Shiflett, 1973 & 1974; and Evans & Dermer, 1974) Fiedler's model has proven to be quite resilient. A review of 25 investigations (Fiedler, 1971) revealed the model's high predictive performance for task groups in field situations, while demonstrating its difficulties regarding individually oriented laboratory groups (p. 42).

Another situational theory of leadership is commonly known as "House's Path-Goal Theory of Leadership." This theory deals with the effects of leader behavior on the motivation of subordinates as it explains the effects of four types of leader behavior on three attitudes or expectations of subordinates: (1) subordinates' satisfaction; (2) subordinates' acceptance of the leader; and (3) subordinates' expectations that effort will result in effective performance and that effective performance is the path to reward. Two classes of situational variables or contingency factors mediate the effects of the different leadership styles. These effects are (1) personal characteristics of the subordinates to include achievement motivation, self-perception of ability, locus of control and degree of authority; and (2) environmental factors to include group size, nature of authority system, and factors involved in the task such as repetitiveness, complexity and ambiguity (House, 1971; House and Mitchell, 1974). A description of the four leadership styles (Filley, House and Kerr, 1976, p. 253) and the circumstances in which they are felt to be most effective are summarized as follows Clothier, 1984, p. 31):

> Instrumental Leadership features the planning, organizing, controlling, and coordinating of subordinate activities. This

directive style is characterized by giving specific guidance on what should be done and how to do it, clarifying roles in the group, scheduling work, maintaining standards, and enforcing rules. This style appears most appropriate in dealing with subordinates having high authoritarianism orientations who are working at ambiguous tasks.

Participative Leadership is characterized by the sharing of information, power, and influence between supervisors and subordinates. Participative leaders treat subordinates pretty much as their equals, and allow them to influence their actions and decisions. This supportive style is characterized by showing concern for status, well-being, and needs of subordinates. Such leaders do little things to make work more pleasant and they are approachable. This style will have its most positive effects when the work is dissatisfying, frustrating, or stressful to subordinates.

Supportive Leadership refers to behavior which includes giving consideration to the needs of subordinates, displaying concern for their well-being, status, comfort, and creating a friendly and pleasant climate. This achievement-oriented type is characterized by setting challenging goals, seeking improvement in performance, and showing a high degree of confidence that subordinates will assume responsibility, put forth effort, and achieve challenging goals. This style is most effective when used with subordinates performing ambiguous, non-repetitive tasks.

Achievement-Oriented Leadership is characterized by leaders who set challenging goals, expect subordinates to perform at their highest level, continuously seek improvement in performance and show a high degree of confidence that subordinates will assume responsibility, put forth effort, and accomplish challenging goals. This participative style is characterized by consultation with subordinates and taking subordinates' suggestions into consideration when making decisions. This style is related to satisfaction and productivity when tasks are non-repetitive and ego-involving. When tasks are not of this nature, only low-authoritarian subordinates are influenced positively by participative leadership.

Beck (1978) reports the results of Path-Goal studies as interesting but not illuminating. He goes on to report that three of the four styles are useful with ambiguous tasks. With clear tasks, some followers prefer to be directed, while others prefer to work without direction. Another result shows that when problems are pressing, people need support.

The value of House's Path-Goal Theory is that it clearly shows that all of the leadership styles can be effective, depending upon the situation, which confirms the hypothesis that no one style is best.

The next situational theory is the Vroom and Yetton Decision Making Model that describes styles of decision-making rather than styles of leadership. Vroom and Yetton (1973) describe four categories of leader styles of decision-making. These four types are (as shown in Table III.) Autocratic (A), Consultative (C), Group (G), and Delegated (D).

Vroom and Yetton (1973) define seven "problem attributes" which describe situational variables influencing the decision process. These attributes are: importance of quality; leader information; problem structure; subordinate acceptance important to implementation; subordinate acceptance expected if decision made independently; subordinate commitment to organizational goals, and the likelihood of subordinate conflict.

This theory is normative in the sense that the attributes distinguish problem situations, which in turn provides a way to determine which method is the best for any given situation. This is accomplished by organizing the decision methods and problem attributes into a "flow chart" or "decision-making tree" which guides a leader to examine any situation in terms of each attribute, and thus find the style that will best meet the need of the specific situation.

Vroom's (1976) research indicates that leaders typically use a range of styles in order to use the right style at the right time. Those that follow this model, it is proposed, will be more effective than those who do not. Because the model is complex, it has not been tested in the

TABLE III

DECISION METHODS FOR GROUP AND INDIVIDUAL PROBLEMS
ACCORDING TO THE VROOM-YETTON MODEL

Group Problems	Individual Problems
A1. You solve the problem or make the decision yourself using information available to you at the time.	A1. You solve the problem or make the decision yourself using information available to you at the time.
A11. You obtain the necessary information from your subordinates, then decide on the solution to the problem yourself. You may or may not tell your subordinates what the problem is in getting the information from them. The role played by your subordinates in making the decision is clearly one of providing the information to you, rather than generating or evaluating alternative solutions.	A11. You obtain the necessary information from your subordinates, then decide on the solution to the problem yourself. You may or may not tell your subordinates what the problem is in getting the information from them. Their role in making the decision is clearly one of providing the necessary information to you, rather than generating or evaluating alternative solutions.
C1. You share the problem with the relevant subordinates individually, getting their ideas and suggestions without bringing them together as a group. Then you make the decision, which may or may not reflect your subordinates' influence.	C1. You share the problem with your subordinates, getting their ideas and suggestions. Then you make the decision, which may or may not reflect influence.

TABLE III (Continued)

Group Problems	Individual Problems
C11. You share the problem with your subordinates as a group, obtaining their collective ideas and suggestions. Then you make the decision, which may or may not reflect your subordinates' influence.	G1. You share the problem with your subordinates and together you analyze the problem and arrive at a mutually agreeable solution.
G11. You share the problem with your subordinates as a group. Together you generate and evaluate alternatives and attempt to reach agreement (con-sensus) on a solution. Your role is much like that of a chairman. You do not try to influence the group to adopt "your" solution, and you are willing to accept and implement any solution which has the support of the entire group.	D1. You delegate the problem to your subordinate, providing him with any relevant information that you possess, but giving him responsibility for solving the problem by himself. You may or may not request him to tell you what solution he has reached.

NOTE: Victor H. Vroom and Philip W. Yetton, Leadership and Decision-Making (Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1973), p. 13.

field. It has, however, been determined that training improves a leader's ability to diagnose situations in laboratory simulations.

Reddin (1967, 1970) proposed a third dimension of effectiveness to the earlier models. This fostered the idea that any of the four leadership styles in the four quadrants of the two-dimensional Ohio State Model (see Figure 4) could be effective or ineffective depending on the situation. Reddin posits that:

> . . . If any style may be less-effective or more-effective, depending on circumstances, then each . . . style will have two behavioral counterparts, one less-effective and the other more-effective (Reddin, 1967, p. 13).

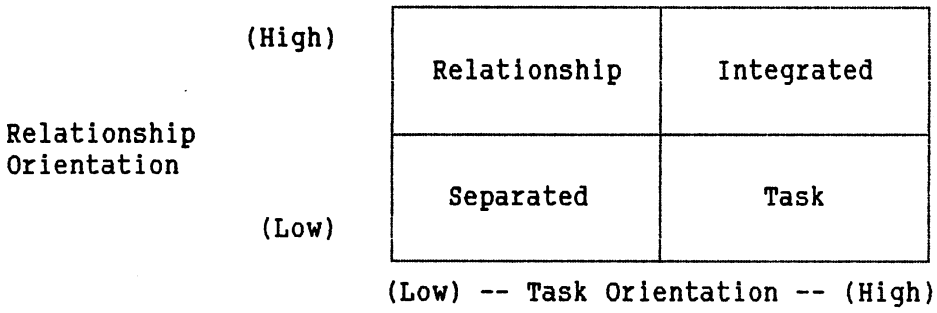

Figure 4: Leadership Styles.

NOTE: William J. Reddin, "The 3-D Management Style Theory," Training and Development Journal, 21, 1967, p. 11.

In his 3-D Management Style Theory, Reddin (1967) postulated the twelve 3-D styles arranged as three four-quadrant arrays stretching along a third dimension of effectiveness as depicted in Figure 5.

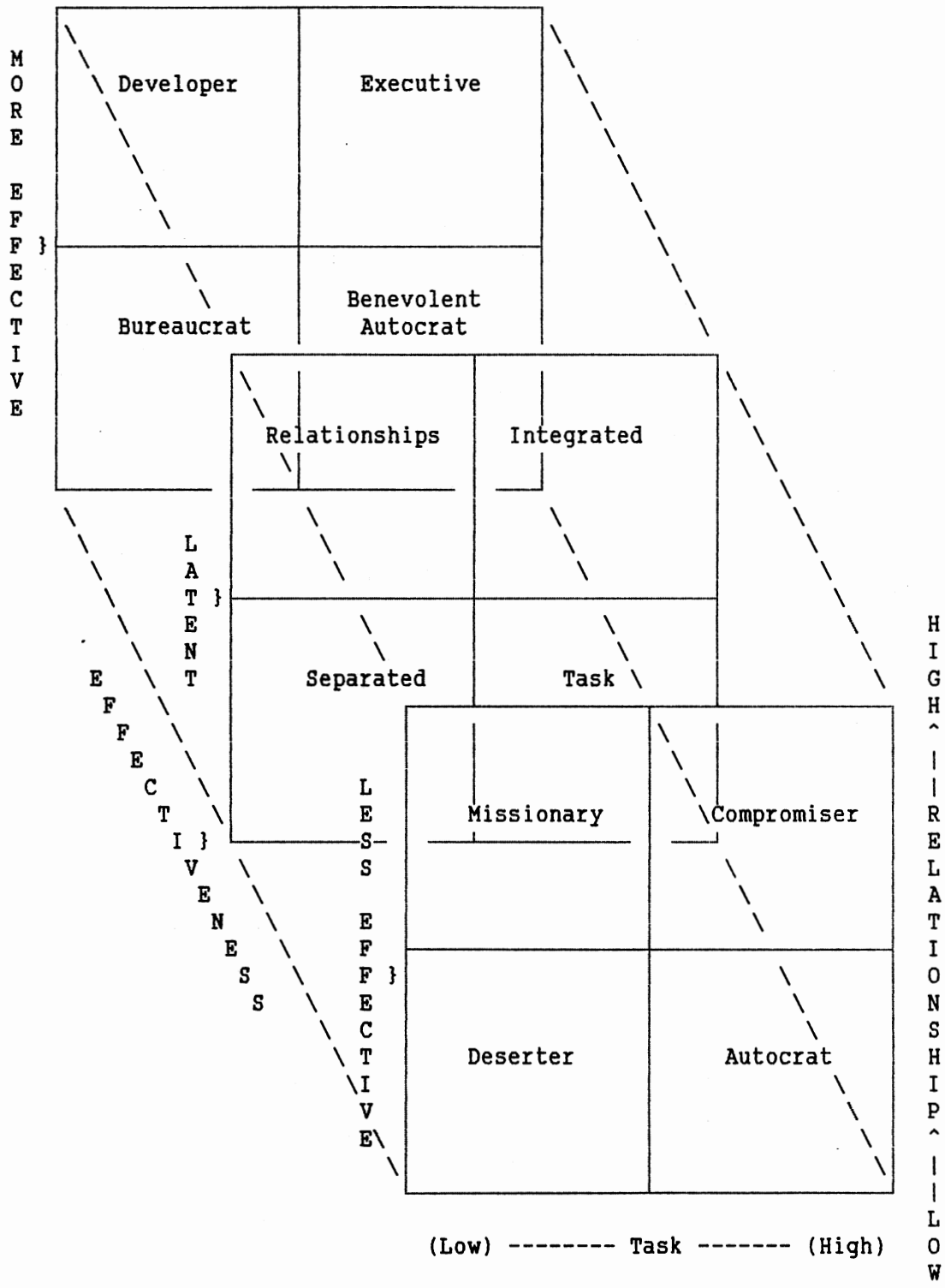

Figure 5: 3-D Management Style Theory

NOTE: William J. Redding, "The 3-D Management Style Theory." Training and Development Journal, 21, 1967, p. 14.

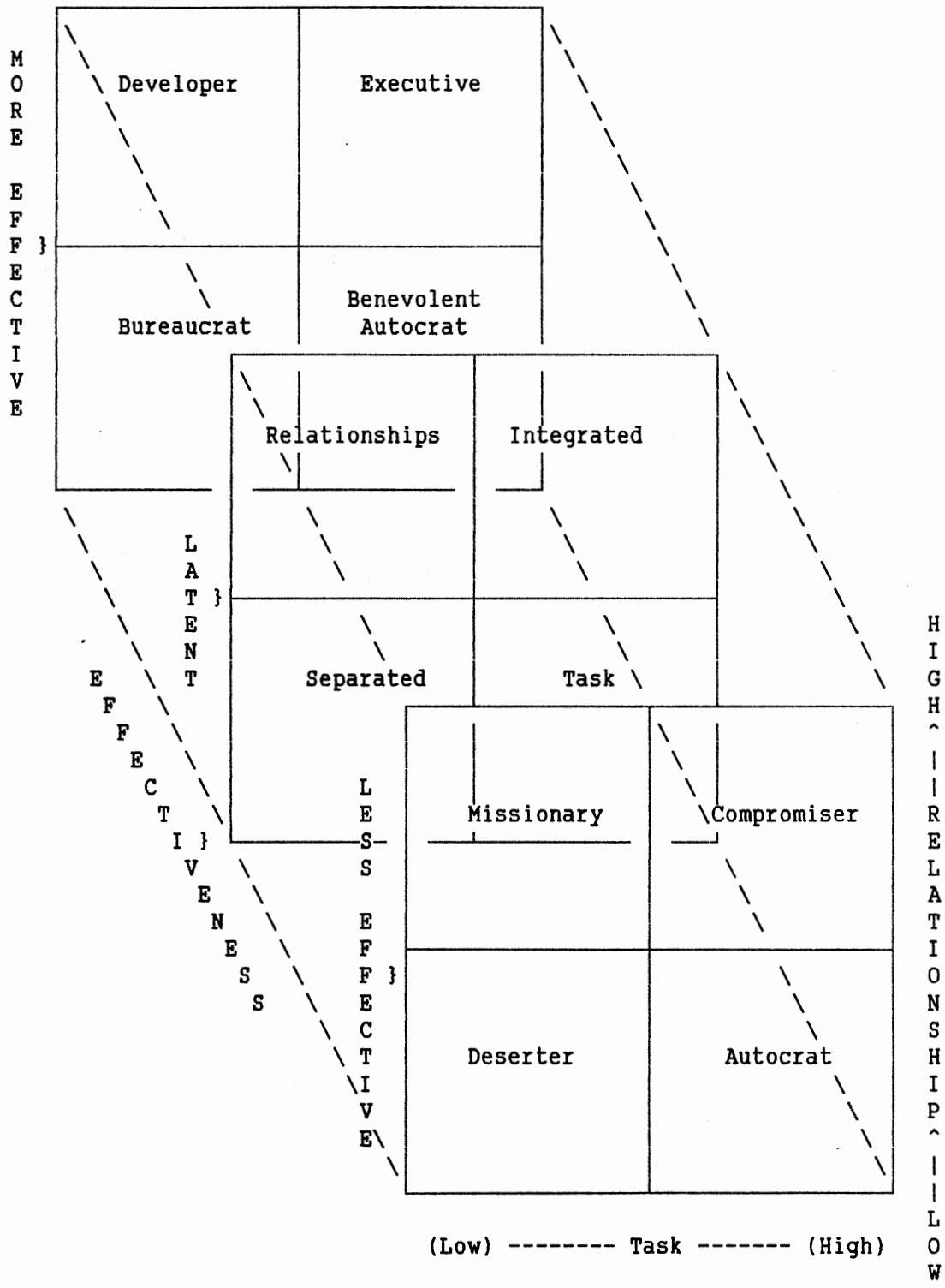

Figure 5: 3-D Management Style Theory

NOTE: William J. Redding, "The 3-D Management Style Theory." Training and Development Journal, 21, 1967, p. 14.

Reddin (1967) proposed that the essential difference between the less-effective and more-effective styles is determined by the extent to which a manager's style "fits the style demands of the situation he is in" (p. 15). He lists five elements composing the style demands.

1. The style demand of the job;
2. The style demand of the superior (a) the corporate philosophy and (b) the style of the superior,
3. The style demand of subordinates (a) the expectations of subordinates and (b) the styles of subordinates

It is important to understand that the distinction between more-effective and less-effective styles does not lie in leader behavior expressed in terms of task and relationship only Any amount of either or both does not guarantee effectiveness Effectiveness, according to 3-D Theory, leaves results from the style's appropriateness to the situation where it is used. Thus the "SEPARATED" basic style, when appropriately used, is perceived as "BUREAUCRAT," and when inappropriately used, is perceived as "DESERTER "

Reddin (1967) defines the eight leader styles as follows.

1 AUTOCRAT A leader who is using a high TASK ORIENTATION and a low RELATIONSHIP ORIENTATION in a situation where such behavior is inappropriate and who is, therefore, less effective; perceived as having not confidence in others, as unpleasant, and as interested only in the immediate task

2 BENEVOLENT AUTOCRAT· A leader who is using a high TASK ORIENTATION and a low RELATIONSHIP ORIENTATION in a situation where such behavior is appropriate and who is, therefore, more effective; perceived as knowing what he wants and how to get it without creating resentment

3 DESERTER· A leader who is using a low TASK ORIENTATION and a low RELATIONSHIP ORIENTATION in a situation where such behavior is inappropriate and who is, therefore, less effective, perceived as uninvolved and passive or negative.

4. BUREAUCRAT: A leader who is using a low TASK ORIENTATION and a low RELATIONSHIP ORIENTATION in a situation where such behavior is appropriate and who is, therefore, more effective, perceived as being primarily interested in rules and procedures for their own sake, as wanting to control the situation by their use, and as conscientious

5 COMPROMISER· A leader who is using a high TASK ORIENTATION and a high RELATIONSHIP ORIENTATION in a situation that requires a high orientation to only one or neither and who is, therefore, less effective; perceived as being a poor decision maker, as one who allows various pressures in the situation to influence him too much, and as avoiding or minimizing immediate pressures and problems rather than maximizing long-term production.

6 EXECUTIVE. A leader who is using a high TASK ORIENTATION and a high RELATIONSHIP ORIENTATION in a situation where such behavior is appropriate and who is, therefore, more effective, perceived as a good motivating force and a manager who sets high standards, treats everyone somewhat differently, and prefers team management.

7. MISSIONARY: A leader who is using a high RELATIONSHIP ORIENTATION and a low TASK ORIENTATION in a situation where such behavior is inappropriate and who is, therefore, less effective, perceived as being primarily interested in harmony.

8. DEVELOPER: A leader who is using a high RELATIONSHIP ORIENTATION and a low TASK ORIENTATION in a situation where such behavior is appropriate and who is, therefore, more effective; perceived as having implicit trust in people and as being primarily concerned with developing them as individuals.

Reddin's theory is taken one step further by Situational Leadership Theory developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1982b) This theory, which was first introduced as "Life Cycle Theory of Leadership" (Hersey and Blanchard, 1969), adds a situational variable which can be used to determine appropriate leadership styles (see Figure 6)

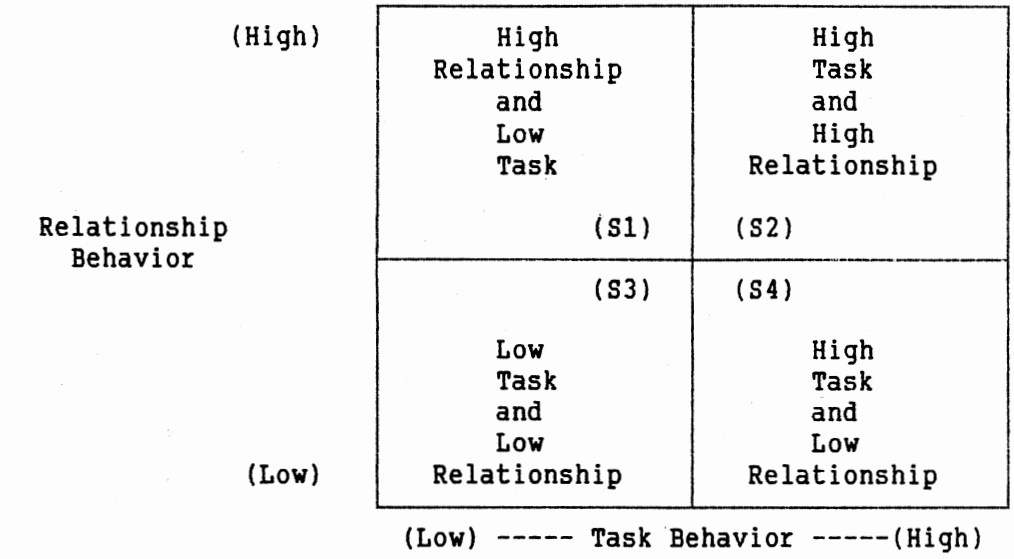

Figure 6: Leader Behavior Styles According to Situational Leadership Theory.

NOTE: Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources, 4th ed. (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1982b) p. 200.

The task and relationship behavior dimensions in Figure 7 correspond to the Initiating Structure and Consideration dimensions of the Ohio State Model, and the Style Adaptability dimension of Situational Leadership Theory corresponds to Reddin's Effectiveness dimensions.

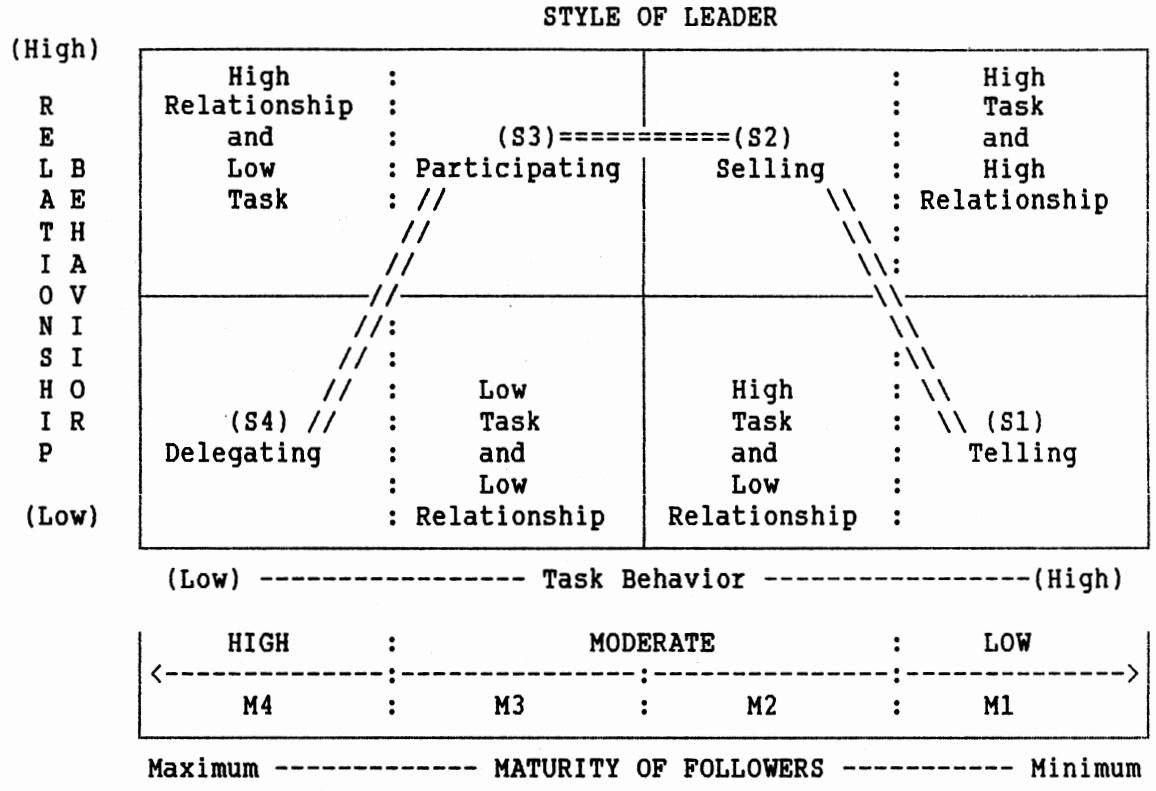

Figure 7: Relationships Between Leadership Styles and Follower Maturity According to SLT.

NOTE: Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources, 4th ed. (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1982b) p. 152.

According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982b):

> ...style adaptability is the degree to which the (leaders) are able to vary their style appropriately to the demands of a given situation according to Situational Leadership. People who have a narrow style range can be effective over a long period of time if they remain in situations in which their style has a high probability of success. Conversely, people who have a wide range of styles may be ineffective if these behaviors are not consistent with the demand of the situation. Thus, style range is not as relevant to effectiveness as style adaptability; a wide style range will not guarantee effectiveness (pp. 234-235).

Reddin and Hersey and Blanchard use the third dimension, effectiveness and style adaptability respectively, to stress that the flexibility of a storehouse of styles alone is not sufficient to ensure leadership effectiveness. Effectiveness comes with both a range of styles so that a leader is able to vary his or her leadership style, and the appropriate match of style to the situation.

Hersey and Blanchard's additional variable helps this process. The variable is "task-relevant maturity." It is defined as "job-maturity-ability and technical knowledge to do the task" and "psychological-maturity-feeling of self-confidence and self-respect about oneself as an individual" (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977, p. 263). These terms refer to the "ability" and willingness of individuals to take responsibility for directing their own behavior. These variables of maturity are determined only relation to a specific, observable task to be performed (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982b, p. 151). It is referred to as task relevant maturity as an all-inclusive term.

The two dimensions of task relevant maturity are, like the other dimensions of the model, scaled from low to high, result in four levels (see Figure 7), and defined as follows:

M1 is low in both ability and willingness. Individual followers or groups at this level lack both competence and confidence;

M2 is low in ability but high in willingness. Followers or groups at this level are self-confident but lack needed skills to take responsibility;

M3 is high in ability but low in willingness. The problem is often a lack of motivation rather than a sense of insecurity;

M4 is high in both ability and willingness. Followers and groups at this level are both competent and confident enough to take responsibility.

Hersey and Blanchard have defined, then, four styles of leader behavior (S1, S2, S3, and S4) and four levels of followers task relevant maturity (M1, M2, M3, and M4) which, in turn, define four categories of situations.

According to Hersey and Blanchard (1977, p. 163), as the level of maturity of the follower(s) continues to increase in terms of accomplishing a specific task, the leader should begin to reduce task behavior and increase relationship behavior. This should be the case until the individual or group reaches a moderate level of maturity. As the follower begins to move into an above average level of maturity, it becomes appropriate for the leader to decrease not only TASK behavior but RELATIONSHIP behavior as well. Now the follower is not only mature in terms of the performance of the task, but also in his or her psychological maturity. Thus, Situational Leadership Theory focuses on the appropriateness or the effectiveness of leadership styles according to the TASK RELEVANT MATURITY of the follower(s). This cycle is illustrated by a bell-shaped curve superimposed upon the four leadership quadrants, as shown in Figure 7. As the maturity level of one's followers develops along the maturity continuum from immature to mature, the appropriate style of leadership moves accordingly along the curvilinear function.

In determining what leadership style is appropriate to use in a given situation, one must first determine the maturity level of the follower in relation to a specific task that the leader is attempting to

accomplish through the follower's efforts. Once identified, the appropriate leadership style can be determined by constructing a right angle (90 degrees) from the point where it intersects on the curvilinear function in the style of leader portion of the model. The quadrant in which that intersection takes place suggests the appropriate style to be used by the leader in that situation with a follower of that maturity level. Thus, Situational Leadership Theory contends that in working with people who are low in maturity (M1), a high TASK/low RELATIONSHIP style (S1) has the highest probability of success. And a low RELATIONSHIP/low TASK (S4) has the highest probability of success in working with people of high TASK RELEVANT MATURITY (M4).

Hersey and Blanchard (1982b) define the four styles of Situational Leadership Theory as Follows:

1. HIGH TASK/LOW RELATIONSHIP (S1), referred to as "TELLING:" People who are both unable and unwilling (M1) to take responsibility are not competent or confident. A directive "TELLING" style (S1) that provides clear, specific directions and supervision has the highest probability of being effective with individuals at this maturity level. It characterizes the leader's defining roles as telling people what, how, when, and where to do various tasks. It emphasizes directive behavior;

2. HIGH TASK/HIGH RELATIONSHIP (S2), referred to as "SELLING:" People who are unable but willing (M2) to take responsibility are confident but lack skills at this time. Thus, a "SELLING" style (S2) that provides directive behavior, because of their lack of ability, but also supportive behavior to reinforce their willingness and enthusiasm appears to be most appropriate with individuals at this maturity level. Most of the direction is still provided by the leader, yet, through two-way communication and explanation, the leader tries to get the followers psychologically to "buy into" desired behaviors. Followers at this maturity level will usually go along with a decision if their leader also offers some help and direction.

3. HIGH RELATIONSHIP/LOW TASK (S3), referred to as "PARTICIPATING:" People at this maturity level are able but unwilling (M3) to do what the leader wants. Their reluctance to perform is more of a motivational problem. The leader needs to open the door (two-way communications and active listening) to support the follower's efforts to use the ability he already has. Thus, a supportive, nondirective "PARTICIPATING" style (S3) has the highest probability of being effective with individuals at this maturity level. The leader and the follower share in decision making, with the main role of the leader being facilitating and communicating;

4. LOW RELATIONSHIP/LOW TASK (S4), referred to as "DELEGATING:" People at this maturity level are both able and willing, or confident, to take responsibility. Thus, a low-profile "DELEGATING" style (S4), which provides little direction or support, has the highest probability of being effective with individuals at this maturity level (M4). Even though the leader may still identify the problem, the responsibility for carrying out plans is given to these mature followers (pp. 153-154).

Situational Leadership Theory is prescriptive in that it indicates how a leader should act in various situations, and it is developmental in that it claims that as task relevant maturity increases, leadership style should progress accordingly. Failure to manifest style adaptability can result from inflexibility on the part of the leader or from failure to select the appropriate style for particular situations.

Clothier (1984) reminds the leader to bear in mind that, regardless of the past maturity level of an individual or group, constant reassessment should occur. A successful leader must, therefore, move backward and forward along the prescriptive curve as his/her assessment of the present situation demands.

