A case study of presidential leadership in selected Montana higher education institutions
by Robert Joseph Hensley, Jr

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education in Adult and Higher Education
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Abstract:
Higher education has entered an era in which leadership is required for colleges and universities to emerge in a form suitable for survival in the 21st century. It is a crossroads brought on by social, political, economic, and technological changes that is transforming methods of instruction, organizational structures, and the nature of how people learn. The demand for pioneering presidential leadership will be required in the future to address the challenges of learning in a post-industrial society.

Based on an analysis of the literature on leadership in education, six key dynamics are identified: (1) vision, (2) charisma, (3) values, (4) power, (5) culture, and (6) followers. Each of these dynamics are a factor in successful leadership. The literature indicated two contrasting models of leadership: The old paradigm of power, control, and rigid hierarchies; and the new paradigm which emphasizes shared power, participatory decision-making, and team-oriented organizational structures.

This case study identifies and describes patterns of presidential leadership in Montana higher education institutions. Five presidents were identified as exceptional leaders by a statewide survey of higher education administrators. These presidential leaders and related administrators were interviewed to identify effective leadership attributes. The study revealed seven key effective leadership characteristics used by presidents in Montana: (1) institutional mission, (2) consensus--team building, (3) risk-taker, (4) campus-community culture, (5) empowerment, (6) communication, and (7) trust--respect.

Each of these characteristics were considered essential for success by the selected presidents. The leader of the future will be challenged in a rapidly changing global environment to address issues related to governance, funding, and the diversity of students.

An exemplary model of leadership based on a common vision and an environment of trust plus the seven leadership characteristics is proposed. Four attributes make up this model: (1) An ethical and value based dimension, (2) collaboration, (3) holistic orientation, and (4) a risk-taking mind set.

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
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APPROVAL

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This thesis has been read by each member of the graduate committee and has been found to be satisfactory regarding content, English usage, format, citations, bibliographic style, and consistency, and is ready for submission to the College of Graduate Studies.

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ABSTRACT

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Higher Education: A Time of Transformation

> Thirty years from now the big university campuses will be relics. Universities won't survive. It's as large a change as when we first got the printed book. Higher education is in deep crisis. (Peter F. Drucker cited in Johnson & Lenzner, 1997, p. 122)

American higher education is traveling into new territories with few reliable maps. This uncharted journey demands a paradigm shift in guidance. Educational leadership must formulate innovative, creative solutions to meet the demands of consumer-oriented traditional and non-traditional students, to satisfy accountability-oriented governing boards and state legislatures, and to respond to a myriad of federal and private litigious intrusions. In the early 1980's, George Keller (1983), former dean and faculty member at Columbia University, said higher education needed to implement strategic planning and management methods to respond to current enrollment and fiscal crises and to meet future challenges.

> There is the reality that presidents can't act and faculties won't act. This, at the very time that higher education faces the most serious enrollment, financial, and public confidence crisis of the century, as well as radical changes in program demands, the use of technology, and client markets. (p. 172)

During this time of change, higher education will also be called upon to defend and justify such traditional foundations as academic freedom, lifetime teaching tenure, and private funding sources and to determine whether the ultimate purpose of learning is either critical thinking or preparation for employment (Dolence & Norris, 1985).

As the 21st century approaches, educational leadership will be challenged to meet the educational needs and objectives of its constituents in a rapidly changing society. Due to the magnitude and nature of the changes, higher education will be faced with a pivotal test. It is a test for the very soul of the university; a debate which centers on the nature of academic freedom and the purpose of learning (Marsden, 1994). It is also a test of whether or not the leadership of higher education is up to the challenge of serving as a major agent which defines and develops values in the American society (Young, 1997). Keller (1983) believes there is a need for effective leadership in higher education, "yet, one of the most significant developments in postwar academic life has been the progressive breakdown of governance and leadership" (p. 27). Dolence and Norris think it is a lack of vision:

> While we have changed a great deal, American higher education has not transformed. The reasons are clear. We have not yet formulated a compelling vision for the learning required to succeed in the Information Age. Absent this vision, we have not reshaped structures, roles, functions, and services to address those changing needs. (1995, p. 3)

The highest administrative level of post-secondary educational leadership is the chief executive officer. College presidents and university chancellors are in charge of defining and directing institutional visions, goals, and cultures. Therefore, they will be the ones responsible for directing this inevitable change. Never in the history of higher education have the stakes been so high or the challenges so great. Consequently, there is a thirst for exemplary leadership in higher education today (Bogue, 1994, p. 33). Providing leadership for higher education is a challenge.

> The American college or university is a prototypic organized anarchy. It does not know what it is doing. Its goals are either vague or in dispute. Its technology is familiar but not understood. Its major participants wander in and out of the organization. These factors do not make a university a bad organization or a disorganized one; but they do make it a problem to describe, understand, and lead. (Cohen & March, 1974, p.3)

Not since the late 19th century when liberal Protestantism emerged as the dominating influence to shape American higher education in the 20th century, has the potential existed for a significant paradigm shift in the mission and purpose of higher education (Marsden, 1994). As early as the 1970's, one prognosticator recognized the need for a different kind of leadership and recommended consideration of a new model of presidential leadership (Argyris, 1976, p. 2). According to this model, the future of educational leadership must shift from the old model of

power, control, and winning no matter what the consequences to a new design of shared power, participatory management, and more open, effective communication (Bennis & Townsend, 1995, p. 95). The success of education in the future is dependent on the inculcation of a new leadership model (Argyris, 1976, p. 17).

A more recent analysis holds that the state of educational leadership is currently in transition between the old 19th century militaristic paradigm and the new 21st century collaborative paradigm (Bennis & Townsend, 1995, pp. 95-96). Here the command, order, and control character of the former paradigm will be replaced by the new paradigm emphasizing empowerment, creativity, and risk-taking.

