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GRADUATE COLLEGE

PROFILES OF SHORT TENURED PRESIDENTS OF LARGE

STATE CONTROLLED UNIVERSITIES

A DISSERTATION

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in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

BY

JOSEPH LAMAH WALKER, JR.

Norman, Oklahoma

1982

PROFILES OF SHORT TENURED PRESIDENTS OF LARGE

STATE CONTROLLED UNIVERSITIES

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ABSTRACT OF DISSERTATION

PROFILES OF SHORT TENURED PRESIDENTS OF LARGE

STATE CONTROLLED UNIVERSITIES

BY: JOSEPH LAMAH WALKER, JR.

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There is a substantially large turnover of college
and university presidents each year and a large number of
those chief executive officers have only been in office four
or fewer years at the time of their departure. Michael D.
Cohen and James G. March in their research on the college
president, Leadership and Ambiguity, indicated that the
decline in presidential tenure was not as dramatic as is
generally perceived except amongst the larger institutions.
The purpose of this study was therefore to identify factors
that may distinguish any differences between short and long
tenured chief executive officers of state controlled univer-
sities with a student population of 9000 or more students.

There are 197 institutions throughout the United
States that fit this definition. The current presidents of
all 197 schools and any predecessor having left office in
the past six years were the subjects of this study. A
questionnaire developed specifically for this research was
completed by 230 of the 291 possible subjects for a 79 per-
cent return rate.

The group of past presidents was divided into three
sets of subjects. The short tenured president was defined
as having served no more than four years and the long ten-
ured president as having completed eight or more years in
office. The third group of mid-range presidents was created
to maintain a clear separation of the other two groups and
the range of completed years was from five to seven.

The data were analyzed using chi-squares, t-test,
Wilcoxon rank-sum and ANOVA. The study revealed fourteen
factors that reached statistical significance at a .10 level
of confidence. As opposed to the longer tenured president,
the short tenured president: 1) places a higher importance
on board support for controversial decisions; 2) places a

higher importance on the presence of an evaluation procedure; 3) spends more time with students; 4) is more likely to favor students' participation in the selection of faculty and 5) student services personnel; 6) is more likely to favor students' input to graduation requirements; 7) places less importance on the prestige of a school in terms of satisfaction with the position of chief executive officer; 8) places a greater importance on the opportunity to improve the university; 9) found less agreement between what was presented during recruitment and what was actually encountered on the job; 10) was likely to have a father who controlled his own means of livelihood; 11) is apt to have a more educated spouse; 12) is less apt to have a favorable response to inherited staff; 13) is more apt to have received his graduate degree from a state controlled university; and 14) in general, has a more favorable attitude towards students.

These findings can be considered preliminary information in what could be a thorough investigation of the differences between short and long tenured presidents. This present study did not attempt to examine either personality factors or institutional factors that may have contributing effects on the length of tenure. The fact that a number of significant differences was indicated by this study suggests the need for further research that would expand the general scope of this study as well as delve more deeply into the specifics of those areas of differences.

The conclusion of this present study suggests that the short tenured chief executive officer of a large state controlled university is a person less politically inclined, and thus, designated as being a-political. This conclusion was inferred from the data that yielded significant differences between short and long tenured past presidents.

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EDUCATION

1977-present	Doctor of Philosophy Student in Higher Education. Area of major specialization Administration with minors in Student Personnel Services and Counseling. Anticipated date of graduation: December 1982. The University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma.
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1976-77	Masters of Education in Community Counseling. West Texas State University, Canyon, Texas.
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National Association of Realtors

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

x

LIST OF TABLES

xi

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

PROFILES OF SHORT TENURED PRESIDENTS OF LARGE

STATE CONTROLLED UNIVERSITIES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Problem

Presidential turnover and the selection of a good
candidate to fill a presidential vacancy in an American
college or university have long been topics of interest.[1]
As early as 1899 Henry A. Stimson wrote:

> The fact that some nine or ten of them are in the
> field searching for presidents, with evident dif-
> ficulty in finding them, would indicate that there
> is uncertainty as to just what is wanted, or that
> the evolution of the requisite type of man has not
> kept pace with the evolution of the college.[2]

Walter J. Greenleaf reported a presidential turnover rate
in higher education of 8 percent for 1935, while the rate

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[1]Joseph F. Kauffman, At the Pleasure of the Board
(Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1980),
p. 15.

[2]Henry A. Stimson, "The Evolution of the College
President," The American Monthly Review of Reviews 19, 4
(April 1899): 451.

for state controlled colleges for that same year was reported to be 9.4 percent.[1] In 1958, Harold W. Stoke suggested that there were about 350 presidential vacancies in that year, and, with there being approximately 3000 institutions, this would have yielded a rate of vacancies of about 11.5 percent.[2] The 1979-80 Education Directory: Colleges and Universities, prepared by the National Center for Education Statistics, reports a turnover rate of 13.4 percent for presidents of four-year institutions.[3] Stoke pictures the situation aptly when he stated that "college presidents change almost as frequently as football coaches."[4]

The length of service for college presidents has had a great deal of attention, and though many writers have reported dramatic declines in the tenures of college presidents, Michael D. Cohen and James G. March suggest that the reported drops since 1900 have only really occurred in the presidencies of large universities with enrollments of 9000 or more students.[5] What is of particular concern is that

[1]Walter J. Greenleaf, "New College Presidents," School and Society 43, 1098 (January 1936): 61.

[2]Harold W. Stoke, The American College President (New York: Harper and Brothers Publishers, 1959), p. 18.

[3]National Center for Education Statistics, Education Directory: Colleges and Universities (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1980), p. xxxv.

[4]Stoke, The American College President, p. 17.

[5]Michael D. Cohen and James G. March, Leadership and Ambiguity (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1974), pp. 162-163.

there has come to be a large contingent of presidents depart-
ing their office early. Cohen and March point out that
"with respect to tenure, there appears to be a series of
five-year waves of similar shape but increasing amplitude.
The peaks occur at 4, 9, and 14 years of service."[1] In 1967,
Joseph Kauffman interviewed 32 presidents who had just com-
pleted their first year in office. In preparation for his
1980 book, he recontacted these 32 presidents to ascertain
their present positions. Thirteen, or 40 percent, had left
office.[2]

Presidential turnover poses several problems. First,
there is the concern for the operational discontinuity of
the institution. Robert Birnbaum believes that succession
in administrative positions can lead to instability and con-
flict.[3] The most immediate problem this raises, of course,
is the scramble to fill the vacancy:

> Anticipatory recruitment for administrative posts
> has had little acceptance. Rare indeed is the uni-
> versity or college ready to fill an administrative
> vacancy without a prolonged, expensive often frantic
> search.[4]

Since most presidents are recruited from other administrative

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[1]Ibid., p. 174.

[2]Kauffman, At the Pleasure of the Board, p. 16.

[3]Robert Birnbaum, "Presidential Succession: An Insti-
tutional Analysis," Educational Record 52, 2 (Spring 1971):
133.

[4]David C. Knapp, "Management: Intruder in the Academic
Dust," Educational Record 50, 1 (Winter 1969): 58.

positions from outside the hiring institution, a vacancy in one college, when it has been filled, has very likely created the same problems by another vacancy at some other campus.[1] Succession is not an isolated event.

Another problem has to do with the effectiveness of the incumbent president coupled with the fact that his position is so tenuous. "Precariousness in office may also diminish the vigor and modify the policies of a president during his tenure."[2] This precariousness can educe a waste of potential leadership, not only as embodied within individual presidents, but as the group of higher education leaders, because the high turnover coupled with the prospect of short tenure can discourage future candidates from entering this administrative field. These are potentially serious problems because "the college and university president is a crucial role that is more important than ever before."[3]

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study is to identify those factors that may be contributing to the resignation of the short tenured president of a large state controlled

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[1] Harold L. Hodgkinson, "Institutions in Transition" New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1971), p. 268.

[2] Stoke, The American College President, p. 19.

[3] Kauffman, At the Pleasure of the Board, p. 2.

university and that distinguishes him from the president who
is persisting for an average or longer term in office.

Definition of Terms

College, University--The terms college or university
may on occasion be used interchangeably, but in either case
they will refer to four-year institutions of higher educa-
tion.

Persistence--There are several figures reported in
the related literature as to the average length a college
president serves in office. Eight years is within that range
and for the purpose of this study that figure will opera-
tionally define the persistent president.

Large University--A large university will be any
four-year college or university with a student enrollment
of 9000 or more.

Short Tenure--For the purpose of this study, the
vocable, short tenure, will refer to a completed term of
office that is four calendar years or less, that is, no
more than forty-eight months.

President--For this study, the term president will
refer to the chief executive officer of a single college
campus as opposed to the chief administrator of a multi-
campus system.

Limitations of the Study

Those factors that contribute to the rationale behind the decision on the part of a president to resign his office can certainly be both numerous and complex. It would be presumptuous to believe that one could identify all, or even a major portion, of these contributing factors.

It is widely recognized that personality of an individual can play a crucial role in the behavior of a person. It can also be safely assumed that the personality of a college president will in part determine his behavior in office and even in his reactions to events or factors that might influence his resignation. One should be aware that a major factor in the resignation of the short tenured presidents is likely to be closely related to the personality of the individual, and after due consideration, it was decided to not include any tests or individual items in this study pertaining to personality. This omission was made for two primary reasons: 1) College presidents can be assumed to be somewhat test sophisticated and any responses would be suspect, and 2) There are few, if any, truly reliable personality tests. Two other factors also played an important part in this omission: the response rate might be lowered by subjects who object to personality testing and by the fact that an additional test would require more time, a commodity most presidents lack.

The design of this study depends on the participation

of some presidents who have recently resigned and, for any
number of reasons, may wish to disguise the realities of their
departure from office. This can be expected as a normal psy-
chologically defensive behavior that will be considered in
reporting the results of this study.

The lack of a dynamic methodology is imposed by the
constraints of time. Gathering data, in some cases, after
the fact of a resignation could possibly influence the quality
of the responses. It is fully recognized that the use of
a longitudinal approach could avoid many of these biases.

This study is further limited by the number of subjects
available, in that there are considerably less larger univer-
sities that might have experience a turnover in the past one
to six calendar years. A consideration in the design of this
study was the position that any subject who might have left
office more than six years ago may not recall as accurately
or completely as possible some information that may be perti-
nent to this study. Therefore this study is limited to those
subjects only who have had short tenured resignations in the
past one to six years.

Significance of the Study

The tenure and turnover of college presidents have
long been the concern of those interested in the welfare of
higher education. Since this study is an attempt to identify

those factors that may be contributing to an early resignation
which might be a potential problem, not only to the individual,
but to the institution as well, the findings could contribute
to that broad body of knowledge useable as a basis for deci-
sion making in the recruitment, evaluation, and retention
of academic leaders in higher education.

CHAPTER II

RELATED LITERATURE

A survey of the literature on the college presidency
reveals a number of common themes: problems of the office,
selection and qualifications, evaluation, normative statis-
tics, desired qualities, and general reminiscences. Most
of this literature, with the exception of studies reporting
normative statistics, are subjective reports based on per-
sonal observations and opinions. There is a noticeable lack
of studies or research based on a scientific methodology
dealing directly with the college presidency. Kiell, who
reported on the periodical literature of the same subject
matter for the period of 1932 to 1957, made the same gen-
eral observations.[1]

Since the problem of this study has not been specif-
ically dealt with in the literature, it is of value to this
research to cover a broad selection of materials as a

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[1]Norman Kiell, "Periodical Literature on the College
President, 1932-1957," School and Society 86, 2130 (April
1958): 177.

background. This wide range of materials can provide clues to identifying those factors that might be contributing to the early resignations of college presidents. This survey of the literature is designed to focus on those possibly contributing factors, and thus, no claim to report nor summarize in their entirety the contents or contributions of any of the surveyed articles or books is made. Pertinent literature is reported according to the following organizations: The American Institution (History of the American College, Complexity of the University Today, The Future); The College President (The President's Profile, Personality, The Job, Tenure); Presidential Evaluation; The Selection Process (Fit with the Institutional Needs); and Implications of the Literature.

The American Institutions

The American university is a dynamic institution. Its present state exists as a result of its history, the people who have and do interact with it, and the larger culture whose influence helps to shape its course. In The American College President Harold W. Stokes states that "no one will understand the college president in America, his services and his responsibilities, without understanding the nature of colleges and universities themselves. The

men and their institutions are inseparable. . . ."[1]

History of the American College

Largely patterned after England's Oxford and Cambridge, Harvard's founding in 1636 marked the beginning of American higher education.[2] It was also at Harvard in 1640 that Henry Dunster became the first person to hold the title and position of college president.[3] Before the time of the American Revolution, Harvard was joined by eight other colleges, all sharing and giving the American institution a number of common elements.[4]

With the exception of Pennsylvania, these nine colonial colleges were all founded by Protestant denominations. They were established essentially to train future ministers for the churches. For the most part these early colleges "were shaped by aristocratic traditions and they served the aristocratic elements of colonial society."[5]

Rudolph suggests that the early colleges failed to

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[1]Stoke, The American College President, p. 3.

[2]Frederick Rudolph, The American College and University (New York: Vintage Books, 1962), p. 3.

[3]Kauffman, At the Pleasure of the Board, p. 4.

[4]Harvard was joined by William and Mary in 1693, Yale in 1701, Pennsylvania in 1740, Princeton in 1746, Columbia in 1754, Brown in 1764, Rutgers in 1766, and Dartmouth in 1769.

[5]Rudolph, The American College and University, p. 18.

become popular for several reasons. First of all, the aris-
tocratic nature was not appealing to the individualistic
American of that time nor did the curriculum appeal to these
men of practical inclination.[1] The colonial college "had
also to compete with the early discovery that the American
frontier was a potential and remarkably accessible source of
material abundance."[2] "Nothing about colonial America sug-
gested that the college was going to become a characteristic
American institution nor that in time it would be a popular
American institution."[3]

Clark Kerr suggests that there are four distinct
features of American governance of colleges and universities
and two of these had their roots in the foundings of the
early colleges: boards of control drawn primarily from out-
side academic life and from outside governmental authority;
and the strong role of the president, who is appointed for
an unspecified term of office as a full-time executive with
a relatively large administrative staff.[4] These two fea-
tures are strongly rooted in each other.

From the beginning it was intended that the boards
of control would be vested with full power, but in many
cases portions of this power were delegated to the presi-
dent for a number of practical reasons. Because boards of

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[1]Ibid., p. 20.   [2]Ibid., p. 19.   [3]Ibid., p. 20.

[4]Clark Kerr, "Governance and Functions," Daedalus
99, 1 (Winter 1970): 108-109.

control only met occasionally they were out of touch with

the day to day state of academic affairs.[1] The president,

on the other hand, was in continuous contact with all mem-

bers of the college community.[2] He not only administered

the business affairs of the college, but he was very often

the principal instructor. The president became the most

important individual in the early colleges.[3] Ralph Prator

expresses this theme best and adds the additional point that

the person with the greatest potential for stability was the

president:

> In colonial times, the control of colleges increas-
> ingly fell to a board of men chosen from outside the
> professoriate, an idea taken from the Scots. It
> meant, however, that the board was forced to rely
> heavily on the president to assume executive-type
> responsibilities. The board's authority came to be
> essentially centered in the presidential office; and
> . . .
> Also in colonial times, the teaching staff members
> were seldom permanent, and had little professional co-
> hesiveness. Often, the president was one of few per-
> manent members of a college staff. The only secure
> and sustained professional office in American colle-
> giate education was that of the college president
> himself.[4]

These patterns of governance established by the

colonial college along with its predominantly clerical

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[1]John S. Brubacher and Willis Rudy, Higher Education
in Transition (New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1976),
pp. 26-27.

[2]George P. Schmidt, The Liberal Arts College (New
Brunswick: Rutgers University Press, 1957), p. 103.

[3]Ibid., p. 103.

[4]Ralph Prator, The College President (Washington, D.C.:
The Center for Applied Research in Education, 1963), p. 9.

presidents remained the prevailing pattern for a deluge of college foundings following the American Revolution and up to the time of the Civil War.[1] This overexpansion was further encouraged by a decision of the Supreme Court in the Dartmouth College case which assured the right of privately established colleges to exist beyond the control of the states. This same decision also gave "the Court the incidental opportunity of endorsing the American principle of academic organization whereby control resides not in the hands of the faculty but in an external board."[2] Needless to say, most of the colleges founded during this period were set up without the necessary resources for permanent survival.[3]

It was in 1862, when President Abraham Lincoln signed into law the Morrill Act calling for federal aid to agricultural and mechanical colleges, that a new direction was mapped for the American institution. There was already a cry for a change away from the traditional liberal arts curriculum to one that included studies that would prepare the agriculturist, the manufacturer, the mechanic and the

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[1]Brubacher and Rudy, *Higher Education in Transition*, p. 59.

[2]Rudolph, *The American College and University*, p. 211.

[3]Brubacher and Rudy, *Higher Education in Transition*, p. 59.

merchant for their professions.[1] The Morrill Act not only

gave added recognition to the changes already starting to

take root in the curriculum, but also aided directly and

materially a number of state schools. This new direction

had its effect on the administration of the college as well:

> The clergyman president went into discard because
> he lacked skill in the ways of the world, because
> his commitment to the classical curriculum stood in
> the way of the more practical and popular emphasis
> which commended itself to the trustees, and because
> the world in which the colleges and universities
> now moved was more secular, . . .[2]

After the Civil War the administration of higher edu-

cation was still largely a one-man affair.[3] This remained

so, in effect, for much of the remainder of the ninteenth

century and into the early part of the twentieth century.

The Morrill Acts of 1862 and 1890, the secularization and

expansion of the curriculums, and the continued democratiza-

tion of education in general all added together to attract

more and more students to the colleges.[4] The improving

economy aided by a rapidly expanding industrialization also

added to this growth and enthusiasm. As the colleges grew

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[1]Ibid., p. 62.

[2]Rudolph, The American College and University,
p. 419.

[3]Brubacher and Rudy, Higher Education in Transition,
p. 367.

[4]Warren G. Bennis, The Unconscious Conspiracy (New
York: AMACOM, 1976), p. 22.

in size, the operation of these institutions increasingly
required the presidents to surrender the teaching responsi-
bilities to other faculty members and to become more admin-
istratively oriented. It required the presidents to have
financial abilities which included the procurement, invest-
ment and use of funds. These men were also expected to
maintain harmony in an expanding institution developing many
distinct constituencies such as the faculty, trustees, stu-
dents, alumni, and the public. With all this added respon-
sibility, he was still expected to maintain active aggres-
sive leadership.[1]

> The capacity to lead now assumed a tremendous impor-
> tance in college and university affairs. In contrast
> with the modern university, the old college was a
> place where nothing happened and where the president
> by a kind of indifference or remoteness or even super-
> iority to mundane matters performed an effortless role
> in seeing to it that nothing did happen. The new era,
> however, demanded men who knew what they wanted, men
> who were prepared to try the impossible task of being
> the "reconciler of irreconcilabilities," the leader to
> students, faculty, alumni, and trustees--groups that
> too often did not find a common purpose to transcend
> their differences until the president found it for
> them. The collegiate of university organization was,
> at best, a delicate balance of interests, a polite tug
> of war, a blending of emphases, a disunity that found
> unity only through the refinements, the habits, the
> uncertainties of organization.[2]

This business and organizational aspect of higher

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[1]Charles F. Thwing, College Administration (New
York: The Century Company, 1900), p. 55.

[2]Rudolph, The American College and University,
p. 423.

education, essentially brought about by the growth and expansion during the industrial period, required additional non-academic personnel. As this contingent increased in number and administrative importance during the early part of the twentieth century, the "academic personnel--the faculty-- seemed to be declining as a significant group in the administration of higher education."[1] In 1904, William Rainey Harper wrote that "it is contended, with some show of plausibility, that the modern college president is, first and last, a 'boss.'"[2] It is easy to picture this metaphor in the light of the expanding non-academic administrative personnel, but he also stated the reality of the limits placed on the president's power:

> When all has been said, the limitations of the college president, even when he has the greatest freedom of action, are very great. In business matters he is the servant of the trustees of corporation, and his views will prevail in that body only in so far as they approve themselves to their good judgment. In educational policy he must be in accord with his colleagues. If he cannot persuade them to adopt his views, he must go with them. It is absurd to suppose that any president, however strong or willful he may be, can force a faculty made up of great leaders of thought to do his will. The president, if he has the power of veto, may stand in the way of progress, but he cannot secure forward movement except with the cooperation of those with whom he is associated.[3]

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[1] Brubacher and Rudy, Higher Education in Transition, p. 368.

[2] William Rainey Harper, "The College President," Educational Record 19, 2 (April 1938): 180.

[3] Ibid., p. 182.

By the turn of the century the college president had
his hands full with a growing institution, and as his respon-
sibilities began to expand, his job took on that air of
complexity so commonly identified with the same position
today. "Growth fed upon growth, and the answer to the prob-
lems of growth--unless it was to be chaos--was organization."[1]
The first order of business for that period of time might
well be stated as organization. Faculty persons were the
first to get in on the act and many had already started the
procession in the late nineteenth century by forming and
joining a number of professional organizations. Their pre-
occupation with these highly specialized associations often
took attention away from university affairs and in many
cases isolated them from almost any involvement in adminis-
trative matters.[2]

This specialization and isolation was further en-
couraged in a strange way by the new wave of benefactors.
Presidents were busy seeking funds for the institution, and
though there were considerable resources available, as evi-
denced by their successes, the monies often came to the
institution from practical men who earmerked their gifts to
specific areas of interest. "The significance of these and
similar benefactions was measurable in endowment, plant

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[1]Rudolph, The American College and University,
p. 417.

[2]Ibid., p. 427.

expansion, new departments, new professional schools."[1]

The benefactions of the time took another form—gigantic philanthropic foundations that were complete organizations in themselves. They were essentially the product of the early twentieth century and included such notables as the Rockefeller's General Education Board of 1903 ($6,000,000), Rockefeller Foundation of 1903 ($154,000,000), Carnegie Foundation of 1906 ($31,000,000), and Carnegie Corporation ($151,000,000).[2] These foundations helped to shape the financial goals of the colleges most often by requiring some form of matching funds. This gave the presidents one more job—reordering the financial priorities as well as requiring more time away from the campus raising the required matching funds.

The zest for organization continued in order to meet the need for clearer definitions of changing goals as well as group identity.[3] The number and types of professional organizations and associations established during this period reflect this need and give the indication of the degree to which diversification and specialization were taking place in higher education. The scene expanded, and as it did, the requests made upon the president's time and

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[1]Ibid., p. 427.   [2]Ibid., p. 431.

[2]David D. Henry, Challenges Past, Challenges Present (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, Inc., 1975), p. 9.

attention increased without anyone adding any hours to the

clock. The gap was narrowed by the growth of the president's

staff as well as the added number of new specialists in the

non-academic realm of the university. The following list

gives some indication of this phenomenon:

American Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities	1887
National Association of State Universities	1895
Association of American Universities	1900
College Entrance Examination Board	1900
American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers	1910
American Alumni Council	1913
Association of Urban Universities	1914
American Association of University Professors	1915
American Educational Research Association	1915
Association of American Colleges	1915
National University Extension Association	1915
American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business	1916
National Association of Women Deans and Counselors	1916
State Universities Association	1917
American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education	1918
American Council on Education	1918
American Council of Learned Societies	1919
National Association of Student Personnel Administrators	1919
American Association of Junior Colleges	1920[1]

"By 1910, however, the new way was established, al-

though the stability between 1910 and 1930, apart from

enrollment growth, was interrupted by World War I."[2] The

interruption, though it had no far reaching effects on the

administration itself, did mark an acceleration in the

acceptance on the academic scene and in the public

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[1]Ibid., p. 9.   [2]Ibid., p. 7.

expectation of a number of changes in the curriculum, rela-
tionship with government, academic freedom, the development
of professional education and applied research, and external
services.[1] The war inspired one additional and significant
concept--that of some form of national system that could aid
in the coordination of educational efforts. The result was
the establishment of the American Council on Education in
March of 1918. Although the original proposal of the Ameri-
can Association of Colleges was aimed at wartime needs, the
goals of ACE were further articulated in 1921 by its first
director, Samuel Capen:

> The development of the American educational scheme
> has been planless, haphazard. We have always suf-
> fered because of this planlessness. The price that
> we are called upon to pay for our lack of forethought
> and consequent lack of system becomes heavier year
> by year. Unified action has always been impossible
> because there was no unifying agency. There has been
> no means even to create a consensus of opinion. A
> unifying agency has now at last been established. To
> stimulate discussion, to focus opinion, and in the end
> to bring about joint action on major matters of edu-
> cational policy--these are the things that the American
> Council on Education are created to do. . . . This is
> the justification for the Council's existence, or there
> is none.[2]

The next major historical event affecting higher
education in the United States was the Depression of the
thirties. The depression brought with it a number of prob-
lems which required action on the parts of administrators
but it did not necessarily affect any real changes in the

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[1]Ibid., p. 7.   [2]Ibid., p. 10.

administrative structures of higher education. The call for

retrenchment and resultant actions were not too greatly dif-

ferent from the approaches taken in recent times:

> Reduction in cost of maintaining and operating build-
> ings and grounds; elimination of miscellaneous ex-
> penses not directly supporting instruction of students;
> undertaking no new construction except where special
> funds are provided; increasing faculty load by not
> making appointments to vacancies; reducing expenditures
> for travel; reducing clerical help and office expenses;
> rearranging courses to enlarge class size or to offer
> them in alternate years or semesters; postponing pur-
> chase of library books; reducing expenditures for
> publicity bureaus and for university press publications;
> eliminating or reducing appropriations for publication;
> postponing or denying all leave of absence with pay;
> omitting renewal of annual appointments; reducing ex-
> tension and correspondence work; reducing expenditures
> for research; eliminating or reducing extra pay for
> summer sessions; substituting demonstration lectures
> for individual laboratory experiments in large courses.[1]

The events during the twenty-five year period that

followed World War II have had some of the most dramatic

and far reaching effects on the American college and univer-

sity. The war itself brought the Federal government into a

closer relationship with higher education than ever before

through the establishment of wartime scientific laboratories.