This concept of leadership as it relates to the task relevant maturity of the followers may have been better explained by Burns (1978). He related leadership as the process that transforms followers

developmentally by constantly focusing on elevating their goals, not just focusing on accomplishment of tasks.

The comprehensive study of leadership conducted by James MacGregor Burns (1978) looked at the vast reservoir of data, analyses, and theories on leadership as well as the expression of the thoughtful experience of leaders. His quest was an intellectual breakthrough about the leadership process across cultures and across time focusing on elevating the goals of followers. Burns (1978) stated:

> I hope to demonstrate that the processes of leadership must be seen as part of the dynamics of conflict and of power; that leadership is nothing if not linked to collective purpose; that the effectiveness of leaders must be judged not by their press clippings but by actual social change measured by intent and by the satisfaction of human needs and expectations; that political leadership depends on a long chain of biological and social processes, of interaction with structures of political opportunity and closures, of interplay between the calls of moral principles and the recognized necessities of power; that in placing these concepts of political leadership centrally into a theory of historical causation, we will reaffirm the possibilities of human volition of common standards of justice in the conduct of peoples' affairs (pp. 3-4).

He identified two basic types of leadership: transactional and transforming. Transactional leadership involves a joint effort of leaders and followers with the common aim of exchanging one thing for another, such as jobs for votes. These transactions, or mutually rewarding exchanges as Stogdill refers to them in his explanation of exchange theories of leadership, comprise the relations of most leaders and followers.

Transforming leaders initially recognize and capitalize on the existing need of potential followers, but eventually seeks to satisfy higher needs of the followers. This engagement of the full person of the

follower converts followers into leaders and may convert the transforming leaders into moral agents.

The conversion of the transforming leader into the moral leader concerned Burns the most. His concept of moral leadership is as follows:

> By this term (moral leadership) I mean, first, that leaders and led have a relationship not only of power but of mutual needs, aspirations, and values; second, that in responding to leaders, followers have adequate knowledge of alternative leaders and programs and the capacity to choose among those alternatives; and third, that leaders take responsibility for their commitments--if they promise certain kinds of economic, social, and political change, they assume leadership in the bringing about of that change. moral leadership is not mere preaching, or the uttering of pieties, or the insistence on social conformity. Moral leadership emerges from, and always returns to, the fundamental wants and needs, aspirations, and values of the followers. I mean the kind of leadership that can produce social change that will satisfy followers' authentic needs. I mean less the Ten Commandments than the Golden Rule. But even the Golden Rule is inadequate, for it measures the wants and needs of others simply by our own (p. 5).

His search for the moral foundations of leadership assisted him the most in identifying patterns in people that account for leadership, and to isolate those acts of leaders that serve ultimately to help the leader release full human potential, that is locked up in the ungratified needs and crushed expectations of followers.

Burns' (1978) description of leadership gives an insightful and intellectual portrayal of the process a leader should traverse to become a great leader. Theoretically, it seems to describe leadership as beginning with the mutual openness of the leaders in power and the followers. in a sense, it removes the stalemate of the great man theory and the environmental theory by suggesting that for leadership to begin it necessitates the mutual exchange of power, openness, and purpose. leadership, he says, over human beings is exercised when persons with

certain motives and purposes mobilize, in competition or conflict with others, institutional, political, psychological, and other resources so as to arouse, engage, and satisfy the motives of followers (Burns, 1978, p. 18). This statement regarding leadership is consistent with Stogdill's (1958, p. 58) conclusion regarding research relevant to leadership traits as reported earlier in this chapter (see page 17).

Leadership Literature: A Summary

In spite of the substantial efforts of a great many researchers and theorists, progress in the area of leadership has been slow. The blind alleys of the trait studies failed to yield the simple solutions that early researchers hoped would unlock the doors to leadership's secrets. Early investigations into simple leadership style models initially yielded highly encouraging results, but soon ran aground when it was discovered that recommendations were not generalizable to a very broad spectrum of situations. It took years to achieve a basic consensus as to the functions that a leader serves, and even then it had to be admitted that a host of elusive situational variables actually determined effective leadership's true form. Finally, even now, with "situationality" firmly ensconced in the research lexicon, the need for a great deal of additional research is obvious.

Nevertheless, the last 75 years of research have been extremely valuable. They have shown beyond a doubt that it is absurd to expect simple answers to complex social questions. It has been clearly demonstrated that the most to be expected from leadership theory is general

guidelines and branching scenarios that can be expected to unfold under shifting and often unpredictable circumstances.

Most of all, the research of the last three quarters of a century has shown the sizable impact of specific social situations on groups' leadership needs. We will never be able to flatly predict the specific leadership requirements of all groups. In his summary of leadership research progress since the turn of the century, Weinholtz (1981) explained that there are still a great many opportunities for creative and useful research contributions leading to useful insights into particular groups.

Weinholtz's (1981) comments regarding the opportunities for creative and useful research contributions leading to useful insights into particular groups are particularly important for this study. The particular focus in this study was on the community college and the leadership provided by the community college president. The president's effective and ineffective leadership behaviors were described by themselves and certain other community college publics via the Critical Incident Technique. Very little research on leadership has been undertaken in higher education in general, and in the community college in particular. By limiting the focus of this study to the community college it is hoped that specific findings especially pertinent to the community college setting will emerge.

Leadership Research in Educational Settings

Historically, leadership theory has been developed and studied principally in business environments. As a result, most of the

literature is from that setting. Nevertheless, in the last twenty years a significant body of public schools-oriented research tied to particular leadership theories has begun to develop (Halpin, 1965; Smith, 1957; Beck, 1978; Cormell, 1979; Diamond, 1979; and Long, 1979). In comparison, relatively little research relating to leadership theory has taken place in higher education. Much of what is written about leadership in higher education is not based on research conducted in that environment, but is, instead, simply an application of theoretical principles to higher education needs and problems.

There exists ample evidence to support the general value of a situational approach to leadership in the business world (e.g., Katz, Macoby, and Morse 1950; Stogdill and Coons, 1957; Korman, 1966; Fiedler, 1967; Reddin, 1967, 1970; Hambleton and Gumpert, 1981; and Haley, 1983) and some general evidence that supports Hersey and Blanchard's situational approach to leadership in an educational setting (e.g., Sleeth, 1977). However, the findings of Appleby (1979), Bagley (1972) and David (1979) have not been able to support the situational approach in an educational setting. Appleby (1979) measuring Fiedler's situational model, found that leadership style does not account for differences in managerial effectiveness of community college personnel, but suggested that the findings might be due to limitations of the instruments used in the study. Bagley (1971) found that Fiedler's Leadership Effectiveness Contingency Model, originally developed for the business setting, is not applicable to the educational setting and should not be used for selection, retention, evaluation or prediction of educational leadership. This recommendation is a result of the finding that the situational

variables used by Fiedler's model did not seem to be important variables in determining the effectiveness of the department leader. She suggested that further use of the model should entail refinement to enable the model to predict leadership effectiveness in the school situation. Bagley (1972) states that further research using Fiedler's model in educational settings seems inappropriate, and that the next research effort should study the variables that determine situational favorableness and the best method for dividing these situational variables. Davis (1978) using Fiedler's style and situational instruments, found no evidence that situational favorableness is a factor associated with task-oriented leadership style for college department heads. Davis (1978) recommends that future research attempt to identify situational variables in educational settings.

The findings of Beck (1978), Cormell (1979), Clark (1979) and Clothier (1984) have raised serious questions about the applicability of Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory (SLT) to educational institutions due to problems with instrumentation. Beck (1978) suggests that until the measures used to test SLT are valid and reliable, so that the variables of the leader subordinate's behavior are accurately reflected, valid research with SLT cannot be conducted in an educational setting. Both Beck (1978) and Clark (1984) suggest that the maturity instrument used in their studies needed revision as it did not appear to discriminate in the real world of practicing educators. Regarding instrumentation for the maturity scale, leadership style instrument, and the effectiveness scale, Beck (1978) and Clark (1984) suggest that the descriptors need to be revised to use words and phrases that are in an

integral part of the educational setting. Cormell (1979) cited the fact that the Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD) instrument used in his study was a limitation. It was originally standardized for use in the business world. He argued that a more accurate data gathering method for administrators at work was needed.

Clothier (1984) found difficulty in relating the instruments in his study (Developmental Level Scale and the Managerial Behavioral Analysis) to the higher educational environment and suggested that they be more specifically reflective of the situations and relationships in the higher education environment. He pointed out that if the instruments used in the research are not valid for the setting, then the data and results are uncertain.

It appears that the instrumentation used to test leadership in educational settings needs to be developed before research in education will be reliable and useful to educational leaders. It seems inappropriate to continue to run tests of a specific leadership theory, when the foundation of information necessary to operationalize the theory has not yet been established. To date, such appears to be the case of the testing of leadership in educational settings.

Presidential Leadership at the Community College

For nearly 20 years, the comprehensive community college in the United States has experienced rapid growth and sustained success. The comprehensive community college is an institution of higher education offering programs of instruction generally extending not more than two years beyond the high school level. These programs include courses in

occupational and technical fields, the liberal arts and sciences, general education, continuing adult education, pre-college and pre-technical preparatory programs, special training programs to meet economic needs of the region in which the college is located, and other services to meet regional, cultural and educational needs (McCarty, 1974). The growth in community colleges has increased the opportunities for people to attend college, and represents a hope for the future of American higher education (Cohen and Brawer, (1982). Community colleges in the states of Kansas and Oklahoma have shared in the growth and success of the community college movement.

Cohen and Roueche (1969) recognized that the presidency is the community college's most important leadership position. Presidents provide the impetus for education change resulting in improved practice, and accept the responsibility for shaping and implementing educational policies resulting in the success or failure of the two-year college in serving society. Thus, Cohen and Roueche (1969) took the position that the president of a two-year college must be an educational leader, not merely a manager or custodian of institutional resources. He or she sets the tone of the institution. The Carnegie Commission on Higher Education (1973), p. 36) stated that, "under the general direction of the board, the president holds the key administrative position." The president can initiate new structures or procedures for accomplishing the institution's goals, or can change the institution's goals within the framework of the general goals of the community college.

Shannon (1962) in his study of 240 presidents from 34 states around the country, reported that presidents believed their role was that of an

educational leader, both in the community and on campus. He found that presidents preferred to spend most of their time in the areas of staff relations, curriculum development, public relations and development and students, in that order. However, Shannon (1962) reported that presidents spend most of their time on matters dealing with administration, public relations and development, and finance.

In studying the question: "How do chief administrators (presidents) perceive their roles relative to selected administrative functions?", John McGill (1971) proposed the functions of (1) Board of Trustee relations, (2) district finance, (3) administrative staff relations, (4) community relations, (5) instructional programs, and (6) political and governmental agencies relations as most important to the role of the president. McGill (1971) found support that all six functions required either high priority or high time-consumption for California Chief Administrators.

McCarty (1974) in his study within the Virginia Community College System of the role-functions of 23 community college presidents, as perceived by 22 presidents, 95 division chairmen, and 104 full-time faculty, was able to identify 39 separate functions that were the responsibility of the president. There was agreement by all groups that the following items were the most important: (1) secure faculty and staff involvement in policy formulation whenever possible; (2) attend meetings of legislature and/or governmental agencies in connection with educational matters; (3) rely heavily on division and department chairmen in faculty evaluation; (4) delegate to the Dean of Instruction major responsibilities for instructional improvement and evaluation; (5) meet

and/or confer with legislature or other governmental officials in connection with educational financing; (6) delegate to the Dean of Instruction major responsibilities for curriculum development and evaluation; (7) secure assistance from the business manager or Dean of Financial Services on college budget matters; (8) attend meetings and/or speak to local civic or business groups on educational matters; and (9) request personally or through the Dean the assistance of division and department chairmen in the formulation of the college budget. The mean values for all respondents on all these items was above 5.0, a fact that suggests that the three groups felt very strongly about these functions being the responsibility of the president. Further examination of these items revealed that items 2, 5, 8, and 9 dealt with public relations of securing and allocating financial resources. Items 3, 4, and 6 addressed the president's delegation of responsibility for evaluation and improvement of instruction and curriculum. Item one dealt with faculty and staff involvement in policy formulation, and item 7 was concerned with securing assistance from staffing on college budget matters.

Stevens (1976), in his study of the perception of leader behavior of community college presidents, found that two factors emerged as indicative of leader behavior. They were concerns for the needs of the college (institution-oriented) and the needs of the individuals (individual-oriented). Leadership was purported to be a function of how well the leader could integrate the needs of the individuals and the needs of the institution.

Saunders (1978) in a survey of 110 faculty members and six presidents from the Michigan Community College System, found that the element

to be viewed most important to the role of president by faculty and presidents alike was, "provide leadership for the college in developing and maintaining a balanced educational program appropriate to the specific needs of the community." Additionally, respondents felt presidents should prepare long and short term institutional goals, stimulate maximum effectiveness among staff and faculty and participate in board meetings.

The general role of the community college president, as cited by Lewis (1982), covers the following areas: (1) decision-making; (2) budgeting; (3) planning; (4) establishing specific institutional goals; (5) developing positive student relations; (6) developing programs to meet the community needs; (7) formulating policies for institutional operation; (8) maintaining public relations; (9) providing academic leadership; (10) raising funds; and (11) athletics. These areas were derived from responses of the presidents of 56 junior-community colleges in the Southwest Region of the United States. Madison (1982) in her study on the perceptions of community college presidents in North Carolina by community college administrators and trustees found that six of fifty role tasks were perceived as essential for a community college president. These role tasks are (1) to create and maintain a sense of integrity within the college; (2) to ensure the maintenance of high academic standards for the college; (3) to involve faculty, staff, trustees, and others in institutional planning; (4) to promote and maintain effective two-way communication between the college and the board of trustees; (5) to demonstrate consistency in the treatment of faculty, staff, students,

and trustees; and (6) to promote and maintain positive public relations with the community.

It is evident that the job of community college president is not an easy one, especially with mounting concerns of accountability, competition, retrenchment, loss of autonomy, increasing governmental relations, collective bargaining and many more (Walsvick, 1981). Boards of trustees for community colleges seek leaders who can achieve the goals of the institution and fulfill the role of the president. If the leader doesn't satisfy these expectations, he or she is held responsible.

Perhaps the vital importance of the leadership of a community college president can be summed up in a quote from Clark (1981).

> Conventional wisdom proposes that to change the leadership is the quickest way to change an organization. Sports teams fire the losing coach and expect a winning season. Americans elect a new president and expect recovery from an economic depression or the need to end an unpopular war. Corporations with sagging profits replace the company president and expect increased dividends. School superintendents are ousted and educational miracles are anticipated. Building principals are appointed and expected to turn around a school. Our society continues to look to those we call leaders to be the key in making our organizations successful (p.1)

The community college presidency is an important area in which to begin preliminary research on community college leadership. The results of this study can possibly lead to the development and testing of leadership instruments designed for use in the community college.

Many researchers identifying the functions, style, characteristics, leader behaviors, performance, and role of the community college president have used quantitative questionnaires to collect their data (McCarty, 1974; smith, 1974; Wollman, 1974; Steven, 1976; Ringer, 1977; and Saunders, 1978). Burnham (1983) designed her qualitative study of

leadership competencies at community colleges in Texas, to generate rather than test hypotheses. She quoted Lundberg's (1978, pp. 80-81) claim that "undue emphasis" has been placed on hypotheses testing and it was time to break away from the "strangulation" caused by excessive faith in sets of leadership models. Burnham (1983) used an assessment technique based on the Critical Incident Technique to study leadership behavior in relation to successful developmental education programs. She keyed her data to twenty-seven leadership behavioral competencies validated by Klemp, et al (1977). Of the twenty-seven competencies used to analyze data, presidents were primal in conceptualizing, taking initiative, setting goals, expressing concern for achievement, encouraging team work, delegating responsibility and rewarding efforts. Murphy, Hallinger and Mitman (1983) recommend Burnham's approach to the study of leadership as it attempted to use the Critical Incident Technique to isolate educational leadership and study it within the context of the educational organization as a formal organization. However, Burnham (1983) had a small sample size of only nine leaders who reported about their perceptions of leadership.

Dean's (1986) study conducted at the University of Iowa investigated community college presidential leadership effectivness using the critical incident techinique. To obtain presidential, administrative, faculty and student services personnel perceptions, he used a questionnaire.

Dean's study revealed eight points regarding the perception of leadership behavior of community college presidents: (1) presidents, administrators and faculty all perceived effective leadership as involving the planning for and providing for the financial security of

community college personnel; (2) administrators, faculty and student services personnel expressed their preferences that presidents communicate to them regarding the status of their financial security, while the presidents showed less concern with such communication; (3) presidents placed less emphasis on promoting public relations than any of the tree personnel groups; (4) presidents and administrators showed the greatest concern with the generally low priority function of staffing; (5) while personnel, especially faculty, showed substantial concern with presidential action that personally alienated staff and faculty, the presidents reported no such concern; (6) presidents did not reflect administrators' and faculties' concerns with the presidents' failure to solicit input; (7) presidents showed less concern than faculty and administrators regarding the presidents' failure to act on known problems; and (8) faculty and student services personnel showed greater concern than the presidents and administrators regarding insufficiently informing staff and faculty. A large subject number study of the leadership behaviors of the community college president as reported by community college internal and external publics using a critical incident technique has not been conducted.

The Critical Incident Technique

An important preliminary step to testing any leadership theory in the community college setting will be the collection of incidents illustrating the behavior theoretically predicted as essential to effective leadership. Such incidents will be necessary to construct valid instruments to measure the president's task and relationship

behavior. Furthermore, such incidents may provide an indication of which of the many available theories is best suited for testing in the community college. Whichever way the results of such a study are used, a critical incident study focusing on effective leadership by the community college president seems justified.

History and Previous Applications

The roots of the Critical Incident Technique can be traced back directly to the studies of Sir Francis Galton nearly 70 years ago. The critical incident technique in its present form can best be explained as an outgrowth of studies in the Aviation Psychology Program of the United States Army Air Force in World War II.

John Flanagan (1954) developed the critical incident technique during World War II, in order to identify effective pilot performance. The technique consists of a set of simple interview procedures for collecting information from people about their direct observations of their own or others' behavior. For example, in early studies he asked combat veterans to report incidents that were significantly helpful or harmful to their mission. Pilots were asked "to think of some occasion during combat flying in which you personally experienced disorientation or strong vertigo" (p.329) and to describe what they "saw, heard, or felt that brought on the experience (p.329). Flanagan (1954) analyzed the descriptions and produced a list of the components critical for a task performance. These lists proved more helpful than the vague descriptions which previously had been used for selection and training.

After the war, Flanagan formally developed the critical incident technique and applied it extensively in industry. The technique was used to develop ethical standards for psychologists, to measure task proficiency, to select and classify personnel, to design job procedures and equipment, to identify motivation and leadership attitudes, and to identify factors in effective counselling (Flanagan, 1954).

Since the 1950's, as the social sciences increasingly emphasized quantification and experimentation, the critical incident method fell into disuse. Certainly it was not completely abandoned over the past thirty years, being used to study the following: group process (Cohen & Smith, 1976), work motivation (Herzberg, Manseur, & Snyderman, 1959), evaluation of clinical practica (Dachelet et al., 1981), psychological aspects of nursing (Rimon, 1979), the American quality of life (Flanagan, 1978), and the cognition-emotion process in achievement-related contexts (Weiner, Russell, & Lerman, 1979). On the whole, however, it was used only occasionally, and even more to the point, it has not been included among standard methods of research training in higher education.

The two basic principles of the critical incident technique are that factual reports of behavior are preferable to ratings and opinions based on general impressions and that only behaviors which make a significant contribution to the activity should be included. Flanagan's (1954) definition of the critical incident technique, based on his experience of applying it in research, is as follows:

> ...the critical incident technique, rather than collecting opinions, hunches, and estimates, obtains a record of specific behaviors from those in the best position to make the necessary observations and evaluations. The collection and tabulation of these observations make it possible to formulate the critical requirements of an activity. A list of critical behaviors

> provides a sound basis for making inferences as to requirements in terms of aptitudes, training, and other characteristics (p. 355).

The critical incident technique involves a set of procedures for collecting first-hand direct reports of effective and ineffective human behaviors that have been observed as part of actual practice within a specified role. The reports are collected in such a way as to facilitate their potential usefulness in solving practical problems and developing broad psychological principles. In short, it involves collecting data based on direct observations reported from memory. Opinion, generalizations, and personal judgement or evaluation are reduced to a minimum.

Flanagan (1954) defines an incident as any occurrence of observable human activity that is sufficiently complete in itself to permit inferences and predictions to be made about the person performing the act. He goes on to point out that an incident, to be critical, must demonstrate that the perceived act made a difference between success and failure in accomplishment of the aim of the activity. The practical application of the research technique would stipulate that an effective incident is one which helps to do a job well, and an ineffective incident is one which causes a delay or failure and may prevent the job from being completely satisfactory.

Fivars and Gosnell (1966, pp. 16-19) discussed stipulations involved in writing critical incidents. They are as follows:

- the incidents reported should be on the basis of actual behavior observed;
- the judgement to be made by the observers in applying the criteria for determining especially effective or ineffective behavior should

be clearly defined;

- the observers should be persons should be qualified to make judgments regarding successful and unsuccessful behavior in the activity observed;

- the conditions of reporting should need to be such as to ensure a reasonable degree of accuracy.

These conditions, as initially set forth by Flanagan (1954, pp. 337-339), helped the researcher to design the objectives on the leadership questionnaire. The respondents are qualified individuals who interact with the president under the shared charter of the goals of the institution. The questionnaire contains examples of the difference between an effective and ineffective critical incident to help the respondents in their recall of behaviors. The degree of accuracy of the reports of incidents are reasonably assured as 93 percent of the respondents have acquired at least a bachelors degree and 65 percent hold a masters degree or above.

Limitations of the Critical Incident Technique

The Critical Incident Technique has certain limitations. For example, Mayhew (1956) points out that it is possible that the critical incidents collected might not identify all the requirements or tasks of a particular position. Therefore, all the roles of the president of a community college may not have been identified. Howell (1976) points out that critical incidents, while very effective in identifying behaviors important for "good" or "poor" performance, ignores all the "routine"

things a person does in his job. Thus, it would be difficult to write a complete "role" description based solely on critical incident data.

Another limitation was that the analysis of critical incident data is time consuming, as incidents were written in many styles with varying degrees of detail and it took time to sort incidents into common theme categories. A third limitation was that the observers may have been inclined to write evaluations of behavior rather than descriptions of behavior. This limitation was addressed by clear explicit instructions to those writing them. A final limitation was that the incidents reported sometimes may not have been "critical." Here, the researcher reported no incidents when none was available.

Advantages of the Critical Incident Technique

Mayhew (1956), supported by Howell (1976), suggests that in spite of the aforementioned difficulties, critical incidents yield valuable benefits unobtainable by other measurement techniques. He quotes the Cooperative Study of Evaluation of General Education (Dressel and Mayhew, 1953) regarding the advantages of critical incidents.

1. Adequate collection of critical incidents places categories of human behavior on an empirical base thus providing for greater validity for any subsequent measuring instrument. To accept this statement implies acceptance of an assumption fundamental to the entire technique, i.e., that observers can distinguish between effective and ineffective behavior. The growing body of evidence, however, tends to support such an assumption. Most teachers of communications skills courses could prepare a logical scale of the traits of communication. Yet this scale would be suspect merely because it was prepared in that way. A similar scale developed from critical incidents not only possesses greater validity itself but, if it proves comparable to scale logically derived, establishes their validity as

well. In this same connection it will frequently be found that categories of behavior established by critical incidents do not agree with categories obtained a priori. In such situations the empirically based categories may point out traits or aspects of behavior being overlooked by other methods of measurement.

2. Collections of critical incidents provide realistic bases for any of a variety of evaluation techniques. Critical incidents do not of themselves comprise a measurement instrument. The categories for communication could be used either for a check sheet, a rating scale or as one axis of a design for an objective-type test. If, for example, a series of evaluation devices were to be prepared dealing with the same behaviors, each device might be based upon the same categories thus providing a means of comparing the results obtained from each technique.

3. The critical incidents themselves can frequently serve as a source for the raw material out of which evaluation items are constructed. Test builders are constantly plagued by the need to express testing situations in words and concepts which will be meaningful to a particular level of students. Using incidents in the words expressed by students is a technique to overcome the tendency either to over-or-under-shoot the level of the prospective examinees. In the Cooperative Study and in a more recent project involving some high schools in the state of Michigan incidents of effective and ineffective thinking are actually made into test questions. In the field of attitude measurement this need for realistic statements of attitudes is especially great. The actual statement of incidents as to what reflects a favorable or unfavorable attitude toward the United Nations, or segregation of races or any other appropriate object provide the material out of which an attitude scales can be produced (pp. 594-595).

Mayhew (1956) concludes by stating that the significance of the critical incidents lies chiefly in providing empirically derived classifications of behavior, especially effective behavior, which can be used either as framework for subsequent measurement or as the material out of which evaluation instruments can be developed.

The critical incident methodology is highly flexible. It can be used to study a wide range of phenomena, for example, relationships, decision making, self-actualization, vocational choice, and group process. It can be modified to collect data on factual happenings (rather than restricting its use to "critical" incidents), and on qualities or attributes; to use prototypes to span various levels of the aim or attribute (low, medium, high); and critical or factual incidents to explore differences or turning points (Woolsey, 1986).

The applications of the critical incident methods are several. The technique can be used for foundational and exploratory work, opening and clarifying a new domain for further research. Borgen and Amundson's (1984) work on unemployment, using a modified critical incident methodology is an example of this kind of work, as is Friesen and Young's (1985) work on parental influence on children's vocational choices.

Critical incident studies are particularly useful in the early stages of research because they generate both exploratory information and theory or model-building. As such, they belong to the discovery rather than to the verification stage of research. The critical incident method can be used in other areas in the way that task analysis has been utilized to explicate the processes of psychotherapy (Rice & Greenberg, 1984). The critical incident technique has also been used successfully for criterion development in industrial psychology and therefore has potential for criterion development in counselling process and career development research. in addition, the critical incident method is entirely consistent with the skills, experience and values of education practitioners and thus can inspire educators with enthusiasm for re-

search. Finally, and perhaps most important, if educators learn to use qualitative methods like the critical incident technique, this expertise will contribute to the development of a unique methodology for the discipline of education.

Reliability and Validity of Critical Incidents

Anderson and Nilsson (1964) studied several aspects of reliability and validity of the critical incidents and found that the methodological checks of the critical incidents were positive. In their study to determine the job requirements of store managers, many of the critical incidents pertaining to the behavior of store managers were collected from employees via questionnaires. They found the critical incident technique to be valid in representing the content domain, so much so that other methods of assessing the same domain added no new information. After two-thirds of the incidents had been classified, 95% of the content categories appeared. in addition, the subcategories were found to be stable. The number and structure of the incidents were affected only slightly by different methods of data collection and by different interviewers. They concluded that information collected by this method is both reliable and valid.

Summary

This study gathered critical incidents describing effective and ineffective leadership behaviors by community college presidents as discerned by themselves and by other persons associated with the community college. This research was undertaken as a preliminary study in

community college presidential leadership, an area where studies have been minimal and use of the critical incident technique minuscule. This study contributed information for reevaluation of the current knowledge of community college presidential leadership and for constructing a measure to test same.

An historical overview of literature connected to leadership was given: (1) The limited success of the qualities-based great man theory and the occasion-based environment of theory of leadership; (2) The lack of results of key traits of leaders in trait theory research; (3) The popular Ohio State Model explaining styles of leader behavior and the subsequent models derived from it, all of which have yet to identify a "best" style of leadership for all circumstances; (4) The breakdown of leadership functions into the two broad categories of task behavior and relationship behavior provided a further integration of leadership theory; and (5) The studies revealing leadership's situational nature. As Weinholz (1981) states in his summary of leadership research, "the research of the last three quarters of a century has shown the sizable impact of specific social situations on group's leadership needs."

The testing of leadership in educational settings has been unreliable due to inappropriate instrumentation, the discussion of leadership research in educational settings concluded with the statement that the foundation of information necessary to operating any leadership theory has not yet been established. This section suggested the need to develop instruments that can test leadership in an educational setting instead of relying on instruments designed for business and industry.

This section, reviewing presidential leadership at the community college, discussed the importance of the presidency as the vital area to begin preliminary research on community college leadership. The results of the study were identified as a possible source of information for development of an instrument for use in testing community college presidential leadership.

Finally, an explanation of the Critical Incident Technique argued for that research methodology as an appropriate approach for a preliminary study of leadership in the community college. The limitations and advantages of the Critical Incident Technique as well as the reliability and validity of critical incidents were reviewed.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter begins with a description of the study. Next, it identifies the study's research questions, offers an explanation of the Critical Incident Technique methodology, defines the study population, describes instrumentation use, describes the data collection procedures employed, and discusses the analysis of the critical incidents. The chapter concludes with a summary.

Description of the Study

To identify effective and ineffective leadership behaviors of community college presidents, the Critical Incident Technique was used. The study was conducted among 22 community colleges in the states of Kansas and Oklahoma. Analysis of the collected data was done using principles recommended by Flanagan (1954) and Lofland & Lofland (1984).

Research Questions

The study asked the following research questions:

1. Which behaviors of selected Kansas and Oklahoma community college presidents are reported by certain community college publics and the presidents themselves as examples of effective and ineffective leadership?

2. Do reported effective and ineffective leadership behaviors of community college presidents differ among the two distinct publics of community colleges: internal publics (administrators, faculty, and student services personnel) and external publics (boards of trustees, state legislators and Chamber of Commerce officials) Further, do these two groups' perceptions differ from those of the presidents?

3. Are the effective and ineffective community college presidential leadership behaviors identified by this study consistent with prior research on the same topic?

This study was designed to collect data needed to answer the research questions listed above. The first research question acknowledged the initial need to identify community college presidential behaviors that were perceived to be examples of effective and ineffective leadership. It represented the primary thrust of this study.

The second research question addressed the issue of whether perceptions of presidential leadership behaviors would differ among internal and external publics associated with the community college. It also looked at whether publics' perceptions differed from those of the president. In addition to the presidents, there were six other distinct groups selected for the study.

The first three distinct study groups represented internal publics at the community college: (1) faculty, (2) administrators, and (3) student services personnel. The largest group, faculty, was mainly comprised of personnel from vocational technical and arts and science areas. The middle size group, administrators, was made up of full-time managers, directors, department heads, deans and vice-presidents. The

smallest group was student services personnel which consisted primarily of academic counselors. These three groups represent the main "staff" groups with whom the president associates with at the college.