Effective leaders emerge as a consequence of existing challenges, deficiencies, and problems. Their visions chart the future. The leaders of tomorrow in higher education are already conceptualizing and developing solutions to post-secondary education's challenges. These leaders are borrowing foundational concepts from Total Quality Management's emphasis on the creation of a mission statement with a distinctive vision of the future. A key strategy for effective and successful leadership is attention through vision (Bennis & Nanus, 1985, p. 89).

Leadership in Higher Education

Higher education today is like a ship without a captain. The vessel is totally rudderless at times. While

there is forward momentum, direction lacks bearing. The mission is unclear. Too often the mission is so antiquated that it is not effective. Higher education remains a ship adrift upon the high seas without a port of purpose. In 1980, Riesman said that strong and visionary academic leadership is difficult to find in America. There are various historical reasons for this.

First, leadership lost its moral compass when science replaced religion as the foundation for defining moral and ethical standards (Marsden, 1994, p. 99). The dominance of science and technical rationality for resolving ethical and moral dilemmas can be traced to Auguste Comte, a 19th century French philosopher and social science author of sociology, and his philosophical doctrine of Positivism (Schon, 1983, pp. 31-32). The Positivistic locus centers on a viewpoint that is exclusively objective and declares that empirical science is the only source of knowledge. The empirical perspective is grounded in objective facts and does not facilitate a leader's ability to envision solutions from intuition. The once pervasive influence of religion in the intellectual and cultural life of America's colleges and universities is virtually non-existent today (Marsden, 1994, pp. 3-8).

Second, cultural norms no longer reinforce character, an essential ingredient in presidential leadership. According to Alfred Gottschalk, "character is vital in a

leader, the basis for everything else" (Bennis, 1989, p. 140). One definition of executive character in education weighs integrity equally with competence and achievement (Bennis & Townsend, 1995, p. 22). Character can even be connected to individuality (p. 24). True leadership is synonymous with self-expression, which is the highest expression of a true individualist (Plas, 1996, p. 76). "Leadership is a challenge of character" (Bogue, 1994, p. xii).

It is necessary to distinguish between management and leadership. Kouzes and Posner (1995) define management as a position in an organization that is about order, organization, and control (p. 36). Leadership is an attitude. People want to be led rather than managed. Leaders define reality. Leaders are mentors--captains who sail their ships toward clear destinations rather than simply reacting to the fickle nature of the winds.

Unlike the corporate world which has experienced numerous transformations in management philosophies, styles, and methods, higher education has been resistant to leadership reform (Kerr, 1995). Participatory management, work group circles, and employee benefit programs that develop a sense of community are just a few of the innovative changes prevalent in modern business. Visionary corporations have changed from linear, hierarchial, adversarial, competitive management models to designs that

are more circular, cooperative, empowering, and team-based (Kouzes & Posner, 1995). Can there be a corresponding paradigm shift in the leadership structures and managerial philosophy for higher education?

Until the last half of this century, higher education had been largely immune to and isolated from influences of social forces outside of academia. Historically, the ivory tower has been protected from incursions by external social, legal, and economic forces (Bok, 1990; Kerr, 1995). Today, this mysterious sanctity is being questioned. The general populace is challenging the purposes of academic freedom and tenure. Ironically, university scholars and institutional researchers have addressed and provided solutions for numerous social, political, and economic problems. However, the examination of internal campus difficulties have been ignored. Until recently, when public litigation and government regulations entered campus arenas, higher education could overlook issues on its own doorstep. This circumstance has changed because of laws and executive orders such as the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (discrimination), Title IX (gender equity), American Disabilities Act, Public Law 94-142 (special education), Section 504 (disabilities), Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act, Student Right to Know Act, Campus Safety and Security Act, federal financial aid regulations, and Affirmative Action/Equal Employment Opportunity. These

statutes have influenced management decisions for nearly three decades.

State governments and boards of trustees have begun to define expectations for administrative performance accountability, for standards-based education, and for enhanced teaching effectiveness (Simpson, 1998). They are challenging academic freedom by questioning what is taught in a course, how it is taught, who should teach it, and how measures can be developed to determine whether or not students meet prescribed learning objectives. "Furthermore, these trustees have recently begun to focus on the curriculum--one of the most inappropriate topics for them to take up. Their actions could snap shut the open book of the modern curriculum" (p. B4). Politicians are questioning the general job performance of faculty members and the value of tenure's lifetime employment security (Bok, 1990; Kerr, 1995; Malone, 1996; Rosovsky, 1990). Can the present captains of higher education demonstrate sufficient leadership skills and vision to meet these challenges? The climate is fecund for experimentation with new leadership models to re-invigorate the academy and to chart a destiny for the future.

Exemplary leadership includes the five major practices of (a) challenging the process (experimenting with new organizational processes or procedures), (b) inspiring a shared vision, (c) enabling others to act, (d) modeling the

way, and (e) encouraging the heart (Kouzes & Posner, 1995, p. 9). From this perspective, leadership is a dynamic process. It is learned rather than something which one is born with naturally.

> Leadership is an observable, learnable set of practices. Leadership is not something mystical and ethereal that cannot be understood by ordinary people. Given the opportunity for feedback and practice, those with the desire and persistence to lead can substantially improve their abilities to do so. (Kouzes & Posner, 1995, p. 323)

The experiences of a retired university president provide a unique perspective on presidential leadership. E. Grady Bogue (1994), former president of Louisiana State University-- Shreveport, contends that the mantle of presidential leadership is a call of honor. The role is one of "servant exemplar" (p. 33). Bogue's perspective asserts that character is more important than technocratic expertise. "The principal challenge to leadership effectiveness in colleges and universities is more than a challenge of intellect--to acquire and use good ideas. It is a challenge of character--to learn and apply constructive ideals" (p. 23).