In the time of the Depression a "number of research-oriented'

activities were authorized under the direction of colleges

and universities. . . .," and even though the impact was not

great, it was perhaps the groundwork for this newest ef-

fort.[2] Kerr states that this event along with the Morrill

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[1]Ibid., p. 20.   [2]Ibid., p. 26.

Act of 1862, "beyond all other forces, having molded the modern American university system and made it distinctive."[1] These involvements of the Federal government were significant because they were the starting points of a long and active history of "federal grant" monies to higher education.

The significant points of Federal entry on the college and university scene are marked very precisely for this period. The first was the research monies mentioned above which grew to account for 83% of the nation's research budget in the natural sciences.[2] "Federal funds to universities for science reserach were about $100 million in 1950; about $5 million in 1960; and about $1.5 billion in 1970."[3] The second entry point was the legislation known as the G.I. Bill of Rights in 1944 which not only contributed to the most rapid student growth in the history of higher education, but it provided funds indirectly via the student tuitions to both private and public colleges.[4] Next was Sputnik, which encouraged the acceleration of research in

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[1]Clark Kerr, The Uses of the University (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1963), p. 46.

[2]Brubacher and Rudy, Higher Education in Transition, p. 231.

[3]Clark Kerr, "The Administration of Higher Education in an Era of Change and Conflict," in Conflict, Retrenchment, and Reappraisal (Champaign: University of Illinois, 1979), p. 14.

[4]Ibid.

general as well as helped with an emphasis on the need for passage of the National Defense Education Act of 1958, which provided for student loans.[1] The provisions of this 1958 Act were later encompassed in the Higher Education Act of 1965, which greatly broadened the support programs beyond that of defense needs to include a wide range of items reflecting the national interests of the Federal government.[2] This all added up to the fact that this new "force" in higher education, the Federal government, was to be contributing by 1970, about "one-fourth of all funds spent by institutions of higher education."[3]

As stated above, this twenty-five year period witnessed the greatest growth in student population of colleges and universities in history, and this influx of students, a large number of whom came to be known as "wartime babies," necessitated a physical plant growth as well as an expansion of the faculties. Bennis gives a good example of what happened at the University of Cincinnati for that period: from 1941, "when my own board chairman joined the trustees, she has seen UC's budget rise from $3 million to $120 million. Its student body increased in the sixties alone by 75

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[1]Stoke, The American College President, p. 5.

[2]Henry, Challenges Past, Challenges Present, pp. 121-122.

[3]Kerr, "Governance and Functions," p. 112.

percent, its faculty by 96 percent, its space by 300 percent."[1] Stoke wrote in 1959 that "higher education has become big business and the period of expansion just ahead will make the present pale by comparison. The annual investment in college plants and facilities begins to read like a public works program (indeed, it is!); . . ."[2] He was right on the mark, and the decade that followed showed the resident college enrollment expand from 3.2 to over 8.4 million. This increase represented an increase in the percentage of eighteen to twenty-one year-olds in the population attending college from 33.2 to 48.0 percent.[3]

Size and growth certainly carry with them a number of problems, but these problems are more related to the management of the numbers than to cause any significant change in the basic principles of administration. The presidential office saw changes in this twenty-five year period, but the times during the student revolts in the late sixties perhaps highlighted and were responsible for these changes more than any of the other events of this period. One recurring theme leads the list and it was the diffusion of power. "A major conflict on the presidential role involves the 'presentation of self' on campus as the leader

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[1]Bennis, The Unconscious Conspiracy, p. 23.

[2]Stoke, The American College President, p. 4.

[3]Brubacher and Rudy, Higher Education in Transition, p. 378.

when, increasingly, the decision-making process is moving

out of the president's hands and into those of state boards

of trustees, private boards in private institutions, faculty

senates, and so on."[1] Some felt the power had gone in one

particular direction--the faculty--more than in any other.

"The fact is, of course, that authority in the university is

extremely diffuse. Most of the power is held by the faculty

because the primary business of the institution is teaching

and research."[2] Brubacher and Rudy explain that the facul-

ties gained this greater power because they began to "control

appointments and promotions, academic calendars, work sched-

ules, even certification for entrance to many professions."[3]

With this shift of power, "presidents became supporters

rather than instigators of faculty endeavor."[4]

In any case, this diffusion of power had its greatest

toll on the president because the president had the most

power to lose.[5] Kerr feels that since World War II there

have been "more claimants for power than ever before, and

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[1]Harold L. Hodgkinson, "Presidents and Campus Govern-
ance," Educational Record 51, 2 (Spring 1970): 165-166.

[2]William J. McGill, "The Courage to Lead," College
and University Journal 9, 4 (Fall 1970): 39.

[3]Brubacher and Rudy, Higher Education in Transition,
p. 375.

[4]John D. Millett, New Structures of Campus Power (San
Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, Inc., 1978), p. 37.

[5]Kerr, "Governance and Functions," p. 114.

there is no more power to be divided."[1] The developments

which took place in the academic community, during the six-

ties especially, are very much related to what was happening

in the larger community. Certainly the conflict in Vietnam

and the civil rights movements of minority groups led the

list. Where there was freedom of thought there was certainly

a divergence of interests. In an atmosphere where "doing

your own thing" prevailed, a "maelstrom of factions" grew,

and where there was any interaction, the different groups

would "relate to each other in ways predominantly politi-

cal."[2] "Each assumption to power and all claims to author-

ity challenge all others, producing new constellations,

further jockeying for position, and a climate both bracing

and anxious."[3]

During the latter part of this twenty-five year per-

iod, and perhaps in the time of the greatest turmoil, the

institutions certainly yielded some powers, but they sur-

vived. Many presidents resigned office, but most of them

persisted. Students grew long hair and protested, but the

hair has since shortened. Faculties formed committees, and

some of them are still meeting and coming up with solutions.

And finally, J. Victor Baldridge wrote Power and Conflict in

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[1]Ibid., p. 111.

[2]Bardwell L. Smith, "New Governance, Old Problems,"
Liberal Education 58, 4 (December 1972): 478.

[3]Ibid., p. 479.

the <u>University</u>, describing all this confusion, and christened
his conclusions the "political model" of the university.

Complexity of the University Today

Today, it appears that most writers wish to describe
the status of the university in terms of its complexity and
problems. It is often the case that observers tend to look
at the pathologies of a situation in order to gain a better
understanding in general, and that seems to be particularly
true in the social sciences. This observed complexity of
the university today is often seen as being imposed from
without and examples cited are the "demands for expanded
urban studies and better medical care in poverty areas, for
legal aid and pollution control, for black and other nonwhite
recruitment and for black studies--the many intense and di-
verse idealisms which add to the pressures on the universi-
ties, ordinarily without adding to their resources."[1] "From
uncertain beginning, administration of the American univer-
sity has become one of the great challenges of our times.
While that challenge may be matched by frustration and over-
shadowed by turbulence, few would argue its critical

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[1]David Riesman, "Predicaments in the Career of the
College President, in <u>The State of the University: Author-
ity and Change</u>, edited by Carlos E. Kruybosch and Sheldon
L. Messinger (Beverly Hills: Sage Publications, 1968),
p. 74.

importance."[1]

Besides the forces from outside the university, some

attribute the complexity of governance as being "inherent

in the nature of instruction, research, creative activity,

and public service. . ."[2] Some institutions have themselves

so expanded that their leaders often compare their operations

to "big business" and claim that they are "run like a corpo-

ration."[3] The literature goes on in an endless array of

explanations of why all this complexity has arisen and all

the problems that exist. The one factor central to this

issue is simply the impact of size itself:

> Size, though neither the primary determinant of
> organizational characteristics nor the immediate
> antecedent of growth, has significant consequences,
> once given magnitudes of organization are attained.
> Problems that arise from the sheer number of people
> involved in a collective enterprise are manifold. . .:
> (1) the loss of the primary group in motivating
> people to achieve organizational goals; (2) inade-
> quacies and errors in communication among organiza-
> tional members and subgroups; (3) weaknesses in
> integration, that is, in utilizing the skills, knowl-
> edge, and experience of organizational members; and
> (4) problems of social traffic and congestion. In
> addition, organizational attempts to handle these
> difficulties through formalization create additional
> problems.[4]

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[1]Clyde J. Wingfield, The American University (Dallas: Southern Methodist University Press, 1970), p. ix.

[2]John D. Millett, Management, Governance and Leadership (New York: AMACON, 1980), p. 174.

[3]"John Silber: After '60 Minutes,'" Educational Record 62, 2 (Spring 1980): 21.

[4]Daniel Katz and Robert J. Kahn, The Social Psychology of Organizations (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1978), pp. 107-108.

Growth in the size of the university alone has placed an increasing emphasis upon "proven executive ability," which by some is considered to be the most important qualification in administration.[1] This is particularly true if one believes as some do that "massive size is an enemy of effective governance in the academic world with its variety of activities, interests, and personalities. A campus of large size might best be viewed as a series of communities within a common environment, rather than as a single monolithic community; this is how Harvard is organized."[2] "One of the troubles with an empire is that its leaders tend to lose touch with local realities," and this, too often, can only be dealt with by expanding and carefully "selecting, organizing, and coordinating an able corps of associates in administration; in delegating to those associates" the necessary authority to achieve institutional goals.[3]

The problems associated with size, naturally, have not affected every campus nor is size of an individual campus the only problem. Kerr states that many presidents are concerned with the phenomenon of systemwide

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[1]Thomas E. Blackwell, College and University Administration (New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1966), p. 15.

[2]Kerr, "Governance and Functions," p. 120.

[3]Harold W. Dodds, The Academic President--Educator or Caretaker (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, Inc., 1962), pp. 20-21.

administration. This new scheme brings with it the possible loss of autonomy and the "imposition of more and more controls."[1] Simply, it adds more "publics" for the president to deal with and further divides the already diffused power of campus governance. Lee and Bowen point out that there are both pros and cons to the multicampus, but most interesting, however, is the fact that the nine systems they studied comprised approximately 25 percent of all students in public four year colleges and universities.[2] Corson raised the question as to whether, in the face of this "substantial growth in the size and complexity," the "organizational forms and practices are adequate to enable these institutions to meet tomorrow's problems."[3]

Besides the inherent rigors in the largeness of the university, today there are two real, concrete measurable problems: changes in the growth rate of enrollments and the dollar bill. The instability of the nation's financial picture not only directly affects the supply and flow of money going to higher education from all sources, but with

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[1]Clark Kerr, "Presidential Discontent," in Perspectives on Campus Tension, edited by David C. Nichols (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1970), pp. 146-147.

[2]Eugene C. Lee and Frank M. Bowen, Managing Multicampus Systems (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, Inc., 1975), p. 3.

[3]Kerr, "The Administration of Higher Education in an Era of Change and Conflict," pp. 17-18.

the impending shortages in funds, the clamor for a fair
share adds further confusion to and places even more demands
upon the administration. Dwindling funds affect every part
of the campus: hiring of new faculty goes down while its
average age rises; new programs have to be replacements
rather than "add-ons;" and to top the list, the old argument
of more money for more students goes by the wayside because
of the leveling of enrollments.[1] Add to this the inflation
rate and the administrator soon has his already full hand
overflowing. A survey of 900 college presidents reveals
that the largest portion of them felt that the continued
leveling of enrollments and funds impaired the quality of
students, faculty, and programs. But by far, the majority
felt that programs are the most affected.[2]

Where does this leave contemporary administration?
"First, and quite simply is the fact that even small insti-
tutions have grown so complex that one individual can no
longer comprehend the many faces of institutional concerns."[3]
The multi-million dollar operations of today require even
larger staffs just to keep account of and direct the flow

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[1]Kerr, "The Administration of Higher Education in an
Era of Change and Conflict," pp. 17-18.

[2]Lyman A. Glenny, John R. Shea, Janet H. Ruyle, and
Kathryn H. Freschi, Presidents Confront Reality (San Fran-
cisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, Inc., 1976), p. 88.

[3]Lewis B. Mayhew, "Emerging Concepts of the Presi-
dency," Journal of Higher Education 45, 5 (May 1971): 355.

of monies. The administration has to spend more and more
time away from the campus securing funds, providing account-
abilities, playing public relations and interpreting the
institution to its various and expanded publics, and simply
trying to keep abreast of the changing climates. The job of
the college president under these complex conditions has be-
come overwhelmingly involved, and Reisman feels that too many
of these presidents come to the positions as "amateurs" with
little or no formal training in administration.[1] This fact
may very well account for the number of short tenured presi-
dents, who, having tried to adjust to the demands of the
office, simply find themselves too unprepared for the rigors
and elect to exit.[2]

The above description of the university today repre-
sents only a small sampling of the total picture. When a
learned scholar like John J. Corson spends the entire space
of one book on just the area of governance, there is cer-
tainly no meaningful way to do the subject justice in only
a few short pages. However limited, it does describe a
condition in which a notable percentage of the presidents
of large state controlled universities find but brief so-
journs in the office.

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[1]Reisman, "Predicaments in the Career of the College
President," p. 76.

[2]Mayhew, "Emerging Concepts of the Presidency,"
p. 360.

The Future

If change has been one of the causative factors in the present state of higher education, which is so beset with complexity and problems, then one thing can certainly be predicted with an overwhelming degree of accuracy. It is simply that the future will either continue to be beseiged with complexity and problems, or there will simply be no future. The latter is unthinkable; the former is simply the expected outcome in a free and dynamic society. Corson wrote in 1975 that "one can see forces that are altering what society will expect of the colleges and universities in 1980 and the changes in the structure of the higher education industry that are taking place to enable institutions to meet those expectations."[1] The same degree of observation can be made for the future today. "In looking at the stress, strain, and crisis in higher education from 1930-1970 as the backdrop for an unpredictable and uncertain future, three elements stand out: the oscillations in growth and their consequences; the constancy of change; the significance of public evaluation and the nature of public interaction."[2]

What do we know for certain? One can pretty well

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[1] Corson, The Governance of Colleges and Universities, p. 217.

[2] Henry, Challenges Past, Challenges Present, p. 148.

document and project the growth of student populations from known birth statistics today. (See Table 1, following page.) There is a clear indication that enrollments will decline during this decade, and the most dramatic consequence of this decline will be the dimunition of the finances of colleges and universities. First, the income will be affected because of a drop in the number of tuition payments as well as the income from auxiliary sources like housing, and second, most state supported schools' budgets are determined at least in part by enrollment figures. The decreased funds will necessitate cutbacks and the first target is likely to be the faculty since fewer students will also affect student-teacher ratios. Most writers agree that any faculty reductions will be accomplished by simply not filling any occurring vacancies--a common practice even today. Cyert projects a bit of optimism by pointing out that this same decline in student populations will also affect the rate of teenagers entering the work force in the 1980s, having a positive impact on unemployment.[1] This should be a boost to our economic situation by helping to stabilize the ups and downs of inflation--another contributor to financial problems.

There are other forces and trends as well that are observable today and that are likely to continue to have

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[1] Richard M. Cyert, "Managing Universities in the 1980s," in Leadership in the 80s (Cambridge: Institute for Educational Management, 1980), p. 65.

TABLE 1

TOTAL ENROLLMENT IN FOUR-YEAR INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER
EDUCATION, WITH ALTERNATIVE PROJECTIONS, BY SEX
AND ATTENDANCE STATUS OF STUDENTS AND CONTROL
OF INSTITUTION: UNITED STATES,
FALL 1963 TO 1986

[In thousands]

Year (fall) (1)	Total enrollment (2)	Sex		Attendance status[1]		Control	
		Men (3)	Women (4)	Full-time (5)	Part-time (6)	Public (7)	Private (8)
1963[2]	3,921	2,422	1,499	2,760	1,161	2,331	1,590
1964[2]	4,291	2,630	1,661	3,041	1,250	2,593	1,698
1965[2]	4,748	2,896	1,852	3,440	1,308	2,928	1,820
1966[2]	5,064	3,047	2,017	3,701	1,362	3,160	1,904
1967[2]	5,399	3,218	2,181	3,973	1,426	3,444	1,955
1968[2]	5,721	3,387	2,333	4,235	1,486	3,784	1,937
1969[2]	6,028	3,555	2,473	4,442	1,586	4,050	1,978
1970[2]	6,358	3,726	2,631	4,650	1,708	4,326	2,032
1971[2]	6,463	3,758	2,705	4,787	1,676	4,438	2,024
1972	6,459	3,695	2,764	4,732	1,727	4,430	2,029
1973	6,590	3,718	2,872	4,757	1,833	4,530	2,060
1974	6,820	3,791	3,029	4,861	1,959	4,703	2,117
1975	7,215	3,984	3,231	5,080	2,134	4,998	2,217
1976	7,129	3,831	3,298	5,053	2,076	4,902	2,227

Intermediate alternative projection[3]

1977	7,294	3,931	3,363	5,117	2,177	5,025	2,269
1978	7,315	3,944	3,371	5,089	2,226	5,045	2,270
1979	7,358	3,967	3,391	5,076	2,282	5,081	2,277
1980	7,400	3,983	3,417	5,061	2,339	5,116	2,284
1981	7,386	3,983	3,403	5,009	2,377	5,111	2,275
1982	7,337	3,956	3,381	4,933	2,404	5,083	2,254
1983	7,257	3,915	3,342	4,837	2,420	5,036	2,221
1984	7,155	3,861	3,294	4,726	2,429	4,970	2,185
1985	7,042	3,799	3,243	4,610	2,432	4,899	2,143
1986	6,924	3,740	3,184	4,483	2,441	4,834	2,090

Low alternative projection[3]

1977	7,159	3,891	3,268	5,030	2,129	4,933	2,226
1978	7,123	3,884	3,239	4,972	2,151	4,912	2,211
1979	7,088	3,878	3,210	4,920	2,168	4,893	2,195
1980	7,059	3,868	3,191	4,874	2,185	4,878	2,181
1981	6,982	3,844	3,138	4,798	2,184	4,830	2,152
1982	6,876	3,795	3,081	4,705	2,171	4,763	2,113
1983	6,755	3,738	3,017	4,605	2,150	4,685	2,070
1984	6,610	3,668	2,942	4,489	2,121	4,589	2,021
1985	6,463	3,592	2,871	4,375	2,088	4,493	1,970
1986	6,318	3,517	2,801	4,265	2,053	4,397	1,921

High alternative projection[3]

1977	7,388	3,959	3,429	5,175	2,213	5,090	2,298
1978	7,508	4,004	3,504	5,204	2,304	5,179	2,329
1979	7,622	4,054	3,568	5,223	2,399	5,264	2,358
1980	7,728	4,095	3,633	5,234	2,494	5,343	2,385
1981	7,764	4,115	3,649	5,192	2,572	5,375	2,389
1982	7,752	4,105	3,647	5,113	2,639	5,374	2,378
1983	7,702	4,075	3,627	5,006	2,696	5,347	2,355
1984	7,617	4,031	3,586	4,873	2,744	5,295	2,322
1985	7,510	3,976	3,534	4,723	2,787	5,230	2,280
1986	7,377	3,919	3,458	4,539	2,838	5,171	2,206

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Projection of Educational Statistics to 1986-87, 1978 Edition (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1978), pp. 22-23.

an affect on higher education in the future: increasing

concentration of students in public institutions, more and

more regulation by governmental agencies, more and more de-

pendence on public sources of support, heavy concentration

of students on large campuses of traditional form, more and

more defensive reactions internally, a new generation of

students, and more and more pressure to serve the student

market;[1] shift in the goals of higher education to further

reflect Western democracy's agenda of opportunity and equal-

ity, and centralizing under broader systems to facilitate

sectional and national interests and planning;[2] and expan-

sion of knowledge, more accountability, changes in the char-

acteristics of students, and pressures of homogenization.[3]

This certainly adds up to a big list for the administrator

and there are those who believe that our present era of

austerity is lasting and that the universities "will have to

adjust to it."[4]

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[1]Clark Kerr, "Base Point: 1980," AGB Reports 22, 2
(March-April 1980): 12.

[2]Frederick E. Balderston, "Challenge for the Univer-
sities: Managing Through the Transition of the 1980s,"
International Journal of Institutional Management in Higher
Education 3, 1 (May 1979): 21-22.

[3]Corson, The Governance of Colleges and Universities,
pp. 217-221.

[4]Pierre Cazalis, "The Universities in the 80s: Man-
aging Austerity," International Journal of Institutional
Management in Higher Education 3, 1 (May 1979): 38.

Warren Bennis believed, as early as 1971, that one of the major adjustments would probably manifest itself in the general functions of the contemporary organization. He dramatically introduced his thesis as the "coming death of bureaucracy." He depicts bureaucracy as a "useful social invention that was perfected during the industrial revolution to organize and direct the activities of a business firm."[1] The components were: a well defined chain of command, a system of procedures and rules, a division of labor, promotion based on technical competence, and impersonality in human relations. Bennis sees the demise of bureaucracy as coming because of four relevant threats:

1. Rapid and unexpected change.
2. Growth in size where the volume of an organization's traditional activities is not enough to sustain growth. (A number of factors are included here, among them: bureaucratic overhead; tighter controls and impersonality due to bureaucratic sprawls; outmoded rules and organizational structures.)
3. Complexity of modern technology where integration between activities and persons of very diverse, highly specialized competence is required.
4. A basically psychological threat springing from a change in managerial behavior.[2]

These threats can be seen manifesting themselves currently, but the last one is perhaps the most subtle because of:

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[1] Warren G. Bennis, "The Coming Death of Bureaucracy," in Emerging Patterns of Administrative Accountability, edited by L. H. Browder, Jr. (Berkeley: McCutchan Publishing Corp., 1971), p. 542.

[2] Ibid., p. 543.

(a) A new concept of <u>man</u>, based on increased knowledge of his complex and shifting needs, which replaces an oversimplified, innocent, pushbutton idea of man.

(b) A new concept of <u>power</u>, based on collaboration and reason, which replaces a model of power based on coercion and threat.

(c) A new concept of <u>organizational values</u>, based on humanistic-democratic ideals, which replaces the depersonalized mechanistic value system of bureaucracy.[1]

Whether Bennis' model of the organization of the future ever comes into full reality or not there is still the widely held notion that good leadership will be needed as "proactive rather than reactive," and that leaders will be needed to "mobilize the human resources of the organization, managers the nonhuman."[2] The sixties brought about a loss of confidence not only in many of our institutions but in their leadership as well. One writer suggests there has been some, more recent turnabout:

> I would like to believe that since 1974 there has been some return to an understanding that organizations need leadership. And I would like to believe that more and more persons have come to realize that leadership cannot satisfy every individual and his interests or meet all needs all the time.[3]

This possible turnabout is certainly needed inasmuch as "the future of higher education is tied to public

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[1]Ibid., p. 545.

[2]Cyert, "Managing Universities in the 1980s," p. 65.