External publics were represented by three distinct outside groups whose perceptions were considered by the investigator to be valued and valid: (1) board of trustees members; (2) state legislators with community colleges in their districts; and (3) chamber of commerce officials with community colleges in their communities. Scott and Spaulding (1972, p. 15) stated that "research indicates that obtaining an accurate picture of an educator's leadership behavior necessitates securing information from various groups with whom he (or she) associates."

The third research question confronts the issue of whether or not the findings of the study are consistent with those of previous studies researching leadership at the community college. Several researchers have studied the functions, style, characteristics, leader behaviors, performance and role of the community college presidents (McCarty, 1974; Smith, 1974; Wollam, 1974; Stevens, 1976; Ringer, 1977; and Saunders, 1978), but no one has conducted a critical incident study soliciting incidents from the particular personnel participating in the study.

The research questions of this study have been purposely limited to address certain key issues. See Appendix C for additional information regarding respondents personal data.

The Critical Incident Technique

The data in this study were collected using the critical incident technique. The critical incident technique is an exploratory qualitative research method used to identify and describe specific behaviors necessary for the completion of particular tasks or for the fulfillment of particular roles. Flanagan (1954) described a critical incident as follows: (1) an incident must be a description of a behavior that is sufficiently complete in itself to permit inferences and predictions to be made about the person performing the act; (2) it must occur in a situation where the purpose or intent of the act seems fairly clear to the observer; and (3) its consequences are sufficiently definite to leave little doubt concerning its effects (p. 328)

The critical incident technique was chosen over other methods because:

1. The critical incident technique provides empirically derived classifications of behavior from real-world examples of effective or ineffective performance;
2. The critical incident technique is a method of gathering facts in an objective manner with only a minimum of inferences and interpretations of a subjective nature. These facts could provide paradigms of effective practice in many different arenas;
3. The classifications of effective and ineffective leadership behaviors derived by the critical incident technique can be used as a framework for subsequent measurement or as the material out of which an evaluation instrument can be developed.

Consequently, the critical incident technique was an appropriate research

method for collecting and organizing needed descriptive data prior to subsequent research or evaluation efforts.

Two other studies of leadership at the community college used the critical incident technique. Burnham (1983) used a small sample and collected data from leaders about their own perceptions of their leadership. Dean (1986) used a larger sample but restricted response to internal publics only. The current study used a much larger sample than Burnham and gathered perceptions from various groups of personnel associated with the community college in an effort to collect a wide data base for future research endeavors.

Sample

The study sample consisted of the following groups of personnel associated with the community college: internal publics (administrators, faculty, and student services personnel); external publics (board of trustees members, legislators with a community college in their district, and Chamber of Commerce officials with a community college in their community); and presidents. Specifically, the internal group sample consisted of vice-presidents, deans, department heads, directors, managers (or their equivalents), faculty members in all areas, and professionals in student services. The external groups were state legislators, board of trustees members, and Chamber of Commerce officials. Initially, presidential approval was requested from 13 Oklahoma community colleges. Failure to get adequate volunteer participation in Oklahoma forced the investigator to expand the study to include 9 Kansas institutions. Kansas was chosen because of its regional proximity, and

similarity of community college traits (e.g, revenue acquisition, program emphasis, enrollments, amount of state control, location in a state that is somewhat economically dependent on agricultural and oil tax revenues, and so forth). Ultimately, eleven presidents and certain publics from the 22 institutions participated in the study.

The community colleges involved consisted of both rural and urban campuses which may be similar to many rural and smaller urban community college campuses in other states. Both Kansas and Oklahoma community colleges have an arts and science emphasis with vocational-technical education having a strong secondary role. All of the colleges had single campuses. Student enrollment at these campuses ranged from a low of 1,322 students to a high of 17,947 students.1

Medsker (1960) reported that the general goals of the community college are to provide: (1) curricula for two years or less; (2) preparatory curricula for transfer students to four year institutions; (3) general education for all students; (4) aid in making educational and vocational choices consistent with the student's needs and abilities; and (5) adult education that is specific and general for the community. These same goals hold for Oklahoma community colleges. However, some colleges emphasize some goals more than others.

Nine community colleges in the state of Kansas and 13 in the state of Oklahoma were asked to participate in the study via a letter to each institution's president. Once participating colleges were known, selected personnel at each institution were asked to submit critical incidents. Twenty-two presidents and 692 others were contacted and requested to participate in the study.

Instrumentation

This study required the identification and description of critical incidents which were perceived by the respondents to be examples of both effective and ineffective leadership behaviors. A research instrument, the "Leadership Questionnaire" (see Appendix D), was developed for use in the study. The questionnaire was used by all participating groups.2 Each questionnaire package contained the following sections: (1) personal data; (2) effective critical incidents; (3) ineffective critical incidents; (4) recommendations for improved leadership behavior; (5) mailing directions; and (6) statement of confidentiality.

The first section, "Personal Data," asked the following: (1) position or title; (2) frequency of observation of the president's behavior; (3) type of observation of the president's behavior; (4) length of time associated with the community college; (5) age; and (6) higher education degrees attained.

The second section, "Effective Critical Incidents," allowed the respondent to record specific behaviors of the community college president that demonstrated effective leadership behavior. Three incidents could have been recorded within the framework of (1) the circumstance; (2) what the president did; and (3) what resulted from the behavior. This framework (Flanagan, 1954, p. 328) helped the respondent formulate and record the incident, as well as helped the researcher reduce the incident down to one sentence while preserving the key behavior for sorting into common-theme categories during analysis. The objective of analysis was to formulate, from the many critical incidents, a comprehensive list of behaviors. It was emphasized that the respondent record the

incident of behavior and not a judgment or evaluation of the behavior. All of the directions were designed to help the respondent give first-hand facts. To help guide their recall of these facts, an example of a description of an effective critical incident was used on the questionnaire (see Appendix D).

The third section, "Ineffective Critical Incidents," was similar to the second section; however it requested ineffective rather than effective leadership behaviors. An appropriate ineffective example of the description of the critical incident was provided (see Appendix D).

Both the second and third sections were designed to collect incidents sufficiently complete in themselves to permit inferences and predictions to be made about the person performing the behavior (Flanagan, 1954). The first section presented a condition of reporting whereby the researcher was reasonably assured of a high degree of accuracy. Consistent with the research questions, the first three sections helped to ensure the stipulations Fivars and Gosnell (1966) pointed out as important for determining critical incidents. As detailed above, the incidents reported were on the basis: that they were actual behaviors observed; that the criteria of determining effective and ineffective behaviors were clearly defined; and that they were persons qualified to make judgments regarding the success or failure of the activity.

The fourth section, "Recommendation for Improved Leadership Behavior," requested recommendations for improvement in the leadership behavior of the president from the respondents.

The fifth section, "Mailing Directions," was designed to ensure that the questionnaire was sent to the researcher even if the stamped, researcher addressed return envelope was accidentally lost. A "Statement of Confidentiality" assured respondents that their input would remain anonymous and would be kept in the strictest confidence. The investigator's signature was affixed to the questionnaire as an affirmation of the professional intent for use of the data obtained thereon.

Data Collection

The presidents of twenty-two community colleges were initially contacted by letter (see Appendix E). The letter described the study, requested permission to involve the institution in the study, requested a return presidential letter in support of the study which could be shared with sample subjects from the college, and forwarded two enclosures: enclosure (1) was a letter addressed to the director of personnel at the college requesting an institutional listing of certain employees (see Appendix F); and enclosure (2) was a presidential support letter sample (see Appendix G). Later, a second letter (see Appendix H) forwarded a Leadership Questionnaire designed for presidents only (see Appendix I) to selected presidents.

For each of the two states involved, state legislators with a community college in their district, community college board of trustees members, and Chamber of Commerce officials with a community college in their community were contacted by a letter (see Appendix J) describing the study and requesting their involvement. Accompanying these letters, was a Leadership Questionnaire (Appendix D). The appropriate number of

questionnaire packages were forwarded by the researcher to each community college participating in the study under cover letter (see Appendix K). A key contact at each institution, usually an administrative assistant, helped to deliver the individually addressed questionnaires to the in-house mail boxes of each study participant. Along with each questionnaire was the letter of introduction (see Appendix J) which outlined the stipulations of a critical incident study, the support letter (where provided) from their respective president (see Appendix G for sample), and a stamped, researcher-addressed return envelope. Participants were asked to return their instrument package within ten work-days after receipt, even if it had not been completed. Steps taken to ensure respondent anonymity precluded individual follow-ups. Follow-up assistance telephone contacts made with presidential offices and mail contacts made with institutional contact points after an initial three week waiting period produced minimal results.

Analysis of the Critical Incidents

Guidelines for analyzing critical incidents exist, but they provided only general directions (Flanagan, 1954); Fivars and Gosnell, 1966; Stano, 1980). In this study, the researcher adopted for use with the critical incident technique the very specific analysis recommendations provided by John and Lyn Lofland (1984) in their book entitled, Analyzing Social Settings. Although Lofland and Lofland gave directions for analysis of data for participant-observer and interview research, their recommendations were quite appropriate for analyzing large quantities of qualitative data no matter what collection technique was used.

The process of analyzing critical incidents required a certain degree of flexibility so that categories or patterns may emerge during the analysis process. The critical incidents reported by the respondents were reviewed by the researcher to identify fundamental or key behaviors described. Then, each incident was summarized and reduced to a one sentence description preserving the key behavior. Each sentence included the circumstance of the behavior, the action of the president, and the results of the behavior. Conscientious effort was made to preserve the intent of the incident, and the only changes that occured in the reductions were corrections for misspelling, grammatical mistakes and redundancies.

An important aspect of the research was the organizing and filing of the critical incidents once they were reduced to one sentence descriptions. As recommended by Lofland and Lofland (1984), copies of the critical incidents were made in order to create several sets of files. A file according to position title was maintained. This file included the personal data of each respondent. Finally, analytic files were maintained to provide for categorization and subcategorization.

The content categories of the Analytical File were developed empirically as clusters of incidents were formed. The particular title given to these categories was suggested by several sources: (1) previous research conducted with community college presidents; (2) major leadership theories; and (3) where the literature provided no guidelines, the researcher used his best judgment.

Once the sentence reductions for all the effective and ineffective critical incidents were completed, the researcher engaged in reviewing

the incidents in order to categorize similar incidents topically. The incidents were initially reviewed solely for the purpose of familiarization. Multiple reviews were conducted for purposes of categorizing the incidents. The categories developed were then presented with the actual critical incidents as illustrations for screening and review by an outside observer, the researcher's dissertation chair. Multiple interactions with the outside reviewer resulted in the final categories selected. Most critical incidents fit into a single category. Occasionally, certain critical incidents overlapped into a second or third subcategory. The final section of a subcategory for each critical incident was based on the researcher's interpretation of the predominate emphasis of the critical incident.

This study was not designed for rigorous quantitative data analysis, but the quantification of incidents within categories and subcategories was necessary to address the study's first two research questions. For research question one, simple frequency counts and percentages were calculated across publics, excluding presidents. For research question two, incident frequencies and percentages were broken down and compared among the study's two distinct publics, internal and external. For these two groups (who provided large numbers of incidents), the comparison was conducted by examining the percentages of critical incidents within categories compared to the overall percentages of critical incidents from these two groups. If the number of critical incidents provided by these two groups in any particular category closely aproximated the same percentage, then it was assumed that the groups placed relatively equal emphasis on the type of behavior cited within the category. Substantial

variance from a similar percentage was interpreted as an indication of a stronger area of interest for the one group that had the greater number of critical incidents. Simply put, the researcher looked for disproportionate emphasis on particular incidents within categories in order to infer which behaviors were valued by each group. Given the low number of respondents and incidents in the presidents' group, interpretations of incidents within each group were drawn, but cross-category comparisons based on group percentages of incidents were not attempted. On the basis of all available incidents, some general comparisions were made across all groups. These comparisons were necessarily more "qualitative" in nature than those comparisons made strictly between internal and external publics.

Summary

This chapter discussed the methodology that was used to identify effective and ineffective leadership behaviors of community college presidents as perceived and reported by presidents and certain other personnel associated with the 22 community colleges in the states of Kansas and Oklahoma. Individuals reported their perceptions as critical incidents. Analysis of these incidents was conducted to answer the following questions:

1. Which behaviors of selected Kansas and Oklahoma community college presidents are reported by certain community college publics and the presidents themselves as examples of effective and ineffective leadership?

2. Do reported effective and ineffective leadership behaviors of community college presidents differ among the two distinct publics of community colleges: internal publics (administrators, faculty, and student services personnel) and external publics (boards of trustees, state legislators and Chamber of Commerce officials) Further, does these two groups' perceptions differ from those of the presidents?

3. Are the effective and ineffective community college presidential leadership behaviors identified by this study consistent with prior research on the same topic?

Incidents were gathered for the study using the critical incident technique. Through this technique, participants were also asked to describe incidents that best represent the completion of a task or the fulfillment of a particular role. The respondents were also asked to identify examples of both effective and ineffective presidential leadership. The resulting incidents were then categorized by like behavior or situation. Categories were then established and comparisons made to determine if the behaviors reported were effective or ineffective, and whether they differed across responding groups. The incidents could then be use in the development of future instruments related to effective and ineffective leadership behaviors.

Presidents, administrators, faculty, student services personnel, state legislators, board of trustees members, and Chamber of Commerce officials participated in the study. Both rural and urban, large and small colleges were represented. A total of 707 questionnaires were sent to the study sample.

The "Leadership Behavior" questionnaire was developed for the purpose of gathering the incidents. It elicited information about the respondent, the descriptions of effective and ineffective critical incidents and recommendations for improved leadership behavior. Also included in the questionnaire were mailing directions and a statement of confidentiality.

Presidents of community colleges were contacted by a personal letter requesting their participation and permission to include their staff in the study. Also attached were enclosures, directions for writing critical incidents and a stamped, researcher-addressed envelope in which to return the questionnaire. Some who agreed, provided a letter of encouragement with returned materials.

Analysis of the critical incidents was done by identifying key behaviors and, where possible, reducing narrative responses to a one sentence summary. These summaries were carefully reviewed in order to topically categorize similar incidents. From these categories the trends in responses emerged within each group of respondents. With the calculation of frequency counts and percentages, it was possible to compare categories across groups and thereby identify behaviors most and least valued by each.

ENDNOTES

1. Figures taken from "Enrollments in Oklahoma Higher Education, Fall Semester 1987," Oklahoma State Regents for Higher Education (PRELIMINARY REPORT), October 1987. Figures for Kansas schools were contained in a ltr from Community Colleges, Kansas State Department of Education dtd April 28, 1988 and placed all Kansas community college enrollments between the two figures noted.

2. The basic questionnaire was modified slightly to read more appropriately during use by the presidents (see Appendix K).

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This study investigated effective and ineffective leadership behaviors of community college presidents as perceived and reported by various publics associated with twenty-two community colleges in the states of Kansas and Oklahoma. The critical incident technique developed by Flanagan (1954) was used to collect data. Procedures recommended by Lofland & Lofland (1984) were used to analyze data and report results.

This chapter begins with an introduction and then presents the results of the study in two sections: (1) a description of the response rates and (2) a discussion of the findings yielded by the analysis of the critical incidents collected. The description of the response rates addresses the number of critical incident questionnaires mailed and returned and provides a breakdown of the number of incidents reported by the different groups (i.e., the presidents; the internal public group [comprised of community college administrators, faculty, and student services personnel]; and, the external public group [comprised of legislators, Boards of trustees members, and Chamber of Commerce officials]). The analysis of the critical incidents section presents the findings according to the study's first two research questions:

1. Which behaviors of Oklahoma community college presidents are reported by certain community college publics and the presidents themselves as examples of effective and ineffective leadership?

2. Do reported effective and ineffective leadership behaviors of community college presidents differ among two distinct groups of community college publics: (1) internal public groups; and, (2) external public groups? Further, do these two publics' perceptions differ from those of the presidents?

The remaining research question, addressing this study's findings in comparison to the findings of previous studies, is addressed in the final chapter.

Introduction

To categorize this study's collected critical incidents describing effective and ineffective leadership behaviors of community college presidents, it was necessary, of course, to provide a definition of leadership itself. One frequently quoted definition is: "Leadership is getting things done through other people." And it is, in part, of course, especially if it is leadership of a large or complex organization like a community college.

The president must not only understand how to get people to do "things;" he or she must also know what things other people ought to do--what results ought to be achieved, what each person and group ought to contribute to the common effort, and how the desired results can be achieved most effectively.

It is sometimes said that "leading is decision making," and it is quite true that many of the most important actions community college presidents take are simply decisions--to expand a program in a certain way; to hire this person or dismiss that one; to adopt a new marketing strategy or a new personnel policy.

The definition given earlier also implies decision making. If leadership is getting things done through people, the president decides: first, what needs to be done; then, who can best do each part of the job; and, what steps are needed to ensure that each person does a good job. If the study of community college presidential leadership is to foster more effective decision making, the leadership job must be able to be broken down into certain behavior "content" areas in which decisions are made. Only then will it be possible to ascertain what knowledge future community college presidents might need.

Gulick (1937) suggested one useful breakdown with his seven leader functions: planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting, and budgeting. A more current breakdown was provided by the EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATOR EFFECTIVENESS PROFILE (EAEP) (1988). The EAEP, reported to be based on years of research and tests in the educational field, was designed to provide diagnostic feedback that would "maximize management and leadership effectiveness" by identifying and analyzing strengths and weaknesses in eleven "critical" skill and behavior areas: setting goals and objectives, making decisions and solving problems, managing business and fiscal affairs, building and maintaining relationships, demonstrating professional commitment, planning, assessing progress, communication, improving instruction, delegating

responsibility, and developing staff. With some modification, combination and addition, these two breakdowns provided for a three-level categorization of all behaviors described in critical incidents reported by returns to this study. Topical behavior categories and subcategories emerged at each of three steps in the categorization process and culminated with seven first level (major) behavior categories, ten second level (minor) categories, and six third level sub-minor categories. The seven major behavior categories were: Directing, Representing, Planning, Control Reporting, Coupling, Staffing, and Innovating.

There were a number of other headings that might have been mentioned, but most were actually subsumed as second-or third-level categories within the major behavior content areas. For example, it is said that communicating is a major part of any leader's job, and so it is. Though in the case of communicating with a community college staff, it is clearly a behavior within Directing, in which the president attempts to ensure that each staff member contributes as much as he or she is able to the success of the whole operation. Staff communications means being able to have workers understand what is to be done, or they normally will not do it. Also, if a president cannot get staff to talk freely and provide meaningful feedback, he or she may be kept ignorant of things that the president should know--to say nothing of the fact that he or she will probably miss hearing some good ideas. Communication behaviors are, thus, viewed as integral, but subsumed parts of all the major behavior categories in which effective presidents function...a behavioral "thread" that is woven throughout the "blanket" of effective leadership and binds it together.

The various behaviors of leadership listed above--Directing, Representing, Planning, Control Reporting, Coupling, Staffing, and Innovating--are all part of the community college president's role, but the importance attached to each one may vary at different times and under different circumstances.

Description of the Response Rate

The two-part instrument (a four-page research questionnaire and a single-sheet personal data-sheet insert) was mailed to 707 potential respondents who were identified as group members of various publics associated with twenty-two community colleges in the states of Kansas and Oklahoma. Of the 707 potential respondents, 269 (37%) returned one or both parts of the instrument either fully completed, partially completed, or blank; 22 of the latter with explanations as to why they chose not to participate. A follow-up on incompleted returns was precluded by steps taken to ensure respondents' anonymity. Completed returns were those that included responses to the personal data section as well as effective and ineffective critical incident sections of the questionnaire, or one of these two sections. The number of completed returns totaled 189 or 70 percent of the return total of 269.

Instrument Return Rates and Critical Incident Totals

Tables IV and V present, respectively for study group and for group position, total numbers of instruments mailed, total number of returns and that number as a percent of those sent, total number of completed

TABLE IV

INSTRUMENT AND CRITICAL INCIDENT TOTALS FOR STUDY GROUP

Group	Instruments: Number Sent	Returns and (% of those sent): Total	Returns and (% of those sent): Completed	Critical Incidents: Effective	Critical Incidents: Ineffective	Critical Incidents: Total
PRESIDENTS:						
Total	15	12(80)	11(73)	23	18	41
			INTERNAL PUBLIC GROUPS			
ADMINISTRATORS:						
	97	38(39)	35(36)	43	40	83
FACULTY:						
	336	99(29)	90(27)	92	116	208
STUDENT SVCS:						
	43	13(30)	9(21)	8	3	11
Grp Tot	476	150(32)	134(28)	143	159	302
			EXTERNAL PUBLIC GROUPS			
LEGISLATORS:						
	62	16(26)	4(6)	5	7	12
TRUSTEES:						
	132	61(46)	38(29)	64	25	89
CHAMBER OFFICIALS:						
	22	3(9)	2(5)	8	2	10
Grp Tot	216	80(37)	44(20)	77	34	111
			COMBINED PUBLIC GROUPS			
Total	692	230(33)	178(26)	220	193	413
GRAND TOTAL	707	242(34)	189(27)	243	211	454

(% of those sent)=Number of returns divided by the number sent.

TABLE V

INSTRUMENT AND CRITICAL INCIDENT TOTALS FOR POSITION

Position	Instruments: Number Sent	Instruments: Returns and (% of those sent) Total	Instruments: Returns and (% of those sent) Completed	Critical Incidents: Effective	Critical Incidents: Ineffective	Critical Incidents: Total
President	15	12(80)	11(73)	23	18	41
Vice President	10	3(30)	3(30)	3	9	12
Dean	15	2(13)	2(13)	6	0	6
Department Head	18	*19(101)	18(100)	21	20	41
Program Director/Manager	43	12(28)	11(26)	10	8	18
Other Administrator	11	2(18)	1(9)	3	3	6
Vocational-technical Faculty	125	25(20)	23(18)	22	26	48
Arts & Sciences Faculty	189	61(32)	56(30)	61	71	132
Other Faculty	22	13(59)	11(50)	9	19	28
Student Counselor	15	7(47)	5(33)	4	2	6
Other Student Services	28	6(21)	4(14)	4	1	5
State Legislator	62	16(26)	4(6)	5	7	12
Board of Trustees Member	132	61(46)	38(29)	64	25	89
Chamber of Commerce Official	22	3(9)	2(5)	8	2	10
TOTAL	707	242(34)	189(27)	243	211	454

(% of those sent)=Number of returns divided by the number sent.
*18 instruments were sent to identified department head positions; 19 were returned by people identifying themselves as department heads.

returns and that number as a percent of those sent, and effective and ineffective critical incident totals. The internal public groups included administrators (i.e., vice-presidents, deans, department heads, directors/managers, and other administrators), faculty (i.e., arts and sciences faculty, vocational/technical faculty, and other faculty), and student services personnel (i.e, counselors and other student services personnel). The external public groups included state legislators with community colleges in their legislative district, board of trustees members, and chamber of commerce officials in communities where community colleges are located. The total number of instruments mailed was 707. A total of 269 were returned with 53 blank, 27 with personal data only and 189 with personal data and critical incidents. The total number of critical incidents collected was 454. The numbers of effective and ineffective critical incidents are displayed for all group listings.

The critical incident percentage rate of return (i.e., the completed returns total for each group divided by the number of instruments sent to each group) for presidents was 73%. The critical incident percentage rate of return for other groups was: 36% for administrators (vice-president = 30%, deans = 13% , department heads = 100%, directors/managers = 26%, other administrators = 9%,); 27% for faculty (vocational/technical faculty = 18%, arts and sciences faculty = 30%, other faculty = 50%,); 21% for student services personnel (counselors = 33%, other student services personnel = 14%,); state legislators with community colleges in their legislative district = 6%; board of trustees members = 29%; and chamber of commerce officials in communities where community colleges are located = 5%. Presidents reported 23 effective critical

incidents and 18 ineffective critical incidents. Administrators reported 43 effective critical incidents and 40 ineffective critical incidents. Faculty reported 92 effective critical incidents and 116 ineffective critical incidents. Student services personnel reported 8 effective critical incidents and 3 ineffective incidents. State legislators reported 5 effective critical incidents and 7 ineffective critical incidents. Board of trustees members reported 64 effective critical incidents and 25 ineffective critical incidents. Chamber of Commerce officials reported 8 effective critical incidents and 2 ineffective critical incidents. From 15 questionnaires sent to presidents, a total of 41 critical incidents were collected. From 97 questionnaires sent to administrators, a total of 83 critical incidents were collected. From 336 questionnaires sent to faculty, a total of 208 critical incidents were collected. From 43 questionnaires sent to student services personnel, a total of 11 critical incidents were collected. From 62 questionnaires sent to state legislators, a total of 12 critical incidents were collected. From 132 questionnaires sent to Board of trustees members, a total of 89 critical incidents were collected. From 22 questionnaires sent to Chamber of Commerce officials, a total of 10 critical incidents were collected. From 476 questionnaires sent to internal public groups, 302 critical incidents were collected. From 216 questionnaires sent to external public groups, 111 critical incidents were collected. From 692 questionnaires sent to personnel other than the president, 413 total incidents were collected. From 707 instruments mailed, 189 of 269 returns yielded a total of 454 critical incidents.

Results of the Analysis of the Critical Incidents

The method used to categorize and analyze the critical incidents are explained in detail in Chapter Three, page 81. The results of these efforts are presented here in response to Research Questions 1 and 2, respectively.

Research Question 1: Which behaviors of selected Kansas and Oklahoma community college presidents are reported by certain community college publics and the presidents themselves as examples of effective and ineffective leadership?

Critical Incident Categories and Subcategories Reported by Internal and External Publics

In the categorization and subsumption process that occurred with the 413 critical incidents provided by the two distinct publics (internal and external), 16 effective behaviors and 18 ineffective behaviors were identified at the first step of the process and ultimately categorized across three levels. Once the critical incidents had been topically categorized and subcategorized, they were organized in order of frequency. The publics' first level effective critical incident categories were:

Directing

Representing

Planning

Control Reporting

Coupling

Staffing

Innovating

The publics' first level ineffective critical incident categories were:

Directing

Representing

Control Reporting

Planning

Staffing

Innovating

Coupling

These findings are reported first and are followed by a separate section dealing with critical incidents provided by presidents. Within the text that follows, the title of each behavior category is briefly explained, and each subcategory is briefly explained. At the level where no further subsumption was recognized, two critical incidents are provided as illustration. The critical incidents shown as illustrations are highly representative of the other incidents in their respective category or subcategory.

Publics' Effective Critical Incidents

The categories and subcategories of behaviors reflected by 220 effective critical incidents reported by public groups (personnel other than presidents) follow. Table VI presents the publics' effective critical incidents categories and subcategories with completed return totals and percents. Table VII shows the three-step process used in categorizing the initial 16 effective behaviors identified by the two publics in 220 critical incident reports. That is, how 14 related

TABLE VI

PUBLICS' EFFECTIVE CRITICAL INCIDENT BEHAVIOR CATEGORIES AND SUBCATEGORIES WITH COMPLETED RETURN (N=220) TOTALS AND PERCENTS

Directing	(n=70, 32 o/o)
Assisting Staff Development	(n=47, 67%)
Promoting Staff Professionalism	(n=23, 49%)
Recognizing Staff	(n=12, 26%)
Delegating to Staff	(n=7, 14%)
Promoting Staff Growth	(n=5, 11%)
Communicating with Staff	(n=23, 33%)
Discussing Issues with Staff	(n=12, 52%)
Advising Staff	(n=11, 48%)
Representing	(n=47, 21 o/o)
Representing Externally	(n=30, 64%)
Representing Internally	(n=17, 36%)
Planning	(n=35, 16 o/o)
Obtaining Resources	(n=27, 77%)
Setting Goals and Objectives	(n=8, 23%)
Control Reporting	(n=33, 15 o/o)
Reporting with Staff	(n=17, 52%)
Reporting with Trustees	(n=16, 48%)
Coupling	(n=15, 7 o/o)
Campus Couplings	(n=8, 53%)
Campus/off-campus Couplings	(n=7, 47%)
Staffing	(n=11, 5 o/o)
Innovating	(n=9, 4 o/o)

n=Number of critical incidents within heading.
o/o=Percent of total (N=220).
%=Percent of next higher category heading.

TABLE VII

PUBLICS' EFFECTIVE CRITICAL INCIDENT BEHAVIOR CATEGORIZATION PROCESS RESULTS (N=220)

1.	THIRD LEVEL (1st step)	SUBSUMED IN
	A. Representing Externally (n=30)	2.B
	B. Promoting Professionalism (n=23)	2.A
	C. Obtaining Resources (n=27)	2.C
	D. Reporting to Staff (n=17)	2.D
	E. Representing Internally (n=17)	2.B
	F. Reporting to Trustees (n=16)	2.D
	G. Recognizing Staff (n=12)	2.A
	H. Discussing Issues with Staff (n=12)	2.E
	I. Advising Staff (n=11)	2.E
	J. Staffing (n=11)	
	K. Setting Goals and Objectives (n=8)	2.C
	L. Campus Couplings (n=8)	2.F
	M. Innovating (n=9)	
	N. Campus/off-campus Couplings (n=7)	2.F
	O. Delegating to staff (n=7)	2.A
	P. Promoting Staff Growth (n=5)	2.A
2.	SECOND LEVEL (2nd step)	
	A. Assisting Staff Development (n=47)	3.A.
	B. Representing (n=47)	
	C. Planning (n=35)	
	D. Control Reporting (n=33)	
	E. Communicating with Staff (n=23)	3.A.
	F. Coupling (n=15)	
	G. Staffing (n=11)	
	H. Innovating (n=9)	
3.	FIRST LEVEL (3rd step)	
	A. Directing (n=70)	
	B. Representing (n=47)	
	C. Planning (n=35)	
	D. Control Reporting (n=33)	
	E. Coupling (n=15)	
	F. Staffing (n=11)	
	G. Innovating (n=9)	

n=Number of critical incidents within category
Note: 16 behavior categories (THIRD LEVEL) emerged at the 1st step; related behaviors were placed (2nd step) within new SECOND LEVEL categories; finally, related categories were subsumed (3rd step) within new FIRST LEVEL categories and no further subsumption was recognized. Behavior areas are listed top to bottom and ordered by frequency.

behaviors were subsumed (second step) within six of eight SECOND LEVEL categories and how two related SECOND LEVEL categories were subsumed (third step) within one of seven FIRST LEVEL categories.