Society's definition of character is based on beliefs that provide guidance and direction indigenous to a culture (Kornblum, 1997, p. 60). Those beliefs determine the values and ethical principles that form guidelines for expected behavior in a society. Institutional beliefs transmit values, and higher education is no exception in the

transmission of cultural values (Young, 1997). Sociologists believe that presidential leadership is a reflection of social norms and cultural values. From these norms and values presidents frame and define visions and missions for their institution. The lack of an ethical compass steeped in character may be the missing link in contemporary presidential leadership (Bogue, 1994, p. xiii).

> Leadership is a conceptual, moral, and performing art form. It is an integrating art form involving the orchestration of ideas, values, and skills. It is a venture in moral philosophy. (p. 145)

Thus, one of the major reasons college presidents do not exhibit leadership is ethical in nature. Leadership is a value-based enterprise, a call of honor (p. 1).

Historical Antecedents

To understand the current state of presidential leadership one must examine the historical antecedents that have influenced the role of a president. Three cultural antecedents exert a major influence on education: Religion, science, and economics. The philosophical paradigms underpinning each of these social institutions are also imbedded in both theoretical and operational practices of education. Each of the antecedents has exhibited a profound effect on higher education. The religious antecedent included the paradigm shift from a governance structure and philosophical perspective dominated by private religious institutions to a secular public system with a different

structure and perspective. The scientific antecedent included the colossal influence of science and rational inquiry on the definition of what constitutes knowledge. This represented a paradigm shift from faith-based to rational-based knowledge. Finally, especially since World War II, the impact of economic reality on operational and leadership decisions may be more significant than the other two antecedents.

Since World War II the nature of higher education has been transformed by four major events (Schon, 1983). First, the GI Bill made it possible to educate a larger percentage of the American population. Those educated were primarily males from an ever-broadening social and ethnic backgrounds and economic class structure. This led to the need for more remedial coursework since this population of non-traditional adult students contained a larger proportion of academically unprepared students. Second, the social unrest related to the Civil Rights Movement and the Vietnam War during the 1960's led to additional changes in academic standards and curricula, a greater demand for social equity and political non-exclusiveness, and an expansion of educational opportunities for a larger cross-section of gender and ethnic populations. Third, the federal government became more actively involved in higher education. Numerous laws and executive orders have influenced how and what educators do in higher education. Much of this influence has been

driven by egalitarian values and humanistic principles. Fourth, education has become more business-like. Corporate management practices and fiscal bottom-lines frequently drive decisions in higher education. Learning is often secondary to budget realities (Kerr, 1994).

The current state of American higher education has its foundations in the historical antecedents of religion, science, and economics. Due to these antecedents, the current state has not prepared the decision-makers for an unknown future. Today's educational leaders are challenged to seek effective and dynamic approaches. The new era will compel American higher education to engage in better planning, in strategic decision-making, and in focused change (Keller, 1983, p. 27).

Montana

Montana, derived from a Latin word used by the Spanish and meaning "mountainous region," was known by early explorers and travelers as the Land of the Shining Mountains (World Book Encyclopedia, 1988, p. 746). The area had been inhabited for thousands of years by a variety of indigenous Native American peoples and was frequented by a few French and British Canadian fur trappers in the eighteenth century. Meriwether Lewis and William Clark, assigned to explore the recently purchased Louisiana Territory by President Thomas Jefferson, were the first white explorers to extensively document and record the flora, fauna, geology, geography,

and inhabitants of the terrain that would eventually become the forty-first state of the union in 1889--Montana (Ambrose, 1996, p. 76).

A more appropriate and increasingly more popular nickname for Montana is Big Sky Country. One must travel to Montana and experience the big cobalt blue sky to fully understand how it dominates the horizon and landscape. Montana does not have the rugged 14,000 feet majestic mountain peaks found in some Rocky Mountain states. However, it does have numerous mountain ranges with a few peaks in excess of 10,000 feet. Granite Peak is the highest mountain with an elevation of 12,799 feet. Between the mountain ranges are broad fertile valleys. The state is divided geographically into three distinct regions: The rugged mountainous west with abundant forests, lakes, and surging rivers; the semi-arid but fertile central region with small mountain-studded ranges surrounded by seas of rolling prairies; and the flat dry great plains of the east riddled with coulees and known as the Big Open (Malone, 1996). The geography of mountains, forests, and plains are an interwoven tapestry of panoramic vistas for the eye and soul to feast. It is as if Montana's mountain ranges were stretched apart during the pleistocene age forming wide valleys between the mountains to provide diverse terrains for the accommodation of a variety of livelihoods for its inhabitants.

Yi-Fu Tuan (1996), professor of geography at the University of Wisconsin at Madison, says that in order to truly understand a people one must also comprehend the geography and physical environment in which they live; that is, one must be aware of the impact of place or locale on a society (p. 6). To read about Montana does not do it justice. One must experience it to fully appreciate how the land inculcates a perspective and attitude. It is an optimistic frontier perspective chiseled by the western ethos and an individualism forged by an attitude balanced between personal independence and commitment to ones' community. It is a perspective and attitude that is characteristic of the topography of the environment and is the foundation for the culture itself. The attitudes and perspectives of this type of place that form the crucible for higher education in Montana.

> I am in love with Montana. For other states I have admiration, respect, recognition, even some affection, but with Montana it is love, and it's difficult to analyze love when you're in it....It seems to me that Montana is a great splash of grandeur. The scale is huge but not overpowering. The land is rich with grass and color, and the mountains are the kind I would create if mountains were ever put on my agenda....It seemed to me that the frantic bustle of America was not in Montana. Its people did not seem afraid of shadows in a John Birch Society sense....The calm of the mountains and the rolling grasslands has got to its inhabitants. People had time to pause in their occupations to undertake the passing art of neighborliness. (Steinbeck, 1962, pp. 142-143)

Higher Education in Montana

There are three distinguishing characteristics about higher education in Montana: Funding, organizational structure/governance, and academic product. Montana higher education is predominately public rather than private with an emphasis on four-year rather than two-year institutions. The entire organization is severely underfunded (Malone, 1996, p. 125). The funding differential is greater at the post-secondary level than at the primary and secondary levels. There are a total of 24 non-proprietary post-secondary institutions of higher education in Montana. Examining the quality and quantity of higher education in Montana is a study in contrasts (p. 128).