[3]Millett, <u>Management, Governance and Leadership</u>, p. 22.

confidence in its mission and social contribution, and to

its effectiveness in operation and management to achieve

those ends."[1]

The College President

> The university president in the United States is
> expected to be a friend of the students, a colleague
> of the faculty, a good fellow with the alumni, a
> sound administrator with the trustees, a good speaker
> with the public, an astute bargainer with the founda-
> tions and the federal agencies, a politician with the
> state legislature, a friend of industry, labor, and
> agriculture, a persuasive diplomat with donors, a
> champion of education generally, a supporter of the
> professions (particularly law and medicine), a spokes-
> man to the press, a scholar in his own right, a public
> servant at the state and national levels, a devotee
> of opera and football equally, a decent human being,
> a good husband and father, an active member of a
> church. Above all he must enjoy traveling in air-
> planes, eating his meals in public, and attending
> public ceremonies. No one can be all of these things.
> Some succeed at being none.[2]

Kerr made the above statement in his 1963 Godkin

Lectures at Harvard and his point that the college presi-

dency is a complex and often tedious job only emphasizes

the broad range of qualities required in the individual who

occupies such a position. This "super-human" individual

fits no specific mold in all the characteristics, and though

he shares with his colleagues many of the same pressures of

the position, he is apt, more often than not, to respond to

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[1] Henry, Challenges Past, Challenges Present, p. 159.

[2] Kerr, The Uses of the University, pp. 29-30.

the pressures in an entirely individualistic manner. Presidents do adjust and succeed in coping with the rigors of the job, but one such "adjustment" is often the exit of their office after only a short stay. Why? This section focuses on the job of the president itself and the individual who occupies it as a basis for identifying those factors that may contribute, not only to the complexity of the position, but to that particular decision by some presidents to resign early.

The President's Profile

Just about every aspect of the presidency has been either studied or examined in the literature. One that is most common deals with demographic descriptions of the individual. Some literature containing this type of information reports composite profiles as the principal objective, while others report this type of information in conjunction with a number of different topics. The data most commonly collected includes such items as: age, length of service, fields of study, amount of education, work experience both preceding and succeeding the presidency, and family backgrounds. Possibly the most useful organization for the presentation of this type of literature is a chronological one in that the order may reveal possible trends. The data reported in the literature review below are summarized in six tables at the

conclusion of this section.

One of the earlier articles was written by a president of Indiana University as a report for the 1914 meeting of the National Association of State Universities. The article dealt with the involvement of faculty in the governance of higher education in connection with a criticism of presidential autocracy. William Lowe Bryan's point was simply that presidential tenure was so short as compared to other professions that faculty need not worry themselves about the autocratic president--they were not expected to last very long anyway! Bryan reports findings on 350 past presidents as well as 65 current presidents of the association at that time:

> Of 350 past presidents, 3 served 40 years or more.
> Of 350 past presidents, 20 served 30 years or more.
> Of 350 past presidents, 34 (10%) served 25 years or more.
> Of 350 past presidents, 75% served 15 years or less.
> Of 350 past presidents, 25% served 4 years or less.
> Of 350 past presidents, 12% served 2 years or less.
> Of 350 past presidents, 5% served 1 year or less.
> The average term of service for the 350 past presidents was 11+ years.
> The average age of 247 past presidents at death was 68+ years.
> Of 348 past presidents, 25% were in office at the age of 65 years. That is, 75% of the men could not have passed from the presidency to a Carnegie Pension.
> The average age of 65 past presidents in these institutions is 53+ years (1913).[1]

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[1]William Lowe Bryan, "Share of Faculty in Administration and Government," in Transactions and Proceedings of the National Association of State Universities, edited by Guy Potter Benton (Burlington, Vermont: Free Press Printing Company, 1914), p. 93.

In 1928, S. A. Kruse and E. C. Beck did a study comparing the president of state teachers colleges with those of state universities. There were 68 and 25 respectively in the sample that showed some striking differences. More than half of the state teachers college presidents came from a city superintendency while none of the university presidents had that background. The university presidents served an average of 7.2 years as compared with 11.2 years for the other group. There was also shown a marked difference in the highest degree earned. The majority (64 percent) of these university presidents had received doctorates while the majority (57 percent) of the state teachers college presidents' highest degree was the masters.[1]

A study of the presidents of four-year colleges looked at biographical sketches given in the 1936-37 editions of Leaders in Education or Who's Who in America. This netted Luther E. Warren 481 presidents to describe. He noted that 81 percent of those serving twenty-five years or longer had been in education prior to the presidency while only 73 percent had of the group serving five or less years. His other data are reflected in Tables 2 through 7 (pages 51-55).[2]

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[1]S. A. Kruse and E. C. Beck, "Study of the Presidents of State Teacher Colleges and of State Universities," Peabody Journal of Education 5, 5 (March 1928): 358-361.

[2]Luther E. Warren, "A Study of the Presidents of Four-Year Colleges in the United States," Education 58, 7 (March 1938): 427-428.

Jay C. Knode compared forty-seven presidents serving in 1941 with their counterparts of the same institution serving in 1916 to determine any possible trends for that twenty-five year period. For his sample he noted a marked increase in the number of presidents who had come to their jobs from other administrative positions and a decrease of those who took their position from the professoriate. He also noted a marked increase in the number of presidents who had taught professional subjects, which included law, business, and education. Knode also noted several institutional changes for that same period of time: enrollment--from 94,600 to 258,000; faculty--from 8,600 to 25,200; and institutional property value--from $111,000,000 to $448,000,000.[1]

The writer reviewed two other studies completed in the 1940s. Jesse E. Adams and H. L. Donovan did a survey of administrative and organizational structures of universities and the respective duties of boards of control, administrative, and faculty groups. Sixty-three universities were included in the sample. It was noted that over half of the presidents had served for six years or less and one-fourth of the group had held their office for only three or less years. Another observation was the occupations of board members. Of the total of 565 board members, 140 or

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[1]Jay C. Knode, "Presidents of State Universities," Scientific Monthly 58, 3 (March 1944): 218-220.

25 percent were lawyers and 125 or 22 percent were business-
men.[1] The other study was done in 1948 and it was simply a
descriptive look at 505 presidents' biographical data pub-
lished in the current volume of Who's Who in America. The
data Beverly Waugh Kunkle compiled is included in the
tables.[2]

In 1967 Nicholas J. Demerath, Richard W. Stephens,
and Robb Taylor published a book that dealt with the power
structures of the university and changes in governance. The
book was based on a number of individual studies and surveys,
and as a part of their presentation, they presented data on
270 presidents which has been incorporated into several of
the tables at the end of this section.[3] In the same year
Francis P. King looked at responses of 813 presidents of
colleges offering a four-year liberal arts degree who were
part of a study conducted by the Association of American
Colleges and the Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association.
King's study was simply a normative description of the

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[1]Jesse E. Adams and H. L. Donovan, "The Administra-
tion and Organization in American Universities," Peabody
Journal of Education 22, 6 (May 1945): 328-343.

[2]Beverly Waugh Kunkle, "The College President as He
Is Today," AAUP Bulletin 34, 2 (Summer 1948): 344-349.

[3]Nicholas J. Demerath, Richard W. Stephens, and
Robb Taylor, Power, Presidents, and Professors (New
York: Basic Books, Inc., 1967).

presidents and his data is reflected in the tables.[1]

One of the more extensive studies of the college president was done for the New York State Regents and employed the use of questionnaires, interviews, and activity logs to study the 185 presidents in the sample. The study covered many aspects of the presidency including: what is done on the job, preparation and career patterns, satisfaction, effectiveness of performance in the job, and how the president was recruited and selected. James A. Perkins noted that presidents seemed to be "persons who identify themselves as professional administrators of higher education" by the fact that the most popular graduate field of study reported was education and that there was a good record of attendance at institutes and workshops for administrators.[2]

In 1968 Mark H. Ingraham published a book which was a comprehensive study of the total compensation, both in salary and fringe benefits, of the presidents and the chief administrative officers in colleges and universities. His study was based on 6,000 responses to questionnaires, 813 of which were from college presidents. It was one of the

[1]Francis P. King, "President's Profile," Liberal Education 53, 3 (October 1967): 403-410.

[2]James A. Perkins, College and University Presidents: Recommendations and Report of a Survey (Bethesda, Maryland: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 015 552, 1967).

first and most thorough treatments of this subject.[1]

The origin from which college and university presidents come was the topic of a study by John H. Carmichael. The study concerned itself with the origin and mobility of junior college presidents, using top-level business posi-tions as a comparison. When comparing the paternal grand-father of the two groups, it appeared more likely that the business executive's grandfather was a professional or busi-ness owner than the junior college president's. The junior college president's father was more likely to be a profes-sional man, white collar worker, or farmer while the father of the business executive was likely to be an executive himself or own his own business.[2]

Guy W. Tunnicliffe and John A. Ingram wanted to study any possible trends taking place in the presidency for the 1955-65 decade by surveying the presidents and their imme-diate predecessors in institutions who had changes in leadership during this period. The sample included 891 presidents of four-year colleges and universities and the data included academic background, field of specialization, and position held prior to the presidency. The most sig-nificant change was an increased number of presidents who

[1]Mark H. Ingraham, The Mirror of Brass (Madison, Wisconsin: The University of Wisconsin Press, 1968).

[2]John H. Carmichael, "Origin and Mobility of Presi-dents," Junior College Journal 39, 8 (May 1969): 30-32.

came to the office from another administrative position as opposed to coming from the professoriate.[1]

A 1968 dissertation by Michael R. Ferrari was later published in 1970 and was an extensive look at college presidents and their origins. A large number of normative factors were compiled on 760 college and university presidents. One area of the study was like that of Carmichael's, the occupation of the president's father. It appeared that the presidents in Ferrari's study came from a somewhat higher social class background than that of the junior college president.[2] Data from this study are included in the tables.

Another dissertation written by Bruce Taylor Alton considered the reasons behind the resignation of 49 college presidents. He reported a number of demographic factors but did not correlate them to the reasons for resignation which included: employment alternatives, physical stamina, beliefs in limited, effective tenure, changes in job requirements, a difference in the expectation and reality of the job, political stifling, fund raising responsibilities, and

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[1]Guy W. Tunnicliffe and John A. Ingram, "The College President: Who Is He?," Educational Record 50, 2 (Spring 1969): 189-193.

[2]Michael R. Ferrari, Profiles of American College Presidents (East Lansing, Michigan: Michigan State University Business Studies, 1970).

constituent relations.[1]

Gary D. Brooks conducted a survey of 853 senior college and university presidents in 1972. He received 535 usable responses which were incorporated into the profiles of the president and his institution. Brooks noted, as a result of his survey, some "obvious areas of concern: the lack of representation of minority group members and women at the top level of administration, and the apparent high mortality rate among institutional heads coupled with the surprising revelation that 36% did not hold rank in an academic department and were therefore probably not eligible for tenure.[2]

Michael D. Cohen and James G. March prepared an extensive report for the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education on the college presidency. It was a comprehensive look at the job of the president, how it functions, and how it is perceived by both the president and others. In particular it looked at 42 institutions and their presidents, including the 167 full tenured presidents that served these institutions from 1900 to 1971. Their conclusions about the presidency and its many facets are reflected in the title--

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[1]Bruce Taylor Alton, "A Consideration of Motivating Factors in Resignation of the Academic Professional Role," (Ph.D. dissertation, The Ohio State University, 1971).

[2]Gary D. Brooks, "A Descriptive Profile of Senior College Presidents," College and University Journal 13, 1 (January 1974): 30-31.

Leadership and Ambiguity, and they summarized their study

with the following observations: the American college presi-

dency is a reactive job, the presidency is a parochial job,

presidents are academics, the presidency is conventional,

the presidency is important to the president, and the presi-

dency is an illusion.[1]

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[1]Cohen and March, Leadership and Ambiguity, pp. 1-2.

TABLE 2

AVERAGE AGE OF ACCESSION FOR COLLEGE PRESIDENTS

Year	Reference	Sample	Mean	Median
1945	Adams (1945)	62 "leading universities"		46
1946	Krunkle (1949)	499 colleges	44.81	
1969	Ferrari (1970)	760 presidents	45.1	
1969	Carmichael (1969)	70 junior colleges	45	
1970	Alton (1971)	48 resigned presidents	40	

TABLE 3

ESTIMATES OF AVERAGE AGE OF COLLEGE PRESIDENTS

Year	Reference	Sample	Mean	Median
1913	Bryan (1914)	65 university presidents	53+	
1928	Kruse and Beck (1928)	25 universities		58.5
1938	Warren (1938)	300 presidents		52.5
1945	Adams (1945)	62 "leading universities"		57
1946	Krunkle (1948)	499 colleges		55.59
1966	King (1967)	723 presidents	53	54
1969	Ferrari (1970)	760 presidents	52.9	
1969	Carmichael (1969)	70 junior college		53
1972	Brooks (1974)	535 senior college & univ.	50.9	50.9

TABLE 4

MAJOR FIELD OF STUDY OF COLLEGE PRESIDENTS
by percent

Field	1916[a]	1941[a]	1967[b] Pub.	Prv.	1967[c] UnG.	Grd.	1967[d] Sml.	Lgr.	1969[e]	1971[f]	1974[g]
Humanities	32.9	7.7	7.7	23.0	36	24	9.9	12.5	29.3	34.4	44
Social Science	28.6	30.8	27.1	25.8	19	14	20.3	29.5	11.1	12.5	15
Physical Science	27.1	12.8	14.0	9.8	9		9.9	10.2	10.1	9.4	17
Education			37.3	17.6	8	28	15.9	12.5	23.7	18.8	8
Theology			.7	16.5			23.6	6.8	15.5	12.5	
Law			1.4	2.0			5.5	6.8	2.4	3.1	
Medicine			.3	.5			.5	2.3	.4		
Applied Fields	11.4	48.7							5.5		
Engineering			4.8	.1	11		4.4	6.8		3.1	
Business			3.3	1.8			8.8	9.1		3.1	
Agriculture							1.1				
Other						15			2.0	3.1	7

[a]Knode, p. 219. [c]Perkins, p. 409. [e]Ferrari, pp. 69-71. [g]Brooks, p. 30.
[b]King, p. 409. [d]Demerath, p. 242. [f]Alton, pp. 226-227.

52

TABLE 5

HIGHEST DEGREE EARNED BY ACADEMIC PRESIDENTS
by percent

Degree	1916[a]	1928[b] Univ.	Tch.C.	1938[c]	1941[a]	1948[d]	1955[e]	1965[e]	1967[f] Publ.	Priv.	1970[g]	1971[h]	1974[i]
No Degree	2	4	3.9	1.26	0	1.44							1
Bachelor	19	8	23.5	16.51	15	12.32			1.8	5.1	5	4	4
Master	28	24	57	38.68	26	27.72	32	20	6.7	22.9	16	23	17
B.D.				7.55		6.37							
Ll.B.	0			.94		1.85							
Doctorate	49	64	15.5	35.06	47	50.31	55	72	85	61.7	72	73	72
Ph.D.	49				45				63	56.6	58		58
Ed.D.	0				2				22	5.1	11		13
Professional	2				4		13	8			7	0	5
J.D.	0				4						2		1
M.D.	2				0						.5		0
Th.D.											4.5		4

[a]Knode, p. 219.   [d]Kunkle, p. 346-347.   [g]Ferrari, p. 66.
[b]Kruse, p. 361.   [e]Tunnicliffe, p. 191.   [h]Alton, p. 79.
[c]Warren, p. 427.   [f]King, p. 408.   [i]Brooks, p. 31.

53

TABLE 6

POSITION HELD IMMEDIATELY PRECEDING PRESIDENCY
by percent

Position	1916[a]	1928[b] Univ.	1928[b] Tch.C.	1938[c]	1941[a]	1948[d]	1967[e]	1969[f]	1970[g]	1971[h]	1974[i]
EDUCATION	85	96	80	80	83	80	90	78	85	93	79
Public			52			5	8	5	8		2
College	85	96	28		83	75	73	73	77	93	77
Administration	49				64	27.7	67	61	67	63	59
College President	19				13		8				5
Academic Admin. And/Both	30				51		35	41	44	37	40
Non-Academic Admin.							11	20	23	26	14
Teaching	36				19	47.3	6	13	10	30	18
NON EDUCATION	15	4	19	20	17	19.9	9	21	14	7	10
Clergy				16		13.9		2	8	2	4
Business & Indus. & Gov.			19			6		19	6	5	6
UNKNOWN OR MISCELLANEOUS							1				11

[a]Knode, p. 218. [d]Kunkle, pp. 347-348. [g]Ferrari, p. 101.
[b]Kruse, p. 359. [e]Perkins, p. 51. [h]Alton, p. 82.
[c]Warren, p. 427. [f]Tunnicliffe, p. 193. [i]Brooks, p. 31.

54

TABLE 7

POSITION HELD IMMEDIATELY
SUCCEEDING PRESIDENCY
by percent

Position	King[a]	Alton[b]	Cohen[c]
Terminal position	51.9	38	55
College Administration		25	13
Other Presidency	8.4	12	
Development		4	
Academic		3	
Consortium		4	
Higher Education Association		2	
Chancellor		1	
Student Affairs		1	
Faculty	9.4	7	14
Ministry		3	8
Business, government, etc.	29.9	19	10
Foundation Officer		6	
Government		6	
Educational Consultant		4	
Business & Industry		3	
Leave of Absence	0.7	2	
Unknown		6	

[a]King, p. 407.   [b]Alton, pp. 70 & 83.

[c]Cohen and March, p. 183

Personality

There is little dispute about the overall importance of personality in the successful functioning of the individual. Specific references to the desired personal qualities of college administrators, although limited, are generally found in books and articles on leadership in higher education, biographies and writings of famous college presidents, and more recently in selection criteria.[1] The importance of good personality characteristics in the leadership of higher education is widely recognized, and Peter M. Blau reflects that position when he stated that "the personal qualities of the president can decisively influence the fate of an academic institution, for better or worse, and they have much to do with how he exercises his authority and how much authority he has to exercise."[2]

The interaction and importance of the personality of an individual with an institutional or organizational setting is incorporated into the theories of Jacob W. Getzels and E. G. Guba:

> We conceive of the social system as involving two
> major classes of phenomena, which are at once

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[1]Phillip H. Coffman, "Should Personality Characteristics Be Considered in the Training and Selection of Administrators," College and University Personnel Association Journal 29, 3 (February 1978): 47.

[2]Peter M. Blau, The Organization of Academic Work (New York: John M. Wiley and Sons, 1973), pp. 178-179.

conceptually independent and phenomenally interac-
tive. There are, first, the institutions with
certain roles and expectations that will fulfill
the goals of the system. Second, inhabiting the
system there are the individuals with certain per-
sonalities and need-dispositions, whose interactions
comprise what we generally call "social behavior."
Social behavior may be apprehended as a function of
the following major elements: institution, role, and
expectation, which together constitute the nomothetic,
or normative, dimension of activity in a social sys-
tem; and individual, personality, and need-disposi-
tion, which together constitute the idiographic, or
personal, dimension of activity in a social system.[1]

A graphic representation of this model is presented in Fig-

ure 1.

Normative (Nomothetic) Dimension

Personal (Idiographic) Dimension
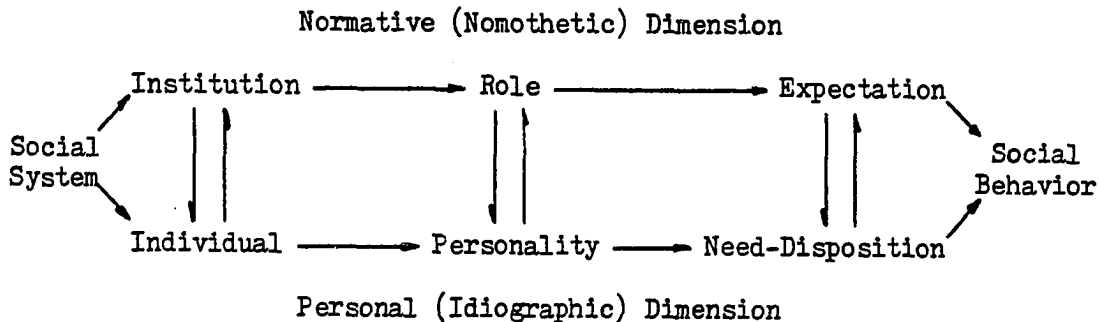
Figure 1. Getzels and Guba Model[2]

Getzels defines personality as the "dynamic organi-

zation within the individual of those need-dispositions

that govern his unique perceptions and reactions to the

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[1]Jacob W. Getzels and E. G. Guba, "Social Behavior
and the Administrative Process," The School Review 65, 4
(Winter 1975): 424.

[2]Jacob W. Getzels, James M. Lipham, and Roald F.
Campbell, Educational Administration as a Social Process
(New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1968), p. 80.

environment and to its expectation."[1] The function of "need

dispositions" in the psychological makeup of the individual

has had the attention of other theorists as well, most not-

ably that of Abraham Maslow. Anne Roe, in the Psychology of

Occupations, states that "of particular importance for the

psychology of occupations is Maslow's arrangement of basic

needs in a hierarchy of prepotency."[2] She further declares

that "in our society there is no single situation which is

potentially so capable of giving some satisfaction at all

levels of basic needs as is the occupation."[3] What the

writer is attempting to demonstrate is the vital part that

a career plays in the life of an individual and that "career

choices represent an extension of personality and an attempt

to implement broad personal behavioral styles in the context

of one's life work."[4] The implication is simply that a per-

son's individual needs must be met, to some degree, by his

occupation. There must be some measure of satisfaction.

What are the personal qualities ascribed to the

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[1]Jacob W. Getzels, "Conflict and Role Behavior in
the Educational Setting," in Readings in the Social Psychol-
ogy of Education, edited by W. W. Charters, Jr., and N. L.
Gage (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1963), p. 53.

[2]Anne Roe, The Psychology of Occupations (New York:
John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1956), p. 25.

[3]Ibid., p. 31.

[4]Samuel H. Osipow, Theories of Career Development
(New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1973), p. 41.

presidency, the position of leadership in a college or university? Ralph M. Stogdill, in his review of leadership literature, found the following traits to have the highest overall correlation with leadership: originality, popularity, sociability, judgement, aggressiveness, desire to excel, humor, cooperativeness, liveliness, and athletic ability.[1] Among the ten most desirable characteristics wanted in a college president by 403 professors responding to a questionnaire were: integrity, high moral and intellectual ideals, self-confidence and firmness, and warmth of personality.[2] Alva Curtis Wilgus includes the following in his list of presidential prerequisites: a quality of humility, honesty, courage, optimism, patience, cordiality, sense of humor, and "the president must be personable, for the making of a good impression is essential."[3] Donald E. Walker said that "good presidents can range in personality flavor from horseradish to creme de menthe," but he also declares that effective administrators are people: whose egos are not bulky, who employ wisdom and diplomacy rather

[1]Ralph M. Stogdill, "Personal Factors Associated with Leadership: A Survey of the Literature," The Journal of Psychology 25 (First Half 1948): 63.

[2]Tyrus Hillway, "What Professors Want in a President," Intellect 101, 2349 (April 1973): 307.

[3]Donald E. Walker, The Effective Administrator (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, Inc., 1979), pp. 2-5.

than strength, and who have a sense of self-confidence.[1]

Whatever the desired qualities are, they are very apt to differ in each situation and at each college or university. One of the concerns is that there exists a match between the personal characteristics of a president and the needs of his office and institution because "the fact remains that a major source of conflict derives from discrepancies between the basic personality structure of an individual and the demands of his organizational role."[2]

Only a few studies have been made of the personality characteristics of higher education administrators. Phillip H. Coffman employed Cattell's Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16 PF) to assess the personality characteristics of 32 doctoral students in higher education, 68 non-education doctoral students, and a general population of 989. He found that two of the sixteen personality factors showed a significant difference between the higher education majors and other doctoral students. The higher education majors were more inclined to be outgoing, cooperative and warm-hearted, and have a strong ego strength associated with

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[1]James M. Lipham, "Leadership and Administration," in Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, edited by Daniel E. Griffiths (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1964), p. 128.

[2]Coffman, "Should Personality Characteristics Be Considered in the Training and Selection of Administrators?," p. 48.

"persons who are responsible, consistent, persevering, and well organized."[1]

For a doctoral dissertation, John Mark Lono also used the 16 PF with 38 presidents of small colleges who had been in office for at least two years. The purpose of his study was to examine certain environmental influences on the role performance of college presidents. Lono suggested that presidential leadership depends on the support of his or her constituents and that that support was dependent in some way on the personality of the president as well as the perception of his personality held by the constituency. His study examined the perceptions of the students, faculty, and trustees and:

> For all three groups there was a significant corre-
> lation between constituency judgements and constit-
> uency perceptions for five of the variables--outgoing
> (as opposed to reserved), emotionally stable (as op-
> posed to affected by feelings), venturesome (as op-
> posed to shy), tough-minded (as opposed to tender-
> minded), and relaxed (as opposed to tense).[2]

Personality characteristics of educational adminis-
trators, educational researchers, and the general population
were compared by Kinnard White with the use of the 16 PF.