Directing (n=70, 32 o/o)

Providing staff with the direction to meet their day-to-day challenges and opportunities was the focus of this category. It was formed from two minor categories, Assisting Staff Development and Communicating with Staff, which, in turn, were formed from six specific behaviors described in 70 critical incidents. These incidents made this category the largest.

Assisting Staff Development (n=47, 67%)

This minor category of Directing focused on presidential efforts that assisted staff development. Under this heading, forty-seven incidents were subsumed within four specific behavior categories: Promoting Professionalism; Recognizing Staff; Delegating to Staff; and, Promoting Staff Growth.

Promoting Professionalism (n=23, 49%) focused on presidents who assisted staff development by demonstrating professional commitment through proper staff direction to achieve and maintain professional (i.e., academic, ethical, and community) standards. This was the second most frequent behavior reported among effective critical incidents collected. Improved programs, instruction and board and staff support were reported results of effective behavior in this area.

> When faced with an ineffective and non-productive faculty member, the president held periodic meetings with the person to discuss and document the member's progress being made towards improvement, ultimately influencing the member to resign and the program becoming much improved.
>
> When time sheet inconsistencies were discovered for athletes, the president discussed the matter with the coach and reported to the Board of Trustees that the coach had been asked to resign at year's end, resulting in increased Board and staff support for the president.

Recognizing Staff (n=12, 26%) was the behavior of the president to formally or informally recognize staff efforts, achievements, and personal worth. Twelve incidents described this presidential behavior as highly valued and effective when carried out properly.

> When a faculty member had a journal article published, the president sent a personal "well done" note to the person and caused a copy of the article to be run in the local newspaper, resulting in good publicity for the school and another article from the person within two months.
>
> To show support and appreciation for individuals and programs doing well, the president hosts a monthly luncheon which he uses for giving public "positive strokes," resulting in many appreciable and supportive staff.

Delegating to Staff (n=7, 14%) was viewed as the behaviors that presidents exhibited when they allowed or directed staff to assume responsibility for certain tasks involved in decision making processes. Seven effective critical incidents reported greater staff support and understanding resulted from presidents allowing staff to participate in decision making actions.

> Given a need for reorganizing academic departments, the president appointed a committee to study the situation and gave them responsibility to make recommendations for Board of Trustee's approval, resulting in more staff awareness and support for the final plan.

> With no apparent written or understood institutional goals, the president formed a committee to study, develop, and present to the Board intermediate and long range plans for development,
>
> resulting in a clearer staff awareness and understanding of institutional and individual purposes and direction.

Promoting Staff Growth (n=5, 11%) focused on how well the president assisted staff development by behaviors that influenced or evidenced support and encouragement for staff professional growth. For example, willingness to allow staff to attend professional meetings, take graduate courses, apply for outside positions, and so forth.

> Faced with a strong assistant's bid for a presidential position at another institution, the president caused the individual to be promoted to a highly responsible and prestigious "in house" vice presidential position, which resulted in the member's retention and increased productivity and teamwork.
>
> When a faculty member was invited to attend a national meeting, the president provided a school vehicle and some financial support, resulting in increased morale among other faculty and national exposure for person and institution.

Communicating with Staff (n=23, 33%)

More acceptance of presidential decisions and better relations between the president and staff were the most often mentioned results of effective staff communication. Twenty-three incidents focused on presidential ability to make staff feel that they wanted to do the best possible job, not merely work well enough to get by. The incidents were subsumed in the following two communicating behaviors: Discussing Issues with Staff and Advising Staff.

Discussing Issues with Staff (n=12, 52%) dealt with how the president exchanged ideas, information and feelings with the staff about

institution concerns. Face to face "open" meetings were valued as the primary means of staff communication.

> Given staff uncertainty when he assumed the position, the president scheduled "small group" staff breakfast meetings to discuss concerns and institutional direction, resulting in staff uncertainty being replaced by hope and a desire to be a part of the "new" direction.
> Given a staff communication problem, the president started a monthly "forum" staff lunch program to dine and discuss issues, resulting in increased staff morale and productivity.

Advising Staff (n=11, 48%) was the focus of eleven critical incidents describing this "explaining, informing, directing" type communication behavior of the effective president. Staff valued being kept apprised of information they perceived to effect their welfare or position. Two incidents spoke to written advice and the other nine focused on meetings.

> When the staff voiced concern over the institution's health insurance program, the president had an insurance program representative come with him to staff meetings to explain the program and answer questions, resulting in many unfounded fears being eliminated.
>
> When contract revisions were underway, the president met with small groups of staff to explain changes and answer questions, resulting in better staff understanding and acceptance of changes.

Representing (n=47, 21 o/o)

Forty-seven critical incidents focused on how the president was perceived to have represented the institution and promoted relations with various publics through his or her attendance at events and/or dealings with those same publics. The incidents were subsumed in two behavior categories: Representing Externally and Representing Internally.

Representing Externally (n=30, 64%)

External representation was to people who were neither students nor staff of the institution. They included Board of Trustees members, state and federal government officials, unions, civic groups of one kind or another, financial institutions, businesses, vendors, suppliers, parents, and other such "public" groups. Prior to the process of behavior subcategorization, 30 responses made this the most frequent behavior reported among effective critical incidents collected and evidenced the importance and "collective" concern that was placed on it.

> When public opinion of the college fell to an all time low, the president actively led college staff into more visible involvement with community events and affairs, resulting in improved relations between the college and the community and an enhanced regional image of the institution.

> When critics created negative and uncertain community feelings about the college by questioning in the local media the economic rationale of a campus construction project, the president provided a media response to the community at large showing the background information and data used by Board members to make their decision, resulting in an end to the criticism and near total community support for the project.

Representing Internally (n=17, 36%)

Being visible at campus events and evidencing personal or institutional interest in activities, groups, and causes on campus garners presidential support and creates an image of a caring administration. Internal representation was to staff and students and their many subgroupings (e.g., administrators, faculty, student athletes, certified personnel, non-certified personnel, faculty senate, full-time staff, part-time staff).

> When there is a campus event (e.g, athletics, arts, dinners, etc.), the president attends and participates when asked, resulting in both the president and the institution being perceived as "caring" and "supportive."

> When the school band reformed after a 10 year absence, the president personally purchased and gave band members T-shirts to march in with the college logo printed on them, resulting in increased enthusiasm and morale among band members and campus and community support for the president.

Planning (n=35, 16 o/o)

Thirty-five critical incidents focused on presidential behaviors related to deciding what is the institution's purpose, what are its desired outcomes, and what are the means that will be used to meet them. These incidents were subsumed in two behaviors: Obtaining Resources and Setting Goals and Objectives.

Obtaining Resources (n=27, 77%)

Twenty-seven critical incidents dealt with obtaining resources such as, private and public funding, donations, equipment, land, water rights, facilities, and so forth. Incidents mentioned effective presidents knew what resources they would need to make their plans work effectively and how to obtain them. Eight incidents spoke directly to obtaining funding for salary increases. This was the fourth most frequent behavior reported among effective critical incidents collected.

> When the school's need for additional water resources was discovered, the president made this need known at State and local levels of government and requested their assistance in meeting it, resulting in several local donations of water rights to the institution and state funding sufficient to expand the institution's water handling facilities.

> Given that staff had gone without a salary increase for three years, the president carefully massaged his budget and made changes that allowed a one-time pay increase, resulting in a much improved staff morale.

Setting Goals and Objectives (n=8, 23%)

As well as possible, the economic, social, and political operating environments of the institution must be presidentially forecast. For example, during retrenchment, prosperity plans may be impractical.

> Faced with the college's need to "position" itself within the market place, the president created a five-year facilities construction and upgrade program that is ahead of schedule, within budget and responsible for an increase in the number and quality of enrollments.

> When a nearby town with a private college in its community requested our college to establish an extension course center there, the president developed a thorough and comprehensive plan that provided for all contingencies, resulting in the Board's, the community's, and the private institution's acceptance.

Control Reporting (n=34, 15 o/o)

Thirty-four effective critical incidents focused on control reporting. That is, the continuous interactive communicative process that must occur between presidents and the two main groups (staff and trustees) he or she deals with in the exchange of information needed to make adjustments to institutional direction. "Reporting" is a means of control rather than a separate function. Reports are made so that the president, the trustees, or the staff may see what is happening and change course if needed. Incidents were subsumed in two behavior areas: Reporting with Staff and Reporting with Trustees.

Reporting with Staff (n=18, 53%)

Eighteen incidents indicated the results associated with presidential "control report" exchanges with staffs were: increased acceptance, unity, support, cooperation, morale, and "openness;" plus, decreased "bad" feelings, confusion and complaints. This behavior was the fifth most frequent behavior reported among effective critical incidents collected.

> Given a "shortfall" in state revenues, the president met with all staff to report the effects this would have on individual and institutional directions and what alternatives were available to those affected, resulting in acceptance of, cooperation with, and support for goal changes finally implemented.
>
> When state economics forced a mid-year "shortfall" of budget, the president met with staff to report the situation and to solicit their input for ways to effect "cuts" that would "hurt" them the least, resulting in "final" changes being more willingly accepted and minimal complaints.

Reporting with Trustees (n=16, 47%)

Sixteen incidents indicated that increases in esteem, appreciation, respect, support and confidence were results achieved by effective presidents in "control report" exchanges with Board of Trustees members.

> When he took office without full "backing" of the Board, the president made it an "early-on" practice to attempt to visit all board members weekly in their offices and provide them with updated reports on the college, resulting in his rapidly gaining unanimous Trustee support and confidence.
>
> Given a Board desire to appeal a court ruling against the college in a sex discrimination case, the president tactfully reported the situation as it existed, explained the futility of such a reaction, and offered a "face saving" alternative which resulted in all parties concerned being satisfied and increased board respect for the president.

Coupling (n=15, 7 o/o)

Fifteen effective critical incidents formed the fifth major category of effective critical incidents and focused on the president's coupling ability (i.e., the ability to link, unite, mediate, facilitate, coordinate and/or merge interrelated efforts between campus groups and campus/off-campus groups).

Campus Couplings (n=8, 59%)

Improved cooperation, working relations and communications were the reported results of effective presidential coupling of strictly campus groups. Incidents indicated that the president's role in campus couplings was viewed mainly as one of mediation.

> When two programs became combative over building space that had originally been under only one program's cognizance [sic], the president organized and coordinated a joint renovation and use designation effort that provided for both groups to mutually share responsibilities for the building and certain internal public spaces while, at the same time, giving each responsibility over specific program spaces, resulting in much improved working relations and communications between the two groups.
>
> When it was learned that the Night School Dean planned night courses without any departmental input, the president brought together the two parties and persuaded them to cooperatively plan course schedules.

Campus/off-campus Couplings (n=7, 47%)

Many campus/off-campus couplings accomplished through the office of the president were effective efforts that resulted in improved cooperation, satisfaction, and benefits to the parties involved. When coupling staff interactions with off-campus groups and individuals, effective presidents were viewed as being "facilitating."

When the local community voiced a need for a "lighted" athletic field to accommodate night events, the president organized and coordinated a joint campus/community committee that facilitated an exchange of dialogue and information that convinced community residents to fund the installation costs of lighting at the college's athletic field in return for "shared" field use, resulting in benefits and satisfaction for both parties.

Given the opportunity for a joint project between private business and a campus program, the president facilitated bringing the "groups" together, resulting in a new, high-tech training center being built on campus with mostly private funding.

Staffing (n=12, 5 o/o)

Twelve effective critical incidents mentioned staffing as an effective presidential behavior. Staffing included the behaviors of recruiting, selecting, transferring, promoting, and training staff that effective presidents used to find the proper person for the job.

When several key positions became vacant, the president "broke" salary schedules to attract "top" recruits, resulting in excellent selectees being hired who have demonstrated their worth and reduced any bad feelings other staff might of had due to the salary break.

When the president offered his resignation, he also offered assistance in getting his replacement, resulting in several "top-notch" candidates applying and one being hired.

Innovating (n=9, 4 o/o)

Nine effective critical incidents described the president's ability to create, accept, or adapt to "new" ideas. The effective president did all three.

When dormitory room occupancy became low, the president personally called all prospective students who were considering dorms to discuss options and benefits; his innovative approach resulted in increased dorm room commitments and "good" student feelings for himself and the institution.

Given an innovative faculty proposal for student scholarships and funding, the president presented it to the Board with his endorsement and support, resulting in the program being adapted, implemented and funded.

Summary of Publics' Effective Critical Incidents

Directing was the largest major category formed. The fact that over thirty percent of all the effective incidents reported were subsumed in this category evidences the overall concern for the topic. Considered within this category were the EAEP's behavior/skill areas: demonstrating professional commitment, improving instruction, communication, delegating responsibility, and developing staff, plus Gulick's Directing. Responses indicated a perception that the effective president's primary function was to provide staff with direction sufficient to help them meet their day-to-day challenges and opportunities. This meant that the president ensured that staff knew the results expected in each situation, assisted the staff to develop their skills and in some cases told them exactly how and when to perform certain tasks. The effective president accomplished staff direction through staff development and staff communications.

The effective president was expected to develop staff by promoting their professionalism, providing them with proper recognition, delegating to them the responsibility for certain policy and decision making actions, and encouraging and supporting their professional growth. Responses indicated a perception that the effective president promoted professionalism by holding the staff accountable for the conduct of their actions while they worked to meet and/or maintain certain mutually known professional and moral standards. The effective president demonstrated professional commitment by taking proper actions of recourse when those

standards were violated or not met by staff. The effective president provided proper recognition for staff efforts and achievements through public acknowledgements of the same. Even more important was his or her personal recognition of staff as individuals of worth. He or she delegated responsibility and commensurate authority to individuals and groups to permit participation in the decision making process. The effective president encouraged and supported the professional growth endeavors of his or her staff. In some cases, this meant simply giving verbal encouragement to staff to further one's education. In other cases, it meant giving up the talents and productivity of a particularly desirable staff member to promotion and transfer.

Through directed communications, the effective president made staff feel that they wanted to do the best possible job, not merely work well enough to get by. He or she met frequently with staff in "open" discussion to exchange ideas, information, and feelings concerning issues of mutual interest. In addition, the effective president met with staff to inform, explain, and direct their efforts toward institutional goals and objectives.

Representing was the second major category and indicated presidential "public" image was of major importance. The president represented the institution in all his or her relations with both internal and external publics. This category included the EAEP's building and maintaining relationships. At this point, one might suggest that some type of "public relations" heading might have been more appropriate. Public relations, however, is viewed as an important intentional or unintentional product of representation, and not a behavior itself. That

is, public relations is the degree of understanding and goodwill achieved through representation. Sometimes the president's behavior consisted merely of making one's self accessible and pleasant; at other times it was a matter of delicate negotiations. There were no presidents though who did not have to spend part of their time representing the institution. On a given day, a president might have spent his or her morning on campus in discussion with a student group and the afternoon at the state capitol presenting views to legislators on a proposed piece of legislation.

The presidential "community image" (how off-campus publics viewed the president as a result of his or her relations with them) was mentioned more frequently than was the presidential "campus" image. An effective president took a strong visible leadership role in community and campus projects that improved his or her image and the institution's. He or she was perceived to be sensitive to campus and off-campus concerns and was viewed as concurrently assisting the growth and welfare of both groups.

Planning was the third major category formed. It is suggested that this category includes Gulick's Planning and Budgeting plus the EAEP's setting goals and objectives, planning, making decisions and solving problems, and managing business and fiscal affairs. Responses indicated the first step the presidents had to take was to decide what was the institution's purpose and what were its desired outcomes; or, what had to be done. Short- and long-run objectives had to be set for the organization and the means that would be used to achieve them decided on.

Obtaining resources (means) were of more concern than setting objectives (ends) among collected incidents. Responses indicated the effective president had the ability to accurately budget for and obtain public and private funding sufficient to cover the institution's fixed, operating, and capital outlay costs plus allow for "fair" staff salary adjustments. He or she had the ability to solicit and obtain donations for non-budget items or projects. The effective president made appropriate equipment and other resource acquisitions that enhanced or created new staff production opportunities.

Responses indicated that, when setting objectives, the effective president forecasted, as well as possible, the economic, social, and political environment in which his or her institution would be operating. For example, plans that worked during prosperity might be impractical during retrenchment. Effective presidents were perceived to use the "best" people and information available to design and develop plans. Acting promptly and decisively in plan execution and implementation, the president continually evaluated goal achievement progress and caused adjustments to be made as needed.

Control Reporting is the fourth major category. In directing, the president explained to staff what they were expected to do and helped them do it to the best of their ability. In this category, the president determined how well the jobs had been done and what progress was being made toward organizational goals. This category includes Gulick's Reporting and AEAP's assessing progress. Presidents had to know what was happening so that they could make needed changes if the organization were deviating from the path they had set for it. Progress assessment

reports were made so that the president, superiors, or staffs might see what was happening and change course if needed. (A budget is not only a plan; it is also a means of control. If there are budget overruns or cuts, the organization must make adjustments somewhere to compensate.)

The staff appreciated prompt and accurate reports that explained how changes affected them and their work. Staff were able to accept "cut-back" adjustments as long as they felt the adjustments were "equitable," "fair," and "by the book." Board of Trustee members appreciated prompt and accurate reporting by the president on what changes were needed or occurring. Trustees expected the president to keep them advised promptly and with sufficient background data so that they could set policy and respond to their other constituencies.

Coupling was the fifth major category formed of effective critical incidents. "Organized and coordinated," "brought together and persuaded," "mediated," "facilitated," "unified," and "united" were terms used among critical incidents to describe presidential efforts to bring about group interaction between campus groups and campus/off-campus groups. The incidents focused mainly on how presidents organized and coordinated various boards and committees and arranged special meetings between various entities. When coupling strictly campus groups, the effective president was viewed mainly as "mediating" the relations between individuals or groups. When coupling staff interactions with off-campus groups and individuals, however, effective presidents were viewed as being "facilitating."

Staffing, the sixth major category occurred with no subcategories. Gulick's Organizing and Coordinating were considered in this category.

All incidents in the category focused on how the president attempted to find the "right fit" person for each job. The objectives and the work that will be done dictate the skills that will be needed. In staffing, the president decides on the positions to be filled and on the duties and responsibilities attaching to each one. Since the work done by the members of the organization will necessarily be interrelated, some means of coordinating their efforts must be provided. Coordination is, in fact, an essential part of staffing rather than, as Gulick suggested, a function in itself. It was recognized that established institutions, like the community colleges looked at in the study, of course, already have both an organization and people to fill the positions that have been set up. Nevertheless, staffing is a continuing task at community colleges where changes in plans and objectives often require changes in the organization and occasionally necessitate a complete reorganization. Staffing, obviously, cannot be done once and for all, since people are constantly leaving, getting fired, retiring and dying. Often, too, change creates new positions that must be filled. The effective president recruited, selected, promoted, transferred, and trained staff to obtain "right fit" candidates. Responses indicated that staffing done through use of some type "advisory" input system (e.g., screening committee) was viewed as most effective and most accepted.

Innovating was the seventh and final major category. It emerged as a first level behavior with no subcategories. If the president merely attempted to continue doing what had been done, making the best possible showing in view of external influences and resources available, the institution would be static at best. Being in the competitive field of

community colleges, however, it was more likely to decline than to stay in the same place.

Drucker (1954) suggested that leadership could not be bureaucratic, administrative, or even a policy-making task. He stated that, " . . [it] must be a creative rather than an adaptive task." In other words, "real" presidents must be capable of effecting change.

Innovating is suggested as a true behavior of the president, and may be accomplished in several different ways. Presidents may develop new ideas themselves, combine old ideas into new ones, pick up ideas from other fields and adapt them, or merely act as a "catalyst of change" or "change agent" and stimulate or cause others to develop and carry out change.

One could argue that Planning encompassed Innovating, since the president should plan not only how to adjust the organization to future conditions but how to change those conditions in order to improve organizational opportunities. This would be logical enough, but it might lead to a lack of emphasis on the need for effecting change in all phases of leadership, including innovations in the handling of the other presidential behaviors.

Publics' Ineffective Critical Incidents

The same format of presentation as was used with effective incidents is adopted below. Table VIII presents the two public's ineffective critical incident behavior categories and subcategories with completed returns (N=193) totals and percents. Using the same process as was used with effective critical incidents, Table IX shows how the first step of

TABLE VIII

PUBLICS' INEFFECTIVE CRITICAL INCIDENT BEHAVIOR CATEGORIES AND SUBCATEGORIES WITH COMPLETED RETURN (N=193) TOTALS AND PERCENTS

Directing	(n=67, 35 o/o)
Communicating with Staff	(n=39, 58%)
Making Alienating Remarks to Staff	(n=21, %54)
Holding Unmeaningful Staff Meetings	(n=9, %23)
Avoiding Issues with Staff	(n=9, %23)
Assisting Staff Development	(n=28, 42%)
Delegating to Staff	(n=14, 50%)
Repressing Professionalism	(n=7, 25%)
Neglecting Staff	(n=5, 18%)
Repressing Staff Growth	(n=2, 7%)
Representing	(n=42, 22 o/o)
Representing Internally	(n=24, 57%)
Representing Externally	(n=18, 43%)
Control Reporting	(n=39, 20 o/o)
Reporting with Staff	(n=30, 77%)
Biased Resource Adjusting	(n=15, 50%)
Questionable Personnel Adjusting	(n=9, 30%)
Uncoordinated Calendar Adjusting	(n=6, 20%)
Reporting with Trustees	(n=9, 23%)
Planning	(n=23, 12 o/o)
Setting Goals and Objectives	(n=12, 52%)
Obtaining Resources	(n=11, 48%)
Staffing	(n=14, 7 o/o)
Innovating	(n=5, 2 o/o)
Coupling	(n=3, 2 o/o)

n=Number of ineffective critical incidents within heading.
o/o=Percent of total (N=193) ineffective critical incidents.
%=Percent of total ineffective critical incidents within next higher category heading.

TABLE IX

PUBLICS' INEFFECTIVE CRITICAL INCIDENT BEHAVIOR CATEGORIZATION PROCESS RESULTS (N=193)

		SUBSUMED IN
1.	THIRD LEVEL (1st step)	
	A. Representing Internally (n=24)	2.A
	B. Making Alienating Remarks to Staff (n=21)	2.B
	C. Representing Externally (n=18)	2.A
	D. Biased Resource Adjusting (n=15)	2.C
	E. Delegating to Staff (n=14)	2.D
	F. Staffing (n=14)	
	G. Setting Goals and Objectives (n=12)	2.E
	H. Obtaining Resources (n=11)	2.E
	I. Holding Unmeaningful Staff Meetings (n=9)	2.B
	J. Avoiding Issues with Staff (n=9)	2.B
	K. Reporting with Trustees (n=9)	
	L. Questionable Personnel Adjusting (n=9)	2.C
	M. Repressing Professionalism (n=7)	2.D
	N. Uncoordinated Calendar Adjusting (n=6)	2.C
	O. Neglecting Staff (n=5)	2.D
	P. Innovating (n=5)	
	Q. Coupling (n=3)	
	R. Repressing Staff Growth (n=2)	2.D
2.	SECOND LEVEL (2nd step)	
	A. Representing (n=47)	
	B. Communicating with Staff (n=39)	3.A.
	C. Reporting with Staff (n=30)	3.C.
	D. Assisting Staff Development (n=28)	3.A.
	E. Planning (n=23)	
	F. Staffing (n=14)	
	G. Reporting with Trustees (n=9)	3.C.
	H. Innovating (n=5)	
	I. Coupling (n=3)	
3.	FIRST LEVEL (3rd step)	
	A. Directing (n=67)	
	B. Representing (n=47)	
	C. Control Reporting (n=39)	
	D. Planning (n=23)	
	E. Staffing (n=14)	
	F. Innovating (n=5)	
	G. Coupling (n=3)	

n=Number of ineffective critical incidents within heading.
Note: 18 behaviors emerged at the 1st step (THIRD LEVEL) of categorization; related behaviors were placed (2nd step) within new headings at the SECOND LEVEL; this process ended with FIRST LEVEL categories after no further subsumption was recognized. Behaviors are shown top to bottom and ordered by frequency.

categorizing 193 ineffective critical incidents produced 18 behaviors. Fourteen of these behaviors were subsumed within five of nine SECOND LEVEL categories. Four of the SECOND LEVEL categories were subsumed within two of seven FIRST LEVEL categories during the third and final step. The categories and subcategories of behaviors formed from the two distinct public's 193 reported ineffective incidents follow:

Directing (n=67, 35 o/o)

Providing staff with the direction to meet their day-to-day challenges and opportunities was the focus of this category. It was formed from two minor categories, Communicating with Staff and Assisting Staff Development, which in turn were formed from six specific behaviors described in 67 incidents. These incidents made this category the largest.

Communicating with Staff (n=39, 58%)

This minor category focused on presidential ability to make staff feel that they want to do the best possible job, not merely work well enough to get by. Thirty-nine incidents were subsumed in the following three ineffective communicating behaviors: Making Alienating Remarks to Staff, Holding Unmeaningful Staff Meetings, and Avoiding Issues.

Making Alienating Remarks to Staff (n=21, 54%) involved incidents where presidents made intimidating, ridiculing, degrading, accusing, or critical remarks to staff in meetings or writing.

> At a meeting where ideas, criticisms and suggestions for institutional improvement were to be discussed, the president yelled at and ridiculed the first person who made a suggestion

and suggested that the individual look elsewhere for work, resulting in the meeting being "killed" and the staff losing all respect for the president.

At monthly staff meetings, the president consistently makes unnecessary and degrading comments about staff members, resulting in the increasing notion that the president does not care about worker morale or welfare.

Holding Unmeaningful Staff Meetings (n=9, 23%) involved incidents where presidents held staff meetings when they had no agenda and/or where they rambled on and on and/or said nothing.

Given scheduled monthly staff meetings, the president rambles on and on about nothing which makes many question his competency and the need for such meetings while making others just frustrated and angry over being required to "waste time" attending such meetings.

At staff meetings, the president uses the occasion to joke with selected administrators and pass along "small talk" while avoiding any issues pertinent to jobs or teaching, leaving many staff members to consider the meetings as a joke and the president as unwilling or unable to discuss items of substance.

Avoiding Issues with Staff (n=9, 23%) included incidents where presidents avoided and/or became defensive during meetings and would not discuss issues or other incidents where they just refused to share information or have open discussion.

Given the institution's uncertain economic state, the president became defensive during meetings and lashed out at any staff member who sought explanation or information concerning the college's situation, resulting in growing staff apathy and insecurity while questions went unanswered and the situation remained unclear.

When queried about certain funds reporting and accounting procedures, the president called a staff meeting at which he spoke harshly and angrily to "critics" while refusing to discuss any information about funding details, resulting in many "new" staff critics being created and a generally shared feeling among attendees that presidential ineptness was being confirmed.

Assisting Staff Development (n=28, 42%)

This minor category focused on how presidents assist the development of their staff. Under this heading, 28 incidents were subsumed in four specific behavior categories: Delegating to Staff, Repressing Professionalism, Neglecting Staff and Repressing Staff Growth.

Delegating (n=14, 50%) involved incidents where presidents overrode decisions which they had delegated as staff responsibility and incidents where they did not delegate responsibility.

> After the committee to select residents for a new scholar's dorm had made its selections, the president overrode the selections and chose some students who did not meet established criteria, thus alienating committee members and thoroughly infuriating staff, students and parts of the community.
>
> In all areas of the college, the president has ruled with an "Iron Hand" and refused to share power or information, resulting in a "questionable" system of checks and balances, a frustrated and ofttimes confused staff, and a real replacement problem when it becomes necessary.

Neglecting Staff (n=12, 43%) involved incidents where the president neglected staff and did not formally or informally recognize their efforts, achievements or worth.

> When dealing with or talking about non-full time staff members, the president states and consistently gives the impression that these employees are a "necessary evil" and "to be tolerated," resulting in low morale and apathy among non-full time personnel and growing uncertainty among other staff members about the president's concern for their welfare.
>
> After several staff members had worked many long and arduous hours getting an evaluation manual produced ahead of schedule, the president did nothing to acknowledge its completion or the member's efforts, leaving those involved with a "Why Bother!" attitude and frustrated.

Repressing Professionalism (n=7, 25%) involved incidents where presidents did nothing to evidence a positive commitment to professionalism, discriminated against staff members by selectively enforcing personnel policies or rules, and went against their word.

> Given a large negative campus and community concern about a Department Head's increasingly frequent irrational and disruptive acts on campus, the president has chosen to do nothing, resulting in many campus and community members losing their confidence in the president's ability to deal effectively with sensitive issues and his commitment to quality standards.
>
> Given poor faculty attendance at an academic advisement workshop, the president caused letters of reprimand to be placed in the personnel records of five selected members whom he considered "ring leaders," resulting in a general staff disapproval of presidential action and a filed grievance from the five members.

Repressing Staff Growth (n=2, 7%) involved incidents where no presidential encouragement or support was offered to staff members to take advantage of professional growth challenges and/or opportunities.

> When several faculty members were invited to attend a professional seminar at another community college and requested permission to use a college van, the president refused their request while criticizing their efforts and accusing them of trying to "by-pass" administrative procedures, thus creating feelings of anger and frustration in the faculty ranks while reinforcing the adversarial role between faculty and "administration."
>
> Given many opportunities for professional staff growth at area workshops, regional seminars and so forth, the president discourages any staff attendance by claiming that such events are a "waste of time" and attendees are people who take advantage of the institution.

Representing (n=42, 22 o/o)

This category focused on the ability of the president to represent the institution in dealings and negotiations with various publics.

Forty-two incidents were subsumed in two minor categories, Negatively Representing the Institution Internally and Negatively Representing the Institution Externally.

Representing Internally (n=24, 57%)

Incidents reported negative representation of the institution by presidents who became hostile during staff negotiations, reacted negatively to student groups, did not attend campus events, and showed favoritism towards "athletics" while dealing or negotiating with campus individuals or groups.

> Given a Board requested Welfare Committee faculty salary and benefit proposal, the president became hostile and made a counter-offer containing minimal salary increases, and reduced benefits along with a strong statement that he would be very unhappy if the faculty did not accept his "modest offer," resulting in the faculty becoming very upset and questioning presidential concern for their welfare and morale.

> Given a program that has won regional and national honors repeatedly, the president has never attended any of its presentations or offered congratulations to any of its student or faculty program personnel, at the same time, he has attended all the college's athletic events, leaving many staff and students to have negative feelings for the president and questions over his priorities between "academics" and "athletics."