The public sector is comprised of three systems: The Montana University System, independent community colleges, and tribal colleges. The Montana University System has two doctoral universities, four comprehensive colleges, and five colleges of technology. There are also three community colleges governed by local community college district boards. Finally, there are seven two-year tribal community colleges with one located on each of the seven reservations in Montana. The private sector of higher education includes three four-year independent institutions. One private university offers bachelor's and master's degrees. The two other two private institutions are baccalaureate colleges.

PROBLEM STATEMENT

Higher education has entered an era in which leadership is required in order for colleges and universities to emerge in a form suitable for survival in the 21st century. While college and university presidents engage in extensive inconsequential rhetoric, few exhibit the true courage, purpose, or leadership dictated by the times (Keller, 1983, pp. 37-38). Presidents have become mediators between rancorous constituents with power on campus such as faculty, students, administrators, and governing board authorities and are compelled to reconcile differences rather than to provide new or bold visions of the future (Kerr, 1982, pp. 35-37). Presidents will face many challenges which will result in new directions for higher education.

> Many great civilizations in history have collapsed at the height of their achievements because they were unable to analyze their problems, to change direction, and to adjust to new situations which faced them by concerting their wisdom and strength. (Kurt Waldheim cited in Keller, 1983, p. 171)

Currently, higher education in Montana is in a state of change. It is at a crossroads brought on by social, political, and economical factors that confront the leaders in higher education. It remains to be seen whether the old leadership paradigm of power, control, and rigid hierarchy will be replaced by the new paradigm of shared power, participatory decision-making, and team-oriented organizational structures. It is a time which requires

strong presidential leadership to resolve the challenges facing higher education. It is an era which calls for different leadership characteristics for the future.

Meanwhile, the emerging era demands new ways of thinking from educational leaders (Apps, 1994, p. 227). There are five fundamental leadership challenges for the future: (a) accept paradox and ambiguity as reality; (b) develop sophisticated perspectives about diversity; (c) develop global awareness; (d) reconsider empowerment from a variety of perspectives; and (e) challenge and examine the basic concepts and elements in education about teaching and learning (pp. 228-229). Major turning points in history can be referred to as "axial points", a term used by Karl Jaspers (Bennis & Nanus, 1985, p. 12). These are moments in time when a new vision is sought, and fundamental societal and cultural redefinitions are required and values reviewed (p.13). Higher education is at one of those axial points. "The major test of a modern American university is how wisely and how quickly it adjusts to important new possibilities (Kerr, 1979). Yet, many unanswered questions remain for higher education in Montana.

Is the higher education leadership in Montana meeting the challenge? Recently, controversial issues such as supplementary salary perks for sitting on corporate boards given to presidents of Montana Tech of the University of Montana at Butte, of Montana State University at Bozeman,

and of the University of Montana at Missoula and the controversial sale of public land deeded to colleges forced the Board of Regents of the Montana University System to determine whether such actions were judicious and impartial. These events demonstrate the need to address ethical issues such as conflict of interest, misuse of state funds, and impropriety of executive decisions. Is presidential leadership in Montana like a ship with a visionless captain?

The future promises increased pressures on chief executive officers of Montana's higher educational institutions from both external and internal critics. Trends indicate that external observers will likely focus on issues related to greater accountability, public litigation, and macro-economic forces. Internal commentators will probably address pressures from reform movements, budgetary constraints, and the impact of educational technology. These sources may pressure and influence presidents to change the nature of education. This activity could test presidential leadership abilities and challenge their capability to envision a future.

Nationwide, 75% of the nation's college presidents are deemed either failures or simply unable to provide sufficient campus leadership (Birnbaum, 1992, p. 25). In a study which asked 500 post-secondary institutions to categorize the leadership of their presidents as either effective, modal, or failed, only 25% of the presidents were

categorized as effective (p. 37). An equal number were viewed as failures. The remainder (50%) were considered modal--neither failures nor exceptional leaders. Modal leaders tend to defend the status quo rather than be instigators of creative change. If 75% of the current presidents are considered either failures or modal, then effective leadership is the exception rather than the norm for leaders in higher education.

In Montana, there have been three recent developments which indicate that higher education has a declining degree of support. Both doctoral universities had to revise proposed construction plans for their athletic facilities. The expansion of the football stadium at Montana State University at Bozeman and a remodeling of the fieldhouse arena at the University of Montana at Missoula were scaled back because fund-raising drives directed at the private sector fell short of projected goals. The state legislature clearly did not support these objectives financially and there was lack of support from the general public for projects of this magnitude. The faculty at one four-year private school, the University of Great Falls, narrowly voted to pursue union affiliation. Faculty did not believe the administration was engaging in a cooperative and collaborative managerial relationship with them so they decided collective bargaining was their best solution. Throughout Montana at two-year and four-year institutions,

adequate funding per student for instruction, up-to-date computer technology, and instructor accountability in relation to academic assessment remain issues for future resolution.

PURPOSE

The purpose of this study was to identify and describe patterns of presidential leadership in Montana higher educational institutions. The goal was to define characteristics of presidential leadership. If effective leadership exists in Montana and if the patterns and themes of such leadership were sufficiently discernable, then it may be possible to define models of effective presidential leadership for the future.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This research addressed three basic questions related to presidential leadership. They were as follows:

1. What is the nature of presidential leadership in selected institutions of higher education in Montana?
2. Can the status of this leadership be viewed as effective?
3. If this presidential leadership is judged as effective, what attributes and characteristics define such presidential leadership?

To answer these questions, several dimensions were used to measure presidential effectiveness. Four specific factors related to presidential leadership were addressed:

(a) The current state of collegiate leadership; (b) the impact of current and potential future changes in higher education; (c) the environment of the organizational structure and governance; and (d) the nature of higher education in Montana.