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[1]Coffman, "Should Personality Characteristics Be Considered in the Training and Selection of Administrators?," p. 48.

[2]John Mark Lono, "A Study of the Relationship Between Presidential and Constituency Perceptions of Selected College Presidential Personality Factors and Constituency Judgments of Presidential Leadership" (doctoral dissertation, New York University, 1976), p. 85.

It was found that both educational groups differed from the general population in 10 of the 16 factors. There were also significant differences between the administrators and researchers sufficient enough for White to declare that "there appears to be developing significant agreement concerning the personality characteristics that distinguish between administrators and researchers."[1]

Charles E. Skipper developed an instrument, consisting of personality characteristic items recorded on a bipolar scale, that measures the following 10 personal qualities: "responsibility, integrity, self-control, intellectual efficiency, flexibility, personal relations, leadership, motivation to achieve, avoidance of problems, and creativity."[2] Twenty administrators from the level of dean or above were selected according to the judgments of colleagues and grouped as either "most effective" or "least effective." The "most effective" administrators tended to be judged as more ethical, honest, calm, alert, insightful, tolerant, confident, goal oriented, willing to make decisions, and more inventive than the "least effective."[3]

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[1]Kinnard P. White, "Personality Characteristics of Educational Leaders: A Comparison of Administrators and Researchers," School and Society 73, 3 (Autumn 1965): 299.

[2]Charles E. Skipper, "Personal Characteristics of Effective University Leaders," College and University 51, 2 (Winter 1976): 139.

[3]Ibid., p. 141.

The Job

The job of the college president, as has already been touched upon earlier, is a complex and multifaceted position. The following portion of a report was written by a fifteen member committee at the University of Kentucky and was subsequently adopted by the board in 1943. It is included here, despite its age, because it so carefully outlined the specific duties and responsibilities of a college president. Naturally, this report has probably changed considerably since that time, but even then, as now, the specific responsibilities of any president would have varied according to the institution and its particular needs at some given point in time:

> The President of the University is the executive officer of the institution and of all the work associated with it, and ex officio member of all faculties. As such executive officer, he shall have full charge of the administrative activities of the University; and all deans and directors, the Comptroller, the Librarian, and all other subordinate officers and agents of the University shall be subject to his supervision and direction. He shall also serve as the official medium of communication between the Board of Trustees, on the one hand, and the University Faculty, administrative officers, individual members of the staff, student organizations, and students, on the other. He is responsible to the Board for administering the educational and business policies of the institution, subject to the law* and the University rules and regulations prescribed by the Board of Trustees....
>
> It is the function of the President to see that the rules and regulations of the Board of Trustees and of the University Faculty are enforced. It is also his duty, directly or through the various University officers, to administer (a) all budgetary matters.... (b) all personnel matters, including appointments, promotions, transfers, changes of pay, retirement,

and staff discipline; (c) the application of University rules relating to students; (d) the admission and classification of students; (e) registrations and class assignments; (f) curricula and courses of study; (g) research and teaching; (i) University commencements and other convocations; (j) student discipline; (k) student activities; (l) student social life; (m) University publications; (n) the University calendar and modifications to it; (o) public relations; (p) athletics and military training; and to perform all other administrative functions, whether expressly enumerated herein or not, necessary or appropriate for the effective operation of the University....[1]

We have just witnessed what a president's job might look like on paper. What is it in reality? One way some investigators have described the job of the president is to observe the activities of the day and record the amount of time spent in each activity. Two studies in particular have taken this approach: Cohen and March with their 42 school sample, and a study of New York college presidents by Perkins. With little exception, the two studies are very similar in their findings. Cohen and March asked four basic questions to determine how presidents spent their time: where do presidents spend their time, in what size group, with whom, and at whose initiative?[2]

Both studies estimated the work week to be about sixty hours. The time spend between 8:00 a.m. and 6:00 p.m. was logged by secretaries in the 42 college sample and averaged: 16 percent at home, 35 percent in his own office, 12

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[1]Adams and Donovan, "The Administration and Organization in American Universities," pp. 239-240.

[2]Cohen and March, Leadership and Ambiguity, p. 127.

percent in other offices on campus, 14 percent somewhere else in town, and 22 percent out of town.[1] The size of the group with whom the presidents meet for both studies can be seen in Table 8.

TABLE 8

TIME SPENT BY PRESIDENTS BY NUMBER OF
PERSONS PRESENT ACCORDING TO
SECRETARIAL LOGS[1]
by percent

Number of People	Perkins (%)	Cohen and March (%)
President alone	28	25
One other person	25	35
Two or more others	48	40

Combining the estimated percentages of time spent with different categories of persons resulted in the following: approximately 35 percent with outsiders; 31 percent with constituents (trustees--6 percent, students--6 percent, and faculty--19 percent); and 34 percent with administration.[3] This allocation of time, more often than not, controlled by persons other than the president, is regulated by six major factors according to Cohen and March:

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[1] Ibid., p. 128.

[2] Ibid., p. 129, and Perkins, College and University Presidents: Recommendations and Report of a Survey, p. 30.

[3] Cohen and March, Leadership and Ambiguity, p. 127.

1. <u>The size of the school</u> Presidents in relatively
large schools develop a style that is both somewhat
more "local" to the college and somewhat less personal.
They see their job in somewhat more authoritarian and
somewhat more academic terms. Presidents in rela-
tively smaller schools use a style that is oriented
less to the internal operation of the school and is
somewhat more personal. They see their job in some-
what more mediative and in somewhat less academic
terms.
2. <u>A daily and weekly cycle</u> Presidents do adminis-
tration first in the day and first in the week, switch
to their external roles later in the day and later in
the week, and reserve their time increasingly for
"political" activities as the day draws into the eve-
ning and the week draws into the weekend.
3. <u>General expectations within the culture</u> Presi-
dents work a normal workweek that is approximately
the same as that reported by faculty members. The
structure of their workweek depends heavily on the
initiation of others.
4. <u>Role expectations of presidents</u> Presidents expect
(and feel that others expect of them) that they will
be administrators, politicians, and entrepreneurs.
They divide their time more or lese equally among the
roles. Presidents, and the others around them, expect
presidents to perform the royal functions of hearing
petitions, granting formal assent, and confirming
positions.
5. <u>The ambiguity of the job</u> Neither presidents nor
the people around them have much idea about the rela-
tionship between success and presidential behavior.
Unable to point to serious attributes of success, they
learn to point to attributes of "effort."
6. <u>The pleasure of presidents</u> Presidents generally
enjoy and seek out the emotional perquisites and the
acknowledgment of office. This phenomenon directly
affects the overall pattern of time allocation by
the president.[1]

Another way to describe the job of a president is by

the acknowledged skills required in order for him to perform

efficiently and effectively. Charles E. Skipper identified

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[1]Cohen and March, <u>Leadership and Ambiguity</u>, pp. 147-
148.

seven broad areas of administrative skills: planning abil-

ity, knowledge about position, organization and management,

leadership, judgement, human relations, and quality of

work.[1] John D. Millett suggested the following: planning,

organizing, staffing, communicating, budgeting, coordinat-

ing, supervising, and reporting.[2] Algo D. Henderson and

Jean Glidden Henderson believe the principle officers of

the institution need to: be an educator; have imagination;

be an organizer; be a keen judge of people; understand com-

munication; have some understanding of finances, especially

the preparation and administration of a budget; and under-

stand public relations. No matter from what perspective one

views the job of the president, it is involved and requires

a broad range of responsibilities, knowledge, skills, and

time to accomplish the day's work and then some.[3]

Perceptions of the Presidency

> With the communication of role expectations from
> role set to focal person, the first half of the
> role episode is completed. The second half has to
> do with the perceptions and behavior of the focal

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[1]Charles E. Skipper, "Administrative Skills of Ef-
fective and Ineffective University Leaders," College and
University 52, 3 (Spring 1967): 277.

[2]Millett, Management, Governance and Leadership,
p. 114.

[3]Algo D. Henderson and Jean Glidden Henderson,
Higher Education in America (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass
Publishers, 1975), pp. 190-191.

person. He or she receives, with greater or lesser distortion, the role expectations sent. It is the received role that is the immediate source of in- fluence and motivation of behavior (insofar as it is influenced by members of the role-set).[1]

"The idea of role as a set of expected activities associated with the occupancy of a given position assumes substantial agreement among the relevant people as to what those activities are."[2] How the job of the presidency is perceived by others and transmitted to the president and the president's perception of the job himself, will have a great deal to do with how he performs in the position and the de- gree of satisfaction that he derives from it. What can be of particular significance is the presence of conflict be- tween what is expected by others and what is expected and/or performed by the incumbent. Considering the variety of publics with whom the president has contact, there is little doubt that conflicts will arise. Conflict, as well as the threat of conflict can be a decisive factor not only in the president's effective performance, but whether he may per- sist in the position. How others and the press himself perceives the office of the presidency will be presented simply by offering their own words:

Cohen and March--researchers:

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[1]Katz and Kahn, The Social Psychology of Organiza- tions, p. 220.

[2]Ibid., p. 200.

If college presidents accept conventional management wisdom, . . . they will think of themselves as administrators, mediators, political leaders, neighborhood chairmen, or some combination of these roles.[1]

Charles H. Monson, Jr.--Vice-President, University of Utah:

A university administrator's training, therefore, could be that of a businessman, a mediator, or a faculty member, depending on which metaphor is thought to be most important. But more than that, the kind of training he receives will determine, in large part, the type of institution he administers.[2]

Clyde J. Wingfield--Vice-President, University of Miami:

The president's role has moved from "first among scholars" to a set of responsibilities more akin to the political executive.[3]

Tyrus Hillway--researcher--consensus of 400 professors:

A college without a leader is like a ship without a rudder. It will drift aimlessly. But the leader must be thoroughly competent and absolutely honest with a true sense of the direction in which the vessel should be steered.[4]

Herbert A. Simon--professor:

A substantial part of this nation's resources are being devoted to higher education. The nation has a right to expect more than talented amateurism and an occasional Mark Hopkins in return. A college president who tries to make education professional should not expect a unanimous vote of thanks from his faculty, or even his students. But if a man's first aim in life were to be comfortable and to be liked, he would choose an easier occupation than

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[1]Cohen and March, Leadership and Ambiguity, p. 277.

[2]Charles H. Monson, Jr., "Metaphors for the University," Educational Record 48, 1 (Winter 1967): 29.

[3]Wingfield, The American University, p. ix.

[4]Hillway, "What Professors Want in a President," p. 306.

college president. Leadership that persuades an institution to seize the opportunities before it can be a source of deep satisfactions, satisfactions that will repay the effort, stress and even conflict required to achieve them.[1]

John Silber--President--University of Boston, 1971- :

⸱On the personal level there has been surprisingly little that has been satisfying. These have not been the happiest years of my life. They really have not. . . because it becomes an increasingly important and serious job to do. It's no longer the hand-holding, ceremonial job that it used to be . . . . Now it's an exciting and an important position. As a result, it is more attractive to serious people than it used to be.[2]

Henry M. Wriston--President--Brown University, 1937-1955:

There is room in higher education however for the professional administrator--the person who gives his whole working life to it. In this career he can find profound satisfactions, his own share of good, clean fun and a rich deep-down joy--as well as some frustration, many disappointments and occasional heartbreak.[3]

Ferrell Heady--President--University of New Mexico, 1968-1975:

The role of the college or university president in modern society has long been recognized as complex, difficult and crucial. The basic characteristics of the office have not changed, nor have the requirements for coping with its demands.[4]

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[1]Herbert A. Simon, "The Job of a College President," The Educational Record 48, 1 (Winter 1967): 78.

[2]"John Silber: After '60 Minutes,'" pp. 23-24.

[3]Henry M. Wriston, "Looking at the College Presidency in Retrospect," Association of American Colleges Bulletin 41, 4 (December 1955): 518.

[4]Ferrell Heady, "The Role of the President Today," in The American University, edited by Clyde J. Wingfield (Dallas: Southern Methodist University Press, 1970), p. 71.

Donald E. Walker--President--Southeastern Massachusetts
University, 1972- :

> In my view, presidents must accept responsibility
> for the creation of structures, social climates
> and atmospheres within universities to enable them
> to function at their highest peak of creative effi-
> ciency.[1]

Joseph C. Burke--President--State University College at
Plattsburgh, State University of New York, 1974- :

> A college or university is the hundreds of faculty
> and staff members and students who work and learn
> on its campus. The institution's success in trans-
> mitting old and discovering new knowledge, in honor-
> ing the talents and sensibilities of students and
> faculty members and in providing myriad services to
> society depends on the continuous creativity of the
> faculty, students, and staff rather than on the uni-
> lateral actions of a single person, however brilliant
> or energetic. A primary role of a college or univer-
> sity president is to stimulate that creativity and
> to guarantee its continuance.[2]

W. H. Cowley--President--Hamilton College, 1938-1945:

> Everyone expected me to be involved in the details
> of the institution, to see them whenever they
> wanted to be seen, to attend innumerable committee
> meetings, to introduce every visiting speaker, to
> greet every returning alumnus, and, to boot, to
> entertain all faculty members and their spouses at
> lunch or dinner at least once a year. Most college
> presidents continue to live this kind of harried,
> hurried, routine-full life with the result that
> they are always weary, always short of time to do
> the crucial business that they alone can do, and

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[1]Donald E. Walker, "Myths of the College Presi-
dency," in The College President: Expectations, Realities
and Myths (Bethesda, Maryland: ERIC Document Reproduction
Service, ED 154 649, 1978), p. 14.

[2]Joseph C. Burke, "Coping With the Role of College
or University President," Educational Record 58, 4 (Fall
1977): 389.

that is, to organize, to coordinate, and to carry forward the institution to new intellectual and social fronts.[1]

Warren Bennis--President--University of Cincinnati, 1971-1977:

A modern university president is expected to have practical vision, a good track record in administration, and national prominence as a scholar. He must be a good public speaker, fundraiser, writer, analyst, friend and colleague, manipulator of power, planner, co-worker, persuader, and disciplinarian. He must have an attractive family and an indefatigable and effortlessly sociable wife. He must be a Money man, Academic Manager, Father Figure, Public Relations Man, Political Man, and Educator.[2]

Norman P. Auburn--President--University of Akron, 1951-1971:

If the president really believes that education is the hope of the future and the means by which our society can ultimately bring about solutions to the manifold problems now confronting mankind, how can he turn his back on a chance to serve so important a cause?[3]

Theodore M. Hesburgh--President--Notre Dame University, 1952- :

The presidency of a college or university can be a great vocation: exciting, demanding, surprising, at times very satisfying, and occasionally great fun. Of course, it is also very hard work, tiring to the point of exhaustion, repetitive, and often exasperating. The one thing the college presidency cannot be accused of is dullness. And even in times of crises the job need never be hopeless if a president brings the right attitudes to his work.[4]

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[1]W. H. Cowley, Presidents, Professors and Trustees (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, Inc., 1980), p. 66.

[2]Warren G. Bennis, The Leaning Ivory Tower (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, Inc., 1973), p. 17.

[3]Norman P. Auburn, "The University President--Mission Impossible," Educational Record 52, 2 (Spring 1971): 157.

[4]Theodore M. Hesburgh, "The College Presidency: Life Between a Rock and a Hard Place," Change 11, 4 (May-June 1979): 43.

Leadership

There are many views and conceptions of the presidency, but with little exception the most commonly used description of the office holder is that of "leader." Cohen and March suggested and described eight different metaphors for university governance and leadership and with each one there was a different set of required attributes for the leader.[1] The point is that whatever view a person holds of the structure of a university, it rarely exists without some conceptualized form of leadership providing the direction. It is recognized that "the organization without effective leadership is in trouble,"[2] and specifically, some feel "we need leadership in higher education to combat the growing apprehension that we do not know where we are going."[3]

Leadership in psychological or sociological terms is more often difficult to define than it is to describe like so many other individual and group phenomena. But higher education literature is quick to point to one distinctive element common to most situations of leadership--change.

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[1]Cohen and March, Leadership and Ambiguity, pp. 29-40.

[2]Fred E. Fiedler, Leadership and Effective Management (Glenview, Illinois: Scott Foresman, 1974), p. 1.

[3]Terry Sanford, "Cooperative Leadership," in Leadership for Higher Education, Edited by Roger W. Heynes (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1977), p. 12.

"Leadership involves a reordering or organizing of a new way of acting, as well as the need to overcome resistance to change."[1] This emphasis on change is stressed as the element that distinguishes the "leader" from the one who is simply an "administrator." There are those who feel the difference is important because administrators, in their view, simply use existing structures and procedures to achieve organizational goals and objectives and are not skilled in the changing of institutional direction. This may be desirable in some cases and as such would be "viewed as a stabilizing force."[2] In any case, the leader and the administrator are seen as having distinctive behaviors and while the essence of the administrator is that of coordination, the leader is seen as having "natural or learned ability, skill and personal characteristics to conduct interpersonal relations which influence people to take desired actions."[3]

The understanding of these distinctions of leadership is important to this study because "managers and leaders are very different kinds of people. They differ in motivation,

[1]Bernard M. Bass, "Leadership, Psychology, and Organizational Behavior (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1960), p. 83.

[2]Lipham, "Leadership and Administration," p. 122.

[3]Carl E. Welte, "Management and Leadership: Concepts with an Important Difference," Personnel Journal 57, 11 (Autumn 1965): 63.

personal history, and in how they think and act."[1] There
are those in higher education who feel that this "leader"
type, though they are just what search committees seek and
ultimately retain, "sooner or later create dissonance with
the status quo."[2] This potential conflict, coupled with the
fact that the office of the president is sometimes confounded
with routine demands and "hurdles," may be "why so many first-
class men, often the finest and the best, decide to quit the
presidential chair before they scarcely warmed it, staying
in some cases less time than it took the search committee to
find them."[3]

Leadership does not necessarily have to be accom-
panied by conflict which is so implicit in change. Joseph
F. Kauffman suggests that what is needed now are the leaders
who will initiate change through teaching the public, and he
refers to the model that James MacGregor Burns has called
"transforming" leadership:

> Leaders can also shape and alter and elevate the
> motives and values and goals of followers through
> the vital teaching role of leadership. This is
> transforming leadership. The premise of this lea-
> dership is that, whatever the separate interests
> persons might hold, they are presently or potentially
> united in the pursuit of "higher" goals, the realization

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[1]Abraham Zaleznik, "Managers and Leaders: Are They
Different?" Harvard Business Review (May-June 1977): 70.

[2]Samuel Moore, "Leaders and Leavers," Journal of Gen-
eral Education 20, 4 (January 1969): 296.

of which is tested by the achievement of significant changes that represents the collective or pooled interests of leaders and followers.[1]

Although this "transforming" leadership had reference to political leaders, its description is akin to the type of leadership suggested for education by Theodore M. Hesburgh:

> The mystique of leadership, be it educational, political, religious, commercial, or whatever, is next to impossible to describe, but wherever it exists, morale flourishes, people pull together towards common goals, spirits soar, order is maintained, not as an end in itself, but as a means to move forward together. Such leadership always has a moral as well as an intellectual dimension; it requires courage as well as wisdom; it does not simply know, it cares. When a faculty and a student body know that their president really cares about them, they will follow him to the heights, even out of the depths.[2]

It is sometimes assumed that when there is a change in the leadership of a university there must have been something wrong with either the institution or the individual leader. This is certainly not always a correct assessment as in the case where an institution chooses a new direction and "presidential exit can then be seen as a shift in the agenda of a dynamic and fundamentally healthy organization that is seeking an alternate symbol to give character and direction to that change."[3] The fact that changes can be a

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[1]James McGregor Burns, Leadership (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1978), pp. 425-426.

[2]Theodore M. Hesburgh, "Presidential Leadership," Journal of Higher Education 42, 9 (December 1971): 764.

[3]Walker, The Effective Administrator, p. 31.

positive step supports the notion that leadership is expendable. "This fact does have a real influence on administrative styles, perspectives, and problems."[1] Literature supports the fact that the job of the president is tenuous. Add to this that the person is expendable as well as seldom appreciated, and it is little wonder that a "leader" could hope to survive for any reasonable length of time. This may be an explanation behind the claim of those who feel that there is a leadership shortage in higher education today. "In 1970, Mr. Kerr predicted that the new decade would see 'more visible presidential leadership.' Now he admits, 'I don't see that happening.'"[2]

Expectations versus Reality

The mismatch between expectation and reality is not news to the presidents. They experience the limitations of their role. Presidents accept the conventional description of the role in part because they have no alternative and in part because heroic expectations about presidents are characteristic of others with whom they deal. To question those expectations significantly would raise a large number of complications not only in the life of a president but also within the extended social network within which he operates.[3]

The literature reflects the existence of and concern

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[1]Ibid., p. 35.

[2]Phillip W. Semas, "The Perilous Presidencies," Chronicle of Higher Education 9, 18 (February 3, 1975): 4.

[3]Cohen and March, Leadership and Ambiguity, p. 123.

about the distance between what is expected of the president and what he or she is actually able to do. "While the image of leadership is generally a glamorous one, the reality usually reflects a great deal of hard work and frustration."[1] The frustration is frequently the consequence of restraints placed on the office and its occupant. These restraints come from every quarter and are seldom the results of any initiated presidential action. Too often the president is powerless to alleviate any of the resultant problems or conflicts.

One of the most pressing restraints, according to many writers, is that the president "has vast responsibilities for all phases of the life and welfare of the university, but he has no power."[2] A great deal of this problem, no doubt, has been the result of changes in governance on American campuses during the 1960s, but even though there has been a return to the peace that preceded the 1960s, the diffusion of power left the presidency in a reduced state. "Some presidents, unable to resolve the inconsistency between expectations and means, have left office."[3]

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[1] Richard A. Gorton, "Administrative Leadership—It Ain't Easy But No One Promised You a Rose Garden," Clearing House 53, 1 (September 1979): 52.

[2] Homer P. Rainey, "How Should We Control Our Universities? Why College Presidents Leave Their Jobs," Journal of Higher Education 31, 7 (October 1960): 378.

[3] Dan R. Paxton and Darwin L. Thomas, "College Presidents' Role Performances and Faculty Satisfaction," Research

Joseph Kauffman's study of new college presidents
found that many of the 32 presidents he interviewed felt
that they would have a positive impact on their institution,
but "most did not plan to stay more than a few years because
of pressures and frustrations."[1] They were telling the
truth--13 of the 32 had left within about three years.[2] The
most frequently mentioned discrepancy between the president's
expectation and the reality was the relationships with the
board of control--the men, who on the one hand, hired the
president to lead the university, and on the other, did not
support his efforts. These presidents disclosed several
other unanticipated realities: having to counteract a prede-
cessor's actions, financial discrepancies, lack of time,
controlling the appointment calendar, inherited staffs, un-
forseen off-campus forces, and limits on his leadership and
influence. What becomes most apparent is that search com-
mittees in their zeal to attract the best leadership possible,
too often fail to give a thorough and realistic representation
of the institution and its overall condition as well as a full

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in Higher Education 7, 4 (1977): 342.

[1]Joseph F. Kauffman, "The New College President: Ex-
pectations and Realities," Educational Record 58, 2 (Spring
1977): 165.

[2]Kauffman, At the Pleasure of the Board, p. 16.

[3]Kauffman, "The New College President: Expectations
and Realities," pp. 148-161.

picture of the expectations of its various constituencies.
This oversell is no doubt responsible for a number of the
discrepancies between what a new president expects and what
he actually finds upon taking office. This kind of situation
probably contributes to the overall turnover rate of college
presidents.

Tenure

Within this world, presidents come and go. They serve
for some years and then are fired, quit, retire, or die.
According to some theories, they serve longer terms if
they solve the problems of the presidency--or if they
are not presented with good job alternatives. Presum-
ably, they serve shorter terms when the combination of
their own competencies, will, and the problems of the
day lead to observable failures in solving the prob-
lems--or when the attractions of new jobs call them
away.[1]

The subject of presidential tenure is viewed from
several different perspectives in the literature. The most
obvious is simply the measurement in years and the suggestion
of trends as reflected by changes in that measurement. Cohen
and March suggested that contrary to a great deal of specu-
lation about the drops in the tenure of college presidents,
there actually has not been any significant drop since 1900
with the possible exception of one associated with the
larger university. They point out, however, that there have
been increases during two periods of time--the Depression of

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[1]Cohen and March, *Leadership and Ambiguity*, p. 153.

the 1930s and the Second World War.[1] In 1960 William K.