Representing Externally (n=18, 43%)

Incidents reported presidents who acted in such a way as to get bad publicity, went against or did not respond to known community concerns, projected a "poor" image, improperly used staff or students, and did not attend community events while representing the institution in dealings or negotiations with "community" publics.

> Wanting to remodel the college owned president's house during a known time of public funding cut-backs, the president held a press conference to alert the community to possible campus employee and community services cuts while, at the same time, he tried unsuccessfully to have "private" contractors silently perform a questionable $60,000 presidential house remodeling job, resulting in much bad publicity for the institution and many questions being raised about the president's ethics, judgement and priorities.
>
> Given that local support for a campus construction project was waning due to a suffering state economy, the president tried to sneak through a cheaper but still costly version of the project, prompting a successful community petition drive to force a mill-levy vote which ultimately defeated the plan and cost the institution any community support it once had.

Control Reporting (n=39, 20 o/o)

This category focused on the continuous interactive process of presidential "reporting" with the staff and board that occurs in the exchange of information needed to control (make adjustments to) institutional direction (goals and objectives). Two minor categories were Reporting with Staff and Reporting with Trustees.

Reporting with Staff (n=30, 77%)

Thirty incidents reported presidents made inequitable or unfair staff and program adjustments, questionable personnel adjustments, and negative calendar schedule adjustments as a result of inappropriate control report interactions with their staff. These incidents were subsumed under three headings: Biased Resource Controls, Questionable Personnel Controls and Uncoordinated Calendar Schedule Controls.

Biased Resource Adjusting (n=15, 50%) involved incidents where the president was responsible for unequal or unfair staff salary, load or

benefit changes and incidents where distribution of program funds was considered biased due to a presidential preference of "athletics" over "academics."

> Given Board approval to make deferred "bonus" payments to staff, the president made the payments in significantly disparate amounts and refused to reveal the distribution criteria or formula used, resulting in most staff members becoming upset over what they considered unfair treatment.
>
> After pushing hard for early staff retirements, the president had faculty absorb classes in an "overload" mode but without any additional compensation, resulting in increased "ill will" for the president and a decrease in effective teaching campus-wide.
>
> Given funding conflicts between "academics" and "athletics," the president chose athletics, resulting in a championship team that cost him the morale and support of the staff plus a big decrease in the quality of instruction.

Questionable Personnel Adjusting (n=9, 30%) involved incidents questioning the motivation and rationale of the president's termination or transfer of certain staff members and other incidents where the president did not notify appropriate staff members of personnel transfers and appointments.

> After appointing a department chairperson, the president did not notify the other candidates of his selection or make the appointment known until almost two weeks had past, resulting in the fall college schedule being delayed and many staff angered and frustrated by the president's seeming indifference and insensitivity.
>
> After a faculty member had organized a teacher's association on campus, the president eliminated the member's position and fired him, resulting in solidified staff support for the association, the member and the member's subsequent lawsuit against the institution which resulted in an out-of-court settlement to the member in excess of $30,000.

Uncoordinated Calendar Adjusting (n=6, 20%) involved incidents where the president made institutional calendar schedule adjustments without consulting staff and/ or the Board.

> While attending an athletic event one week prior to finals and without consulting anyone, the president made a public promise that if the team won (and they did) he would close the institution for a day of celebration the following week and the day would be "tacked-on" to the end of the semester, resulting in so many people becoming upset that the trustees overrode the president's promise and made him appear more the clown than usual.
>
> Given several "snow" days to make up, one week before Easter Break was to start the president announced that the break period was cancelled and would instead be used to make up the lost days, resulting in all concerned students, staff, and community publics becoming very upset and angry at the president.

Reporting with Trustees (n=9, 23%)

This minor category involved incidents where the president failed to adequately inform the Board, became defensive and threatened to quit, ignored the facts, and acted indecisively.

> Given a request by the Board to present to them a legal and financial report that they could understand, the president presented varying and contradictory pieces of information that served to confuse Board members further, resulting in the meeting being adjourned early and the president being admonished to bring with him next time someone competent enough to answer the questions; plus, he was told that Board confidence in him had lessened over this incident.
>
> When the Board did not unanimously approve hiring a new coach, the president interpreted this as a "personal" attack and threatened to resign, resulting in his loss of much favor and respect by Board members.

Planning (n=23, 12 o/o)

This category involved incidents reporting how presidents went about setting institutional goals and objectives and how they obtained the resources necessary to meet those goals and objectives. Two minor categories were Setting Goals and Objectives and Obtaining Resources.

Setting Goals and Objectives (n=12, 52%)

Incidents where the president either did not take decisive action or made ineffective plans in setting institutional aims.

> Given staff concerns over different grading standards being applied between day and night classes of the same course, the president has chosen to ignore the problem and do nothing, resulting in many students opting to enroll in "easy" night classes and questions about academic quality and institutional integrity being asked throughout the campus and community at large.
>
> After spring floods washed away a college baseball field, the president had it rebuilt in the same spot and it washed away again in the fall, which resulted in many campus and community people questioning the competency and logic of the president.

Obtaining Resources (n=11, 48%)

This minor category involved incidents where presidents used questionable tactics in soliciting private donations and incidents where their plans failed to obtain needed resources.

> Given the college's Foundation was short on scholarship monies, the president strongly urged that each staff member either donate or raise $250.00 to the cause, resulting in a short-fall of funds and a real loss of staff respect for the president.
>
> Given the opportunity to apply for an almost certain 1.2 million dollar Title IV Grant, the president did not submit the request until after deadline date, resulting in the institution losing the opportunity for very much needed funding.

Staffing (n=14, 7 o/o)

This category involved incidents where the president hired staff at salary rates outside established schedules and/or who were unqualified for the position hired to.

> After learning that his hiring of "an old friend" as faculty at an inflated salary had caused some bitterness among other faculty members, the president hired the friend's academically unqualified wife at an equally inflated salary to "show" critics "who really runs the show," resulting in a loss of faculty morale and staff respect for the president plus increased staff apathy.
>
> Given the institution's staffing problems caused by personnel leaving and retiring, the president hired at inflated salaries several coach's wives who had no academic or administrative preparation, leaving most members of the staff and community to believe that both academic quality and institutional integrity was being sacrificed to give additional "perks" to coaches.

Innovating (n=5, 2 o/o)

This category involved those incidents where the presidents did not solicit staff input for planning and decision making or ignored input previously requested from staff who might have expertise about the situation or a vested interest in the outcome.

> After soliciting staff "input" at the beginning of the school year for ideas, evaluations, and comments on institutional operation, management, direction and other such concerns, the president has not provided any feedback or evidence that any input has been acted upon or considered, resulting in negative staff morale and a loss of presidential respect and support.
>
> After requesting a department to provide input on a new construction project to house one of its programs, the president ignored the input and pursued the project on his own without notifying the department of any change of plans, leaving department personnel very upset and hurt when they found out through the "grape-vine" what plans were being implemented...the president lost must staff respect, cooperation and support on this one.

Coupling (n=3, 2 o/o)

Three incidents dealt with presidential inabilities to resolve group differences and/or to facilitate communication and cooperation between groups.

> When department chair's [sic] brought their concerns to the president about one administrative department's performance, the president had a department head meeting in which he had the offending department head lecture all other department heads on how things were done and why the other departments ought to "get in line," resulting in even more animosity toward the department in question, a loss of respect for the president and continuation of the problem.
>
> When increasing tension between two departments became apparent across the campus, the president called the two departments and the Dean of Instruction together for a meeting in which he encouraged the group's interaction toward resolution of the problem and then left, resulting in many things being smoothed over other things being suppressed or not addressed and no equitable solution to the problem being reached.

Summary of Publics' Ineffective

Critical Incidents

The frequency of incidents indicated that most respondents were concerned over perceived presidential ineffectiveness in the same behavioral areas as reported for presidential effectiveness: directing the staff, representing the institution, controlling institutional direction, developing plans, staffing and effecting change.

Staff communications and staff development areas combined to make Directing the largest concern reported. In staff communicating, making negative remarks to staff in public, holding staff meetings with no agenda or rambling on and on while saying nothing, refusing to share information or being defensive and not discussing issues, and writing

threatening memos were considered ineffective and resulted in losses in staff morale, the quality of instruction, and in presidential support, credibility, and respect. In addition, results indicated increased staff frustration, apathy, confusion, fear, anger, mistrust, and resentment. Ineffective presidential behaviors associated with assisting staff development such as overriding committee decisions, not delegating responsibilities to staff, not recognizing staff publicly, demonstrating a negative commitment to professionalism, not promoting staff professional growth, reneging on one's word and selectively enforcing standards resulted in staff feelings of disillusionment, upset, frustration, confusion, and apathy that were created when staff felt abandoned and deserted by the president.

How the president behaved while representing the institution to internal and external publics was the second major concern, Representing. Becoming hostile or adversarial in staff negotiations, acting to get "bad" publicity, showing unconcern for campus problems, going against or not responding to community concerns, reacting negatively to student groups, projecting a "poor" image, not attending events, showing favoritism to "athletics," and improperly using staff and student personnel had the following results: losses of community/campus support and respect for the president and institution occurred, negative community/campus relations were created, an uncaring and insensitive image of the president and institution was perceived by internal and external publics when they believed they had been wronged, ignored or unfairly dealt with.

Incidents related to controlling institutional direction by adjustments made as a result of the ongoing assessment and exchange of informa-

tion between the president and his or her staff and Board compiled the third major concern, Control Reporting. Control reporting with the staff and Board and the subsequent adjustments made contained ineffective behavior areas such as: inappropriate personnel adjusting, biased resource adjusting and uncoordinated calendar adjusting. These areas contained ineffective behaviors such as: questionable personnel termination, hiring, benefits and work assignment actions; inequitable and unfair staff and program adjustments; rescheduling work days; and, failing to adequately inform, ignoring facts, becoming defensive and threatening to quit, and acting indecisively. The results of such behaviors were: feelings of anger, frustration, turmoil, apathy, confusion, and alienation among staff and Board members; beliefs that the president had acted incompetent, uncaring and without regard for others; and, consensus opinion that the president deserted or abandoned institutional purpose and his or her own integrity to satisfy certain ends.

Presidential ability to develop plans related to setting goals and objectives and obtaining resources was the fourth major concern, Planning. Not taking decisive action, poor planning, and using questionable tactics in soliciting donations were specific behaviors considered ineffective among incidents reported. These behaviors had detrimental effects on institutional and program quality, teaching effectiveness, administrative and operational posture of the institution, and presidential and institutional image.

Incidents related to staffing salaries and hiring practices comprised the fifth major concern, Staffing. Hiring staff above or below established salary schedules, hiring unqualified persons for staff

positions, showing favoritism in hiring, and using unfair or unethical hiring practices were reported incidents. The reported results of such presidential behavior were: the president lost the support and respect of all persons who found out about the incidents, institutional academic and administrative postures were negatively affected, staff morale suffered, an inordinate amount of Board time was spent on "personnel" issues, and staff feelings of anger, frustration, resentment, and abandonment were created.

Innovating involved "effecting change" incidents where the presidents did not solicit staff ideas for planning and decision making or ignored inputs previously requested from staff who might have expertise about the situation or a vested interest in the outcome. These ineffective presidential behaviors resulted in creating non-working relations between staff and presidents, staff grievances being filed, lowered staff morale, and "why bother" type attitudes being created.

Coupling was the least concern mentioned. It involved three internal couplings where the president did not take effective action to resolve group differences. As with effective critical incidents related to this behavior category, the president's role in coupling on campus was seen as one of mediation.

Like the public's effective incidents, no mention was made of specific curricular issues, program content, educational philosophy, or institutional structure. Respondents clearly saw the president's ability to identify with the needs of others as the most important concern.

If "doing nothing" could have been listed under a single behavior heading, rather than applying to how the president did not behave in a

If "doing nothing" could have been listed under a single behavior heading, rather than applying to how the president did not behave in a given situation, it would have easily been the largest specific ineffective behavior mentioned. In all critical incident areas identified by this study, presidential indecision was reported as being the most ineffective response.

Critical Incident Categories and Subcategories Reported by Presidents

A total of 41 critical incidents were reported by 11 community college presidents responding to this study. There were 23 effective critical incidents and 18 ineffective critical incidents reported by the presidents. One factor taken into consideration in forming categories was whether similar incidents had been reported by other respondents in the study. When a parallel did exist, a category was considered established. If not, a new category was created. In this case, while some initial behaviors differed slightly, all presidential incidents could be placed in major and minor categories established by the other two study groups without forming any new categories. As with Research Question One, the incidents were topically categorized and subcategorized, then ordered by frequency. Where frequencies were the same, categories were ordered by their overall rankings.

Effective critical incidents reported by presidents were categorized within the following major headings:

Directing

Control Reporting

Planning

Staffing

Representing

Coupling

Innovating

Ineffective critical incidents reported by presidents were topically categorized under the following major headings:

Control Reporting

Directing

Coupling

Planning

Representing

As with the public's critical incidents, within the text that follows, the titles of each behavior category is briefly explained and each subcategory is briefly explained. Because of the relatively small numbers involved, all critical incidents reported by the presidents are provided as illustrations.

Presidents' Effective Critical Incidents

Table X presents the categories and subcategories of effective critical incidents reported by community college presidents. The total number of critical incidents was 41. Of this number, 23 were effective. Table XI shows the results of the three-step process used in categorizing the initial 12 effective behaviors identified by presidents in critical incident reports. That is, how 10 related behaviors were subsumed (2nd step) within six of eight SECOND LEVEL categories and how two related

TABLE X

PRESIDENTS' EFFECTIVE CRITICAL INCIDENT CATEGORIES AND SUBCATEGORIES WITH COMPLETED RETURN (N=23) TOTALS AND PERCENTS

Directing	(n=8, 35 o/o)
Communicating with Staff	(n=4, 50%)
Delegating to Staff	(n=3, 38%)
Promoting Professionalism	(n=1, 12%)
Control Reporting	(n=7, 30 o/o)
Reporting with Staff	(n=5, 71%)
Reporting with Trustees	(n=2, 29%)
Planning	(n=3, 13 o/o)
Obtaining Resources	(n=2, 67%)
Setting Goals and Objectives	(n=1, 33%)
Staffing	(n=2, 9 o/o)
Representing	(n=1, 4 o/o)
Coupling	(n=1, 4 o/o)
Innovating	(n=1, 4 o/o)

n=Number of critical incidents within heading.
o/o=Percent of total (N=23).
%=Percent of category.

TABLE XI

PRESIDENTS' EFFECTIVE CRITICAL INCIDENT BEHAVIOR CATEGORIZATION PROCESS RESULTS (N=23)

1. THIRD LEVEL (1st step)	SUBSUMED IN
A. Reporting with Staff (n=5)	2.D
B. Delegating to staff (n=3)	2.A
C. Obtaining Resources (n=2)	2.C
D. Reporting with Trustees (n=2)	2.D
E. Discussing Issues with Staff (n=2)	2.E
F. Advising Staff (n=2)	2.E
G. Staffing (n=2)	
H. Representing Externally (n=1)	2.B
I. Promoting Professionalism (n=1)	2.A
J. Setting Goals and Objectives (n=1)	2.C
K. Campus Couplings (n=1)	2.F
L. Innovating (n=1)	
2. SECOND LEVEL (2nd step)	
A. Control Reporting (n=7)	
B. Assisting Staff Development (n=4)	3.A.
C. Communicating with Staff (n=4)	3.A.
D. Planning (n=3)	
E. Staffing (n=2)	
F. Representing (n=1)	
G. Coupling (n=1)	
H. Innovating (n=1)	
3. FIRST LEVEL (3rd step)	
A. Directing (n=8)	
B. Control Reporting (n=7)	
C. Planning (n=3)	
D. Staffing (n=2)	
E. Representing (n=1)	
F. Coupling (n=1)	
G. Innovating (n=1)	

n=Number of critical incidents within category
Note: 12 behavior categories (THIRD LEVEL) emerged at the 1st step; related behaviors were placed (2nd step) within new SECOND LEVEL categories; finally, related categories were subsumed (3rd step) within new FIRST LEVEL categories and no further subsumption was recognized. Behavior areas are listed top to bottom and ordered by frequency.

SECOND LEVEL categories were subsumed (3rd step) within one of seven FIRST LEVEL categories. Each category and subcategory heading is listed with critical incidents illustrating the category following.

Directing (n=8, 35 o/o)

Providing staff with the direction to meet their day-to-day challenges and opportunities was the focus of this category. It was formed from two minor categories, Assisting Staff Development and Communicating with Staff.

Assisting Staff Development (n=4, 50%)

Promoting professionalism, recognizing staff, delegating to staff, and promoting staff growth are presidential behaviors that influenced staff development efforts.

Delegating to Staff (n=3, 75%) focused on the president allowing or assigning staff certain decision making responsibilities.

> Given staff concern over a proposed calendar change, the president appointed a staff task force to study the problem and make a recommendation for solution, resulting in increased staff support and acceptance of the change.
>
> Given increasing public and campus concerns over AIDS, the president had the Health/Science Division draft a policy statement and guidelines for handling cases on campus should any occur, resulting in a well conceived and well received insitutional plan to deal with a sensitive issue.

Promoting Professionalism (n=1, 25%) focused on how the president assisted staff development by behaving in such a way that it influenced or evidenced a commitment to professional standards.

> Given a mediocre academic program, the president "lit a fire under them," resulting in the department "getting with the program" and landing a very large national humanities grant.

Communicating with Staff (n=4, 50%)

Incidents focused on presidential abilities of advising and discussing issues with staff to make them feel that they wanted to do the best job, not merely work well enough to get by.

> To gain support and quell rumors as to why a VP position had not been filled, the president called a staff meeting and explained the economic limits that the college was operating under, resulting in staff anxieties subsiding.

> Given some staff uncertainty over "dealings" of the Board, the president invited faculty, administrative and student representatives to attend board meetings and report back to their respective groups, resulting in better working relationships and improved communication between all parties.

Control Reporting (n=7, 30 o/o)

Making adjustments to control institutional direction as a result of reporting (exchanging information) with Staff and Trustees.

Reporting Control with Staff (n=5, 71%)

Presidents felt that staff better accepted and appreciated control adjustments when they were informed on "why" and "how" the adjustments would be made.

> Given budget constraints, the president cut travel funds and thoroughly reported and explained his action in a staff memorandum, resulting in a better staff appreciation for the "big" problem plus their acceptance of the policy change.

> Given impending budget cuts, the president reported to the staff that one program was being cut and another being restructured to control operating costs, resulting in cost savings being able to be applied to future cost deficits.

Reporting with Trustees (n=2, 29%)

The president could ensure Board harmony and garner their support for his or her endeavors simply by keeping them informed and current on "what's happening" with the college.

> Given Board disagreement over a presidential staff salary proposal, the president pursued lengthy private talks with each trustee until an equitable compromise was reached, resulting in all interested parties being satisfied with the results while staff and Board confidence in the president's ability to negotiate increased.
>
> Given a court ruling against the college and the Board's desire to appeal it, the president reported the unliklihood of success in appeal pursuit and offered a compromise action that allowed the board to "save face," resulting in all parties being satisfied and undue negative publicity for the college being avoided.

Planning (n=3, 13 o/o)

Three critical incidents dealt with how the president obtained resources and developed plans needed to allow accomplishment of the mission.

Obtaining Resources (n=2, 67%)

Presidential abilities to obtain needed resources such as donations, funding, equipment, facilities, etc.

> Given a poor state economy and a bleak outlook for educational funding, the president joined forces with presidents of other higher education institutions to push "education" as an "economy enhancing investment in the future," resulting in the state legislature appropriating additional funding for higher education while cutting funds for other public services.
>
> Given the need for upgrading campus computer equipment, the president contacted the head of a local computer business and persuaded him to donate the necessary equipment, resulting in publicity for the business and free equipment for the college.

Setting Goals and Objectives (n=1, 33%)

Presidential ability to forcast, as well as possible, the economic, social, and political environment in which the college will be operating.

> Given dwindling resources and an increasing public demand for institutional accountability, the president reduced operations and developed sound policies on salaries, program quality control, and maintenance and acquisition of equipment, resulting in a balanced budget and staff acceptance.

Staffing (n=2, 9 o/o)

Presidential ability to recruit, select, transfer, promote and train staff that perform effectively.

> Given the need to address the lack of effective academic management, the president hired a capable "participative management" person who "managed" a quick implementation of sound academic policies, resulting in a high staff acceptance of the person and improved program quality control.

> When faced with hiring a new Vice President for Academic Affairs, the president formed a committee of faculty elected representatives with whom he kept an open and steady dialogue, resulting in the present excellent VPAA being hired from the committee's selection slate.

Representing (n=1, 4 o/o)

Presidential ability to represent the institution to external and internal publics by attendance at public events, during public negotiations or dealings, and through personal leadership and example.

> Because of economic depression in the community, the president lead a community task force of persons from local business and civic groups, resulting in a much improved local morale and hope for future growth.

Coupling (n=1, 4 o/o)

Presidential ability to bring groups together to resolve differences, to cooperate on a joint effort, or to facilitate communications.

> Given staff disagreements over which office was responsible for student recruiting, the president identified the task as a schoolwide goal, resulting in increased efforts and higher enrollments.

Innovating (n=1, 4 o/o)

Presidential ability to effect change by creating new ideas, adapting other's ideas, or influencing others to develop new ideas.

> Given a telecommunication idea to reach "new" market students, the president took a major professional gamble and implemented the idea, resulting in increased enrollments, revenues and institutional visibility.

Summary of Presidents' Effective Critical Incidents

The presidents' categories showed remarkable consistency with the effective categories of the two public groups. All respondents seemed to indicate that effective community college presidential leadership behavior focused on directing the staff sufficiently to meet their day-to-day challenges and opportunities; making fair and equitable adjustments to college direction as a result of interactively exchanging information with staff and trustees; setting institutional goals and objectives and obtaining adequate resources to accomplish them; proper staffing through good recruiting, selecting, hiring, training, and promoting practices; positively representing the institution to both

internal and external publics; bringing groups together to resolve differences or enhance communication and cooperation; and effecting change through self innovation or that of others.

Thirty-five percent of the effective incident total indicated that presidents saw delegating responsibilities for certain decision making tasks and keeping the staff informed of matters affecting them as the two main parts of the presidential primary concern, directing. Another 30 percent of presidents' effective critical incidents reported control reporting as a concern. Seventy percent of this focus was on reporting with staff which indicated presidents' awareness of working closely with staff. The remaining 34 percent of the president's effective critical incidents spread across five categories without major frequency.

Presidents' Ineffective Critical Incidents

Table XII illustrates the categories of ineffective critical incidents reported by community college presidents. Forty-one critical incidents were received from presidents with 19 of those being ineffective. Table XIII shows the results of the three step process used in categorizing the initial eight ineffective behaviors identified by presidents in critical incident reports. Eight behavior areas emerged during the 1st categorization step (SECOND LEVEL); related behaviors were then placed (2nd step) within new FIRST LEVEL headings; the process ended with FIRST LEVEL categories after no further subsumption was recognized. Behaviors are shown top to bottom and ordered by frequency. Each category and subcategory heading is listed with critical incidents illustrating the category following.

TABLE XII

PRESIDENTS' INEFFECTIVE CRITICAL INCIDENT CATEGORIES AND SUBCATEGORIES WITH COMPLETED RETURN (N=18) TOTALS AND PERCENTS

Reporting Control	(n=7, 39 o/o)
Reporting with Trustees	(n=5, 71%)
Reporting Control with Staff	(n=2, 29%)
Directing	(n=4, 22 o/o)
Delegating to Staff	(n=2, 50%)
Promoting Professionalism	(n=2, 50%)
Planning	(n=3, 17 o/o)
Setting Goals and Objectives	(n=2, 67%)
Obtaining Resources	(n=1, 33%)
Coupling	(n=3, 17 o/o)
Representing	(n=1, 5 o/o)
Staffing (None mentioned)	
Innovating (None mentioned)	

n=Number of critical incidents within heading.
o/o=Percent of total (N=18).
%=Percent of category.

TABLE XIII

PRESIDENTS' INEFFECTIVE CRITICAL INCIDENT BEHAVIOR CATEGORIZATION PROCESS RESULTS (N=18)

	SUBSUMED IN
1. SECOND LEVEL (1st step)	
A. Reporting with Trustees (n=5)	2.A
B. Coupling (n=3)	
C. Delegating to Staff (n=2)	2.B
D. Repressing Professionalism (n=2)	2.B
E. Reporting with Staff (n=2)	2.A
F. Setting Goals and Objectives (n=2)	2.C
G. Obtaining Resources (n=1)	2.C
H. Representing Externally (n=1)	2.E
2. FIRST LEVEL (2nd step)	
A. Reporting (n=7)	
B. Directing (n=4)	
C. Planning (n=3)	
D. Coupling (n=3)	
E. Representing (n=1)	

n=Number of ineffective critical incidents within heading.
Note: 8 behavior areas emerged at the 1st step (SECOND LEVEL) of categorization; related behaviors were placed (2nd step) within new headings at the FIRST LEVEL; this process ended with FIRST LEVEL categories after no further subsumption was recognized. Behaviors are shown top to bottom and ordered by frequency.

Control Reporting (n=8, 42 o/o)

Making adjustments to control institutional direction as a result of reporting (exchanging information) with Staff and Trustees.

Reporting with Trustees (n=5, 63%)

Three incidents dealt with presidents exchanging information with the Board in such a way that the Board was unable to manage an effective decision. That is, the president either failed to provide the information needed or failed to communicate in such away that he or she was understood by the Board. Two incidents dealt with the presidents "losing control" while reporting with the Board. In each incident the president was supporting a particular issue not Board supported. Such conflicts arise between professionals who may be very informed about issues and lay board members who may not be so informed. Presidents reported they "lost control" or lost credibility for their actions.

> Given some very complex and detailed information on the institution's financial system for a presentation to the Board, the president failed to review the material before the Board meeting and thus could not communicate intelligibly about the system, resulting in the Board becoming confused, and uncertain about the system and upset with the president.
>
> Given the Board's desire to change a presidential staff salary proposal, the president lost control of his behavior during a meeting and became somewhat defensive and insolent to Board members, resulting in a salary compromise and presidential status with the Board being jeopardized.

Reporting with Staff (n=3, 37%)

Control adjustments made as a result of the exchange of information between the president and staff depends on accuracy and understanding.

Given low enrollments, the president requested faculty to help student recruitment, resulting in consensus faculty discord and rejection of the request while other staff members became upset over what they considered an attempt to breach contracts and expand faculty roles into the administrative arena.

Given a recommended delay in program termination to see if enrollment increased, the president agreed, resulting in inability to begin any needed new programs in time for the next academic year.

Given a high administrative post vacancy, the president hastily reported its availability and his expectations to the staff, resulting in a misunderstanding about presidential intentions and many persons becoming upset.

Directing (n=4, 21 o/o)

Delegating to Staff (n=2, 50%)

Allowing or assigning staff to make certain decision making responsibilities that were unsuccessful.

In delegating responsibilities to subordinates, the president assigned jobs expecting them to be done. Some were, others were not. When they were not, much time and effort was expended to "patch up" what was left undone.

Given a student drug and alcohol problem on campus, the president formed a committee that studied the problem and made a policy statement that included having faculty turning in suspected offenders, resulting in the resistance and wrath of the faculty.

Repressing Professionalism (n=2, 50%)

Two critical incidents dealt with how the president repressed staff development by behaving in such a way that it influenced or evidenced a negative commitment to professionalism. They strongly parallel incidents identified by other groups in which the president either failed to act or acted ineptly in dealing with non-professional staff members. Given the

number of incidents that indicated that presidents are somewhat isolated from internal publics, ineffective leadership in this area may occur because the president is too far removed from the day-to-day operations of the institution to really observe what is happening with the staff.

> Given consistent "poor" performance by a staff member in a unit important to the college, the president did nothing, resulting in colleagues of the member becoming unhappy and frustrated.
>
> Given unprofessional and unproductive work habits of a senior administrator, the president wrote the member a strong evaluation outlining the problem, gave the member verbal and non-verbal feedback for a short time, and then "dropped" the effort as a waste of time, resulting in the member resuming his previous work practices and many persons becoming uncertain over the president's comittment to professionalism.

Planning (n=3, 16 o/o)

Three incidents dealt with presidential inability to forecast, as well as possible, the economic, social, and political environment in which the college would be operating.

Setting Goals and Objectives (n=2, 67%)

Two incidents dealt with unsuccessful presidential actions taken in given situations.

> Given that a newly formed student senate was floundering for a purpose statement, the president took no decisive action and allowed it to flounder, resulting in a mediocre senate.
>
> Given the opportunity during a public forum to indicate his support for certain programs, the president stated that he had not planned, promoted or supported one program as well as he could have, resulting in the program's advocates and supporters holding this admission over the president's head and using it as "defense" anytime the program comes under question.

Obtaining Resources (n=1, 33%)

This incident dealt specifically with poor planning to obtain resources. One president indicated that, while arguing for and obtaining "equitable" state funding, his behavior was ineffective because of the ire he received from other state institutions.

> Given what was considered to be an inequitable portion of the state funds that had been allocated to higher education institutions, the president launched a campaign and worked with state legislators to get his institution's funding increased, resulting in several other institutions becoming angry over anticipated "smaller" portions they believed would result from actions to cover the increase.

Coupling (n=3, 16 o/o)

These incidents dealt with presidential failures to bring groups together to resolve differences, to cooperate on a joint effort, or to facilitate communications.

> Given a heated discussion over a proposal in a staff meeting, the president tried to bring two opposing factions together by pointing out each group's self-centeredness and their apparent lack of concern for the institution as a whole, resulting in the matter becoming worse as the original debate got delayed and submerged in many more arguments that developed.

> Given that a new administrator had created a faculty division and was "pitting" one group against the other, the president arranged a meeting between the interested parties and encouraged them to work things out, resulting in relations between the groups becoming even more strained.