In order to explore these research questions, a historical review of higher education in Montana was conducted to illustrate the influence of religion, science, and economics on the development of presidential leadership. External and internal influences that act as change agents on Treasure State presidential leadership were identified and examined. Also, the impact of social structures and governance systems on higher education leadership in Montana were examined. Finally, the role of Montana's geography and culture on leadership was assessed.

Who are the effective presidents in Montana? What are successful leadership attributes and characteristics? What social, political, and economic factors influence the leadership styles of effective presidents? Does the organizational structure and the governance system impact presidential leadership? These were some of the preliminary questions that were addressed. Additional questions were asked as they emerged from the research data. A clear definition of effective leadership was established to avoid the nebulous nature of the term. Montana's presidential leadership attributes were compared to a formulated set of

dynamic, effective characteristics postulated by recognized leaders on a national scale including Warren Bennis (1985, 1989, 1993), Derek Bok (1982, 1986, 1990), Ernest Boyer (1981), Father Hesburgh (1973), Clark Kerr (1983, 1995), and John Silber (1989).

Limitations

There are three limitations to the research of this case study. These limitations are related to the nature of leadership itself, the scope of the surveys, and the type of leadership studied.

The primary mission of this research was to study the leadership characteristics of presidents in Montana higher education. The first task was the study of leadership in general and higher education leadership in Montana in particular. Most of the literature on leadership is found in the field of business and industry. This is to be expected in a free-market society based on the profit motive. While there are effective leadership characteristics applicable to both corporations and schools, there are just as many characteristics unique to business or education. Virtually all post-secondary institutions are public or private non-profit institutions. Until recently successful educational management did not have to pay the same degree of attention to efficiency or profitability as did managers in business. The primary purpose of higher education has been to promote learning and/or training of

students. Only recently has the general public and politicians demanded greater accountability from higher education.

There is a dearth of literature on leadership in higher education but the pace of research in this area has increased in the last ten years (Bennis, 1985, 1989, 1993; Dill, 1984; Dill & Fullagar, 1987; Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989; Birnbaum, 1987, 1988, 1989, 1990, 1993). There is also a small but growing body of literature discussing the inter-relationship between culture, leadership, and cognition (Bensimon, 1990, 1991; Neumann, 1995a). Yet, it is still limited and not as extensive as what is found in business. As greater demands for accountability and performance are placed on higher education, the need for effective research on collegiate leadership will become more and more important.

There were two surveys conducted in this case study. The first was mailed to 100 peers in higher education and was used to identify the top presidential leaders. The second survey was mailed directly to the five leaders identified by the nominating group by the first survey. The first survey was limited by including only presidents and administrators. The limitation is the lack of inclusion of either faculty or students in the nominating process.

Finally, there are two types of leadership contexts: Formal and informal (Neumann, 1995b, p.275). The type of

leadership this case study focused on is formal leadership. There is a significant difference between formal and informal leadership. The context for formal leadership is in a recognized organizational structure which has a formally designated leader based on position and title. The context for informal leadership is found in social movements, emergency situations, and volunteer work. This type of leader emerges from a mass or crowd on the basis of individual effort, frequently demonstrates charisma, and may provide leadership based on demand by the specific situation. College and university presidents are formally designated leaders. This case study did not address informal leadership. The population studied was restricted to leaders who are in formal leadership roles.

Assumptions

There are three underlying assumptions embedded in the research of this case study. First, the presence of leadership in a chief executive officer in higher education is the main difference between effective successful presidents and ineffective presidents. There are some who claim that one reason why there is so little research on collegiate leadership is that the college presidency is an illusion and persons in this role have but "modest control over the events of college life" (Birnbaum, 1988; Cohen & March, 1974, p. 2). While presidents certainly are not the only ones to demonstrate campus leadership, effective

presidents frequently consult with constituents and work in a collaborative manner. There is no other single person on a campus who has the authority to influence a whole campus in the way a president can. This study assumes that leadership does make a difference and that the president must provide the vision for exemplary leadership.

The second assumption is that the current literature on leadership is sufficiently appropriate for investigating higher education. Until recently, the majority of leadership studies were conducted in business organization, the military, and governmental agencies with little attention given to higher education (Vroom, 1983). Initially this line of research focused on management and then shifted to leadership. Historically, the genre of literature on leadership theory has progressed from scientific management to humanistic management to structural management to Theory X - Theory Y - Theory Z management to dynamic leadership to transformational leadership to situational leadership.

Can leadership models designed for profit-oriented corporations be applied to the non-profit field of higher education? While there are some differences between profit and non-profit organizations, the new theories on leadership are applicable to both sectors since the foundation of the new leadership models are based on characteristics that can be found in both worlds. These characteristics are:

Leaders must have followers, leaders provide vision and mission, leaders collaborate in participatory management, and leaders engage in empowerment. While the literature on educational leadership is limited, it is growing and becoming an integral portion of the general leadership and especially non-profit leadership.

The third assumption is related to leadership itself. It is difficult to develop a precise definition of leadership. Leadership can be nebulous and situational in nature. Although much has been learned about leadership recently, there is still no agreement on how leadership can be defined, measured, assessed, or related to outcomes, and "no clear unequivocal understanding exists as to what distinguishes leadership from nonleaders, and perhaps more importantly, what distinguishes effective leaders from ineffective leaders" (Bennis & Nanus, 1985, p. 4; Birnbaum, 1987, p. 1). Even though leadership is self-evident and obvious when it occurs, it is still hard to define it in a tangible way.

Definitions

There are several terms which need to be defined for the purpose of this study:

Chief Executive Officer -- may have the title of president or chancellor, is the senior administrative officer on campus.

President -- charged with providing leadership for the academic, fiscal, and student affairs of a college or university. The president is

responsible for the management of all human and physical resources on campus. Presidents also set ethical standards and visionary direction for students, staff, and faculty. Presidents are selected and hired by the institution's governing board of trustees or regents.