Seldon addressed the same general controversy when he felt

that he could dispel the myth of the short tenured president

serving about four years by reporting a more realistic figure

of 8.1 years based on a study of 949 institutions.[2] Ferrari

made an estimate of 7.8 years for his 760 presidents in

1968, but the figure for the president in that same sample

serving at public universities was 6.9 years.[3] These figures

are estimates of the average number of years completed at the

time of the study, while the actual number of years served by

a full tenured president is probably slightly higher as re-

ported by Cohen and March who estimate a ten year median for

most of the twentieth century.[4] In 1971 Alton showed a mean

9.2 years of completed tenure for his sample of 50 presi-

dents.[5]

Of particular relevance to this study is not so much

the average completed tenure of college presidents, but the

distribution established by the percentage of presidents

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[1]Ibid., pp. 161-162.

[2]William K. Seldon, "How Long Is a College President?"
Liberal Education 46, 1 (March 1960): 11.

[3]Ferrari, Profiles of American College Presidents,
p. 90.

[4]Cohen and March, Leadership and Ambiguity, p. 161.

[5]Alton, "A Consideration of Motivating Factors in
Resignation of the Academic Presidential Role," p. 76.

departing their office by the number of years served. Only

two studies provide data of this nature and results of these

two studies can be seen graphically in Figure 2. Others

spotlight the number of short tenured presidents such as

Bryan, who reports that 25 percent of his 350 previous pres-

idents had served four years or less,[1] and King, who reported

three years of service for the first decile of his 767

sample of presidents.[2]

In addition to figures cited in the literature, there

are responses to and interpretations of this phenomenon.

Edgar C. Cumings said "one's ability to achieve longevity

does not appear to be a chief measure of success. In fact,

some authorities believe that the most energetic presidents

are probably the ones who fail to last."[3] Kauffman believes

that high turnover is a "fact of life" and that boards of

control should simply plan on it, provide for it, and do

their best to offer support and good working conditions for

the presidents they retain.[4] Harper showed his awareness of

this "fact of life" when he stated that the president was

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[1]Alton, "A Consideration of Motivating Factors in Res-
ignation of the Academic Presidential Role," p. 76.

[2]King, "President's Profile," p. 410.

[3]Edgar C. Cumings, "When Is a College President Suc-
cessful?," School and Society 81, 2054 (March 5, 1955); 65.

[4]Kauffman, At the Pleasure of the Board, p. 17.
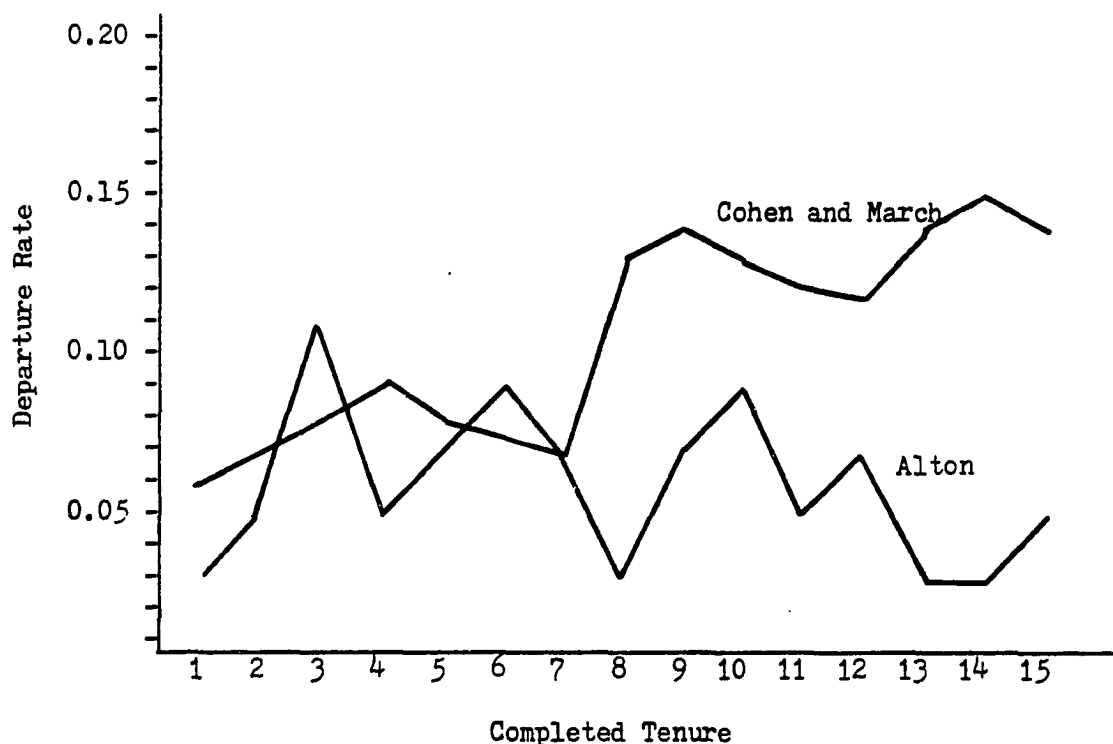
Figure 2. Tenure Departure Waves[1]

keenly aware that "his tenure of office, unlike that of his colleagues, is quite uncertain."[2]

Some of the writers suggest a solution to the problem of tenuous and short tenure and it is the establishment of fixed terms. Bennis proposes a ten year term that would have an evaluation at the five year interval. This evaluation would not be so much for the decision of whether to continue

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[1]Alton, "A Consideration of Motivating Factors in Resignation of the Academic Presidential Role," pp. 222-223, and Cohen and March, Leadership and Ambiguity, p. 175.

[2]Harper, "The College President," p. 186.

with the same leadership as to assist the president in re-evaluating the direction for the next five years.[1] Kerr suggested a fixed period of no less than five years and no more than ten years with a suggestion of six years which he believes is the approximate length of an average term.[2] Another interesting suggestion was by William W. Brickman who proposes a system of rotating presidencies and deans along with permanent financial and other administrative positions.[3] The idea of the fixed term is not new and, in fact, it is in practice in the State University of New York system where presidents serve for a term of five years with the optional appointment of one additional term dependent on a favorable evaluation of the first term.[4]

The last perspective of tenure found in the literature to be considered here concerns the stated reasons for departure. Mayhew states that the university has become so complicated and that those presidents who have not or cannot adjust and adapt to this complexity simply leave.[5] Rainey,

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[1]Bennis, The Leaning Ivory Tower, p. 82.

[2]Kerr, "Presidential Discontent," pp. 159-160.

[3]William W. Brickman, "Academic Freedom for the University President," School and Society 96, 3212 (November 23, 1974): 423.

[4]Kauffman, At the Pleasure of the Board, p. 96.

[5]Mayhew, "Emerging Concepts of the Presidency," p. 360.

as well as others, believes the lack of power to actually run the university is the cause of many resignations.[1] The most thorough and perhaps one of the few studies of the reasons for departure was a dissertation by Alton. For his sample of fifty presidents he reported in his findings that "it can be assumed that an academic president will resign his role when:

> a. Another position which interests him for personal or professional reasons presents itself (general employment alternative), and
> b. He feels the objectives which he and the institution have established have been achieved (objective achievement) and as a result,
> c. Feels physically and/or emotionally exhausted (physical stamina), and
> d. Perceives that he has been active in the position longer than the norm (extended tenure), and
> e. Does not wish to remain active past that point where his effectiveness as an institutional leader begins to wane (avoidance of extended tenure),
> f. Feels that due to the changing demands of society the role which he entered some years prior is one in which he no longer feels comfortable (role evolution), and thus
> g. Perceives that his perceptions of the role and the manner in which he fulfills it are not those of his constituencies (role expectations), and
> h. Has the impression of political and/or bureaucratic stifling which thwart his plans and programs for higher education (political and bureaucratic stifling), and also
> i. Has become tired of raising funds and securing monies to operate the institution (fund raising), and finally
> j. Feels certain elements within the total community to be nonsupportive and inhospitable to his freedom of operation (community environment).[2]

[1]Rainey, "How Should We Control Our Universities? Why Presidents Leave Their Jobs," p. 377.

[2]Alton, "A Consideration of Motivating Factors in Resignation of the Academic Presidential Role," pp. 185-186.

One could believe that the stated reason for departure may not represent the full picture behind the decision for one to resign.

Presidential Evaluation

Evaluation is not a new concept in higher education, but it has only come to the forefront in its administrative application during the past two decades riding on the wave of "accountability." With the prospects of enrollments declining and the sources of funds for higher education continuing to diminish, the need for efficiency in administration will continue to heighten. Paul L. Dressel says ". . . evaluation, as traditionally practiced, has been concerned solely with impact or outcome (effectiveness), accountability adds efficiency--the relation between outcomes and resource utilization."[1]

Evaluation is not always a simple matter for several reasons. First, "academic evaluation is complicated by the vagueness of academic goals."[2] One of the culprits here is the number of groups having a vested interest in the institution--trustees, alumni, faculty, students, parents,

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[1]Paul L. Dressel, Handbook of Academic Evaluation (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, Inc., 1978), p. 73.

[2]J. Victor Baldridge, David V. Curtis, George Ecker, and Gary L. Riley, Policy Making and Effective Leadership (San Francisco: Jossey Bass Publishers, Inc., 1978), p. 105.

administrators, legislators, and any number of other publics.
It is doubtful whether any of these groups could agree on a
set of criteria for judging the university or its leader-
ship.[1]

Second, "evaluation is a highly sensitive area of
personal management even if the primary purpose of the evalu-
ation is not to retain or to dismiss, as it should not be,
. . ."[2] Not every administrator is anxious to be evaluated,
and considering the number of demands on his office and the
impossibility of his meeting the needs of every constituency
group, the chances are very great for any president to re-
ceive a bad evaluation. "Even in normal times, the presi-
dent's role as arbitrator assures some dissatisfaction with
his performance."[3]

Despite its difficulty and costs, evaluation is seen
by some to hold a great deal of value for both the individual
and the institution. When the evaluation centers on institu-
tional goals and the presidential office in terms of priori-
ties and set responsibilities, rather than the

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[1]Vernon R. Alden, "Corporate Boss, College President,"
AGB Reports 20, 3 (May-June 1978): 15.

[2]Ruthann E. Williams, Presidential Evaluation (Bethes-
da, Md.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 144 643,
1977), p. 7.

[3]Allan Tucker and Robert B. Mautz, "Presidential
Evaluation: An Academic Circus," Educational Record 60, 3
(Summer 1979): 256.

accountability of the incumbent, it can benefit the president

by serving as "a protection against sudden, arbitrary, and

capricious action of the board."[1] A good evaluation process

can also be helpful to the institution by directing the at-

tention of boards to needed institutional priorities and

redirecting "energies into more fruitful areas."[2] The

process should also serve to increase the board's enlighten-

ment, not only concerning the institutional needs, but the

qualities of the president, hopefully resulting in a better

working relationship with the incumbent and/or improving

"the selection of a successor either as a result of the

evaluation or in the future."[3]

Robert C. Nordvall summarized the criteria for evalu-

ation based on the contributions of a number of current

writers:

> Criteria fall into categories of administration
> and management, leadership, relations to consti-
> tuencies, and personal qualities. Criteria related
> to administration and management are the most num-
> erous and include items such as academic planning,
> program planning, decisionmaking and problemsolving,
> and use of funds, facilities, and human resources.
> Leadership criteria are defined by standards of
> academic excellence, educational statesmanship,

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[1] Dexter L. Hanley, "Evaluating a President," AGB Reports 17, 2 (March-April 1975): 44.

[2] Ibid., p. 44.

[3] Robert C. Nordvall, Evaluation and Development of Administration (Bethesda, Md.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 176 711, 1979), p. 54.

political astuteness, and administrative style. Criteria concerning relationships with constituencies overlap management and leadership standards: examples of relationship criteria are student affairs, sensitivity to faculty concerns, institutional representation to various publics, relationship with board, and (for chief executive of a university system) relationship with other institutional presidents.

Personal qualities mentioned include, among others, health, energy, intelligence, and presence.[1]

There are four essential approaches to the process of evaluation: a committee format, the board acting for itself, use of an outside consultant, and self-evaluation by the president. Most of the plans suggested in the literature employed some combination of these four approaches. What is stressed, however, is that whatever approach or approaches are taken, it "should not be on an ad hoc or crises basis but rather on a regular (though flexible) cycle of perhaps every two-to-five years, . . ."[2] Another point stressed is that the evaluation should be based upon some previously agreed upon criteria rather than what might now be needed.[3] Cohen and March, however, warn against the assumptions of this last approach because they feel prior specification of criteria "may inhibit the serendipitous discovery of new

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[1]Ibid., pp. 51-52.

[2]Charles F. Fisher, The Evaluation and Development of College and University Administrators (Bethesda, Md.: ERIC Documents Reproduction Service, ED 136 707, 1977), p. 4.

[3]Hanley, "Evaluating a President," p. 43.

criteria."[1] One point that the majority of the writers do

agree upon is that the board of control has the only legiti-

mate authority to conduct an evaluation and are ultimately

responsible for overseeing and supporting whatever process

is employed.[2]

Even though there is general agreement that the rea-

sons for evaluation are legitimate and reasonable, it has

not become a practice in the majority of the American col-

leges and universities. Benedict J. Surwill and Stanley J.

Heywood made a survey of the 321 members of the American

Association of State Colleges and Universities in 1975 and

found that only 32 percent of those responding had any form

of formal evaluation in their institutions, and only 14 per-

cent included the presidents in the process of their evalu-

ation.[3]

> There is no evidence that the benefits accruing
> from the evaluation craze have exceeded the detri-
> ments; on the other hand, evaluation has not been
> the principal cause of many problems ascribed to

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[1]Cohen and March, Leadership and Ambiguity, p. 228.

[2]Barry Munitz, "Strengthening Institutional Leader-
ship," in Developing and Evaluating Administrative Leader-
ship, edited by Charles F. Fisher (San Francisco: Jossey-
Bass Publishers, Inc., 1978), pp. 11-12.

[3]Benedict J. Surwill and Stanley J. Heywood, Evalu-
ation of College and University Top Brass: The State of the
Art, Status Report of AASCU Member Institutions (Bethesda,
Md.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 129 142, 1976),
p. 9.

guaranteed position as a faculty member in the event of a negative evaluation.[1]

The mixed results and reactions, or perhaps the absence of a conclusive statement of the benefits of an evaluation program, may be why so few colleges and universities have not adopted some form of a regular, formalized evaluation process. Even though the majority of the higher education institutions may not ascribe to such a process, it is recognized that informal evaluation is a constant process everywhere. This fact cannot help but have some effect on the person in the presidency.

The Selection Process

The chairman of the committee of the trustees to select a president for an important college on the Atlantic seaboard telephoned me the other day to inquire about one of my friends. He asked whether he was a good administrator. In my innocence, thinking he wanted a good administrator as president of his college, I entered upon a glowing description of my friend's administrative abilities. I found that my tribute was received without enthusiasm at the other end of the wire, and asked if I had misunderstood the question. "No," replied the trustee. "You understood the question all right. But you are giving the wrong answer. You see, our retiring president was a very bad administrator. Our faculty likes that, and they are afraid of any successor who will be better."[2]

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[1]Tucker and Mautz, "Presidential Evaluation: An Academic Circus," pp. 253-254.

[2]Robert M. Hutchins, "The Administrator," Journal of Higher Education 17, 8 (November 1946): 399.

The literature dealing with the presidential selection process is consistent about two basic points: there is no particular set of personal traits that makes up an ideal leader, and the single most important objective in the search for a new president is to "match" the needs of the institution with the capabilities of the individual candidate. Lorne Dick stresses that "appointing a president is probably the most crucial and far reaching action a college board will ever take."[1] The implications for the board are far more than just the appointment of the new president. If the board and its search committee follow the suggestions found in the literature it will be required to review the status of the institution and evaluate its needs, not only for the present, but for the future as well. A properly conducted search dictates a thorough self-appraisal in order to take that first step in making a good match.

"Indeed, there is no single 'right man' who will suit all colleges and universities."[2] An individual that might be highly successful at one institution may be a failure at another simply because his particular set of

[1]Dick Lorne, Changing Roles and Selection Procedures for College Presidents (Bethesda, Md.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 180 335, November 1977), p. 4.

[2]Frederick deW. Bolman, How College Presidents Are Chosen (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1965), p. viii.

attributes are not in concert with that institution's most critical needs. It is "the requirement of the college" that will "dictate the kind of man needed for the job . . . the qualifications for presidencies differ greatly from institution to institution and from one period in history to another."[1] As Robert M. Hyde puts it--"the trick will be to find the man whose greatest capabilities match the institution's greatest need."[2]

Matching the needs of the college with the skills of the individual may seem simple enough, but as David L. McKenna points out, "campuses have formal and informal personalities which need to be known."[3] A person whose abilities may be just the ticket may be unable to exercise those needed skills simply because the informal nature of the campus resists his efforts due to some unspoken, underlying conflict. One should begin to see how an insensitive board or a naive search committee could easily, and even enthusiastically, appoint the very best of individuals and still result in a mismatched affair simply because careful attention was not given to the inner workings of the college.

There is little doubt of the importance of the

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[1]Prater, The College President, p. 82.

[2]Robert M. Hyde, "The Presidential Search: Chore or Opportunity?," Educational Record 50, 2 (Spring 1969): 187.

[3]David L. McKenna, "Recycling College Presidents," Liberal Education 58, 4 (1972): 460.

selection process, but it should be stressed that the process should not be static in nature:

> A realistic appraisal of the compatibility and conflicts between institutional and individual expectations would not only improve the selection process; it would provide a rational framework for the personal development and professional evaluation of the president after election.[1]

If the selection process included as it should have the evaluation of the needs and goals of the institution, these in turn become the criteria for future appraisal, not only of the institutional progress, but of the president's ability to realize those goals.

Kauffman, in his study of the 32 new presidents, found that most of the presidents experienced a rather wide gap between their expectations and the realities of the situation.[2] A properly conducted search should avoid this gap by disclosing a more realistic picture of the campus as well as encouraging the candidate, to scrutinize not only the situation but also his ability and willingness to deal with the most critical needs of the campus. The quality of the selection process necessitates careful planning, sufficient time, and input from a wide range of campus interests followed by a meticulous execution. Success is no accident, it is a good plan well executed.

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[1] Ibid., p. 461.

[2] Kauffman, "The New College President: Expectations and Realities," pp. 146-168.

Implications of the Literature

Literature on the college presidency covers a broad spectrum of topics and interests. A closer examination of this literature reveals, however, that most of it is empirical in nature and does not employ any theories or scientific methodologies. One will find in the literature a clear statement of concern for the leadership in higher education, and in particular, the problems faced by the contemporary college president. The subject of short tenure has shown itself in the literature for the better part of the twentieth century, but one is hard-pressed to find any studies that go much beyond the reporting of simple figures. There is an awareness that the presidency has had a steady increase in the demands placed upon it, and that this mounting pressure is no doubt responsible for some of their resigning from office. But while these facts are obvious to any observer, the reasons why some presidents persist while others surrender to the pressures of the office are not explored in any detail.

There is a clear implication for research in this area and specifically for the problem area of this study which is to investigate those factors which may distinguish the short tenured president from those who persist in a large, state-controlled university.

Summary

A review of the literature reveals that the president of a large university today is in a position that is looked upon as being complex, tenuous, time-consuming, demanding, frustrating, and frequently under-appreciated. The litera-ture also reflects a concern for what is perceived as a high turnover rate of university presidents and its effect upon the supply of leadership in higher education. While these facts about the office and the concerns for the person oc-cupying the office are constantly represented in the litera-ture, the search revealed no relevant studies that directly concerned themselves with the short tenured president and whether he is, in fact, any different from those who persist in their office for a better than average term.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Methodological Approach of the Study

The problem of this study has been to identify those
factors that may be contributing to the resignations of
short tenured presidents of large state controlled univer-
sities and that distinguishes them from the presidents who
are persisting for an average or longer term in office.

Since this study deals with a subject area that has
not been specifically or previously studied, it has, there-
fore, been exploratory in nature. For this reason, the
basis upon which this research has been conducted was de-
rived from a broad array of the available literature about
the university presidency. It is in line with the proposed
purpose of this study to develop a profile of the short
tenured president of a large state controlled university
that represents a number of contributing factors, and
compare and contrast that profile with a profile of a

president who has persisted. The factors selected for in-
clusion in these profiles were determined in large part by
their repeated appearance in the literature at large and
the suggestion of the writers that these factors have had
some bearing on the chief executive officer of an individual
university campus.

Selection of the Sample

According to the 1980-1981 Educational Directory com-
piled by the National Center of Educational Statistics,
there are 197 state controlled universities with a student
enrollment of nine thousand or more. This particular size
in the student population was chosen because of the findings
of Cohen and March which indicated a decline in the tenure
of presidents of "larger" universities (see page 80). It
was also reported that within these institutions there is a
turnover rate of 13.4 percent. It was decided to include
the entire population of universities for the purpose of
this study. The population therefore is the 197 regularly
appointed (as opposed to interim appointments) chief execu-
tive officers of these institutions and any of their prede-
cessors whose tenure was concluded sometime during the past
six years only.

The emphasis of this study has been placed on the
president who has completed his tenure. The decision was

made not to include any subject whose tenure was completed before the 1976-77 school year since the recall of some of the information requested by the questionnaire is apt to have decreased in accuracy with the passing of time.

Data Gathering Instrument

Because of the exploratory nature of this study, it was necessary to develop an original questionnaire. The specific information that was sought concerning the subjects and their attitudes was selected because the literature suggested that these factors influenced both the office and its occupant. Specifically, the instrument asked questions about and/or related to: a) personal origin and background; b) perceptions of the presidential role; c) constitutents; d) the role of the student; e) the recruitment process; and f) satisfaction with the presidency. The idea for the general form and layout of the instrument itself was suggested by Berdie and Anderson.[1]

Many of the individual items on the questionnaire were designed employing the Likert procedure in order to facilitate the statistical analysis of the results.[2] Where

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[1]Douglas R. Berdie and John F. Anderson, Question-naires: Design and Use (Metuchen, New Jersey: The Scare-crow Press, Inc., 1974).

[2]Anna Anastasi, Psychological Testing, fourth edition (New York: MacMillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1976), pp. 550-551.

applicable, a commonly employed five point scale was used

where individual statements could be judged either clearly

favorable or clearly unfavorable. The responses were cre-

dited with a score of 5, 4, 3, 2, or 1 respectively, with 5

being most favorable and 1 being least favorable. Where the

information sought did not lend itself to such a scale,

questions were asked leaving space for written responses

by the subjects.

Data Gathering Procedures

Public sources of data on the individual institutions

and their respective presidents were used when available in

order to shorten the response time required by the subjects

of this study. A questionnaire developed specifically for

the purposes of this study was sent to each subject (see

Appendix). The questionnaire was preceded by a mailing that

stated the purpose of the study, requested their participa-

tion, and indicated that a questionnaire would be forthcom-

ing (see Appendix). This first mailing also contained a

letter from Dr. Paul F. Sharp, past president of the Uni-

versity of Oklahoma, stating the importance of the study

and encouraging a response to the forthcoming questionnaire.

Three weeks after the questionnaire was mailed, there

was a follow-up letter containing an additional questionnaire

sent to the non-respondents in an effort to increase the

number of subjects. As a courtesy, the writer followed all returned questionnaires with a brief letter expressing the writer's appreciation for the subject's time, effort, and participation in the study.

Response Analysis

The collected data were used to develop three profiles: one of the short tenured president, one representing the mid-range tenured president, and one of the longer tenured president. The breakdown of the number of years for each of these profiles was predetermined to conform to information found in literature pertaining to tenure patterns of college presidents. The range of four years or fewer for the short tenured president was chosen since four years is safely below the reported average of seven to eight years for all presidents. The second, mid-range group, was created to keep clear separation between the short tenured and long tenured president to insure that differences would be meaningful. This mid-range of five to seven years was selected since this range would encompass the average tenured president. The third group representing all the presidents completing eight or more years in a single presidency was designated as long tenured.

The three profiles reflect the means of the demographic data on each of the subjects responding as well as

the composite scores of the attitude items of the question-
naire. Because of the diverse nature of the collected data,
four different statistical procedures were employed to de-
termine whether significant differences existed between the
short and long tenured subjects. The procedures used were
the Chi-Square, Wilcoxon rank-sum, ANOVA for unbalanced
data, and the Aspin-Welch t-test. For the purposes of this
study, a .10 level of significance was chosen.