Summary of Presidents' Ineffective

Critical Incidents

Categories and subcategories established for ineffective critical incidents reported by the presidents paralleled ineffective categories

reported by other respondents. They were: Directing, Reporting Control, Planning, Coupling, and Representing. This indicated that groups shared awareness of areas of decision making, judgment and action that needed to be improved. The presidents' primary ineffective behavioral concern--control reporting--accounted for 42 percent of the presidential ineffective critical incident total. Reporting with trustees accounted for almost three-fourths of this concern and involved presidential failures to provide the needed information to allow board decision making and losing presidential control of behavior during board meetings. Reporting with staff involved the president exercising poor judgment in accepting "faulty" staff proposed control adjustments and not exchanging enough information with staff to gain their support or allow for their understanding of the issue. Twenty-two percent of the incidents focused on, and was equally divided between: presidential concerns over delegating responsibilities to staff and having to "patch up" poor or "no" staff actions; and, the president's inability to properly handle poor staff performers. Thirty-four percent of the incidents were equally divided between the planning and coupling behaviors categories. Presidents saw indecision in setting goals and objectives and gaining resources at sister institution's expense as ineffective. Further, they viewed their inability to bring together groups so as to solve differences as being ineffective.

Their last concern related to presidents overextending their role in the community to the detriment of the institution. The presidents seemed not to share the public's concerns over staffing and innovating as no incidents were reported in these categories.

Research Question 2: Do effective and ineffective leadership behaviors of community college presidents reported by publics associated with community colleges differ among the two distinct groups: internal publics and external publics, and do these perceptions differ from the perceptions of the presidents themselves?

In order to ensure adequate numbers of critical incidents for comparisons across all study groups, the final analysis for research question two was conducted at the major category level. Frequencies and percentages of critical incidents within subcategory were, however, compared for within group analysis and for across the two publics analysis. As described on page-- of Chapter Three of this study, in order to judge the relative emphasis by internal publics and external publics on particular categories, the researcher examined the percentage of critical incidents within effective and ineffective incident categories, in comparison with the overall percentages of effective and ineffective critical incidents provided by these two groups. The low number of critical incidents in the president's group did not suggest that cross-category comparisons, similar to those conducted for internal and external publics, would be useful. Consequently, for presidents, incidents were first interpreted according to their relative distribution within the group. These interpretations were then compared (tentatively, due to the smaller number of respondents) with the interpretations for internal and external publics.

Table XIV presents the within group totals and percents of effective and ineffective critical incidents across major category for all three study groups (internal publics, external publics and presidents).

TABLE XIV

EFFECTIVE AND INEFFECTIVE CRITICAL INCIDENT (N=454) TOTALS AND WITHIN GROUP PERCENTS ACROSS CATEGORY

Category	Group All Tot/%	Int Tot/%	Ext Tot/%	Pres Tot/%
	EFFECTIVE			
Directing	78/32	54/38	16/21	8/35
Representing	48/20	33/23	14/18	1/4
Control Reporting	40/16	16/11	17/22	7/30
Planning	38/16	19/13	16/21	3/13
Coupling	16/7	8/6	7/9	1/4
Staffing	13/5	5/3	6/8	2/9
Innovating	10/4	8/6	1/1	1/4
Total Effective Incidents	243/100	143/100	77/100	23/99
	INEFFECTIVE			
Directing	71/34	62/39	5/15	4/22
Representing	43/20	31/19	11/32	1/5
Control Reporting	46/22	29/18	10/29	7/39
Planning	26/12	17/11	6/18	3/17
Staffing	14/7	12/8	2/6	*
Innovating	5/2	5/3	*	*
Coupling	6/3	3/2	*	3/17
Total Ineffective Incidents	211/100	159/100	34/100	18/100
TOTAL INCIDENTS	454	302	111	41

Note: Due to rounding percentages to the nearest whole percent, column percent totals may not = 100%.
*=Not mentioned by group.

The percent was derived by dividing the number of incidents reported by a group in a specific category by the total number incidents reported by that same group within the same classification, effective or ineffective. The effective categories, ordered by overall frequency, were: Directing, Representing, Control Reporting, Planning, Coupling, Staffing, and Innovating. The ineffective categories, ordered by overall frequency, were: Directing, Control Reporting, Representing, Planning, Staffing, Coupling, and Innovating. A further breakdown of each category by subcategory displaying the number of effective and ineffective critical incidents within each subcategory for internal publics, external publics and presidents is presented in Appendix L. There were no categories of effective and ineffective critical incidents that were unique to any one study group. In the following analysis, whenever the within group across category percent difference between effective and ineffective incidents was equal to or greater than five percentile points, a significant difference was considered to exist. The same premise was used for between group comparisons of within group across category percents.

Analysis of Incidents within Groups

Internal Publics

As indicated in Table XIV, the internal publics group had 85 percent of its 143 effective critical incidents focused on four categories: Directing (38%); Representing (23%); Planning (13%); and Control Reporting (11%). Examination of relevant subcategories for the internal publics' incidents (see appendix L) revealed that they perceived the effective president's primary role as being related to "Assisting Staff

Development" and "Communicating with Staff" behaviors. Further examination revealed that this role was considered effectively fulfilled when presidents: recognized staff efforts, achievements and worth; promoted staff professionalism by committing to and enforcing certain professional and personal standards; kept staff currently advised on matters relating to their welfare and being; and willingly discussed with staff any issues affecting the institution or the individuals therein. Sixty-one percent of internal publics' incidents relating to "representing" were concerned with how the president represented the institution to public groups off the campus. Internal publics saw the president as their representative in dealings with external groups and as the "administration" or "board" representative in dealings between the president and themselves. An effective president was perceived as one who took a strong visible leadership role in community and campus activities and worked diligently to assist the growth and welfare of both groups. Ninety percent of the incidents related to "planning" focused on obtaining needed resources; indicating staff concern over adequate salaries, necessary equipment, sufficient program funding, and needed facilities to accomplish their assigned tasks. Seventy-five percent of the "control reporting" concerns related to incidents which occurred between the president and the staff. As viewed by internal public groups, effective presidential leadership was inextricably linked to directing, representing, planning, and control reporting concerns. While acknowledged, coupling (6%); innovating (6%); and, staffing (3%) played only minor parts in assessment of effective leadership behavior.

Interestingly, internal publics provided 159 ineffective incidents as compared to 143 effective incidents. Examination of these ineffective incidents revealed strong, logical, ineffective counterparts to the emphasis on internal publics' main effective concerns. Eighty-seven percent of the 159 ineffective incidents dealt with the same four behavioral areas that dominated effective concerns, i.e., incidents related to directing the staff (39%); representing the insitution (19%); control reporting (18%); and, planning (11%). Examination of relevant subcategories for the internal publics' ineffective incidents (see appendix L) showed that they perceived presidential ineffectiveness in behavioral areas similar to those they had reported for presidential effectiveness. The strong emphasis on Directing (38%) in the effective incidents was nearly parallel (percentage wise) with the ineffective incidents in Directing (39%). This parallelism held true for concerns in the "representing" area, where effective incidents were 23 percent and ineffective incidents were 19 percent; and, concerns in the "planning" area where effective incidents were 13 percent and ineffective incidents were 11 percent.

There was a significant difference of emphasis placed by internal publics' value of effective and ineffective "Control Reporting" and "Staffing behaviors." In Control Reporting, 11 percent of the effective incidents were related to the topic; making it the fourth largest internal effective concern. Eighteen percent of the ineffective incidents were related to "Control Reporting;" making it the third largest internal ineffective concern. Ninety-seven percent of internal publics' ineffective "control reporting" incidents focused on concerns

related to "reporting with staff:" biased resource adjusting (48%); questionable personnel adjusting (28%); and uncoordinated work schedule adjusting (21%). In Staffing, three percent of the effective and eight percent of the ineffective incidents addressed the behaviors of recruiting, selecting, hiring, promoting, training, and transferring of staff personnel to fill those "just fit" positions at the community college.

In summary, the critical incidents from internal public groups reflected these emphases:

1. Internal publics perceived the presidents' primary effective leadership role as involving the Assisting Staff Development behaviors of staff directing.

2. Internal publics perceived the presidents' primary ineffective leadership behaviors to be related to the Communicating with Staff behaviors of staff directing.

3. "Control Reporting" and "Staffing" behaviors received significantly more emphasis by internal publics as ineffective behaviors than as effective behaviors (perhaps due to the immediate consequences experienced by internal publics).

External Publics

External publics had 82 percent of its effective incident total in four behaviors categories: Control Reporting (22%); Directing (21%); Planning (21%); and, Representing (18%). Examination of relevant subcategories for the external publics' incidents (see appendix L) revealed that they perceived the effective president's primary role as

related to "Reporting with Trustees" and "Reporting with Staff" behaviors. Further examination revealed, in order of frequency, external publics were concerned with how institutional direction was affected by presidential control reporting with trustees and how the president made adjustments to resource allocations, personnel, and work schedules and whether the adjustments were equitable and fair. External publics' concern in the area of directing behaviors focused on presidential ability to promote professionalism. Sixty-three percent of external publics' effective "planning" behaviors focused on presidential abilities to forcast the political, economical, and social environment in which the college would be operating; the other 37 percent were related to presidents obtaining the resources needed to allow the college staff to accomplish their assigned tasks. Seventy-one percent of external publics' effective "representing" behaviors focused on how the president positively represented the institution in dealings and negotiations with groups external to the campus; the other 29 percent were concerned with presidential representation on-campus. While acknowledged, coupling (9%), innovating (3%), and staffing (8%) played only minor parts in external publics' assessment of effective leadership behavior.

Unlike internal publics which provided more ineffective incidents than effective incidents, external publics reported only 34 ineffective incidents (16% of the ineffective total). Comparison of external publics' effective and ineffective incidents did not reveal the same strong, logical, counterpart similarities that the comparison of internal publics' effective and ineffective incidents did. Ninety-four percent of external publics' ineffective incidents dealt with the same four

behavioral areas that dominated effective concerns, i.e., incidents related to directing the staff (15%), representing the institution (32%), control-reporting (29%), and planning (18%). Examination of relevant subcategories for the external publics' ineffective incidents (see appendix L) showed that they perceived presidential ineffectiveness in behavioral areas similar to those they had reported for presidential effectiveness. A percentage wise parallelism existed only between the effective and ineffective "planning" behaviors category. There was a greater than or equal to $\pm$ 5 percentile points in frequency of reporting for effective and ineffective Directing, Representing, Control Reporting and Coupling concerns. Ninety-three percent of external publics' effective "directing" behaviors were related to "assisting staff development" while the same behavior's ineffective counterparts accounted for only 12 percent of the ineffective "directing" concerns. Sixty-four percent of the effective and 71 percent of the ineffective incidents related to "representing" were concerned with the image the president created through dealings and negotiations with publics external to the college. Sixty-three percent of external publics' effective incidents related to "planning" behaviors in "setting goals and objectives." Ineffective "planning" incidents, however, were split between behaviors in "setting goals and objectives" and those in "obtaining resources." Seventy-one percent of external publics' effective and 80 percent of their ineffective "control reporting" behaviors were related to "reporting with trustees." External publics main ineffective concerns were how the president misrepresented the institution and how they acted and reacted in control reporting with trustees. More specifically, and

in order of frequency, external publics were concerned with how the personal and professional behaviors of the president negatively represented the institution to external publics. They were quite concerned about how the president failed to adequately inform the Board, became defensive and threatened to quit, ignored facts, and acted indecisively in control reporting with trustees. To a lesser degree, external concerns were on the president using questionable practices in obtaining needed resources and setting institutional goals and objectives. External publics did not mention any ineffective "innovating" or "coupling" concerns.

In summary, the critical incidents from external public groups reflected these emphases:

1. External publics perceived the presidents' primary effective leadership role as involving behaviors related to control reporting with trustees and promoting staff professionalism.

2. External publics perceived the presidents' primary ineffective leadership behaviors to be related to inadequate reporting with trustees and negatively representing the institution to external publics.

3. In comparing the within group difference between effective and ineffective incidents relating to behaviors within the same behavioral area, external publics placed significant emphasis on the ineffective behaviors related to "Representing" and "Control Reporting." Likewise, "Directing" and "Coupling" had significant emphasis as effective behavior areas.

Presidents' Incidents

Presidential data was analyzed separately in Research Question One (see pages 134 to 150). No single category contained incidents provided by each of the 11 presidential respondents. As previously noted, examination of subcategories for presidents' incidents (see Appendix L) was used for within group analysis only. It was not considered for the across group comparisons used to answer Research Question Two.

As indicated in Table XIV, presidents' had 87 percent of its effective incidents focusing on four categories: Directing (35%); Control Reporting (30%); Planning (13%); and, Staffing (9%). While acknowledged, Representing (4%); Coupling (4%); and, Innovating (4%) played only minor parts in the presidents' assessment of effective leadership behavior. Fifty-seven percent of the effective incidents related to Directing focused on "Communicating with Staff" behaviors and the other 43 percent related to "Assisting Staff Development" behaviors. Specifically, effective communicating incidents were equally split between presidents' "discussing issues with staff" and "keeping staff advised;" while, 75 percent of the staff development incidents focused on delegating certain decision-making responsibilities to staff members. Seventy-one percent of the presidents' incidents related to effective Control Reporting dealt with "reporting with staff" issues. These incidents focused on the effective president keeping the staff informed on all presidential actions and reactions that had influence on institutional direction. Two-thirds of presidents' effective Planning incidents dealt with obtaining the funding and equipment needed to accomplish the goals and objectives of the college while the other third

dealt with setting those same goals and objectives. All incidents related to presidents' "staffing" reported the effective president hired that certain "right fit" person for key staff positions.

Presidents' ineffective incidents spread across five of the same behavior areas mentioned by effective incidents: Control Reporting (39%); Directing (22%); Planning (17%); Coupling (17%); and, Representing (5%). Presidents' did not report any ineffective counterparts to their effective "staffing" and "innovating" concerns. A percentage wise parallelism existed between presidents' effective and ineffective "planning" and "representing" behaviors categories. There was a greater than or equal to $\pm$ 5 percentile points in frequency of reporting for effective and ineffective Directing, Control Reporting, Representing and Coupling concerns. Seventy-one percent of presidents' ineffective "directing" incidents dealt with "delegating to staff" behaviors; 29 percent dealt with "promoting professionalism" behaviors; and, "communicating with staff" behaviors was not mentioned. Presidents' ineffective control reporting incident percentages were directly opposite of those of the effective incidents. Seventy-one percent of the incidents dealt with presidential reporting with trustees. As viewed by presidents, not keeping the Board informed and advised of institutional posture was a really negative and inneffective behavior. All ineffective incidents related to "coupling" focused on presidential inabilities to bring certain on-campus groups together in such a way so as to resolve group differences or to enhance group communication and cooperation.

In summary, the critical incidents from the presidents' group reflected these emphases across major categories:

1. Presidents perceived the presidents' primary effective leadership role as involving those behaviors related to Directing.

2. Presidents perceived the presidents' primary ineffective leadership behaviors to be related to those behaviors related to Control Reporting.

3. Ordered by significance of difference between effective and ineffective incidents relating to behaviors within the same behavioral area, Coupling and Control Reporting were perceived by the presidents to have significant emphasis as ineffective behaviors. Likewise, they viewed Directing and Staffing with significant emphasis as effective behaviors.

Analysis of Incidents Across Publics

The comparison of incidents across publics did not reveal dramatic differences, yet some interesting shifts in focus were discovered.

The comparison of internal publics and external publics effective incidents revealed a disproportionate (greater than or equal to five percentile points) emphasis by internal publics in effective behavior categories relating to "Directing" and "Representing." External publics, on the other hand, placed like emphasis on "Planning," "Control Reporting" and "Staffing." It appeared that internal publics (staff for the most part) placed more emphasis on "interpersonal" skills of the president, and external publics (trustees for the most part) placed more emphasis on "administrative" skills of the president.

Among ineffective categories, internal publics showed more emphasis than external publics in the "Directing" area only. External publics evidenced more emphasis than internal publics in the "Control Reporting," "Representing" and "Planning" behavior areas.

When the two publics'results were combined, the following points emerged:

1. Effective leadership behavior by the president was perceived by both internal and external publics as most frequently involving behaviors related to Directing, Representing, Control Reporting, Planning, Staffing, Coupling, and Innovating.

2. Ineffective leadership behavior by the president was perceived by both internal and external publics as most frequently involving behaviors related to Directing, Representing, Control Reporting, Planning, and Coupling. External publics did not share internal publics' concern over ineffective "staffing" and "innovating" behaviors.

3. Internal publics placed high importance on effective behaviors related to Directing and Representing and ineffective behaviors related solely to Directing.

4. External publics placed high importance on effective behaviors related to Planning, Control Reporting and Staffing and ineffective behaviors related to Control Reporting, Representing and Planning.

5. Internal publics placed a disproportionate emphasis on "directing" behaviors and external publics placed a disproportionate emphasis on "control reporting" and "planning" behaviors.

Comparison of Publics and Presidents

Based on inference evidenced by a frequency of mention, comparison of the presidents' effective incidents with the other two study groups' effective incidents reveals that all groups shared concerns regarding Directing, Control Reporting and Planning as preeminently important behaviors. On the other hand, presidents showed somewhat less concern than the other two groups regarding the effective behaviors in Representing. This difference may indicate that "representing" behaviors should perhaps be a slightly greater priority for presidents. Presidential concern for "coupling" behaviors was less than that of the internal publics and significantly less than that of the external publics. Presidential concern for "staffing" behaviors was greater than that of the external publics and significantly greater than that of internal publics. Presidential concern for innovating behaviors was insignificantly between that of the other two groups.

Examination of the presidents' ineffective incidents in comparison with the other two groups' ineffective incidents reveals that presidents shared concerns with public groups associated with community colleges regarding Directing, Control Reporting and Planning as preeminently important behaviors. On the other hand, presidents showed somewhat less concern than the other two groups regarding the effective behaviors in Representing and somewhat more concern than the other two groups regarding the effective behaviors in Coupling.

In summary, the results of the findings from the two publics when compared with the results from the presidents' data revealed the following points:

Effective Leadership:

1. All three study groups perceived the major facets of effective leadership as being inextricably linked to behaviors related to directing, control reporting, and planning.

2. Effective "representing" behaviors were much more frequently reported by internal publics' and external publics' than by presidents as being related to presidential effectiveness.

3. Ordered by frequency, Directing, Representing, Planning and Control Reporting behaviors were reported by internal publics as affecting presidential effectiveness. Likewise, Directing, Control Reporting, Planning and Staffing were the most frequent behavior areas reported by presidents. External publics, on the other hand, reported near or about equal frequencies for what appeared to be its main concerns of Control Reporting, Directing, Planning and Representing.

4. External and Internal publics within-group percents for the low priority issue of "coupling" behaviors were higher than that of the presidents.

5. Presidents and external publics had a higher within-group percent in the low priority issue of "staffing" behaviors than did internal publics.

6. Study group rankings according to within-group percents across category in the low priority issue of "innovating" behaviors were internal publics, presidents and external publics.

Ineffective Leadership:

1. The three study groups agreed on strong, logical counterparts to the effective leadership behaviors related to Directing, Control Reporting and Planning.

2. Each group had a different top concern. While internal publics viewed behaviors of Directing as its main ineffective concern, external publics focused on behaviors related to Representing and presidents focused on behaviors of Control Reporting.

3. Unlike internal and external publics which placed ineffective Representing behaviors among their top concerns, presidents viewed these behaviors as their lowest priority issue.

4. The within-group across-category percent emphases showing near or equal percentages, as reported in certain behavior areas by the three study groups, were the internal publics' emphasis on Representing and Control Reporting; the external publics' emphasis on Representing and Control Reporting; and, the presidents' emphasis on Planning and Coupling.

5. Staffing and Innovating were low frequency issues among all groups. In fact, presidents mentioned no ineffective incidents in either area and external publics mentioned no innovating incidents.

6. While a low frequency issue for internal and external publics, ineffective Coupling behaviors was one concern mentioned frequently by presidents.

7. In across group comparisons by category, the significant emphasis differences were: in Directing, the internal publics group was significantly higher than both other groups, while the external publics

group was also significantly lower than the presidents group; in Representing, the external publics group was significantly higher than both other groups, while the presidents group was also significantly lower than the internal group; in Control Reporting, the presidents group was significantly higher than both other groups, while the internal group was also significantly lower than the external group; in Planning, the internal group was significantly lower than either of the other two groups which were almost parallel; in Staffing, the internal and external groups were almost parallel and significantly higher than the presidents group which did not mention any incidents in the area; in Innovating, all three groups were almost parallel with the external publics and presidents not mentioning any incidents in the area; in Coupling, the presidents' group was significantly higher than either of the other two groups, with the external group not mentioning any incident in the area.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

A summary of findings and conclusions with implications and recommendations for further research make up this chapter.

Summary

This study asked three basic research questions. Results and discussion of the first two questions form the basis for answering the third question and have been previously reported.

Research question one queried which behaviors of community college presidents are reported by certain community college publics and the presidents themselves as examples of effective and ineffective leadership. This study's findings for the question are presented and discussed in Chapter 4, pages 96 to 150.

Research question two adressed the congruency of reported effective and ineffective leadership behaviors of community college presidents among the two distinct community college publics, internal and external, and further asked whether the publics' perceptions were congruent with those reported by presidents. These findings are presented and discussed in Chapter 4, pages 150 to 157.

Research question three asks if this study's findings of research questions one and two and previous research conducted on presidential leadership at the community college are consistent.

In Chapter two, pages 57 to 64, nine detailed studies of the community college presidency (Shannon, 1962; McGill, 1971; McCarthy, 1974; Steven, 1976; Saunders 1978; Lewis, 1982; Madison, 1982; Burnham, 1983; and Dean, 1986) were reviewed. Within the context of the roles, functions, and responsibilities of the community college president, these studies reflect the state of the previous research describing leadership.

Comparison of Findings with Previous Studies

In a survey of 240 community college presidents around the country, Shannon (1962) found that presidents saw themselves as educational leaders in the community and on campus. Presidents regretted not having more time for alumni, legislators, students, and professional activities, as they indicated that their time was taken up with administrative matters dealing with staff, finances, public relations and development, and that they wanted to spend more time on curriculum development. The current study reinforced some of Shannon's (1962) findings that community college presidents are heavily concerned with staff directing and planning matters. However, the presidents in this study did not view effective leadership as primarily involving public relations (representing) behaviors (e.g., demonstrating concern for staff and student relations), which contradicts Shannon's findings. Interestingly, the presidents in Shannon's (1962) study wanted to involve themselves in

staff and community affairs and to remain close to the area of student personnel work.

In the areas of board relations (reporting with trustees), staff relations (directing and reporting with staff) and finances (obtaining resources), the current study reinforced McGill's (1971) study of chief administrator's (presidents). The current study did not support McGill's (1971) findings of greater presidential focus on effective and ineffective leadership behaviors in instructional programs, community relations, and involvement with political and governmental agencies. To internal and external publics associated with the community college, the current study evidenced that community relations and political and governmental agencies were important. Among Shannon's (1962) study, McGill's (1971) study, and the present study, the substantial emphasis on planning and directing behaviors are the primary consistencies.

Presidents, division chairpersons, and faculty members (the three groups of respondents) in McCarthy's (1974) study all indicated that the president's role involved public relations (representing), securing and allocating financial resources (planning), and behaviors (directing) related to delegating responsibility for evaluation and improvement of instruction and curriculum, involving staff and faculty in policy formulation, and securing assistance from staff on budget matters. With some exception of those above role expectations related to public relations, the curent study agreed. In the current study, internal and external publics valued public relation behaviors highly, and presidents did not share this concern. Concerns for directing and planning

behaviors were the main point consistencies of this study, Shannon (1962), and McGill (1971).

Steven's (1976) factor analyzed data from trustees, administrators, faculty members and student leaders regarding the leader behavior of community college presidents and reported that leadership could be a function of how well the president integrates the needs of individuals with the needs of the institution. The present study supports Steven's (1976) findings but, within the context of "needs of individuals," it would include "community." In the current study, ineffective behaviors related to meshing manpower, money, and machinery into the accomplishment of the college mission were perceived by internal publics as leadership critical. Obviously, Steven's emphasis on the "institutional-oriented" and "individual-oriented" aspects of presidential leadership is supported by the current study

Presidents and faculty members in Saunder's (1978) study perceived the four functions of the presidential role to be: educational leadership, preparing goals, maximizing staff and faculty effectiveness and board meeting relations. For the top priority on presidents as curricular leaders, the present study evidenced no support (not a single incident directly referred to curriculum or academic output). On the other hand, preparing goals (planning), stimulating staff and faculty to maximum effectiveness (directing), and participating at board meetings (control reporting) were viewed in the current study as high priority presidential leadership areas.

Presidential perceptions of the role of the community college president were reported by Lewis (1982). Implementing board policy,

making decisions, budgeting, planning, establishing institutional goals, developing positive student relations, developing programs to meet community needs, formulating policy for institutional operations, and public relations were the roles reported. In the present study, directing (which would involve to some extent all the roles mentioned), representing (which would involve developing positive student relations, developing programs to meet community needs and public relations), planning (which would involve budgeting, planning, establishing institutional goals, formulating policy for institutional operations, and others), and control reporting (which would involve implementing board policy, making decisions, and others) were viewed by all groups as key leadership behaviors. Unlike presidential reports, the value of effective representing behaviors was more frequently reported by the two publics.

The four groups (presidents, administrators, faculty and trustees) in Madison's (1982) study identified six presidential role tasks. They were: demonstrating integrity, maintaining high academic standards; involving faculty, administrators and trustees in planning; practicing two-way communication; maintaining consistency in treatment of faculty and staff; and promoting positive public relations. If "demonstrating integrity" and "maintaining high academic standards" could be construed to be involved in the directing behavior of "promoting professionalism," the presidents, internal publics and external publics of the current study agreed all tasks identified by Madison were indeed linked to presidential leadership. Internal publics emphasized practicing two-way communication, maintaining consistency in treatment of faculty and staff,

and involving staff in planning. Internal publics and external publics shared emphasis on representing behaviors and promoting positive public relations.

Using the Critical Incident Technique, Burnham (1983) profiled presidential leadership by showing that the presidents in her study were dominant in conceptualizing, taking initiative, setting goals, expressing concern for achievement, and using influence and position power to encourage teamwork, delegate responsibility and reward efforts. In the present study, presidents, internal publics and external publics indicated that the president should set institutional and individual goals and objectives (via planning and directing). Internal publics indicated rewarding staff efforts as a major sub-part of its directing leadership value. In the current study, even though a low priority issue for all groups, the effective value of using influence and position power to encourage teamwork (coupling) was agreed on. Unless they were construed to be involved with innovating or other behaviors, no specific reports of conceptualizing or taking initiative were reported.

Using the Critical Incident Technique, Dean (1986) reported eight points: (1) presidents, administrators, faculty and student services personnel perceived effective leadership as involving the planning for and providing for the financial security of community college personnel; (2) administrators, faculty and student services personnel indicated a concern for presidential communications which the presidents did not share; (3) presidents did not share the other groups' concern with promoting public relations; (4) presidents and administrators showed the greatest group concern for the study's low priority issue of staffing;

(5) presidents did not share staff concern with presidential behaviors that alienated staff members; (6) presidents did not share staff concerns with presidential failure to solicit staff input; (7) presidents showed significantly less concern than staff regarding presidents' failure to act on known problems; and (8) faculty and student services personnel showed greater concern than the presidents and administrators regarding insufficiently informing staff and faculty. Items 2, 3, 5 and 7 above supports the present study. Directing, planning and control reporting behaviors reported by presidents, internal publics and external publics (this study's three research groups) are inextricably community college presidential leadership linked. Unlike Dean, all three current study groups placed "financial issues" as a third or fourth place priority concern. For the current study groups, staffing was a low priority. An ineffective emphasis value of staffing behaviors was evidenced by internal publics' while the effective value of such behaviors was indicated by external publics and presidents. The two publics' concern for the ineffectiveness value of not soliciting staff inputs was not shared by the presidents, however, an effective value concern for positive behaviors in the area was shared. Internal publics showed greater concern for presidents keeping their staff informed than did external publics or presidents; presidents did, however, evidence greater concern than did external publics.

In summary (see Table XV), the findings in the present study when compared with those of previous studies, particularly regarding certain behaviors related to directing and planning (e.g., making alienating

TABLE XV

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS FOR RESEARCH QUESTION THREE

Areas Addressed in the Study Consistent with Findings Reported in Other Studies

Barnett, 1988	Studies Reporting Consistent Findings
	Strongly Consistent
Directing (includes "assisting staff development" and "communicating with staff" areas)	Shannon, 1962; McGill, 1971; McCarthy, 1974; Stevens, 1976; Saunders, 1978; Lewis, 1982; Madison, 1982; Burnham, 1983; and Dean, 1986.
Planning (includes "obtaining resources" and "setting goals and objectives" areas)	Shannon, 1962; McGill, 1971; McCarthy, 1974; Stevens, 1976; Saunders, 1978; Lewis, 1982; Madison, 1982, Burnham, 1983; and Dean, 1986.
***Representing** (includes "internal" and "external" areas)	Shannon, 1962; McGill, 1971; McCarthy, 1974; Stevens, 1976; Saunders, 1978; Lewis, 1982; Madison, 1982 and Dean 1986.
	Modestly Consistent
Control Reporting (includes "reporting with staff" and "reporting with trustees" areas)	McGill, 1971; McCarthy, 1974; Stevens, 1976; Saunders, 1978; Lewis, 1982; Madison, 1982; and Dean 1986.
	Some Consistency
Staffing	Shannon, 1962; Dean, 1986.
Coupling	Shannon, 1962; Burnham, 1983.
Innovating	Shannon, 1962; Burnham, 1983.

Conflicting Findings in Previous Studies not Found in the Present Study

President as: "educational leader" or "curriculum developer" (Shannon, 1962; McGill 1971; and Saunders, 1978)

*Representing (the institution) in all studies was important; this study and the Dean (1986) study, however, found that other groups' emphasis vantage over the issue was not shared by presidents.

remarks to staff, discussing issues with staff, promoting staff professionalism, and obtaining resources) seem generally consistent. Current study results dealing with representing behaviors and certain behaviors related to control reporting and directing (e.g., reporting with trustees, and delegating) have some modest previous study support. With strong emphasis in most other studies, acting as an educational leader (if interpreted in curricular sense only), was not clearly supported in the present study.

Conclusions

Conclusions from Research Questions

With respect to the three research questions the principal findings of the study have been reviewed. From these findings, several conclusions have been drawn. Some of the conclusions are of immediate practical significance. Other conclusions, while not of immediate practical concern, may hold significant future interest for researchers concerned with the presidency of the community college, for persons involved in the selection and/or training of community college presidents or for individuals simply concerned with higher education in general.