Montana University System -- a public post-secondary system of higher education. In 1994, the Board of Regents approved a proposal to restructure the systems two universities, four colleges, and five vocational-technical centers into an integrated two-university system with all campuses merged under Montana State University and the University of Montana (www.oche). The mission of the system is to provide the state of Montana with excellence in teaching, research, and public service. They share a common academic calendar and academic core curriculum. The primary academic goal of the Montana University System is to develop the intellectual skills of inquiry, reasoning, and expression for its students.

Higher Education -- private or public post-secondary institutions of learning which grant certificate, associate, bachelor, and doctorate degrees at community colleges, colleges, and universities.

Mission -- the purpose, role, and scope of an institution.

Culture -- a unique fluid set of values, beliefs, norms, roles, perceptions, and conceptualizations that constitute the cognitive and affective realities of a community.

Leadership -- is the shared construction of meaning (Berger & Luckmann, 1966). Leadership includes learning and unlearning (Apps, 1994). Leadership is a shared process of shared responsibility (Bensimon & Neumann, 1993). Leadership is "the capacity to create a compelling and plausible vision and to translate that vision into organizational realities" (Bennis & Townsend, 1995, p. 27).

Leaders -- are those people with the unique role of guiding followers to places they have never been before; they are pioneers going into unexplored territory; there is a sense of energy and direction.

Management -- is the handling of things, maintaining order and control in the organization; status quo

Team -- "is a pattern of symbolic relationships and meaning sustained through continued processes of human interaction" (Smiricich, 1983, p. 353).

Belief -- that which is accepted as a truth.

Value -- that which considered to be right or wrong morally or ethically.

Norm -- a shared rule of behavior.

Symbolic -- culturally held values and beliefs.

System -- the dynamics between the parts and the whole.

Organization -- a formal social structure with roles, jobs, and common objectives.

Kitchen Cabinet -- an informal group that acts in an advisory capacity to the President.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature on presidential leadership in higher education is broad but inconsistent. There is no consensus on a definition of leadership nor is there any common set of characteristics for assessing leadership. The definition of leadership varies by participants, situation, and circumstances. Nevertheless, general literature on leadership is extensive and has developed almost exclusively during the 20th Century. The study of leadership in higher education has emerged from the field of literature on business management. The number of studies pertaining to educational leadership is still small, contemporary, and limited in scope.

Leadership

Leadership exists to create social activities, social structures, and social institutions designed to carry-out the functions of a society. Leadership exists only in the context of social relationships. For leadership to exist, there must be a leader and followers. The nature of leadership is mercurial due to the rational and irrational

nature of people and is a reflection of the culture in which it is found (Bennis, 1989).

Individuals performed leadership roles for centuries before anyone began to define or analyze leadership. King Menes, Hammurabi, Cyrus, Darius, Pericles, Alexander the Great, Julis Caesar, Marc Anthony, Charlemagne, Constantine, Saladin, and Khaldun were recognized as leaders but had no lists or definitions to provide them with guidance. Without question the definition of leadership has changed over time. The essence of leadership is defined and realized within the context of a specific culture (Smith & Peterson 1988, p. 13-14). It is a definition subject to the social, psychological, and physical environment. Social and psychological research usually does not reveal ultimate epistemological truths as much as it reveals cultural truths (p. 14).

Effective leaders are those who are cognizant or intuitively aware of the essential philosophical and pragmatic ideas, values, and norms within their culture. They also know the crucial issues, dysfunctions, and challenges of the time. Leaders are attuned to the heart and pulse of a society. Leaders comprehend the purpose, meaning, and essence of an era. It is this ability to manifest new ways of thinking that enables them to be visionary leaders.

Society's leaders work on the frontier where tomorrow is taking shape; they are on the cutting edge, serving as guides to the way things will be in the future (Bennis, 1989, p. 5). Leadership in an emerging age should be viewed as a journey rather than a "definite endpoint"; it is a continuous process (Apps, 1994 p.230). The journey or process is just as important as the destination.

> Society is undergoing a fundamental transformation from the Industrial Age to the Information Age. This is a global phenomenon with very significant local implications. All people, organizations, societies, and nations are affected, although not at the same pace or to the same degree. Those who realign their practices most effectively to Information Age standards will reap substantial benefits. Those who do not will be replaced or diminished by more nimble competitors. (Dolence & Norris, 1995, p. 2)

American higher education has responded to information technology demands of recent years and has changed through restructuring organizations, redefining roles of employees, and redesigning the technical systems. However, higher education have not truly transformed itself because it has not yet "formulated a compelling vision for the learning required to succeed in the Information Age" (Dolence & Norris, 1995, p. 3). The demand for learning opportunities has exceeded the ability of the leaders in higher education to produce effective learning systems. The Industrial Age model for education has not been replaced by the Information Age model. It would be perceptive for leaders in higher education to consider the impact on learning of the

Information Age. Dolence and Norris believe higher education should consider a transformation model based on Information Age elements. These two ages can be contrasted as follows (Dolence and Norris, 1995, p. 4):

Table 1: Comparison Between the Industrial and Information Ages

Industrial Age	Information Age
Teaching franchise	Learning franchise
Provider driven	Individual learner driven
Continuing education	Perpetual learning
Time out for education	Just-in-time learning
Individual technologies	Fused technologies
Separate learning systems	Fused learning systems
Traditional courses, degrees	Unbundled learning experiences
Combine teaching & certification	Learning & certification related but separate
Information as support tool	Information instrument of transformation
Fragmented, narrow, proprietary systems	Seamless, integrated, comprehensive open systems
Front-end, lump-sum payment	Point-of-access payment
Bureaucratic systems	Self-informing/correcting systems
Technology push	Learning vision pull

The Difference Between Management and Leadership

Are leadership and management the same or different? Is one an extension of the other? Frequently, the terms leadership and management are used interchangeably. However, current literature on leadership clearly states that it is fundamentally different from management. An

aphorism exists that states, "The manager does things right, the leader does the right thing?" Management is production; leadership is creative production. Management is adverse to change or reform; leadership is solution oriented. Management is concerned with maintaining the status quo; leadership is concerned with problem solving.