Validity

The validity of the questionnaire was established
through face and content validity analyses by experts. This
was necessary because: 1) "The construct validity of a test
is the extent to which the test may be said to measure a
theoretical construct or trait."[1] Since the questionnaire
was not designed to measure traits or factors contributing
to a theoretical construct, testing for construct validity
was not applicable, and 2) "Criterion-related validity
indicates the effectiveness of a test in predicting an indi-
vidual's behavior in specific situations."[2] Again, the
questionnaire was not designed as a prediction testing in-
strument, and thus the use of criterion-related validity
was again not applicable in this case.

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[1] Ibid., p. 151.

[2] Ibid., p. 140.

Lee Sechrest explains face validity as "the extent to which a test seems to measure what it purports to measure,"[1] and content validity as "the adequacy with which a test samples the relevant behavioral domain."[2] Sechrest points out that as of yet no exact operation for determining content or face validity has been specified, but he suggests that in both cases the judgments of sophisticated persons be sought. Because of the contents of the questionnaire and its intent to solicit the perceptions of the respondents themselves about clearly stated aspects of the presidency, the writer concurs with Edgar F. Bogatta, who questions "who but the person is the best judge of what feelings he is undergoing?"[3] Anastasi also adds that face validity, though it is not a widely recognized form of test validity, is nonetheless important, particularly in the testing of adults because contents in a test that appear irrelevant or inappropriate can result in poor cooperation.[4]

Consequently, a group of college presidents serving

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[1] Lee Sechrest, "Testing, Measuring, and Assessing People," in Handbook of Personality Theory and Research, edited by Edgar F. Bogatta and William W. Lambert (Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1968), p. 559.

[2] Ibid., p. 559.

[3] Edgar F. Bogatta, "Traits and Persons," in Handbook of Personality Theory and Research, edited by Edgar F. Bogatta and William W. Lambert (Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1968), p. 516.

[4] Anastasi, Psychological Testing, pp. 139-140.

at state controlled institutions in Oklahoma were empaneled as a jury of experts. They were used to establish the validity of the instrument and were all sophisticated in the area of higher education administration. They served as the participants in a field test of the instrument, part of which included judging the items of the questionnaire for their face and content validity. These subjects were unanimous in their judgements that the instrument clearly stated its questions and that the instrument's design was such that the subject had little difficulty in completing the form.

Reliability

Because the consensus of the subjects in the field test of the questionnaire was unanimous as to the face and content validity of the instrument items and because of the specific nature of these items in the questionnaire and the targeted subjects of the study, no specific quantitative technique establishing the reliability of the instrument was employed. Lemon states that a <u>valid</u> measure must always be a reliable one, even though a reliable measure is not necessarily a valid one.[1]

It is specifically contended in the context of this study that the level of sophistication of the subjects of

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[1]Nigel Lemon, <u>Attitudes and Their Measurement</u> (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1973), p. 44.

this study deemed it of particular importance that the questionnaire not attempt to measure anything not specifically stated or implied by any of the items in the questionnaire. The reliability of such an instrument is then necessarily based, not on the consistency of the measuring ability of the instrument, but on the reliability of the subjects to report their true and candid attitudes. Consistency of the subjects' response is therefore of greater importance, and a test of the instrument's consistency would have added no additional instrument strength that would not have already been inherent within the instrument's test validity.

CHAPTER IV

RESEARCH FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

Characteristics of Subjects

The respondents of an initial and follow-up mailing
which included 172 current chief executive officers and 119
past chief executive officers of the 197 state controlled
universities with a 9000 or more student population are the
subjects of this study. The total response to these mail-
ings was 230, or 79 percent. Of these, 140 (81.39 percent
return rate) were from the current chief executives and 90
(75.63 percent return rate) were from past chief executives.
Of the 90 past chief executives responding there were 25 of
a possible 37 of these who had left their respective office
during or before the fourth year of their tenure for a
67.57 percent response rate. The characteristics and sta-
tistics to follow are based solely on the responses of
these subjects to the items found in the University Presi-
dents Attitude Scale developed specifically for the purposes
of this study.

The 90 past chief executive officers that responded to the questionnaire had a mean age of 58.79 years with a range from 39 to 75 years of age. This group served their campuses for an average of 8.39 years with a range of 1 to 23 years. The mean age of accession to the presidency of the institutions of this study was 47.53 years of age with a range from 32 to 68 years. The average age at which they began their administrative career in a part-time capacity was 31.71 years with a range of 22 to 56 years and in a full-time capacity was 36.37 with a range of 23 to 63 years.

TABLE 9

COMPARISON OF AGE FACTORS OF PAST PRESIDENTS

	N	Current Mean Age	Age of Accession to Presidency	Age at First Full-Time Administrative Position
Total group	89	58.79	47.53	36.37
Short tenure	24	54.44	48.45	35.50
Mid-range	17	56.76	47.06	37.06
Long tenure	48	61.77	47.23	37.06

The short tenured president who served from one to four years and who completed that tenure sometime since the 1976-1977 school year was the chief executive officer of a state controlled university with an average student

enrollment of 17,751. His average age at the time of this study was 54.44 years with a range of 39 years of age to 75 years. His average length of tenure was 2.96 years and his average age at the time of his accession to the presidency in question was 48.45 with a range from 32 years to 68 years of age. The short tenured presidents received their graduate degrees as early as 25 years of age and as late as 68 with a mean of 30.08 years of age. They started their administration career on a part-time basis at the average age of 31.5 and on a full-time basis at the age of 35.5 with ranges of 22 to 56 and 23 to 63 years of age respectively. Five of these twenty-five short tenured presidents had served a previous presidency with an average length of tenure of 6.6 years.

The mid-range tenured president who served from five to seven years and who completed that tenure sometime since the 1976-1977 school year was the chief executive officer of a state controlled university with an average enrollment of 18,176 students. His average age at the time of this study was 56.76 years with a range of 47 years of age to 68 years. His average length of tenure was 6.18 years and his average age at the time of his accession to the presidency in question was 47.06 with a range from 37 years to 57 years of age. The mid-range presidents received their graduate degrees as early as 23 years of age and as late as 38 years with a mean of 29.82 years of age. They started their

administration career on a part-time basis at the average age of 31.35 and on a full-time basis at the average age of 37.06 with ranges of 22 to 39 and 22 to 56 years of age respectively. Nine of these seventeen mid-range tenured presidents had served a previous presidency with an average length of tenure of 6.7 years.

The long tenured president who served eight or more years and who completed that tenure sometime since the 1976-1977 school year was the chief executive officer of a state controlled university with an average student enrollment of 18,757. His average age at the time of this study was 61.77 years with a range of 48 years of age to 72 years. His average length of tenure was 12.00 years and his average age at the time of his accession to the presidency in question was 47.23 with a range from 34 years to 58 years of age. The long tenured presidents received their graduate degrees as early as 23 years of age and as late as 50 with a mean of 29.82 years of age. They started their administration career on a part-time basis at the average age of 31.35 and on a full-time basis at the age of 37.06 with ranges of 22 to 43 and 19 to 55 years of age respectively. Thirteen of these forty-eight long tenured presidents had served a previous presidency with an average length of tenure of 4.36 years.

The data were examined in terms of the regions of the
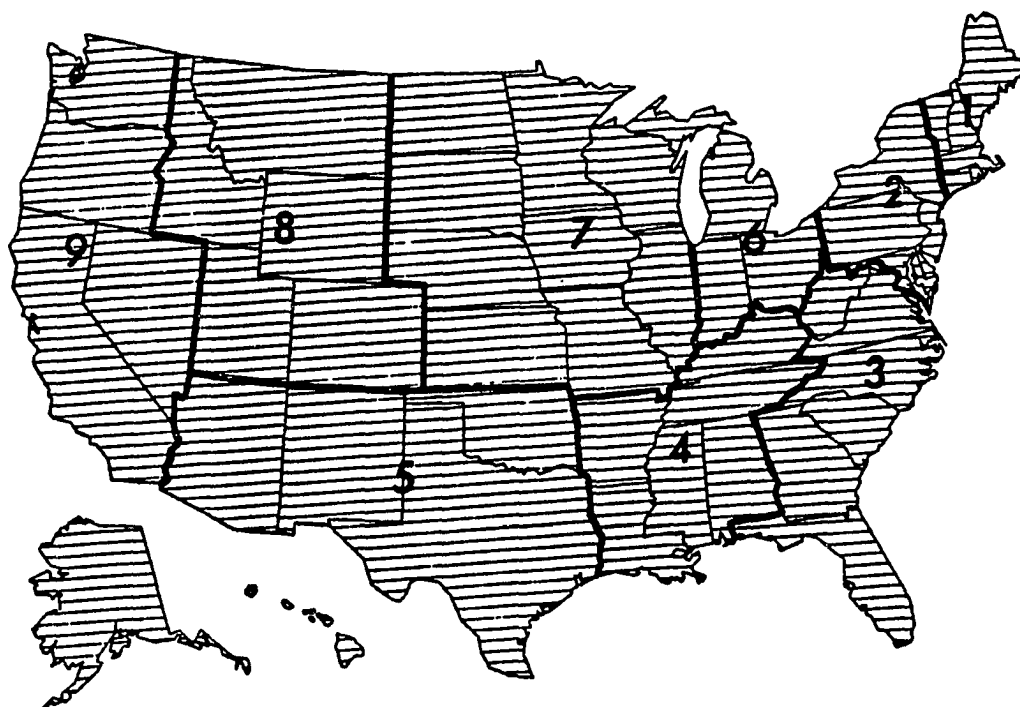
Figure 3.   Nine Divided Regions of the United States.

United States as seen in Figure 3 above with the question of

the mobility of short and long tenured presidents.   Of the

twenty-five short tenured presidents seven (28%) served in

presidencies in the same region where they had completed

their graduate work while 19 (38%) of the 48 long tenured

presidents did the same.   This margin of approximately 10

percent different held consistent when comparing the region

of the presidency with the region where the president grew

up, the presidency with the undergraduate school region,

and the undergraduate school region and graduate school

region.   These percentages increased only in the tendency

Frequencies

12 ⊢   ***

11 ⊦

10 ⊦

9 ⊦

8 ⊦

7 ⊦

6 ⊦

5 ⊦

4 ⊦

3 ⊦

2 ⊦

1 ⊦

    1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9 10 11 12   15 16 17 18   21 22 23

111
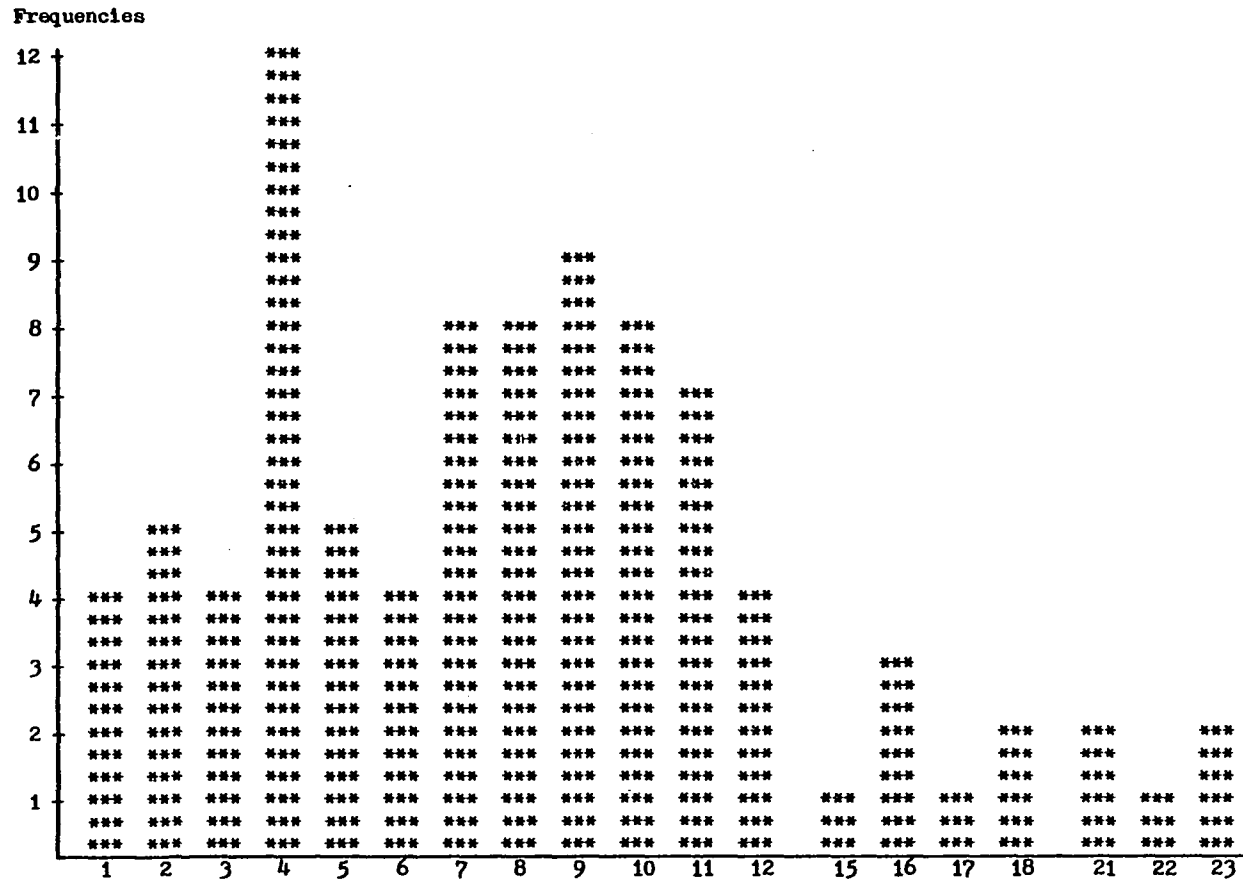
Figure 4.   Past Presidents' Length of Tenure.

of the subjects to have attended a university in the same region where he had spent most of his youth. The percentages for this last comparison were 64 and 75 respectively. In all cases, the short tenured president showed a greater tendency to change geographic regions, but this greater tendency did not prove to be statistically significant.

Background and Education

All twenty-five of the responding short tenured presidents were male and all of them were married. The region of the United States where they spent most of their youth can be seen in Table 10 on page 113. Eight (32%) of these short tenured presidents grew up in communities that were considered rural or less than 2,500 population. Another four (16%) grew up in communities of 2,500 to 10,000 population, six (24%) in cities of 25,000 to 100,000, and six (24%) in cities of one million or more population. Six of the fathers (24%) had less than a high school education, four (16%) had some high school, and six (24%) were high school graduates only. Three (12%) had some college, another three (12%) were college graduates, two (8%) had a graduate degree and one (4%) had done post graduate work. Seven of the mothers (28%) had less than a high school education, three (12%) had some high school, and seven (28%) were high school graduates only. Four (16%) had some

TABLE 10

REGION OF PAST PRESIDENTS' GROWING UP, EDUCATION AND PRESIDENCY

Region of:	Length of Tenure		Region									
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Totals
Region of the President's Youth:	Short	N	3	4	3	0	4	3	6	0	1	24
		%	12.50	16.67	12.50	0.00	16.67	12.50	25.00	0.00	4.75	100.
	Mid	N	0	3	2	1	4	0	3	1	3	17
		%	0.00	17.65	11.76	5.88	23.53	0.00	17.65	5.88	17.65	100.
	Long	N	3	6	6	7	6	4	12	3	1	48
		%	6.25	12.50	12.50	14.58	12.50	8.33	25.00	6.25	2.08	100.
Region of President's Undergraduate school:	Short	N	0	3	2	3	5	3	5	1	1	23
		%	0.00	13.04	8.70	13.04	21.75	13.04	21.74	4.35	4.35	100.
	Mid	N	2	3	1	2	2	0	3	1	3	17
		%	11.76	17.65	5.88	11.76	11.76	0.00	17.65	5.88	17.65	100.
	Long	N	5	6	5	7	3	5	11	4	2	48
		%	10.42	12.50	10.42	14.58	6.25	10.42	22.92	8.33	4.17	100.
Region of President's Graduate School:	Short	N	1	5	3	1	1	3	6	0	3	23
		%	4.35	21.74	13.04	4.35	4.35	13.04	26.09	0.00	13.04	100.
	Mid	N	3	4	0	0	3	0	5	1	1	17
		%	17.65	23.53	0.00	0.00	17.65	0.00	29.41	5.88	5.88	100.
	Long	N	5	14	3	2	2	5	9	5	2	47
		%	10.64	29.79	6.38	4.26	4.26	10.64	19.15	10.64	4.26	100.
Region of the Presidency:	Short	N	2	2	3	1	2	4	6	3	2	25
		%	8.00	8.00	12.00	4.00	8.00	16.00	24.00	12.00	8.00	100.
	Mid	N	1	3	1	2	3	1	2	2	2	17
		%	5.88	17.65	5.88	11.76	17.65	5.88	11.76	11.76	11.76	100.
	Long	N	1	7	7	5	5	6	7	5	5	48
		%	2.08	14.58	14.58	10.42	10.42	12.50	14.58	10.42	10.42	100.

college, another four (16%) were college graduates, and none of the mothers had any education beyond the undergraduate degree. All of the wives of the short tenured presidents were high school graduates with two (8%) having some college, eight (32%) college graduates, five (20%) with some graduate work, six (24%) with graduate degrees, and four (16%) with post graduate work.

The regions where the short tenured president attended college and did his graduate work can be seen in Table 10 on page 113. The largest number of these presidents, 11 (44%), had majored in the humanities while 4 (16%) majored in education, 3 (16%) in natural sciences, 2 (8%) in the social sciences, 2 (8%) in agriculture, 1 (4%) in business, and 1 (4%) in engineering. Twenty-one (84%) had earned the Doctor of Philosophy, two (8%) the Doctor of Education, and one (4%) a professional degree (M.D., Ll.D., etc.).

All seventeen of the responding mid-range tenured presidents were male and all of them were married. The region of the United States where they spent most of their youth can be seen in Table 10 on page 113. Three (18.75%) of these mid-range tenured presidents grew up in communities that were considered rural or less than 2,500 population. Another two (12.50%) grew up in communities of 2,500 to 10,000 population, three (18.75%) in towns of 10,000 to 25,000, two (12.50%) in cities of 25,000 to 100,000, four

(25.00%) in cities of 100,000 to 1,000,000, and two (12.50%) in cities of one million or more population. Six of the fathers (37.50%) had less than a high school education, two (12.50%) had some high school, three (18.75%) had graduated from high school, four (12.50%) had some college, and the only three (18.75%) that had achieved a college degree were also the same and only three with graduate degrees. Six of the mothers (37.50%) had less than a high school education, one (6.25%) had some high school, and three (18.75%) were high school graduates only. Two (12.50%) had some college, another three (18.75%) were college graduates, and one mother had achieved a graduate degree. All of the wives of the mid-range tenured presidents were high school graduates with two (11.76%) having some college, four (23.53%) college graduates, three (17.65%) with some graduate work, and seven (41.81%) with graduate degrees.

The regions where the mid-range tenured president attended college and did his graduate work can be seen in Table 10, page 113 . The largest number of these presidents, ten (59%), had majored in the humanities while two (12%) each had majored in education, natural sciences, and professional fields (medical, legal, etc.), and one (5%) in engineering. Twelve (71%) had earned the Doctor of Philosophy, two (12%) the Doctor of Education, and three (17%) a professional degree (M.D., Ll.D., etc.).

Forty-seven of the forty-eight long tenured presi-
dents responding were male while one was female. All forty-
eight reported being married and two had been divorced. The
region of the United States where they spend most of their
youth can be seen in Table 10 on page 113. Twenty-two
(45.83%) of these long tenured presidents grew up in commu-
nities that were considered rural or of less than 2,500 popu-
lation. Another six (12.50%) grew up in communities of
2,500 to 10,000 population, four (8.33%) in towns of 10,000
to 25,000, seven (14.58%) in cities of 25,000 to 100,000,
five (10.42%) in cities of 100,000 to 1,000,000, and four
(8.33%) in metropolitan areas of one million or more in
population. Twenty-one of the fathers (44.68%) had less
than a high school education, seven (14.89%) had some high
school, four (8.51%) had graduated from high school, six
(12.77%) had some college, two (4.26%) had college degrees,
one (2.13%) had some graduate work, and six (12.77%) had
earned graduate degrees. Eighteen of the mothers (38.30%)
had less than a high school education, four (8.51%) had some
high school, and eight (17.02%) were high school graduates
only. Ten (21.28%) had some college, another six (12.77%)
were college graduates, and one mother had achieved a grad-
uate degree (2.13%). All of the spouses of the long ten-
ured presidents were high school graduates with eight
(17.78%) having some college, twenty (44.44%) college

TABLE 11

MAJOR FIELD OF STUDY FOR ALL PAST PRESIDENTS

	Tenure			
Highest Degree Major Field	Short	Mid	Long	Total
Agriculture	2	0	1	3
Business	1	0	1	2
Engineering	1	1	3	5
Natural Sciences	3	2	7	12
Medical-Legal	0	2	4	6
Education	4	2	11	17
Humanities	11	10	17	38
Social Sciences	2	0	4	6
Totals:	24	17	48	89

TABLE 12

HIGHEST-DEGREE EARNED BY ALL PAST PRESIDENTS

	Tenure			
Highest Earned Degree	Short	Mid	Long	Total
Bachelor of Arts	0	0	0	0
Bachelor of Science	0	0	1	1
Masters	0	0	2	2
Doctor of Philosophy	21	12	32	65
Doctor of Education	2	2	11	15
Professional (M.D.,Ll.D.,etc.)	1	3	2	6
Totals:	24	17	48	89

graduates, four (8.89%) with some graduate work, eight (17.78%) with graduate degrees, and three (6.67%) with post graduate work.

The regions where the long tenured president attended college and did his graduate work can be seen in Table 10, page 113. The largest number of these presidents, seventeen (35.42%) had majored in the humanities, while eleven (22.92%) majored in education, seven (14.58%) in the natural sciences, four (8.33%) each in the social sciences and professional fields (medical, legal, etc.), three (6.25%) in engineering, and one (2.08%) each in agriculture and business. Thirty-two (66.67%) had earned the Doctor of Philosophy, eleven (22.92%) the Doctor of Education, two (4.17%) Professional (M.D., Ll.D., etc.), two (4.17%) a Master's degree, and one (2.08%) a Bachelor of Science as their highest degree.

Results of Statistical Analysis

Since the data were collected in several different forms, it was necessary to employ more than one statistical procedure to test for any differences between the short and long tenured subjects of this study. Because of the essentially nonparametric nature of the data, the chi-square was one of the statistics employed, but since the chi-square statistic can be biased by empty cells and because the

lower numbers of short tenured presidents tended to create either empty cells or cells with very low frequencies, the Wilcoxon rank-sum test and the Aspin-Welch form of the t-test were utilized as supplemental analyses to insure a greater accuracy in reporting of any statistically signifi-cant differences. These procedures were executed on all of the attitude items of the questionnaire, but only those items indicating any significant differences are reported here in the results of statistical analysis chapter.

The attitude items of the questionnaire were grouped and presented in five sections. The responses from four of these sections, Working with Constituents, The Role of Stu-dents, Satisfaction With the Presidency, and Your Recruit-ment Experience, lend themselves to being combined and re-duced to a single score. This is possible because the items used from each of these sections in the creation of this single score are not only closely related in content but were designed to be scored on a Likert-type continuum indi-cating a subject's reaction to a single item from a very positive to a very negative response. The four single scores have been designated as: 1) Strength of Leadership; 2) Students; 3) Satisfaction; and 4) Recruitment respec-tively. For these four combined scores an ANOVA which is designed specifically for unequal N sizes was employed to test for any difference between the long and short tenured

presidents. The ANOVA procedure indicated that the responses of the short and long tenured presidents to the items in the Student combined score were significantly different at a confidence level of .08. This suggests that short tenured presidents are more apt to favor the participation of students in the general administration of the university.

Individual Items Indicating Significance

When comparing the responses of the short tenured chief executive officer with the responses of the long tenured chief executive officer, data from nine attitude items of the questionnaire indicated that a significant difference was present within a .10 level of confidence. The level of confidence for each of the three tests of significance for all nine items are reported in Table 12 at the end of this chapter.

The mean response of the short tenured president to the item soliciting the degree of importance placed on the support of the board of control for the president on controversial decisions was 4.88 with a standard deviation (SD) of .33 and a response range of 4 to 5. The long tenured presidents' mean was 4.60 with a SD of .61 and a response range of 3 to 5. The Aspin-Welch t-test yielded a .0146 confidence level indicating significantly that the shorter tenured president places a higher priority on the support

of the board for controversial decisions by the president than the longer tenured president.