Regarding perceptions of effective leadership derived from both the effective and ineffective critical incidents provided by certain groups (including presidents) associated with community colleges, the study's findings yielded the following pertinent conclusions:

1. As perceived by presidents, internal publics and external publics, behaviors related to directing, control reporting and planning influence effective leadership. Previous studies of the role of the

community college president (Shannon, 1962; Mcgill, 1971; McCarthy, 1974; Stevens, 1976; Saunders, 1978; Lewis, 1982; Madison, 1982; Burnham, 1983; and Dean, 1986) show this finding consistent. Regarding leadership in the present study, presidents are expected to provide the direction for staff that will allow them to meet their day-to-day challenges and opportunities, making sure that they know the results expected of them in each situation, helping them to improve their skills, and, in some cases, telling them exactly how and when to perform certain tasks. If an effective leader, the president directs the staff so that they understand and appreciate their contribution toward the institution's mission and so that they feel that they want to do the best possible job, not merely work well enough to get by. Effective presidents are also expected to exercise a degree of control over institutional direction--reporting with trustees and staff to determine how well jobs have been done and what progress is being made toward institutional goals and objectives, and, for any direction deviations, making needed adjustments to compensate. Further, effective presidents are expected to forecast, as well as possible, the economic, social, and political environments in which the college will be operating, setting short- and long-range term objectives for the institution and deciding on the resources that will be used to make the plans work.

2. Presidential sharing and discussing of staff and institutional issues which affect either's well being was an internal public concern and preference. Presidential concerns for such communications were somewhat less and external publics' concern for the issue was almost nil.

While presidents emphasized some responsibility for reporting with staff and directing, the "two-way" communicating aspects of the issues did not get an internal biased emphasis. That is, presidential incidents in the "reporting with staff" area spoke to "advising" staff of actions already taken versus exchanging information to determine what actions would, could or should be taken. Presidential incidents in the "communicating with staff" area spoke mainly to "one-way" communications where, in order to quell staff rumors and anxieties, or to garner staff support, certain information was provided.

In terms of organizational structure, personnel furthest removed from the president showed the greatest concern about being informed. How and what information can be easily and efficiently transmitted by the president is another issue that warrants further study.

Given the study's high frequency of reporting that staff communication is a major concern plus internal publics' strong emphasis on the presidential ineffectiveness of "making alienating remarks to staff" and "avoiding issues with staff," between some individual's interpersonal needs and some president's interpersonal practices an apparent gap exists. How presidents' leadership styles influence their staff relations and the priorities that staff place on the same issue merits further study.

3. Presidents did not share internal groups' and external groups' representing concerns. Because of conflicting findings found in most other studies reviewed, the immediate implication of this apparent non-agreement is not entirely clear.

Presidents, however, must bear in mind that both inside and outside the institution they are a "symbol." Because they are often considered the "image" or personification of the institution, presidents represent more than themselves. Rightly or wrongly, the way a president acts, even looks and dresses, affects the image of the college that the external publics and internal publics have. Sometimes to create a belief in the omnipotence of the president, the symbol or image is used. It may appear to internal publics, who are dependent economically and to some extent emotionally on presidential favor, that presidents can do anything they wish to do. And, if institutions are strong enough to survive an occasional bad mistake or a period of low enrollments, and, if they have an inactive board of trustees that will rubber-stamp any presidential proposals, so it may appear to presidents.

Although most community college presidents have formal job descriptions, in actual practice their jobs tend to be what they want them to be. Some are intent on building themselves up in the view of the general public and may devote a major part of their time to making speeches to outside groups. They may even keep a public information specialist on staff issuing releases on their views. Others look upon the necessity for even an occasional public appearance--and all community college presidents must make some--as an interruption of their real work. Some regard their role as primarily that of idea men; others believe that it is the job of their staff to develop new ideas and presidents should merely pass on proposals thoroughly worked out before they are even presented to them. Some concentrate on enrollment numbers, some on program graduates, some on obtaining resources (usually the function they

are expected to know best); others try to apportion their time among all these functions. Investigation might be in order to discover how the representing area can be optimally fulfilled, and how much presidential priority it should receive.

4. By order of report frequency, external publics, internal publics and presidents seemed to view staffing as a vital but low priority issue. Internal publics' focused on staffing's ineffective value while presidents' and external publics' focused on staffing's effective value. Internal publics' perceived that they did not have much involvement in the staffing process for most "power" positions. They reported anxieties resulted from "having to accept unknowns" in positions which had a high degree of influence on their economic security. Furthermore, they reported a perceived inconsistency in the process itself.

A more consistent and participatory type of staffing process could eliminate or reduce many staff anxieties. More staff involvement in "staffing" would also increase staff acceptance of new staff members and, thereby, make things easier for both parties. Investigating the staffing processes used by effective presidents and ineffective presidents is merited.

5. Presidents did not place the same emphasis value on coupling incidents as did internal publics and external publics. Presidents saw the ineffectiveness of not being able to bring divergent groups together to reconcile differences as their main coupling concern. The other two groups' emphasis was on the effective value of presidents ensuring that all efforts are bent toward a common objective and that there is no duplication of work that results in wasted effort, internal groups

focusing mainly on coupling's mediative aspects for on-campus group dealings, and external groups' focusing mainly on coupling's facilitative aspects for on-campus/off-campus dealings.

6. On "delegating" behaviors, presidents and internal publics viewed the issue differently, but both gave it an ineffective value emphasis. The ineffectiveness of delegating staff certain decision-making tasks and then having the tasks not done or done poorly was the president's focus while presidential non-acceptance or overriding of formally delegated staff decisions were internal publics' main concerns.

This appears to be another blind spot in the presidents' awareness of the needs of staff. Based on this study, it appears that community college presidents need to be attentive to the interpersonal needs of their staff and probably often do not realize when such needs are being presidentially neglected.

7. If indecision could have been a category area of presidential behavior, it would have been the single most important internal and external public concern reported. On the other hand, no incidents relating to this issue, were presidentially reported.

College focal points (usually staff and trustees), often, serve as sounding boards for constituencies and among themselves regarding the president's behavior. When known problems are not acted upon by the presidents and negative referrals occur, these two groups normally deal with the consequences. Some presidents might choose to promote this sort of situation, letting others bear the brunt of presidential inaction. However, presidents concerned with the needs of their staff and board of trustees would be aware of this dilemma and attempt to avoid placing them

in such uncomfortable situations. Further research regarding the implications of this peripheral-role status of community college administrators seems warranted. A leadership instrument development implication is discussed in Appendix M.

Comments on the Critical Incident Technique as a Research Method

In comparison with other kinds of methodology, the use of the Critical Incident Technique in the current study had certain advantages and certain disadvantages. First, and foremost, it was a method by which findings regarding specific behaviors from many colleges, without the inherent time demands of participant/observation research, could be collected. Still, the collection of the incidents was costly ($949.37 for stamped envelopes, printing, labels, photocopying and supplies) and the analysis of the incidents was extraordinarily time-consuming. Yet, while arduous, due to the richness of the descriptions they contained, incident review was instructional and a somewhat satisfying and rewarding process.

This study's findings, compared with the findings of most previous studies using alternative methodologies, indicated the validity of those studies' findings as well as this study's findings. The fact that the Critical Incident Technique is effective at unearthing specific behaviors related to general issues is noteworthy. For example, a finding not previously reported by the other studies, "Making Alienating Remarks to Staff," an ineffective behavior in the "Assisting Staff Development" subcategory of "Directing," was one of this study's findings. Finally,

concrete illustrations of leadership behaviors which might be used for the construction of context specific leadership instruments were provided. For leadership researchers, these considerations all argue for use of the Critical Incident Technique as a tool.

On the other hand, without some sound precautions, one probably should not undertake a critical incident analysis study. For example, a commitment by at least one outside reviewer to serve as a check on the categorization and interpretation of critical incidents seems to be a minimum requirement. The massive nature of qualitative data encountered in a large Critical Incident Technique study demand the reviewers' long, painstaking critical reflection and challenge.

A potential weakness of the method must be reiterated. It must be remembered that the Critical Incident Technique Leadership Questionnaire used in this study restricted the critical incident numbers. It indicated that a maximum of three effective and three ineffective critical incidents be reported. The aggregate of a limited number of responses by many different individuals provided the findings. It was assumed by the researcher that these individuals each responded with a few incidents reflecting their own highest priorities. Yet, priorities shift from time to time, and the Critical Incident Technique may be somewhat shift insensitive.

Regarding the use of the Critical Incident Technique in this study, another point must be mentioned. It varied from the classical application. Earlier uses involved the determination of critical steps of technical skills with incidents provided solely by those performing those skills, or by those closely associated with the performers (e.g., pilots

and co-pilots, dentists and dental hygienists) the current study collected incidents from those who observed the non-technical job of the president. Also, some observers were not that closely associated with the job of president. However, to help future research on the role of community college presidential leadership, this was necessary.

A final point must be suggested regarding the economic conditions within the two states where the study groups were selected from at the time this study was conducted. Due to changing influences in the environment during any given period of time, the expectations placed on a leader will probably change. Given the uncertain and lagging economy in both states during 1987 caused by sagging agriculture and oil markets, it is quite possible that financial strain may have unduly influenced critical incident reporting. This could partly explain the large number of critical incidents dealing directly or indirectly with financial concerns and individual security issues.

Final Comments

An insight suggested by this study was that, for the most part, critical incidents reporting effective leadership behavior and critical incidents reporting ineffective leadership behavior were categorically similar. Person-oriented behaviors dominated by the president being a "director" of staff emphasized the effective incidents. While planning (task-oriented) was seen as important, so many of the effective incidents gravitated to interpersonal issues that it implied that presidential effectiveness, to use Situational Leadership Theory parlance, was being "relationship accomplishments" judged.

Ineffectiveness, as described in this study, had a destructive relationship orientation as witnessed by the top ineffective behavior categories: directing, representing and control reporting. As in the effective incidents, administrative skills were considered less important than interpersonal skills.

According to the most current leadership theories described in Chapter Two, both task and relationship demands confront community college presidents. The present study provided support for both these theoretical points. Furthermore, the concrete illustrations of ways that community college presidents met and/or violated the needs of personnel associated with the community college have been provided. For further clarifying the nature of community college leadership, more work remains. The findings of this study will help to provide a more solid foundation from which future studies can advance.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

COMMUNITY COLLEGES

COMMUNITY COLLEGES

KANSAS

Allen County Community College, 1801 North Cottonwood, Iola, KS 66749, Dr. Ronald D. Garner, President STUS: 2,012

Coffeyville Community College, 11th and Willow, Coffeyville, KS 67337, Dr. Dan E. Kinney, President STUS: 1,420

Colby Community College, 1255 South Range, Colby, KS 67701, Dr. James H. Tangemen, President STUS: 1,663

Dodge City Community College, 2501 North 14th Avenue, Dodge City, KS 67801, Mr. Gay Dahn, President STUS: 1,379

Fort Scott Community College, 2108 South Horton, Fort Scott, KS 66701, Richard D. Hedges, President STUS: 1,289

Hutchinson Community College, 1300 North Plum Street, Hutchinson, KS 67501, Dr. James H. Stringer, President STUS: 3,439

Independence Community College, Brookside Drive & Col Ave., Independence, KS 67301-9998, Dr. Thomas R. Burke, President STUS: 907

Johnson County Community College, 12345 College at Quivira, Overland Park, KS 66210-1299, Dr. Charles J. Calson, President STUS: 8,103

Pratt Community College, Highway 61, Pratt, KS 67124, Dr. Tom Henry, President STUS: 1,611

COMMUNITY COLLEGES

OKLAHOMA

Carl Albert Junior College, Post Office Box 606, Poteau, OK 74953-0606, Dr. Joe E. White, President STUS: 2,078

Connors State College, Warner, OK 74469-0389, Dr. Carl O. Westbrook, President STUS: 1,445

Eastern Oklahoma State College, 1301 West Main, Wilburton, OK 74587-4999, Dr. Bill R. Hill, President STUS: 1,948

El Reno Junior College, Post Office Box 370, El Reno, OK 73036-0370, Dr. Bill S. Cole, President STUS: 1,570

Murray State College, Tishomingo, OK 73460-3130, Dr. Clyde R. Kindell, President STUS: 1,266

Northeastern Oklahoma A&M College, Miami, OK 74354-6499, Dr. Bobby R. Wright, President STUS: 2,348

Northern Oklahoma College, Tonkawa, OK 74653-0310, Dr. Edwin E. Vineyard, President STUS: 1,833

Oklahoma City Community College, 7777 South May Avenue, Oklahoma City, OK 73159-4499, Mr. A. L. Taylor, President STUS: 7,935

Rogers State College, Will Rogers and College Hill, Claremore, OK 74017-2099, Dr. Richard H. Mosier, President STUS: 2,694

Rose State College, 6420 Southeast 15 Street, Midwest City, OK 73110-2797, Dr. Larry W. Nutter, President STUS: 9,851

Seminole Junior College, Post Office Box 351, Seminole, OK 74818-0351, Dr. James J. Cook, President STUS: 1,453

Tulsa Junior College, 6111 East Skelly Drive, #200, Tulsa, OK 74135-6101, Dr. Alfred M. Phillips, President STUS: 15,210

Western Oklahoma State College, 2801 North Main Street, Altus, OK 73521-1397, Dr. W. C. Burris, President STUS: 2,177

APPENDIX B

PUBLICS INTERACTING WITH COMMUNITY COLLEGE PRESIDENT

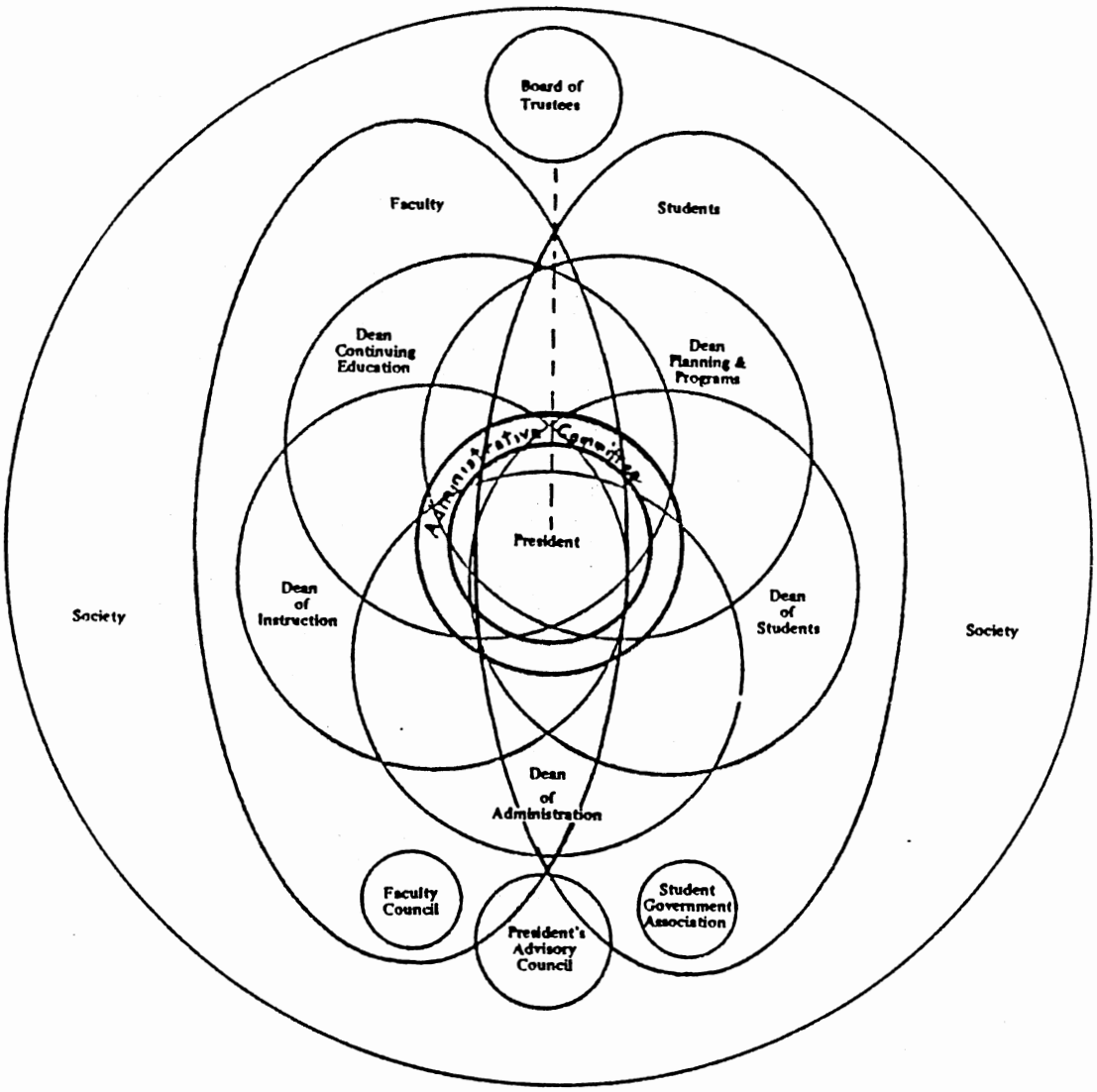

Figure 8: The Psycho-Social Administrative Organization.
Note: Taken from Clyde E. Blocker, "The Community College Presidents, Peabody Journal of Education, 49(4), 1972, p. 258.

APPENDIX C

PERSONAL DATA OF RESPONDENTS

DATA SHEET TOTALS

1. GROUP/POSITION:

INTERNAL

ADMINISTRATOR	ACADEMIC PROFESSIONAL FACULTY	STUDENT SERVICE
11 President	23 Voc/Tech	5 Counselor
3 Vice-Pres	56 Arts/Sci	4 Other
2 Dean	11 Other	
18 Dept Head		
11 Dir/Mgr		
1 Other		

EXTERNAL

4 State Legislator
38 Board of Trustees member of a community college
2 Chamber of Commerce Official

2. PERSONAL DATA:

A. YEARS OF AGE:	B. SEX:	C. HIGHEST DEGREE ATTAINED:	D. YEARS WITH COLLEGE THRU POSITION:
3 LESS THAN 25	136 MALE	4 NO COLLEGE	12 LESS THAN 1
43 25 THRU 35	70 FEMALE	11 ASSOCIATE	50 1 THRU 5
73 36 THRU 45		60 BACHELORS	63 6 THRU 10
68 46 THRU 55		108 MASTERS	38 11 THRU 15
19 56 THRU 65		33 DOCTORATE	43 16 THRU 20
10 OVER 65			10 OVER 20

E.

FREQUENCY OF PRESIDENTIAL OBSERVATION:

11 Several times daily	32 About once a week
10 About once a day	45 Monthly
36 Several times a week	82 less than monthly

F.

OBSERVATIONAL CAPACITY:

165 Informal meetings	111 Personal telephone calls
123 Formal group meetings	39 Written communications
120 Personal conversations	90 Through staff or others

The above data is from the personal data section of the questionnaire regarding the respondent's position within one of two

groups, internal or external; the respondent's years of age with six categories ranging from "less than 25" to "over 65;" the respondent's sex, "male" or "female;" the highest degree attained by the respondent with five categories ranging from "no college" to "doctorate;" the years employed at the college with six categories ranging from "less than 1" to "over twenty;" frequency of observation by the respondents of the president's behavior with six categories ranging from "several times daily" to "less than monthly;" and, the capacity of observation by the respondents of the president's behavior with six categories ranging from "informal meetings" with the president to being informed "through staff or others."

Given the investigator's pledge for anonymity of the respondents, this information was used as general impression of the scope of thr respondents basis for describing critical incidents without identifying individuals.

Additional personal data was collected on the following variables for possible study at a later time: the frequency and type of contact each respondent has with their president; the age of the respondent; the educational background of each respondent; and the length of time the respondent has been employed at the institution. The length of time the president has held office was not examined, as an initial investigation revealed only slight variance among the presidents.

Another variable of possible interest in this study was whether incidents were from arts and science faculty members or vocational/ technical faculty members. On campuses where both areas are represented, did arts and science faculty members and vocational/technical faculty

members have similar goals for the student, i.e., conceptual training in the various disciplines and the continuation of college learning at a four-year institution. Any differences noted between these faculty groups appeared to have little affect on their perception of leadership behaviors of the community college president.

An additional variable that was considered is enrollment numbers. The community colleges in this study ranged in enrollment from 1.453 to 15,210. It seemed possible that effective leadership in a larger school was different from effective leadership in a small school, but size did not seem to make an apparent difference.

Finally, recommendations made by the respondents on how the president could improve his or her effectiveness were collected.

APPENDIX D

LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE

LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE

Mailing directions

Enclose the completed questionnaire in the stamped, researcher-addressed return envelope. Should the return envelope be misplaced, please send the completed questionnaire to the following address:

Dale Barnett
Oklahoma State University
309 Gundersen
Stillwater, OK 74078

Statement of Purpose and Confidentiality

Dear Colleague:

The purpose of this questionnaire is to identify your perceptions of effective and ineffective presidential leadership behaviors at a community college. These perceptions should describe a critical incident circumstance, a presidential behavior in relation to the circumstance, and what resulted from that behavior.

All responses reported by you on this questionnaire will be guarded. When the responses are reported in the dissertation, no one will know if you participated or not, as all sample data will be pooled together by group and subsequently reported as one piece of information. You have my assurance that no individual or institution will be identified with any particular incident or group of incidents. Legal liability will be accepted by the researcher if this is violated.

Sincerely,

Dale E. Barnett
(Researcher's signature)

PLEASE RETURN QUESTIONNAIRE
WITHIN 10 WORK DAYS AFTER RECEIVED

*** EVEN IF NOT COMPLETED ***

EFFECTIVE

Please recall the educational events of the past 12 months. Choose three or more incidents which demonstrated the EFFECTIVE leadership behavior of the president of the institution. Write brief, objective, and specific descriptions of those incidents. An example of such a description follows:

THE CIRCUMSTANCE...The college was in financial difficulty and the board decided to freeze faculty salaries. The president, as leader of the college, explained the freeze to the faculty.

WHAT THE PRESIDENT DID...The president wrote a very carefully worded page-and-a-half letter describing the college's financial difficulty and the reason for the salary freeze.

WHAT RESULTED FROM THE BEHAVIOR...The faculty accepted the freeze without griping.

Please describe EFFECTIVE incidents about which you have first-hand knowledge.

1) THE CIRCUMSTANCE...

WHAT THE PRESIDENT DID...

WHAT RESULTED FROM THE BEHAVIOR...

2) THE CIRCUMSTANCE...

WHAT THE PRESIDENT DID...

WHAT RESULTED FROM THE BEHAVIOR...

3) THE CIRCUMSTANCE...

WHAT THE PRESIDENT DID...

WHAT RESULTED FROM THE BEHAVIOR...

INEFFECTIVE

Please recall the educational events of the past 12 months. Choose three or more incidents which demonstrated the INEFFECTIVE leadership behavior of the president of the institution. Write brief, objective, and specific descriptions of those incidents. An example of such a description follows:

THE CIRCUMSTANCE...The college was in financial difficulty and the board decided to freeze faculty salaries. The president, as leader of the college, explained the freeze to the faculty.

WHAT THE PRESIDENT DID...The president wrote a two page memo to faculty announcing the salary freeze.

WHAT RESULTED FROM THE BEHAVIOR...Some faculty publicly denounced the memo as an indicator of administrators taking all the profits of the college, some faculty initiated collective bargaining action, and others started looking for jobs elsewhere.

Please describe INEFFECTIVE incidents about which you have first-hand knowledge.

1) THE CIRCUMSTANCE...

WHAT THE PRESIDENT DID...

WHAT RESULTED FROM THE BEHAVIOR...

2) THE CIRCUMSTANCE...

WHAT THE PRESIDENT DID...

WHAT RESULTED FROM THE BEHAVIOR...

3) THE CIRCUMSTANCE...

WHAT THE PRESIDENT DID...

WHAT RESULTED FROM THE BEHAVIOR...

Recommendation

Please indicate the single-most important behavior that you think a community college president could improve on to become a more effective leader.

APPENDIX E

SAMPLE OF LETTER SENT TO PRESIDENTS

(Sample of letter initially sent to presidents)

Oklahoma State University letterhead (Researcher's university address)
(Date)

(Appropriate name,title and
institutional address)

(Salutation): .

I am a higher education administration doctoral degree candidate at Oklahoma State University and have reached the data collection stage of my dissertation and respectfully request your permission to involve (college's name) in my study.

I will investigate the effective and ineffective leadership behaviors of community college presidents as perceived by themselves and certain other publics associated with the community college. The research methodology I will employ is the Critical Incident Technique developed by John Flanagan in the 1940's.

If you grant me permission to use your institution in my study, please forward enclosure 1 to your personnel office with authorization for release of the requested information to me. Afterwards, I will be sending instruments for you, your faculty and administrative staff to complete. The instrument, which can be completed in less than ten minutes time, was designed to collect perceptions of effective and ineffective presidential leadership through concise descriptions of observed behaviors. Individual responses will be collectively coded and treated within the study and kept in the strictest confidence. No individual's or college's name will be identified in conjunction with the study data collected. Also, it would be quite helpful to my data collection effort if you would have prepared and sent to me a letter similar to enclosure 2 that I may duplicate and share with other study participants at (college's name).

If you do not want me to use (college's name) in my study, please notify me (405) 624-5627 or at the above address within ten work days of the date of receipt of this letter.

Excellent leadership may be part science and part art, but its existence should be clearly demonstrated by the output of the work group which the leader leads. By this standard, community college presidents have faired well. Our region is an excellent location for the study of community college leadership. I am looking forward to and will greatly appreciate you and your institution participating in my study as I attempt to uncover some commonality in the language we use to describe leadership behaviors of community college presidents.

Thank you for your consideration and assistance in this matter.

(Complimentary close)

CC: Dr. John Gardiner
Dissertation Adviser

Encl: (1) Ltr to personnel office
(2) Sample ltr of support of study

APPENDIX F

SAMPLE OF LETTER TO INSTITUTIONAL DIRECTORS OF PERSONNEL

(Sample of letter for institutional directors of personnel)

Oklahoma State University letterhead (Researcher's university address)

(Date)

(Appropriate name,title and
institutional address)

(Salutation):

I am a doctoral student at Oklahoma State University and have reached the data collection stage of my dissertation. To the being of that process, I must select individual sample subjects for my study.

Your President has been kind enough to allow me to select subjects from (college's name). However, before I can make this selection and send my data collection instrument to the individuals selected, I need a current listing or directory of (college's name) personnel. Specifically, I need a directory or listing that includes the name and institutional address of the following categories of personnel:

1. All administrators (vice presidents, deans, department heads, directors, managers, etc.)

2. All full-time faculty

3. All full-time student service personnel

4. All full-time technical staff/support/classified personnel (clerical, maintenance, logistic, etc.)

I would be most appreciative of receiving this information within ten work days of your receipt of this letter.

Thank you for your prompt attention to this matter.

(Complimentary close)

APPENDIX G

SAMPLE OF PRESIDENTIAL LETTER OF SUPPORT RECEIVED

(Sample letter of support provided by some presidents to be shared with sample subjects at their institution)

(Appropriate community college letterhead)

(Date)

(Name, title and institutional address)

Dear Colleague:

The study Mr. Barnett has asked you to participate in is of significant value to community colleges, this institution and higher education in general. The basic purpose of the study is to identify effective and ineffective leadership behaviors of community college presidents as perceived by the president and certain other groups associated with the community college. The methodology used in the study is the Critical Incident Technique which provides concrete illustrations of leadership. The study may also provide the basic descriptive information from which valid instruments might be constructed to measure presidential leadership behaviors in the comunity college educational setting.

I believe Mr. Barnett's study to be a truly useful contribution to both the study of leadership and to our common quest for a better higher education system. I strongly endorse this study and urge you to cooperate and support Dale in providing the data requested.

Sincerely,

President's signature

APPENDIX H

SAMPLE SECOND PRESIDENTIAL LETTER SENT

(Sample of second letter sent to presidents)

Oklahoma State University letterhead (Researcher's university address)
(Date)

(Appropriate name,title and
institutional address)

(Salutation):

As you may remember, I am a higher education administration doctoral degree candidate at Oklahoma State University who has reached the data collection stage of dissertation and would greatly appreciate your participation in my study.

The topic I am investigating is effective and ineffective leadership behaviors of community college presidents as perceived by themselves and certain other publics associated with the community college. The research methodology I will employ is the Critical Incident Technique developed by John Flanagan in the 1940's.

The purpose of the attached questionnaire (which can be completed in less than 10 minutes time) is to identify and collect your perceptions of presidential leadership behaviors at your institution. These perceptions should concisely describe a critical incident circumstance, and what resulted from your observed behavior.

Individual responses will be guarded and held in the strictest confidence. All responses will be pooled together and coded and treated collectively. No one will know if you participated or not, as all responses will be reported as a single piece of information in the dissertation. Further, no president, individual or institution will be able to be identified in conjunction with any particular incident or group of incidents.

Your involvement in my attempt to uncover some commonality in the language we use to describe leadership behaviors of community college presidents will be highlyly valued. Please complete the questionnaire and data sheet and return them to me in the provided self-addressed stamped envelope within ten work days after receipt.

Thank you for your help and consideration in this matter.

(Complimentary close)

w/Attachments

APPENDIX I

PRESIDENT'S LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE

(Sample cover letter for presidents questionnaire)

RE: PRESIDENTS LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear President,

The purpose of this questionnaire is to identify your perceptions of your effective and ineffective leadership behaviors at your community college. These perceptions should describe a critical incident circumstance, your behavior in relation to the circumstance, and what resulted from your behavior.

All responses reported by you on this questionnaire will be guarded. When the responses are reported in the dissertation, no one will know if you participated or not, as all data from the individual presidents will be pooled together and subsequently reported as one piece of information. You have my assurance that no individual will be identified with any particular incident or group of incidents.

Sincerely,

Dale E. Barnett

PLEASE RETURN QUESTIONNNAIRE
BY (10 WORK DAYS AFTER SENT)

EVEN IF NOT COMPLETED

PRESIDENT'S LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE

Mailing directions: Enclose the completed questionnaire in the stamped, researcher-addressed return envelope. Should the return envelope be misplaced, please send the completed questionnaire to the following address:

Dale Barnett
Oklahoma State University
309 Gundersen
Stillwater, OK 74078

Statement of Confidentiality: All responses reported in this study will be held in the strictest confidence. Complete anonymity of institutions and individuals will be maintained throughout the entire study. Legal liability will be accepted by the researcher if this is violated.