Management refers to planning, budgeting, organizing, and staffing. Control is important, assigning responsibility and authority with clear policy and procedures is vital. The goal is a strong degree of predictability and order while achieving goals (Kotter, 1990). Leadership asks the following types of questions: Is this the right plan? Is there a better plan? Which budgeting model is appropriate for this institution? Will another organizational structure facilitate meeting goals? How could a different configuration of staff maximize the talent and resources of personnel? These are the questions leaders ask, contemplate, and seek for innovative answers. Another distinction between management and leadership is that management is concerned with accomplishing organizational goals while leadership incorporates the ability to influence the behavior of others in meeting those goals (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993, p.5). Some of the distinctions between managers and leaders are as follows (Bennis & Townsend, 1995):

Table 2: Characteristics That Distinguish Managers from Leaders

Manager	Leader
administers	innovates
maintains	develops
imitates	originates
accepts reality	investigates reality
relies on control	inspires trust
asks how and when	asks what and shy
accepts the status quo	challenges it
short range view	long range view
eye on the bottom line	eye on the horizon
focuses on systems and structure	focuses on people

(Bennis & Townsend, 1995)

Abraham Zaleznik (1977) further distinguishes the differences between managers and leaders. He notes managers maintain balance in the operation of an organization, relate to others according to their role, are detached and impersonal, seek solutions based on compromises between conflicting interests, and identify with the organization. In contrast, leaders create new approaches and imagine new areas to explore, relate to people in an intuitive and empathic manner, seek risk where opportunity and reward are high, and translate ideas into images that excite people. The distinction is clear. Management is goal and system oriented; leadership is vision, customer, and employee oriented.

Management and leadership can be described as a continuum and not an either-or dichotomy. Both are essential to any successful operation. Each plays a significant role in meeting institutional goals. One cannot exist without the other. They complement rather than contradict. Yet, management is not designed to respond to crises or changes whereas leadership is capable of risking and adapting to challenges due to its ability to visualize the future.

Management

The study and analysis of leadership and management of behaviors is a relativity recent occurrence. It was not until the last quarter of the 19th century that pre-management theories appeared. In the pre-Industrial Era, labor was based on an agrarian economy involving individuals or small groups. It was not until the Industrial Age that people began to work in large groups and moved away from the farm to a more urban environment. During the Industrial Age the concept of management occurred when the control of complex organizations like railroads, mining, and banking companies shifted ownership from individuals or families to corporate entities. The Industrial Revolution was driven by economic factors facilitated by a capitalistic system which resulted in a population explosion, a shift from rural to urban societies, and an increase in the specialization of labor. Industrial society needed educated employees who

could be organized and managed to meet corporate goals. Twentieth century organizations placed efficiency and productivity as dominate managerial goals (Astin & Scherrei, 1980).

As industry strived for greater productivity goals in this century, three major schools of management emerged: scientific, humanistic, structural.

Scientific Management

Scientific management, a classical approach based on applying objective standards to the management practices of motivation and organizational effectiveness, was introduced by Frederick Taylor's (1912) research on time and motion studies which helped improve blue collar productivity (Kornblum, 1997, p. 591). Management stressed control of the operation through a strict division of labor with job specialization and a rigid pyramidal organizational structure (Gulick & Urwick, 1937). German sociologist Max Weber observed the Industrial Revolution and described the modern day bureaucracy with its hierarchial authority structure, defined positions, impersonal nature, and rational approach to decision-making (Kornblum, 1997, p. 167).

Humanistic Management

The Humanistic School places the emphasis on the worker rather than the organization. This school looked at

psychological reasons for worker motivation, including personal involvement and achievement, and placed greater responsibility on the employee rather than closely supervised and regulated scientific management (Astin & Scherrai, 1980). The educational theories of John Dewey and the psychological theories of Kurt Lewin examined the relationship between the individual worker and productivity. Other contributing theorists included Peter Drucker (1967, 1973), Frederick Herzberb (1966), Abraham Maslow (1965), and Douglas McGregor (1960). These writers promoted the idea that workers contribute to increased productivity through shared responsibility with management (Astin & Scherrei, 1980).

Structural Management

The third school, Structural Management, grew out of a reaction to the extreme positions of the two former schools and is a fusion of the first two schools (Astin & Scherrei, 1980). Noted authors promoting this school such as Haire (1956), Argyris (1960), and Etzioni (1964) argue that organizations are composed of individuals and groups who share common values and interests but who may differ on key labor or wage issues. They concentrated on the relationship between individual behavior and the organizational structure. Astin notes that Classical or Scientific and Humanist authors concentrated on business and industry while

Structuralist authors included education and non-profit organizations in their literature (Astin & Scherrei, 1980).

Hawthorne Study

The most significant event to shape and define management in this century was the Hawthorne Study. It distinguished the difference between management and leadership and formed the foundation for the philosophical perspective that has driven leadership theory to the end of this century (Kornblum 1997, p. 591). It also prepared a fertile ground for the next paradigm shift in leadership theory.

The Hawthorne Study started the human relations movement in management and was an efficiency study to determine the effects of illumination on productivity in a Western Electric Plant in Hawthorne, Illinois, in 1924. Harvard Graduate School of Business professor Elton Mayo found that production increased due to the amount of attention given to employees. Illumination or any other physical work condition was not found to be a reason for increasing productivity (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993, p. 56-59). He also discovered that as work groups became more cohesive, feelings of affiliation, competence, and achievement surfaced. Paying attention to them was more effective than either increasing pay or improving work conditions. A secondary result was identification of the importance of informal work groups. The study indicated

that informal work groups were more functional and productive than formal work groups which are predicated on rigid and bureaucratic organizational structure. However, there was also a significant impact on the character of leadership. One cannot "buy" followers to become a leader. Leadership is more a function of appreciation, recognition, and empowering people to seek their highest potential in their job.