For the item questioning the importance placed on the presence of an unbiased, well conducted procedure for evaluating the office of the president the short tenured subjects had a mean score of 4.00 with a SD of 1.08 and a response range of 2 to 5 as compared to the longer tenured subjects with a mean of 3.21 with a SD of 1.18 and a response range of 1 to 5. The chi-square statistic indicated a significant difference at the .0818 level of confidence suggesting that the short tenured subjects expressed significantly more importance on the presence of an appropriate evaluation process for the office of the president.

The short tenured officer tended to rank the time spent with administrative staff and officers, faculty, students, and board members as one, two, three, and four respectively while the longer tenured officer more frequently ranked the time spent with administrative staff and officers, faculty, board members, and students as one, two, three, and four respectively. An Aspin-Welch t-test indicated a significant difference at the .0384 level of confidence indicating the short tenured officer's higher ranking of students according to the time spent with different constituents.

The mean response of the short tenured president to the item seeking the subjects' willingness to have students

participate in the selection of faculty was 2.20 with a SD of .65 and a response range of 1 to 3. The long tenured presidents' willingness mean was 1.92 with a SD of .71 and a response range of 1 to 4. The Aspin-Welch t-test yielded a .0914 confidence level indicating significantly that the shorter tenured president is more willing to have students participate in the selection of faculty than is the longer tenured president.

For the item questioning the willingness of the president to have students participate in the selection of student services personnel the short tenured subjects had a mean score of 3.44 with a SD of .71 while responses ranged from 2 to 5 as compared to the longer tenured subjects with a mean of 3.15 with a SD of .82 and a response range of 1 to 4. The Aspin-Welch t-test yielded a .0938 confidence level indicating significantly that the shorter tenured president is more willing to have student participation in the selection of student services personnel than is the longer tenured president.

The short tenured presidents' responses to the item soliciting whether the president favors the students' input into graduation requirements had a mean of 2.12 with a SD of .83 and response range of 1 to 3. The long tenured presidents' response to the same item had a mean of 1.79 with a SD of .71 and a response range of 1 to 3. The chi-square

statistic was significant with a confidence level of .0894 suggesting that the short tenured president is more apt to favor the students' input into the requirements for graduation than the longer tenured president.

For the item questioning the importance of the prestige of an institution on the satisfaction a subject will have with the presidency, the short tenured chief executive officer had a mean of 4.12 with a SD of .61 and a response range of 3 to 5. The longer tenured chief executive officer had a mean of 4.40 with a SD of .76 and a response range of 2 to 5. The chi-square statistic was significant with a confidence level of .0790 suggesting that the short tenured president places less importance on the prestige of an institution for satisfaction than does the longer tenured president.

The mean response of the short tenured president to the item seeking the degree of importance placed on the opportunity to contribute to the growth and advancement of the university was 5.00 with a SD of 0.00 and all responses of 5. The longer tenured president's mean response was 4.90 with a SD of .31 and responses of 4's and 5's. The Aspin-Welch t-test yielded a .0237 confidence level indicating significantly that the shorter tenured president places more importance on the opportunity to have a positive impact on the university than the longer tenured officer.

124

The short tenured presidents' response to the item soliciting the degree of agreement between what was presented during recruitment and what was actually encountered on the job had a mean of 3.44 with a SD of 1.42 and a response range of 1 to 5. The longer tenured president had a mean of 4.05 with a SD of .86 and response range of 2 to 5. The chi-square statistic was significant with a confidence level of .0440. The shorter tenured president indicated that he experienced significantly less agreement between what was told to him during recruitment and what he actually encountered after assuming office than did the longer tenured president.

Other Significant Differences

Of the twenty-five short tenured chief executive officers responding five (20%) had listed their father's occupation as unskilled or semiskilled laborer, three (12%) as skilled laborer, three (12%) as clerks or salesmen, nine (36%) as professional, and five (20%) as farmer. The longer tenured chief executive officers listed nine (18.75%) as unskilled or semiskilled laborer, six (12.5%) as clerks or salesmen, five (10.42%) as owner of small business, eleven (22.92%) as professional, and sixteen (33.33%) as farmers. The chi-square statistic was significant with a confidence level of .0901 indicating a difference in the distribution of the fathers' occupations of the two groups. Two of the

larger differences, owner of small business and farmer, were weighted in favor of the longer tenured president which might indicate that ownership--considering many farmers own their own farm--of one's own means of livelihood on the part of father could account for the major portion of the difference between the two groups of presidents.

All of the wives of the short tenured presidents were high school graduates with two (8%) having some college, eight (32%) college graduates, five (20%) with some graduate work, six (24%) with graduate degrees, and four (16%) with post graduate work. All of the spouses of the long tenured presidents were high school graduates with eight (17.78%) having some college, twenty (44.44%) college graduates, four (8.89%) with some graduate work, eight (17.78%) with graduate degrees, and three (6.67%) with post graduate work. The Wilcoxon rank-sum statistic was significant for the differences between the two groups with a confidence level of .0361. This difference in the data suggests that the educational level of the spouse of the short tenured president is apt to be higher than that of the longer tenured president.

Of the twenty-four short tenured presidents responding to the item that called for rating the working relationship with the inherited staff of the previous administration thirteen (54.17%) rated the staff with positive responses, six (25%) with negative responses, two (8.33%) with neutral

responses, and three (12.5%) with mixed feelings. Of the
forty-four longer tenured subjects thirty-five (79.55%) of
the responses were positive, three (6.82%) were negative,
five (11.36%) were neutral, and one (2.27%) was mixed.
The chi-square statistic for this data was significant at
the .0421 level of confidence suggesting that the shorter
tenured president is less likely to have a favorable working
relationship with inherited staff from the previous adminis-
tration.

Nineteen (79.17%) of the twenty-four short tenured
subjects responding to the item indicating the control of
the university where they had received their graduate de-
gree indicated that the institution was state controlled
while five (20.83%) were privately controlled. Of the
long tenured presidents, twenty-five (52.08%) of the forty-
eight responding indicated that their graduate school was
state controlled and twenty-two (45.83%) were privately
controlled. The Wilcoxon rank-sum statistic was signifi-
cant for the differences with a .0591 level of confidence.
The difference in this data suggests that the shorter ten-
ured president is more apt to have his graduate degree from
a state controlled university than the longer tenured
president.

TABLE 13

TESTS OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SHORT AND LONG TENURED PRESIDENTS ON SELECTED ATTITUDE ITEMS

Attitude Item	X^2	T-test	Wilcoxon
As opposed to the long tenured president, the short tenured president...	Prob=	Prob>|T| =	Prob>|Z| =
places a higher importance on board support for controversial decisions......	.1176	.0146*	.1249
places a higher importance on the presence of an evaluation procedure......	.0818*	.0058*	.0102*
spent more time with students(3) after administrative officers (1) and faculty (2) than board members(#3 for long tenured presidents).....................	.3259	.0384*	.1534
is more likely to favor the students' participation in faculty selection.......	.1990	.0914*	.1087
is more likely to favor the students' participation in the selection of student services personnel...............	.3786	.0938*	.1925
is more likely to favor students' input to graduation requirements.........	.0894*	.1009	.1179
places less importance on the prestiege of a school in term of satisfaction......	.0790*	.1099	.0833*
places a greater importance on the opportunity to improve the university.........	.0945*	.0237*	.4711
found less agreement between what was presented during recruitment and what was actually encountered on the job..........	.0440*	.0603*	.1309
was less likely to have a father who owned his own means of livelihood........	.0901*	.3057	.2981
is apt to have a more educated spouse....	.3001	.0307*	.0361*
is less apt to have a favorable response to inherited staff.....................	.0421*	.0911*	.0965*
is more apt to have received his graduate degree from a state controlled college...	.0786*	.0144*	.0591*

*Statistically significant at the .10 level of confidence.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Discussion of Results

The problem of this study was to identify those fac-
tors that may be contributing to the resignation of the
short tenured president of large state controlled universi-
ties and that distinguishes them from those who persist for
an average or longer term in office. The present study did
reveal several factors that make this distinction and a
discussion of these factors follows in the order they were
dealt with in Chapter IV of this study. Only those factors
yielding a statistically significant difference at the .10
level of confidence will be discussed at any length.

The question was raised of whether the differences
between the groups of short and long tenured presidents
may have been present simply as a function of the time
spent in the position of the chief executive officer. To
test this question, comparisons were made with the use of

the chi-square statistic between the group of short tenured past presidents and the group of short tenured current presidents in this study. Considering that the group of current short tenured presidents should consist of both future short and long completed tenure subjects, there were significant differences between the two groups for the same items that had shown significant differences in the comparisons between the short and long tenured past presidents except for three of ten attitude items of this study. With the exception of these three items, these differences would support the thesis that the short tenured president's differences are not a result of his/her lesser time in office, but are differences that are accounted for by other contributing factors or differences in the individual.

Contributing Factors

Those factors which contribute significantly, as demonstrated in the previous chapter, to a difference between the short and long tenured president fall into five general areas of observation: 1) the president's background; 2) the job; 3) his views about the role of students; 4) elements contributing to his satisfaction with the position of president; and 5) his recruitment to the position.

Background
===

The short and long tenured presidents differed in
their backgrounds in that their father's occupations were
significantly different. A closer examination of those
differences indicated that the longer tenured president's
father was more apt to be self-employed as either the owner
of a small business or a farmer than the short tenured pre-
sident's father, who more often may have been at a manage-
ment level and, hence, working for someone other than him-
self. This factor suggests that the position of the father
in terms of control perhaps influenced the subject more than
the income or status level of the position the father held.
One of the possible implications of this factor is that the
longer tenured president acquired a greater ability for
persistence through an association with the value of self
determination. Another explanation may be that the longer
tenured president learned to deal with ambiguity that is not
only accredited to the office of the president but is often
associated with ownership of small businesses and farms.

A high proportion, 65 to 75 percent, of the past
presidents attended a state controlled university in the
same geographic region as their home. While members of
both groups tended to attend graduate schools in other
regions, a larger number of the longer tenured presidents
switched from public institutions to privately controlled

institutions when deciding their choice for graduate work. Attendance for graduate work at a privately controlled university, then, is related to the length of tenure for the subjects of this study. One obvious explanation is that the longer tenured president whose father probably had more control over his salary through his self-employment situation may have had greater resources available to meet the higher tuition payments generally associated with private institutions.

Another aspect related to the educational factor that was also significant was the level of education of the spouse. The short tenured president's spouse tended to have achieved a higher level of education beyond the undergraduate degree.

The Job

The three factors (working relationship with inherited staff, the presence of an evaluation process, and board support for controversial decisions) related to the job that achieved statistical significance suggest that the shorter tenured presidents experienced more difficulties related to certain elements of the chief executive's position. The short tenured president reported more negative responses pertaining to his working relationship with staff that he had inherited from the previous administration. It would follow, then, that unresolved bad working relationships

with inherited staff could contribute to shortening the tenure of a new president. One obvious explanation is the resistance to change inherent not only in individual staff members but also in the institution itself. A new president often has new ideas that are thwarted because of these constraints, thus adding to his frustrations and contributing to his possible disenchantment with the office. Another possible explanation may simply be the president's inability to make staff changes due to established institutional employment policies aimed at arbitrary dismissals.

The shorter tenured president also placed a greater emphasis on the presence of an unbiased, well conducted procedure for evaluating performance in the office of the president. Since it was reported that the majority of universities still do not have a regularly instituted presidential evaluation process, this would tend to leave the office of the president subject to an informal and casual evaluation that is apt to have been initiated as a result of negative criticism. A well conducted evaluation that was not random could more likely provide positive feedback to a president's progress and thus be more encouraging to his continuance in office for a longer period of time. A formal evaluation would give a new president guidelines to follow and would suggest to the president the areas of concern expressed by the board of control. The fact that many short tenured presidents indicated a greater interest

in the presence of an evaluation process suggests that many
of them may not have had the guidelines needed for providing
the kind of leadership expected by the institution. On the
other hand, the longer tenured president who had survived
in office long enough to have established the kinds of re-
lationships with the board that tend to encourage an infor-
mal pattern of feedback had perhaps a lesser need for a
formal evaluation process that would have offered the neces-
sary leadership guidelines.

The third factor yielding a significant difference
was the short tenured president's higher expectation for
support of the president by the Board of Trustees on con-
troversial decisions. This ex post facto expression on the
part of the short tenured presidents whose responses were
almost unanimously high (4.88 mean) could suggest a number
of different situations. One such situation might be that
the short tenured president had not experienced very much
support and was thus placed in a position in which he felt
it was necessary to resign. Another possibility is the
presence of some common factor or factors in the leadership
style of the subjects that contribute to both an uncommon
need for external support and a lack of persistence. This
item was one of the three items that were implicated earlier
in this chapter to possibly being affected by the time spent
in office. This being the case, another explanation for
the difference is that the longer a subject is in office

the greater the opportunity to develop a viable working relationship with the board that would either produce the needed support for controversial decisions or an ability to avoid situations requiring such decisions.

Recruitment

Only one item in the recruitment section of the study yielded a significant difference. It dealt with the agreement between the facts that were presented by the institution during the recruitment process and what was actually encountered after assuming office. As might be expected, the short tenured president found more disagreement. This particular factor, however, can be or is as much an institutional factor as an individual one. It is no doubt possible for a search committee in its zeal to recruit a new president to be too brief in its presentation of the university thus overlooking pertinent information. On the other hand, the individual being recruited should be acute enough to discover major discrepancies before accepting the position. In either case, representatives of the institution should be responsible to report as accurately as possible those items of information that affect the office of the president, for it appears that such an effort would tend to increase the length of tenure of their new president.

Students

The area that produced the most differences between short and long tenured presidents was the one dealing with the respondent's attitudes toward the role of students within the university setting. As was reported earlier, the responses to four sections of the questionnaire were collapsed to a single score and only one of these sections indicated a significant difference--the one on student roles. Generally, the short tenured president was more inclined to have the student participate in the affairs of the university, for example, in the selection and evaluation of faculty and the establishment of graduation requirements. Specifically, the short tenured presidents were more in favor of students participating in the establishment of graduation requirements, the selection of student services personnel, and the selection of faculty. Both the short and long tenured presidents were in high agreement with the student being involved in faculty evaluation.

Another factor on which respondents differed significantly and one that also indicates the short tenured president's interest in students, was his ranking the time he allocated to student contacts higher than did the longer tenured president. Both the long and short tenured president ranked time spent with administrative officers and staff and faculty as first and second importance respectively, but short tenured ranked students third while the

longer tenured president ranked board members in the third
position. These factors dealing with the attitudes toward
students may indicate that individuals who were the short
tenured president may have been better suited to a smaller
institution, one which is generally believed to be more
student oriented. If such is the case, this difference
would tend to support literature dealing with the "fit"
between the individual and the institution as a contributing
factor to better persistence.

Satisfaction

Two items in the satisfaction portion of the study
achieved statistical significance. These two items were
also implicated to possibly being affected by time spent in
office as indicated in the first part of this chapter. Sub-
jects who completed a short term in office and subjects who
are currently serving as a chief executive officer but have
only been in office for four or fewer years are similar in
their responses to these two items. The first was the short
tenured presidents' lesser emphasis on the prestige of a
university as a contributor to their satisfaction with their
position.

Second was the greater importance the short tenured
chief executive placed on his opportunity to improve the
university at which he was chosen. Joseph Kauffman's study
of new college presidents found that many of the 32

presidents he interviewed felt that they would have a positive impact on their institution, but "most did not plan to stay more than a few years because of pressure and frustrations."[1] Obviously a number of his subjects were short tenured presidents since 13 of the 32 had left their office by the end of the fourth year.

Conclusions

The differences that have been reported by this study support a thesis that the short tenured president is indeed different from the longer tenured president. Both are similar in their backgrounds with regards to their education and career experiences and patterns. This indicates that at least on paper the search committees are relatively consistent in the type of individual that is recruited to head our state controlled universities.

The ideology of the short tenured presidents does not appear to differ too greatly from that of the longer tenured president in direction so much as it does in the degree. It is this significant degree of difference that has accounted for the distinction between the two groups. It is important because it is this degree of difference present in a constellation of related factors that may well

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[1]Joseph F. Kauffman, "The New College President: Expectations and Realities," Educational Record 58, 2 (Spring 1977): 165.

identify an individual whose frame-of-reference is less
suited as a basis for persistence as a chief executive offi-
cer. If one would consider the political model as a viable
descriptor of the state controlled university today, then
this constellation of factors fits with a reasonable expla-
nation for why some presidents may tend to persist longer
than others. Within the context of a theoretical frame-of-
reference that calls for a suitable match between the quali-
ties of an individual and the individual's particular needs,
and the expectations of a position, and where the expecta-
tions of that position could be construed as political in
nature, one could expect that the individual less suited
for persistence in office would be that of the non-politic-
ally oriented president.

The A-Political President

It is recognized that there is no pure type of indi-
vidual leadership style. It is agreed by many writers that
the university becomes more political in nature[1] and any
individual assuming a presidency anytime in the recent past
would have, of necessity, encountered this political arena.

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[1]The political nature of the university and its lead-
ers has been referred to throughout Chapter II of this study.
The reader may wish to refer to the following references in
this study: Baldridge, p. 28; Kerr, p. 40; Cohen and March,
p. 69; Wingfield, p. 69; Bennis, p. 72; Burns, p. 76; and
Nordvall, p. 88.

It is therefore the contention of this study, consistent
with the degrees of difference rather than the directions
found, that the short tenured president is not necessarily
'non-political' in nature, but rather simply less politically
oriented than the longer tenured president.

The subject of power cannot be avoided when engaging
in any political discussion. The short tenured president's
higher expectation of board support suggests a need for
power from a more external source in that the longer ten-
ured president is more aplly reliant on his own political
prowess to achieve success in controversial decisions. It
is also noted that the shorter tenured president reported
spending less time with members of the board than did the
longer tenured president. This less politically inclined
president spent more time with students who are less likely
to be a source of political power than members of the board.

Power and position often go hand in hand and it is
often assumed that greater power may exist in association
with greater prestige. Whether this is always true could
be argued, but the short tenured, non-politically oriented
president is significantly less interested in the prestige
of his institution than his persistent counterpart. At the
same time he is also significantly more interested in making
an improvement in the university than the longer tenured
president. Both of these items suggest that the short
tenured president's motivation is more altruistic than the

longer tenured president. An obvious implication might be an absence of political motivation which is often associated with the acquisition of power that can be derived from occupying influential positions like that of a large state controlled university presidency. Even more apparent might be the short tenured president's willingness to relinquish power through resignation.

As mentioned above, both of these factors were also observed and discussed in Kauffman's study of first year presidents, but his discussion was in the context of the new president's unfulfilled expectations.

These unfulfilled expectations, or as significantly expressed in the language of the present study, the lack of agreement between what was expressed during recruitment and what was actually found after assuming office, could hint at more than the issue of expectations versus realities. It is consistent with the political concept to suggest that a more politically acute candidate would pose more pointed and direct questions during the recruitment process, questions that would reveal a more realistic picture of the university's condition. He or she would thus be less apt to be surprised by what was found after assuming office. Considering the stronger interests of short tenured presidents toward such areas as the role of students in university affairs and the making of university improvements, it is not surprising that the questions and inquiries made during

recruitment would not be as concentrated in the areas of finance, board support, and inherited staff wherein so much of the disappointment and disagreement lies. The naivete of a first time president appears to be cured by the experience in that second appointments were reported by the respondents of this study to be generally longer than first time appointments.

Another area where the short tenured president differs is in the greater importance placed on the presence of an unbiased, regularly scheduled presidential evaluation process. Again, the short tenured president is more willing to place in the hands of others the opportunity to either confirm or criticize executive abilities. An evaluation could threaten his position as well as his power, but since his motivation for being the chief executive officer does not appear to be within the power need domain as markedly as it is with the longer tenured president, the welcomed evaluation would not be perceived as threatening as it may be perceived by a more politically acute, longer tenured president. The responses of the short tenured president appear consistent regarding sharing responsibility with others, particularly in the area of student roles in the university arena.

Of all the factors that showed statistically significant differences, those that dealt with students were the most numerous. The short tenured president was in every

case more favorable to the student, reflecting not only a greater interest in students, but placing that interest in students above that of members of the board in terms of the amount of time given to the two groups. This fact suggests that the short tenured president is perhaps not only more altruistic but perhaps more idealistic in his view of the university. The realist would be more inclined to accept the fact that financial stringency and political struggles for power do exist within the university today and would thus act accordingly. The longer tenured president would not necessarily be any less appreciative of the scholarly ideals of the university, but would perhaps simply have a greater awareness that his success in achieving goals would be more aptly rooted in his ability to survive the politics than his execution of some idealistically desirable behavior like spending a lot of time with students. Again, it is not the opposite direction the presidents take that distinguishes the differences between the two groups, but the degree of those differences.

The above conclusions should be viewed more as in-ferences derived from the findings of this study than a set of facts specifically supported by the findings. The fact that none of the items dicusssed above were examined at great depth by this study was due to the greater priority given to the breadth of the study. This is necessarily a limitation of any research that is designed to be

exploratory in nature. Although the conclusion of this study
states that the shorter tenured president is likely to be a
less politically oriented individual in his behavior and at-
titudes, the findings of this research only statistically
support that differences do exist for those factors found in
Table 11 on page 123.

Recommendations for Further Study

Two principal recommendations for future studies
appear to be appropriate. First, because this present re-
search was exploratory, none of the items that yielded
statistical significance were examined extensively. Fur-
ther study of these thirteen items and the areas of infor-
mation they encompass could either confirm or deny their
importance in understanding the complexities of the college
presidency. Second, the present research was not designed
as a longitudinal study even though there are a number of
dynamic factors implicit in any study of human subjects.
A dynamic approach may yield information useful in identi-
fying individuals with more or less persistence for a posi-
tion like that of a university president. Because this
present study gathered information on a large number of
current presidents as a control group, this information
and a follow-up study of these same subjects after a period
of four years (in four years a new pool of short tenured

presidents would have been formed) could indentify additional, dynamic factors that may contribute to the lack of persistence of some university presidents.

In reviewing the raw data of this study, it was noted that some states reflected a better retention of their institutions' presidents than others. It is therefore recommended that studies of regional differences in institutions be undertaken to identify those factors that may contribute to greater persistence.

The present study did not attempt to control for the type of presidency according to the type of state-wide system under which the university was governed. A study that would compare tenure under the different types of systems is also recommended.

Institutional factors such as age, prestige, size, financial condition and stability, quality of students, student-faculty ratio, community size, and institutional traditions were not the focus of this study even though it is reasonable to expect that these factors could affect the persistence of a university president. It is also recommended that studies controlling for these factors as well as other institutional factors be undertaken.

In the Comments section of the questionnaire a number of the subjects made reference to the absence of items about the spouses of university presidents and the importance they play in the success one experiences. Future

studies on the college president should incorporate the president's spouse and family.

One final recommendation would be a study of administrators' attitudes towards students. It was this area that yielded the largest number of significant differences and yet the literature reflected very little in the way of studies that dealt with university presidents' attitudes about students.

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APPENDIX A

SAMPLE LETTERS FOR DATA GATHERING

The
University of Oklahoma

CENTER FOR STUDIES
IN HIGHER EDUCATION
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
630 Parrington Oval, Room 558
Norman, Oklahoma 73019
(405) 325-2633

August 2, 1982

Dr. Clyde J. Wingfield
Office of the President
SUNY - Old Westbury
Old Westbury, New York 11568

Dear Dr. Wingfield:

The Center for Studies In Higher Education at the University of Oklahoma
is undertaking an extensive study of the chief executive officer of the state
controlled university campus. The Center has chosen this area of investigation
because of the much stated concern for the person who has occupied these
executive chairs.

In one week to ten days you will be receiving a University Presidents
Attitude Scale in which you will be asked to give your response to certain
aspects of the presidential role. You have been selected to participate
because you belong to a select group of university exeuctives who have left
their office since 1975 and whose campuses were of no less than 8000 students.
Because of these parameters, the number of available subjects are necessarily
limited which places a special emphasis on your participation in this study.

The college presidents who participated in the field test of the attitude
scale indicated that only a few minutes were required to complete the form.
This indicates that we were successful in our efforts to keep the form as short
and simple as possible in order to encourage your participation in light of
other demands placed on your time. Please help us with this important piece of
research.