_____
(Researchers's signature)

1. **Personal Data**

A. Age_____ (nearest year) Male_____ Female_____

B. How long have you been associated with this institution?

_____years_____ months.

C. Higher education degrees attained - CHECK ALL THAT APPLY...

Associate_____ Bachelor_____ Masters_____ Doctorate_____

EFFECTIVE

Please recall the educational events of the past 12 months. Choose three or more incidents which demonstrated your EFFECTIVE leadership of the institution. Write brief, objective, and specific descriptions of those incidents. An example of such a description follows:

THE CIRCUMSTANCE...The college was in financial difficulty and the board decided to freeze faculty salaries. As president, I had to explain the freeze to the faculty.

WHAT YOU DID...I wrote a very carefully worded page-and-a-half letter describing the college's financial difficulty and the reason for the salary freeze.

WHAT RESULTED FROM YOUR BEHAVIOR...The faculty accepted the freeze without griping.

1) THE CIRCUMSTANCE...

WHAT YOU DID...

WHAT RESULTED FROM YOUR BEHAVIOR...

2) THE CIRCUMSTANCE...

WHAT YOU DID...

WHAT RESULTED FROM YOUR BEHAVIOR...

3) THE CIRCUMSTANCE...

WHAT THE YOU DID...

WHAT RESULTED FROM YOUR BEHAVIOR...

INEFFECTIVE

Please recall the educational events of the past 12 months. Choose three or more incidents which demonstrated your INEFFECTIVE leadership of the institution. Write brief, objective, and specific descriptions of those incidents. An example of such a description follows:

THE CIRCUMSTANCE...The college was in financial difficulty and the board decided to freeze faculty salaries. As president, I had to explain the freeze to the faculty.

WHAT YOU DID...I wrote a two sentence memo to faculty announcing the salary freeze.

WHAT RESULTED FROM YOUR BEHAVIOR...Some faculty publicly denounced the memo as an indicator of administrators taking all the profits of the college; some faculty initiated collective bargaining action; and, others started looking for jobs elsewhere.

1) THE CIRCUMSTANCE...

WHAT YOU DID...

WHAT RESULTED FROM YOUR BEHAVIOR...

2) THE CIRCUMSTANCE...

WHAT YOU DID...

WHAT RESULTED FROM YOUR BEHAVIOR...

3) THE CIRCUMSTANCE...

WHAT YOU DID...

WHAT RESULTED FROM YOUR BEHAVIOR...

Recommendation

Indicate the most important recommendation that you would make from your association with the college which might improve presidential leadership.

APPENDIX J

SAMPLES OF LETTERS SENT TO PUBLICS

(Sample of letter sent to internal publics)

Oklahoma State University letterhead (Researcher's university address)
(Date)

(Appropriate name,title and
institutional address)

(Salutation):

I am a doctoral degree candidate in higher education administration at Oklahoma State University. I have reached the data collection stage of my dissertation and would greatfully appreciate your involvement in my study.

I will investigate the effective and ineffective leadership behaviors of community college presidents as perceived by themselves and certain other publics associated with the community college. The research methodology I will employ is the Critical Incident Technique developed by John Flanagan in the 1940's.

President (name) has graciously permitted me to use (institution) in my study sample. The attached instrument, which can be completed in less than ten minutes time, was designed to collect perceptions of effective and ineffective presidential leadership through concise descriptions of observed behaviors.

Your participation in my attempt to uncover some commonality in the language we use to describe leadership behaviors of community college presidents is important and will be highly valued. Please read complete the attached instrument within ten work days and return it to me in the provided self-addressed stamped envelope.

Thank you for your consideration and assistance in this matter.

(Complimentary close)

w/Attachments

(Sample of letter sent to Board of Trustees/Regents members)

Oklahoma State University letterhead (Researcher's university address)
(Date)

(Appropriate name,title and
institutional address)

(Salutation):

I am a higher education administration doctoral degree candidate at Oklahoma State University. I have reached the data collection stage of my dissertation and would greatly appreciate your participation in my study.

The topic I have chosen to investigate concerns the effective and ineffective leadership behaviors of community college presidents as perceived by themselves and certain other publics associated with the community college. The research methodology to be employed will be the Critical Incident Technique developed by John Flanagan in the 1940's.

(Appropriate college name), for which you serve as regent, is a principal part of my study sample. This being the case, the purpose of the attached questionnaire is to identify and collect your perceptions of the effective and ineffective presidential leadership behaviors at that institution. These perceptions should concisely describe a critical incident circumstance, and what resulted from the president's observed behavior.

Individual responses will be guarded and held in the strictest confidence. All responses will be pooled together and coded and treated collectively. No one will know if you participated or not, as all responses will be reported as a single piece of information in the dissertation. Further, no president, individual or institution will be able to be identified in conjunction with any particular incident or group of incidents.

I will greatly appreciate your personal involvement in my study as I attempt to uncover some commonality in the language we use to describe leadership behaviors of community college presidents. To this end, please complete the attached questionnaire and return it to me in the provided self addressed stamped envelope by (10 work days after date of ltr).

Thank you for your help and consideration in this matter.

(Complimentary close)

w/Attachments

(Sample of letter sent to Chamber of Commerce officials)

Oklahoma State University letterhead (Researcher's university address)
(Date)

(Appropriate name,title and
institutional address)

(Salutation):

I am a higher education administration doctoral degree candidate at Oklahoma State University. I have reached the data collection stage of my dissertation and would greatly appreciate your participation in my study.

The topic I have chosen to investigate concerns the effective and ineffective leadership behaviors of community college presidents as perceived by themselves and certain other publics associated with the community college. The research methodology to be employed will be the Critical Incident Technique developed by John Flanagan in the 1940's.

A community college is located in your community and is one of the institutions chosen for my study sample. This being the case, the purpose of the attached questionnaire is to identify and collect your perceptions of the effective and ineffective presidential leadership behaviors at that institution. These perceptions should concisely describe a critical incident circumstance, and what resulted from the president's observed behavior.

Individual responses will be guarded and held in the strictest confidence. All responses will be pooled together and coded and treated collectively. No one will know if you participated or not, as all responses will be reported as a single piece of information in the dissertation. Further, no president, individual or institution will be able to be identified in conjunction with any particular incident or group of incidents.

Please complete the attached questionnaire and survey data sheet and return them to me in the provided self-addressed stamped envelope within ten work days after receipt. Your personal involvement in my study will be invaluable as I attempt to uncover the language we use to describe leadership behaviors of community college presidents.

Thank you in advance for your help and consideration in this matter.

(Complimentary close)

w/Attachments

(Sample of letter sent to members of state legislatures)

Oklahoma State University letterhead (Researcher's university address)
(Date)

(Appropriate name,title and
institutional address)

(Salutation):

I am a higher education administration doctoral degree candidate at Oklahoma State University. I have reached the data collection stage of my dissertation and would greatly appreciate your participation in my study.

The topic I have chosen to investigate concerns the effective and ineffective leadership behaviors of community college presidents as perceived by themselves and certain other publics associated with the community college. The research methodology to be employed will be the Critical Incident Technique developed by John Flanagan in the 1940's.

(Appropriate college name) is located in your legislative district and is one of the institutions chosen for my study sample. This being the case, the purpose of the attached questionnaire is to identify and collect your perceptions of the effective and ineffective presidential leadership behaviors at that institution. These perceptions should concisely describe a critical incident circumstance, and what resulted from the president's observed behavior.

Individual responses will be guarded and held in the strictest confidence. All responses will be pooled together and coded and treated collectively. No one will know if you participated or not, as all responses will be reported as a single piece of information in the dissertation. Further, no president, individual or institution will be able to be identified in conjunction with any particular incident or group of incidents.

Please complete the attached questionnaire and survey data sheet and return them to me in the provided self-addressed stamped envelope within ten work days after receipt. Your personal involvement in my study will be invaluable as I attempt to uncover the language we use to describe leadership behaviors of community college presidents.

Thank you in advance for your help and consideration in this matter.

(Complimentary close)

w/Attachments

APPENDIX K

SAMPLE OF LETTER SENT TO INSTITUTIONAL CONTACT POINT

(Sample letter sent to institutional contact point)

Oklahoma State University letterhead (Researcher's university address)

(Date)

(Appropriate name,title and
institutional address)

(Salutation):

President (apropriate name) has graciously permitted me to involve your institution in a study I am conducting.

To that end, I am forwarding the attached questionnaires to individuals in your college. The questionnaires are individually addressed and separated by department (where applicable).

Please help me by seeing that proper internal distribution is made. Your assistance and time will be greatly appreciated.

(Complimentary close)

w/Attachments

APPENDIX L

STUDY GROUPS' CATEGORIES AND SUBCATEGORIES

TABLE XVI

PUBLICS' EFFECTIVE CRITICAL INCIDENT (N=220)
TOTALS AND PERCENTS BY CATEGORY

	Overall	Internal	External
THIRD LEVEL	Tot/%	Tot/%	Tot/%
Representing Externally	30/14	20/14	10/13
Obtaining Resources	27/13	17/12	10/13
Promoting Staff Professionalism	23/10	11/8	12/16
Reporting with Staff	17/8	12/8	5/6
Representing Internally	17/8	13/9	4/4
Reporting with Trustees	16/7	4/3	12/16
Recognizing Staff	12/5	12/8	*
Discussing Issues with Staff	12/5	10/7	2/3
Staffing	11/5	5/3	6/8
Advising Staff	11/5	11/8	*
Innovating	9/4	8/6	1/1
Setting Goals and Objectives	8/4	2/1	6/8
Campus Couplings	8/4	5/3	3/4
Campus/off-campus Couplings	7/3	3/2	4/5
Delegating to Staff	7/3	7/5	*
Promoting Staff Growth	5/2	3/2	2/3
SECOND LEVEL			
Assisting Staff Development	47/21	33/23	14/18
Representing	47/21	33/23	14/18
Planning	35/16	19/13	16/21
Control Reporting	33/15	16/11	17/22
Communicating with Staff	23/10	21/15	2/3
Coupling	15/7	8/6	7/9
Staffing	11/5	5/3	6/8
Innovating	9/4	8/6	1/3
FIRST LEVEL			
Directing	70/32	54/38	16/21
Representing	47/21	33/23	14/18
Planning	35/16	19/13	16/21
Control Reporting	33/15	16/11	17/22
Coupling	15/7	8/6	7/9
Staffing	11/5	5/3	6/8
Innovating	9/4	8/6	1/3
Total Group Incidents	220/100	143/100	77/100

*=Not mentioned by group.
Note: Due to rounding, column percent totals may not equal 100.

TABLE XVII

PUBLICS' INEFFECTIVE CRITICAL INCIDENT (N=193)
TOTALS AND PERCENTS BY CATEGORY

THIRD LEVEL	All Tot/%	Int Tot/%	Ext Tot/%
Representing Internally	24/11	20/13	4/12
Making Alienating Remarks to Staff	21/10	21/13	*
Representing Externally	19/9	11/7	7/20
Biased Resource Adjusting	16/8	14/9	1/3
Delegating	16/8	11/7	3/9
Staffing	14/7	12/8	2/6
Setting Goals and Objectives	14/7	9/6	3/9
Obtaining Resources	12/6	8/5	3/9
Control Reporting with Trustees	14/7	1/1	8/23
Questionable Personnel Adjusting	10/5	8/5	1/3
Holding Unmeaningful Staff Meetings	9/4	9/6	*
Avoiding Issues with Staff	9/4	8/5	1/3
Repressing Professionalism	9/4	7/4	*
Uncoordinated Schedule Adjusting	6/3	6/4	*
Coupling	6/3	3/2	*
Neglecting Staff	5/2	5/3	*
Innovating	5/2	5/3	*
Repressing Staff Growth	2/1	1/1	1/3
SECOND LEVEL			
Communicating with Staff	39/18	38/24	1/3
Control Reporting with Staff	32/15	28/18	2/6
Assisting Staff Development	32/15	24/15	4/12
Representing Internally	24/11	20/13	4/12
Representing Externally	19/9	11/7	7/20
Staffing	14/7	12/8	2/6
Setting Goals and Objectives	14/7	9/6	3/9
Control Reporting with Trustees	14/7	1/1	8/23
Obtaining Resources	12/6	8/5	3/9
Coupling	6/3	3/2	*
Innovating	5/2	5/3	*
FIRST LEVEL			
Directing	71/34	62/39	5/15
Representing	43/20	31/19	11/32
Reporting	46/22	29/18	10/29
Planning	26/12	17/11	6/18
Staffing	14/7	12/8	2/6
Coupling	6/3	3/2	*
Innovating	5/2	5/3	*
Total Group Incidents	193/100	159/100	34/100

*=Not mentioned by group.
Note: Due to rounding, column percent totals may not equal 100.

TABLE XVIII

EFFECTIVE (E) AND INEFFECTIVE (I) CRITICAL INCIDENT EMPHASIS VANTAGE (V) WITHIN GROUP ACROSS CATEGORY

Category	CI Total	E	I	V - %
ALL STUDY GROUPS				
Directing	149	78/52	71/48	E - 4
Representing	91	48/53	43/47	E - 6
Control Reporting	86	40/47	46/53	I - 6
Planning	64	38/59	26/41	E - 18
Coupling	22	16/73	6/27	E - 46
Staffing	27	13/48	14/52	I - 4
Innovating	15	10/67	5/33	E - 34
Totals	454	243/54	211/46	E - 8
INTERNAL PUBLICS				
Directing	116	54/47	62/53	I - 6
Representing	64	33/52	31/48	E - 4
Control Reporting	45	16/36	29/64	I - 28
Planning	36	19/53	17/47	E - 6
Coupling	22	16/73	6/27	E - 46
Staffing	17	5/29	12/71	I - 42
Innovating	13	8/62	5/38	E - 24
Totals	302	143/47	159/53	I - 6

Table XVIII Continued

Effective (E) and Ineffective (I) Critical Incident Emphasis Vantage (V) Within Group Across Category

Category	CI Total	E	I	V - %
EXTERNAL PUBLICS				
Control Reporting	27	17/63	10/37	E - 26
Representing	25	14/56	11/44	E - 12
Planning	22	16/73	6/27	E - 46
Directing	21	16/76	5/24	E - 52
Staffing	8	6/75	2/25	E - 50
Coupling	7	7/100	*	E -100
Innovating	1	1/100	*	E -100
Totals	111	77/69	34/31	E - 38
PRESIDENTS				
Control Reporting	14	7/50	7/50	same
Directing	12	8/67	4/33	E - 34
Planning	6	3/50	3/50	same
Coupling	4	1/25	3/75	I - 50
Representing	2	1/50	1/50	same
Staffing	2	2/100	*	E -100
Innovating	1	1/4	*	E -100
Totals	41	23/56	18/44	E - 12

TABLE XIX

EFFECTIVE CRITICAL INCIDENT (N=243) TOTALS AND WITHIN GROUP PERCENTS ACROSS CATEGORY AND SUBCATEGORY

	Group			
	All Tot/%	Int Tot/%	Ext Tot/%	Pres Tot/%
Directing	78/32	54/38	16/21	8/35
Assisting Staff Development	(51/67)	(33/61)	(14/88)	(4/50)
Communicating with Staff	(27/33)	(21/39)	(2/12)	(4/50)
Representing	48/20	33/23	14/18	1/4
Representing Externally	(31/65)	(20/61)	(10/71	(1/100)
Representing Internally	(17/35)	(13/39)	(4/29)	*
Control Reporting	40/16	16/11	17/22	7/30
Reporting with Staff	(22/55)	(12/75)	(5/29)	(5/71)
Reporting with Trustees	(18/45)	(4/25)	(12/71)	(2/29)
Planning	38/16	19/13	16/21	3/13
Obtaining Resources	(29/76)	(17/89)	(10/63)	(2/67)
Setting Goals and Objectives	(9/24)	(2/11)	(6/37)	(1/33)
Coupling	16/7	8/6	7/9	1/4
Campus Couplings	(9/56)	(5/63)	(3/43)	(1/100)
Campus/off-campus Couplings	(7/44)	(3/37)	(4/57)	*
Staffing	13/5	5/3	6/8	2/9
Innovating	10/4	8/6	1/1	1/4
Total Group Incidents	243/100	143/100	77/100	23/100

*=Not mentioned by group.
Note: Due to rounding, (within category percents) may not total 100.

TABLE XX

INEFFECTIVE CRITICAL INCIDENT (N=211) TOTALS AND WITHIN GROUP PERCENTS ACROSS CATEGORY AND SUBCATEGORY

	Group			
	All Tot/%	Int Tot/%	Ext Tot/%	Pres Tot/%
Directing	71/34	62/39	5/15	4/22
Communicating with Staff	(39/55)	(38/61)	(1/20)	*
Assisting Staff Development	(32/45)	(24/39)	(4/80)	(4/100)
Reporting	46/22	29/18	10/29	7/39
Control Reporting with Staff	(32/70)	(28/97)	(2/20)	(2/29)
Control Reporting with Trustees	(14/30)	(1/3)	(8/80)	(5/61)
Representing	43/20	31/19	11/32	1/5
Representing Internally	(24/56)	(20/65)	(4/36)	*
Representing Externally	(19/44)	(11/35)	(7/64)	(1/100)
Planning	26/12	17/11	6/18	3/17
Setting Goals and Objectives	(14/54)	(9/53)	(3/50)	(2/67)
Obtaining Resources	(12/46)	(8/47)	(3/50)	(1/33)
Staffing	14/7	12/8	2/6	*
Coupling	6/3	3/2	*	3/17
Innovating	5/2	5/3	*	*
Total Group Incidents	211/100	159/100	34/100	18/100

*=Not mentioned by group.
Note: Due to rounding, (within category percents) may not total 100.

TABLE XXI

EFFECTIVE CRITICAL INCIDENT (N=243) TOTALS AND WITHIN GROUP PERCENTS ACROSS CATEGORY

Category	All Tot/%	Group Int Tot/%	Ext Tot/%	Pres Tot/%
Representing Externally	31/13	20/14	10/13	1/4
Obtaining Resources	29/12	17/12	10/13	2/9
Promoting Professionalism	24/10	11/8	12/16	1/4
Reporting with Staff	22/9	12/8	5/7	5/22
Reporting with Trustees	18/7	4/3	12/16	2/9
Representing Internally	17/7	13/9	4/5	*
Discussing Issues with Staff	14/6	10/7	2/2	2/9
Staffing	13/5	5/3	6/8	2/9
Advising Staff	13/5	11/8	*	2/9
Recognizing Staff	12/5	12/8	*	*
Delegating	10/4	7/5	*	3/13
Innovating	10/4	8/6	1/1	1/4
Setting Goals and Objectives	9/4	2/1	6/8	1/4
Campus Couplings	9/4	5/3	3/4	1/4
Campus/off-campus Couplings	7/3	3/2	4/5	*
Promoting Staff Growth	5/2	3/2	2/2	*
Total Group Incidents	243/100	143/100	77/100	23/100

*=Not mentioned by group.
Note: Due to rounding, column percent totals may not equal 100.

TABLE XXII

INEFFECTIVE CRITICAL INCIDENT (N=211) TOTALS AND WITHIN GROUP PERCENTS ACROSS CATEGORY

Category	All Tot/%	Group Int Tot/%	Ext Tot/%	Pres Tot/%
Representing Internally	24/11	20/13	4/12	*
Making Alienating Remarks to Staff	21/10	21/13	*	*
Representing Externally	19/9	11/7	7/20	1/5
Biased Resource Adjusting	16/8	14/9	1/3	1/5
Delegating	16/8	11/7	3/9	2/11
Staffing	14/7	12/8	2/6	*
Setting Goals and Objectives	14/7	9/6	3/9	2/11
Control Reporting with Trustees	14/7	1/1	8/23	5/28
Obtaining Resources	12/6	8/5	3/9	1/5
Questionable Personnel Adjusting	10/5	8/5	1/3	1/5
Holding Unmeaningful Staff Meetings	9/4	9/6	*	*
Avoiding Issues with Staff	9/4	8/5	1/3	*
Repressing Professionalism	9/4	7/4	*	2/11
Uncoordinated Schedule Adjusting	6/3	6/4	*	*
Coupling	6/3	3/2	*	3/17
Neglecting Staff	5/2	5/3	*	*
Innovating	5/2	5/3	*	*
Repressing Staff Growth	2/1	1/1	1/3	*
Total Group Incidents	211/100	159/100	34/100	18/100

Note: Due to rounding, column percent totals may not equal 100.
*=Not mentioned by group.

TABLE XXIII

EFFECTIVE CRITICAL INCIDENT (N=243) TOTALS AND PERCENTS BY CATEGORIZATION LEVEL

	All Tot/%	Int Tot/%	Ext Tot/%	Pres Tot/%
THIRD LEVEL				
Representing Externally	31/13	20/14	10/13	1/4
Obtaining Resources	29/12	17/12	10/13	2/9
Promoting Professionalism	24/10	11/8	12/16	1/4
Reporting with Staff	22/9	12/8	5/7	5/22
Reporting with Trustees	18/7	4/3	12/16	2/9
Representing Internally	17/7	13/9	4/5	*
Discussing Issues with Staff	14/6	10/7	2/2	2/9
Staffing	13/5	5/3	6/8	2/9
Advising Staff	13/5	11/8	*	2/9
Recognizing Staff	12/5	12/8	*	*
Delegating	10/4	7/5	*	3/13
Innovating	10/4	8/6	1/1	1/4
Setting Goals and Objectives	9/4	2/1	6/8	1/4
Campus Couplings	9/4	5/3	3/4	1/4
Campus/off-campus Couplings	7/3	3/2	4/5	*
Promoting Staff Growth	5/2	3/2	2/2	*
SECOND LEVEL				
Assisting Staff Development	51/21	33/23	14/18	4/17
Representing	48/20	33/23	14/18	1/4
Control Reporting	40/16	16/11	17/22	7/30
Planning	38/16	19/13	16/21	3/13
Communicating with Staff	27/11	21/15	2/3	4/17
Coupling	16/7	8/6	7/9	1/4
Staffing	13/5	5/3	6/8	2/9
Innovating	10/4	8/6	1/3	1/4
FIRST LEVEL				
Directing	78/32	54/38	16/21	8/35
Representing	48/20	33/23	14/18	1/4
Control Reporting	40/16	16/11	17/22	7/30
Planning	38/16	19/13	16/21	3/13
Coupling	16/7	8/6	7/9	1/4
Staffing	13/5	5/3	6/8	2/9
Innovating	10/4	8/6	1/3	1/4
Total Group Incidents	243/100	143/100	77/100	23/100

*=Not mentioned by group.
Note: Due to rounding, column percent totals may not equal 100.

TABLE XXIV

INEFFECTIVE CRITICAL INCIDENT (N=211) TOTALS AND PERCENTS BY CATEGORIZATION LEVEL

	All Tot/%	Int Tot/%	Ext Tot/%	Pres Tot/%
THIRD LEVEL				
Representing Internally	24/11	20/13	4/12	*
Making Alienating Remarks to Staff	21/10	21/13	*	*
Representing Externally	19/9	11/7	7/20	1/5
Biased Resource Adjusting	16/8	14/9	1/3	1/5
Delegating	16/8	11/7	3/9	2/11
Staffing	14/7	12/8	2/6	*
Setting Goals and Objectives	14/7	9/6	3/9	2/11
Control Reporting with Trustees	14/7	1/1	8/23	5/28
Obtaining Resources	12/6	8/5	3/9	1/5
Questionable Personnel Adjusting	10/5	8/5	1/3	1/5
Holding Unmeaningful Staff Meetings	9/4	9/6	*	*
Avoiding Issues with Staff	9/4	8/5	1/3	*
Repressing Professionalism	9/4	7/4	*	2/11
Uncoordinated Schedule Adjusting	6/3	6/4	*	*
Coupling	6/3	3/2	*	3/17
Neglecting Staff	5/2	5/3	*	*
Innovating	5/2	5/3	*	*
Repressing Staff Growth	2/1	1/1	1/3	*
SECOND LEVEL				
Communicating with Staff	39/8	38/24	1/3	*
Control Reporting with Staff	32/15	28/18	2/6	2/11
Assisting Staff Development	32/15	24/15	4/12	4/22
Representing Internally	24/11	20/13	4/12	*
Representing Externally	19/9	11/7	7/20	1/5
Staffing	14/7	12/8	2/6	*
Setting Goals and Objectives	14/7	9/6	3/9	2/11
Control Reporting with Trustees	14/7	1/1	8/23	5/28
Obtaining Resources	12/6	8/5	3/9	1/5
Coupling	6/3	3/2	*	3/17
Innovating	5/2	5/3	*	*
FIRST LEVEL				
Directing	71/34	62/39	5/15	4/22
Reporting	46/22	29/18	10/29	7/39
Representing	43/20	31/19	11/32	1/5
Planning	26/12	17/11	6/18	3/17
Staffing	14/7	12/8	2/6	*
Coupling	6/3	3/2	*	3/17
Innovating	5/2	5/3	*	*
Total Group Incidents	211/100	159/100	34/100	18/100

Note: Due to rounding, column percent totals may not equal 100.
*=Not mentioned by group.

APPENDIX M

LEADERSHIP INSTRUMENT DEVELOPMENT IMPLICATION

Implication for the Development of a Leadership Instrument

The body of effective and ineffective critical incidents which might be used for the development and/or refinement of leadership instruments grounded in the community college setting formed the study's uniqueness. Although it went beyond the scope of this study to design an instrument or set of instruments for further investigation of community college presidential leadership, it was a fundamental assumption (based on the studies of Beck 1978; Clark, 1981; and Clothier, 1984) that useful information from incidents collected in this study for the revision of or the development of such instruments would be provided. A review of selected items from a widely used leadership instrument seemed to substantiate this assumption.

The Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD) Other, (Hersey and Blanchard, 1973), is an instrument based on Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982a). It is designed to measure the perception of leaders by others in terms of leadership style range and style adaptability. Twelve narrative statements describing situations are presented in the instrument. Each situation has four alternative actions the leader might initiate to remedy the situation. The leader's choice as indicated by the perceptions of others describes the perception of a leader's style in terms of "telling," "selling," "participating," or "delegating," and indicates whether the style is situationally appropriate. In his study, Clothier (1984) used the Leader Behavior Analysis version of the LEAD instrument. Comell (1979) used the LEAD instrument in his study, however, as it was originally standardized for use in business settings, he cited it as a

limitation (see page 64). For purposes here, three items from the LEAD-Other are used as limitations.

SITUATION	ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS
Your subordinates are not responding lately to your friendly conversation and obvious concern for their welfare. Their performance is declining rapidly.	A. Emphasize the use of uniform procedures and the necessity for task accomplishment. B. Make yourself available for discussion but don't push your involvement. C. Talk with subordinates and then set goals. D. Intentionally do not intervene.

Incidents provided by internal publics indicated that to a large percentage of individuals, effective presidential leadership was identified with friendly conversations and obvious concern for their welfare. Two illustrative incidents, presented previously on pages 103-104, demonstrate this point:

> Given staff uncertainty when he assumed the position, the president scheduled "small group" staff breakfast meetings to discuss concerns and institutional direction, resulting in staff uncertainty being replaced by hope and a desire to be a part of the "new" direction.
>
> When the staff voiced concern over the institution's health insurance program, the president had an insurance program representative come with him to staff meetings to explain the program and answer questions, resulting in many unfounded fears being eliminated.
>
> When contract revisions were underway, the president met with small groups of staff to explain changes and answer questions, resulting in better staff understanding and acceptance of changes.

It seems highly illogical to assume that a president could engage in such behavior at a community college and have subordinates' performance simultaneously decline rapidly. In the case of staff, it is near impossible to imagine what a rapid decline in performance would entail.

For community college staff members reporting on presidential effectiveness, this LEAD-Other item, as constructed, seems an invalid item. If persons completing this instrument can not relate to the initial situation, they can not choose accurate alternatives.

SITUATION	ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS
The performance of your group has been dropping during the last few months. Members have been unconcerned with meeting objectives. Redefining roles and responsibilities has helped in the past. They have continually needed reminding to have their tasks done on time.	A. Allow group to formulate its own directions. B. Incorporate group recommendations, but see that objectives are met. C. Redefine roles and responsibilities and supervise carefully. D. Allow group involvement in determining roles and responsibilities but don't be too directive.

This item on the LEAD-Other centers around a situation in a production environment where "tasks done on time" is of paramount importance. This kind of environment is not one that the community college staff member faces every day. Community college personnel get tasks done over extended time periods. Also, the notion of group performance dropping during the last few months is difficult to imagine as each individual job at the community college is so compartmentalized that group performance is generally irrelevant. The fact that there is no category or subcategory of incidents that refer to a performance of "a group" either in the effective or ineffective incidents, illustrates this point.

SITUATION	ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS This leader would....
This leader has been appointed by a superior to head a task force that is far overdue in making requested recommendations for change. The group is not clear on its goals. Attendance at sessions has been poor. Their meetings have turned into social gatherings. Potentially they have the talent necessary to help.	A. let the group work out its problems. B. incorporate group recommendations, but see that objectives are met. C. redefine goals and supervise carefully. D. allow group involvement in setting goals, but would not push.

This item implies that the superior has delegated action steps of planning change to others, and with this delegation poor attendance and a general sense of noncommitment or nonparticipation exists. This would not likely be the case at community colleges. First, presidents have no clear superior, so they cannot be appointed to head a task force. However, given the incidents from the study, presidents have occasion to delegate and, when they do, are viewed as effective leaders. One could imagine another item in which presidents delegated to a task force a staff member, and under the staff member's leadership, the task force was ineffective. Then, with that situation, alternative actions regarding a solution could be posited. The incidents below, from pages 103 and 104, could be used to create a situation.

> Given a need for reorganizing academic departments, the president appointed a committee to study the situation and gave them responsibility to make recommendations for Board of Trustee's approval, resulting in more staff awareness and support for the final plan.
>
> With no apparent written or understood institutional goals, the president formed a committee to study, develop, and present to the Board intermediate and long range plans for development, resulting in a clearer staff awareness and understanding of institutional and individual purposes and direction.

With regard to measuring community college presidential leadership, the illustrations provided show that an instrument such as the LEAD-Other, designed for use across a wide variety of settings, is probably ill-suited. Based on the insight provided by the incidents in this study, a similar "relative merit" analysis of other standardized instruments as well as more specialized instruments, which have already been used in studies of community college presidents (e.g., Beck, 1978; Clark, 1981; and Clothier, 1984) might be determined.

In summary, the above analysis of a few items on the LEAD-Other in the measurement of presidential leadership in the community college setting raises serious concerns over such instruments use.

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