Respectfully yours,

Joseph L. Walker

JLW:sse

Enclosure

163

August 2, 1982

Dr. Clyde J. Wingfield
Office of the President
SUNY - Old Westbury
Old Westbury, New York 11568

Dear Dr. Wingfield:

    I hope that you will find time to complete the presidential attitudes
survey that will shortly come to your desk from the Center for Studies in
Higher Education of the University of Oklahoma. The importance is self-evident
and its success is totally dependent on your participation as current and past
chief executive officers of our larger universities.

Sincerely yours,

Paul F. Sharp
President Emeritus and
  Regents' Professor

PFS:sse

The
University of Oklahoma at Norman

Center for
Studies in Higher Education
College of Education

August 9, 1982

Dr. Norman A. Baxter
c/o Office of the President
California State University-Fresno
Fesno, California 93740

Dear Dr. Baxter:

Enclosed you will find the questionnaire mentioned in a previous letter. Be reassured that the responses you give will remain totally anonymous and that any subsequent use of this information will not be identified with any individual or even any specific university by name. Feel free and totally confident in sharing your candid opinions.

IMPORTANT: Where the questionnaire calls for information about your experiences as the chief executive officer of a university campus, please respond with your reactions specific to your position while you were at California State University-Fresno. Also note that the generic term "president" has been used in the questionnaire in lieu of such possible titles as Chancellor, Provost, Vice-President, etc.

We greatly appreciate your interest and time in completing the enclosed.

Respectfully yours,

Joseph L. Walker

JLW:sse

Enclosure

630 Parrington Oval, Room 558, Norman, Oklahoma 73019 (405) 325-2633

165

**The
University of Oklahoma**

CENTER FOR STUDIES
IN HIGHER EDUCATION
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
630 Parrington Oval, Room 558
Norman, Oklahoma 73019
(405) 325-2633

September 3, 1982

Dr. William E. Davis
Chancellor, Oregon State System of
  Higher Education
Post Office Box 3125
Eugene, Oregon 97403

Dear Dr. Davis:

As of September 1, 1982 the Center for Studies in Higher Education had not received a completed University Presidents Attitude Scale from you. If you have recently finished and returned it to us, please accept our thanks and disregard this second request.

We realize that although persistence may be an important element in the success of our research efforts, it is no doubt a slight nuisance to you. Be assured that this follow-up letter encouraging your response will be our last attempt.
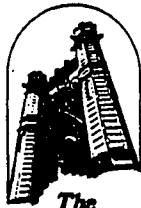
We need your help.

Please answer the enclosed questionnaire with regard to your position as the chief administrative officer while you were at University of New Mexico.

Respectfully yours,

Joseph L. Walker

JLW:kaf

Enclosure

166

The
University of Oklahoma   Norman, Oklahoma 73019

September 1, 1982

Dr. John A. Greenlee
c/o Office of the President
California State University-Los Angeles
Los Angeles, California 90032

Dear Dr. Greenlee:

Our records indicate that we have received your completed form of the
University Presidents Attitude Scale. On behalf of Dr. Herb Hengst and
Dr. Paul Sharp, I wish to express our appreciation for your time and energy.

Gratefully yours,

Joseph L. Walker
Center for Studies
   in Higher Education

JLW:kaf

167

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE

Control # _____

The
University of Oklahoma

CENTER FOR STUDIES IN HIGHER EDUCATION

UNIVERSITY PRESIDENTS
ATTITUDE SCALE

This instrument was designed to describe how current and past presidents feel about their position as the chief administrative officer of a state controlled university campus. In order to facilitate your answering the questions effectively, this instrument has been divided into seven sections: Your Job As President, Working With Constituents, The Role Of Students, Satisfaction With The Presidency, Your Recruitment Experience, General Questions, and Personal Origin and Background.

We would appreciate your thoroughness, thoughtfulness, and frankness in responding to the items of this questionnaire.

The completed form will be processed anonymously and the answers summarized in a statistical form so that individuals cannot be identified. To maintain this complete confidentiality, please do not write your name anywhere on this form. The control number at the upper right corner of this page will be used for keeping response records.

There are no further instructions — you may begin now with the first item on the following page.

NOTE: For further information or assistance feel free to contact Joe Walker or Herb Hengst at the University of Oklahoma Center for Studies in Higher Education, 630 Parrington Oval, Room 558, Norman, Oklahoma 73019, or call (405) 325-2633.

YOUR JOB AS PRESIDENT

In the performance of your job as president what degree of importance do you place on the following?

Not Important At All

Very Little Importance

Somewhat Important

Important

Extremely Important

1. The presence of well defined short-range institutional goals .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

2. The presence of well defined long-range institutional goals .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

3. The Board of Trustees' support of the president on controversial decisions .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

4. The existence of a faculty senate .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

5. An appropriate balance of power between the president and the board of control .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

6. The initiation of institutional goals by the board of control .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

7. The existence of an unbiased, well conducted procedure for evaluating the office of the president .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

8. The faculty's general satisfaction with working conditions (Adequate facilities, laboratory equipment, etc.) .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

9. The quality of the president's working relationship with the state legislature .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

10. Unsolicited input from faculty members on budgetary matters .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

11. The president having adequate power and authority to act effectively as the chief administrative officer........................... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

12. Although a president should possess many administrative-leadership qualities, above all ...

a). . . the president must be a notable scholar in his own right with a strong background in both teaching and research .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

b). . . the president must be one who has repeatedly demonstrated good executive and administrative abilities in education .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

c). . . the president must be one with a considerable knowledge of and training in business and/or financial matters related to institutional growth and development .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

13. Please rank the three categories from the previous question from the most essential to the least essential quality needed by a university president.

Place a 1 (most essential), 2, or 3 (least essential) below:
Teacher-Research Background .... _____
Educational Administration Background .... _____
Business-Finance Background .... _____

170

WORKING WITH CONSTITUENTS

How do you view the president's role as expressed
by the degree to which you would participate in a
decision making process with the
following constituent groups?

Listener/Supporter

Mediator/Facilitator

Limited Participation/Information Source

Suggestive Input/Active Participation

Policy Maker/Leader

14. Board of Trustees .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

15. Alumni .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

16. Students .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

17. Faculty .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

18. Administrative Officers and Staff .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

19. Civic, Community Leaders .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

20. State Legislators .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

21. The president is likely to come in contact with members of all of the above groups in the course of his tenure.
Please rank the following according to the percentage of time you would spend with each group or members of
that group. Rank as "1" the greatest amount of time, "2" the next greatest, etc.

_____ Administrative Officers and Staff   _____ Board of Trustees/Members   _____ Students

_____ Civic, Community Leaders   _____ Alumni   _____ Faculty

_____ State Legislators, Political Leaders

THE ROLE OF STUDENTS

To what degree do you feel students should play
an active role in the following?

Not At All

To A Very Little Extent

To Some Extent

To A Great Extent

Completely

22. In the development of curriculum .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

23. In the selection of faculty .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

24. In the evaluation of faculty .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

25. In the selection of student services staff .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

26. In the selection of college administrators .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

27. In determining the requirements for graduation .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

28. In the discipline of fellow students for infractions of the academic code .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

171

SATISFACTION WITH THE PRESIDENCY

How much importance do you place on each of the following in considering how satisfied you would be with the position of president?					
					Not Important At All
				Very Little Importance	
			Somewhat Important		
		Important			
	Extremely Important				

29. Prestige and reputation of the university as a whole .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

30. Your salary from the institution .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

31. The opportunity to contribute to the growth and advancement of the university .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

32. The geographic location of the university .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

33. The size of the university in terms of student enrollment .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

34. A chance to initiate a significant change in the university .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

35. The added demands for more and more of my time .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

YOUR RECRUITMENT EXPERIENCE

Please rate the following dimensions of the presidential search procedures in which you participated.					
					Very Low
				Low	
			Average		
		High			
	Very High				

36. I would rate the clarity with which the Board of Control stated their expectations of the president as .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

37. The degree of accuracy in presenting the institution's financial condition was ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

38. The agreement between the over-all facts that were presented during my recruitment and what I actually encountered after assuming office was .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

39. The degree of willingness to appropriate funds necessary for a good recruitment was .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

40. I would rate the allotment of time by the institution to complete the presidential search as having been .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

41. The degree to which the number and variety of people representing the various constituencies were made available to me for interview was .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

42. I would rate the over-all recruitment procedures for seeking and retaining a president at my institution as .... ① ② ③ ④ ⑤

43. Please list several individual competencies that you feel helped you obtain the presidency at your university, and were these competencies for which you were chosen actually useful in the execution of the office?

Competency	Actually Useful?
_____( ) Yes	( ) No
_____( ) Yes	( ) No
_____( ) Yes	( ) No

GENERAL QUESTIONS

44. In the context of your concept of a good university, how would you rank the following three broad missions of the university? Rank 1, 2, and 3.
    _____ Scholarship   _____ Service   _____ Teaching

45. Has your university ever conducted a formal evaluation of your office and/or your performance as its president?   ( ) Yes   ( ) No
    If Yes
    a) Does your university conduct such an evaluation on a regular basis?
       ( ) Yes, How often? _____
       ( ) No
    b) How do you find the evaluation process and its results in the performance of your duties as president?
       ( ) Helpful   ( ) Useless   ( ) Harmful

46. My working relationship with "inherited" staff from the previous administration has been (was) _____

47. What aspect of the presidency enticed you to accept the position?
    _____
    _____

PERSONAL ORIGIN AND BACKGROUND

48. Date of Birth: _____ 49. ( ) Male   ( ) Female

50. ( ) Single   ( ) Married   ( ) Divorced   51. Number of children: _____

52. In what state(s) of the United States did you reside until you had completed high school? _____

53. Describe the size of the community you generally lived in until you had completed high school.
    ( ) Rural or less than 2,500
    ( ) 2,500 - 10,000
    ( ) 10,000 - 25,000
    ( ) City 25,000 - 100,000
    ( ) City 100,000 - 1,000,000
    ( ) City over 1,000,000 (or suburb)

54. Extent of family members' schooling. (Please check only the highest category.)

	Father	Mother	Spouse
Less than high school	( )	( )	( )
Some high school	( )	( )	( )
High school graduate	( )	( )	( )
Some college	( )	( )	( )
College graduate	( )	( )	( )
Some graduate work	( )	( )	( )
Graduate degree	( )	( )	( )
Post graduate degree	( )	( )	( )

55. My father's principal occupation: _____

56. Please fill in the following regarding your formal education beyond high school.

Institution(s) Attended	Major Subject	Degree	Date of Degree

57. Please list any honor societies to which you may have been elected during your undergraduate or graduate study: _____

58. I assumed the presidency of _____ the month of _____, 19____, and: ( ) I
am presently continuing. I vacated the office _____, 19____.

59. Prior to assuming the above presidency, had you been a president at another college or university?
( )Yes   ( )No
If yes, please give the name of the institution(s) and your term of office.

Name of Institution   Inaugural Date   Termination
_____   _____to_____
_____   _____to_____

60. At what age did you first begin work as an educational administrator in a part-time capacity? _____, and in a full-time capacity? _____.

61. Please give the following information about the position you held immediately prior to your first presidency of a college or university.
Title of the position: _____
Name of institution, company, or organization: _____
Dates that you held that position: _____to _____

62. From the time you completed your undergraduate education until the present, had you ever seriously considered a career outside the context of an educational setting?
( )Yes   ( ) No
If yes, please check the pertinent alternative(s) you have considered and CIRCLE the NUMBER of your first choice after a career in higher education:
1. ( ) Business Executive
2. ( ) Government Service
3. ( ) Religious Service
4. ( ) Labor Union Official
5. ( ) Military Officer
6. ( ) Other: _____

63. IF you are no longer a university president, what is your present employment and position? _____

Comments:

174
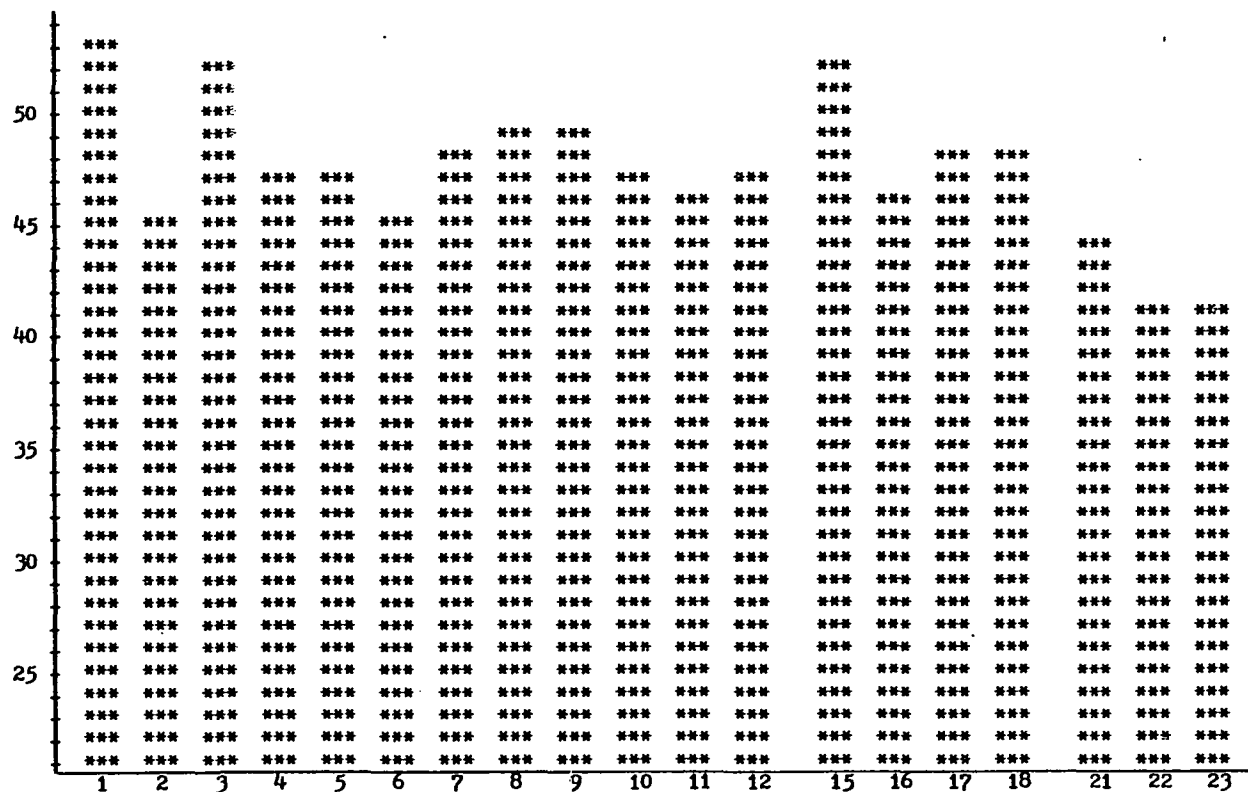
APPENDIX C

DATA AND RESEARCH FINDINGS
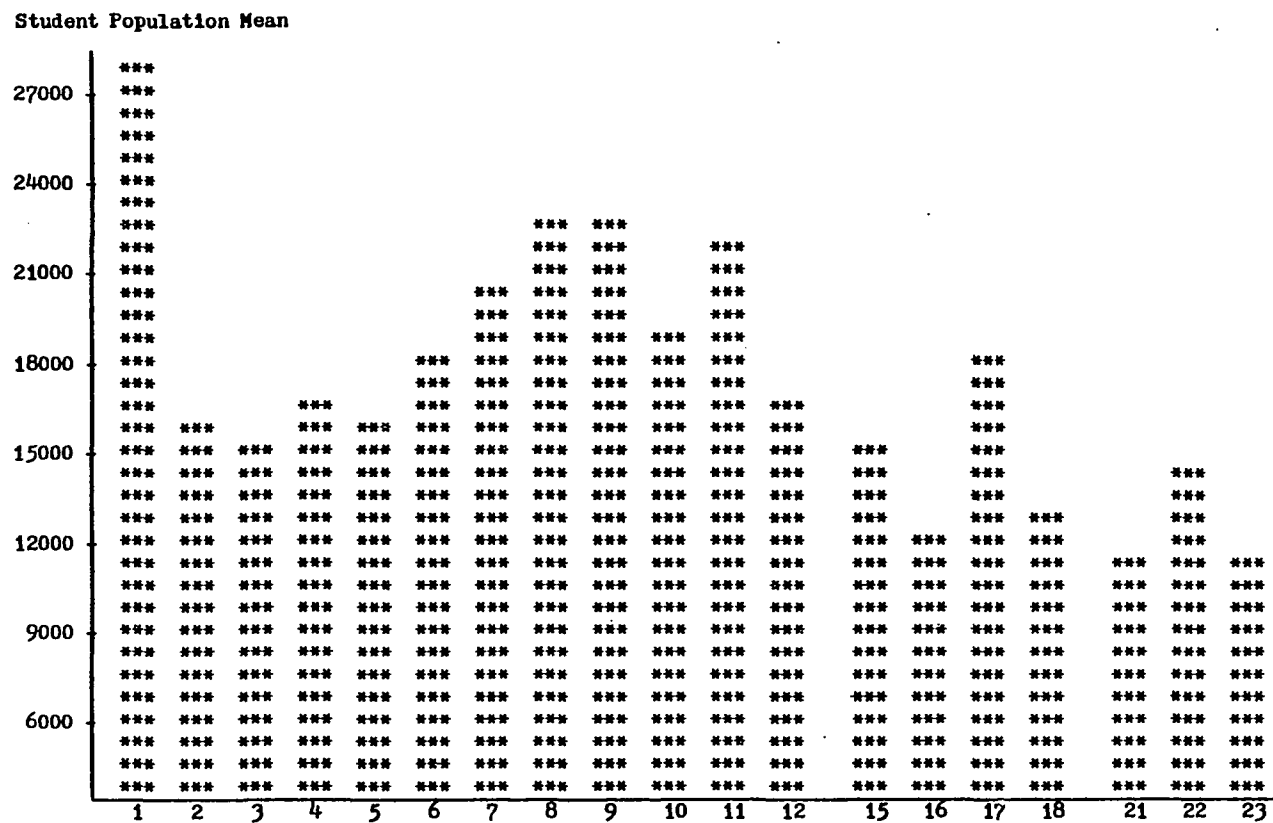
Figure 5.   Average Age of Accession by Length of Tenure

Figure 6.   Average Enrollment for Length of Tenure

TABLE 14

RESPONSE RATES BY REGION OF UNITED STATES
(See Figure 3, page 110)

						Regions					
Category		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Total
Total Number of Schools	N	10	29	24	21	21	24	30	10	28	197
	%	5.08	14.72	12.18	10.66	10.66	12.18	15.23	5.08	14.21	100.0
Schools with Interm Officers	N	1	1	0	1	2	3	0	1	2	11
	%	0.51	0.51	0.00	0.51	1.02	1.52	0.00	0.51	1.02	5.58
Survey Responses:											
Sent to Current Presidents	N	9	28	22	19	14	19	28	8	25	172
	%	5.23	16.28	12.79	11.05	8.14	11.05	16.28	4.65	14.53	100.0
Rec'd from Current Presidents	N	8	20	17	18	12	18	23	4	17	137
	%	4.65	11.63	9.88	10.47	6.98	10.47	13.37	2.33	9.88	79.65
Sent to Past Presidents	N	7	16	13	11	15	13	15	14	15	119
	%	5.88	13.45	10.92	9.24	12.61	10.92	12.61	11.76	12.61	100.0
Rec'd from Past Presidents	N	4	12	11	8	10	11	15	10	9	90
	%	3.36	10.08	9.24	6.72	8.40	9.24	12.61	8.40	7.56	75.63
Sent to Short Tenured Presidents	N	4	4	4	2	4	5	6	5	3	37
	%	10.81	10.81	10.81	5.41	10.81	13.51	16.22	13.51	8.11	100.0
Rec'd from Short Tenured Presidents	N	2	2	3	1	2	4	6	3	2	25
	%	5.41	5.41	8.11	2.70	5.41	10.81	16.22	8.11	5.41	67.57

TABLE 15

RESPONSE MEANS OF ATTITUDE ITEMS BY SHORT, MID-RANGE, AND LONG TENURED PRESIDENTS

Attitude Item:	Length of Tenure: (Response Means)		
In the performance of your job as president what degree of importance do you place on the following?	Short	Mid	Long
The presence of well defined short-range institutional goals	4.60	4.65	4.61
The presence of well defined long-range institutional goals	4.52	4.59	4.49
The Board of Trustees' support of the president on controversial decisions	4.88	4.76	4.60
The existence of a faculty senate	3.76	3.94	3.79
An appropriate balance of power between the president and the board of control	4.36	4.20	4.45
The initiation of institutional goals by the board of control	3.28	3.06	3.02
The existence of an unbiased, well conducted procedure for evaluating the office of the president	4.00	3.71	3.21
The faculty's general satisfaction with working conditions (Adequate facilities, laboratory equipment, etc.)	4.36	4.17	4.37
The quality of the president's working relationship with the state legislature	4.44	4.71	4.37
Unsolicited input from faculty members on budgetary matters	2.92	2.65	2.81
The president having adequate power and authority to act effectively as the chief administrative officer	4.80	4.82	4.87
Although a president should possess many administrative-leadership qualities, above all ...			
a). . . the president must be a notable scholar in his own right with a strong background in both teaching and research	3.72	3.88	3.43
b). . . the president must be one who has repeatedly demonstrated good executive and administrative abilities in education	4.60	4.36	4.37
c). . . the president must be one with a considerable knowledge of and training in business and/or financial matters related to institutional growth and development	3.48	3.76	2.52

(Continued)

179

Attitude Item:	Length of Tenure: (Response Means)		
To what degree do you feel students should play an active role in the following?	Short	Mid	Long
In the development of curriculum	2.73	2.69	2.60
In the selection of faculty	2.20	2.19	1.92
In the evaluation of faculty	3.32	3.44	3.33
In the selection of student services staff	3.44	3.00	3.15
In the selection of college administrators	2.72	2.44	2.54
In determining the requirements for graduation	2.12	1.69	1.79
In the discipline of fellow students for infractions of the academic code	3.52	3.75	3.52
How much importance do you place on each of the following in considering how satisfied you would be with the position of president?			
Prestige and reputation of the university as a whole	4.12	4.44	4.40
Your salary from the institution	3.32	3.44	3.31
The opportunity to contribute to the growth and advancement of the university	5.00	4.81	4.90
The geographic location of the university	3.24	3.44	3.19
The size of the university in terms of student enrollment	2.84	3.00	2.87
A chance to initiate a significant change in the university	4.56	4.12	4.54
The added demands for more and more of my time	2.96	2.66	3.36
Please rate the following dimensions of the presidential search procedures in which you participated.			
I would rate the clarity with which the Board of Control stated their expectations of the president as	3.48	3.69	3.66
The degree of accuracy in presenting the institution's financial condition was	3.65	3.85	3.81
The agreement between the over-all facts that were presented during my recruitment and what I actually encountered after assuming office was	3.44	3.94	4.05
The degree of willingness to appropriate funds necessary for a good recruitment was	3.58	3.53	3.62
I would rate the allotment of time by the institution to complete the presidential search as having been	3.92	4.37	3.86
The degree to which the number and variety of people representing the various constituencies were made available to me for interview was	4.00	3.87	3.90
I would rate the over-all recruitment procedures for seeking and retaining a president at my institution as	3.62	4.00	3.86

TABLE 16

TESTS OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PAST AND CURRENT SHORT TENURED PRESIDENTS ON ITEMS FOUND TO BE SIGNIFICANT

Attitude Item	X^2	T-test	Wilcoxon
As opposed to the long tenured president, the short tenured president...	Prob=	Prob> |T| =	Prob> |Z| =
places a higher importance on board support for controversial decisions......	.3949	.0643*	.3336
places a higher importance on the presence of an evaluation procedure......	.0943	.0422	.0589
spent more time with students(3) after administrative officers (1) and faculty (2) than board members(#3 for long tenured presidents)......................	.0176	.0003	.0051
is more likely to favor the students' participation in faculty selection.......	.0551	.0107	.0349
is more likely to favor the students' participation in the selection of student services personnel...............	.2191	.0314	.0443
is more likely to favor students' input to graduation requirements.........	.0450	.0508	.0536
places less importance on the prestiege of a school in term of satisfaction......	.3642	.6731	.8675
places a greater importance on the opportunity to improve the university.........	.1275	.0132	.5238
found less agreement between what was presented during recruitment and what was actually encountered on the job..........	.0293	.2565	.4321
was less likely to have a father who owned his own means of livelihood........	.0504	.2972	.1915
is apt to have a more educated spouse....	.1553	.4947	.6952
is less apt to have a favorable response to inherited staff......................	.0408	.1154	.3612
is more apt to have received his graduate degree from a state controlled college...	.3093	.2895	.4300