Theory X--Theory Y Management

Douglas McGregor developed two different theories based on assumptions about human nature and motivation. According to McGregor, author of Theory X--Theory Y, "traditional organizations use centralized decision making, hierarchial pyramid, external control of work...[Theory X]" (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993, p.59). Theory X assumes most people do not want to take responsibility and prefer to be directed. This type of an organization is highly structured with close supervision and control. Theory X assumes workers are motivated at the physical and safety levels. McGregor's Theory Y assumes workers can be creative and self-directed in their jobs if properly motivated. Motivation is at the social, esteem, and self-actualization levels (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993). Theory Y supervisors are supportive and facilitating.

Argyris (1976) explains Theory X--Theory Y motivational behaviors by noting complementary attitudinal patterns.

Pattern A employees desire a high degree of structure and close supervision. They have attitudes that are adverse to recognizing feelings, experimentation, and supporting other people. Pattern B employees desire a work environment in which they can be supportive and facilitating. They have experimental attitudes which encourage people to express themselves in open and affective manners. Argyris also says that Theory X and Pattern A are products of a bureaucratic-pyramidal value system. Theory Y and Pattern B result from a humanistic-democratic value system. In the former, effective human relations are predicated on a rational, logical, and clearly defined direction with significant authority and control. With the latter, human relationships are conscious, discussable, and predicated on psychological success, internal commitment, and authentic relationships (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993, p.65).

Situational Leadership

Hersey and Blanchard advocate a perspective on leadership that is simple yet profound. Their thesis is that leadership can be learned through observed behavior. Frequently, the demands of leadership are situational. The effectiveness of leadership style is contingent upon the situation in which it is utilized (Hersey & Blanchard, p. 112, 1993). Situational leadership addresses the situational nature of leadership. While the exercise of leadership is indeed self-evident, it is not universal. Each

situation demands a different leadership style (Hersey & Blanchard, p. 113, 1993). Leaders must be able to diagnose the situation, adapt, and select the leadership style appropriate for the situation. Doing the right thing today within the perspective of a long-term goal is paramount for success. As Ralph Stogdill notes,

> The most effective leaders appear to exhibit a degree of versatility and flexibility that enables them to adapt their behavior to the changing and contradictory demands made on them. (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993, p. 113)

Situational Leadership's contribution is found in its attention to the situational nature of leadership itself. If this theory is accurate, then university presidents must learn to wear the right leadership style hat for several different situations.

Transactional Leadership

Transactional theory views leadership as an exchange between the leader and the follower. It is similar to Exchange Theory in Interactionism. It is a rational analysis of what one must contribute or give-up in exchange for what one receives in order to obtain their goal; it is a balance between credit and debit. Because there is a constraint placed on leaders due to the expectations of followers when leaders advocate goals not consistent with those of the group, it could result in the loss of the leaders status and possibly the loss of the any claim to leadership (Hollander, 1987).

Transactional leaders functioned efficiently in an expanding but limited free market system that did not have to respond to global competition. They gave rewards in return for compliance. This system of leadership survives quite well in an era of infrequent change. They can manage an organization overtime without changing the managerial or leadership model that has worked for decades.

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership is about change, innovation, and entrepreneurship. Tichy and Devanna (1986) describe corporate transformation as a three-act drama: revitalization or recognition of the need for change in spite of resistance to reform, creating a new vision, and institutionalizing change toward that vision (pp. 23-33). It is a leadership process predicated on the ability of leaders to teach people how to change through a systematic management of conditioned behavioral changes. It is a systematic, purposeful, and organized search for change. It is a capacity to re-allocate resources for effective functions. Seven characteristics of transformational leaders are:

> (a) identify themselves as change agents, (b) have the courage to be risk-takers, (c) believe in people and ownership, (d) are value-driven, (e) are life long learners, (f) have the ability to deal with complexity, ambiguity, and uncertainty, and (g) are visionaries (pp. 271-281).

While Tichy and Devanna address why companies with ample capital and solid market positions went bankrupt or failed due to the lack of corporate leadership, the same lessons are applicable for higher education. There are three reasons why these companies failed. The first deficiency was an indifference to customer needs due to a lack of competition. In the last 10 years higher education has embraced programs such as TQM in order to provide better service to students primarily because there is more competition and it is now a buyers market. Higher education leaders are beginning to listen more to students. The second reason was that corporate organizational structures impeded rapid response to the changing demands of market competition. In general, the private sector has always responded quicker to market shifts than the public sector; this is also true in higher education. Government agencies are renowned for there slow response to solving problems, but changes in higher education move at an even slower pace. The third reason was adherence to out-dated management perspectives that inhibited improvement or reform, lacked creative solutions, or was a void of innovative advancements (p. iv).

Another view on transformational leadership sees leaders as catalysts, who are capable of marketing their ideas and themselves, willing to take great risks, committed to a common enterprise, and resilient enough to absorb

conflict (Bennis & Nanus, 1985, p. 216). Effective leadership design and develop organizations with unique contributions which are consistent with their mission. These contributions are also an expression of a common social responsibility and "translate that vision into a living reality" (p. 217). Transformational leadership is a viewpoint that takes into account the collective aspirations of the organization; it is also a symbiotic relationship between leaders and followers in which the leader senses the needs and wants of their followers; it is causative in nature, and leaders must be capable of creating a corporate culture that empowers employees (p. 218).

Definition of Leadership

Alexander Astin and Rita A. Scherrei (1980) have described four presidential leadership styles as bureaucratic, intellectual, egalitarian, and counselor and five administrative types as hierarchial, humanistic, entrepreneurial, insecure, and task oriented. However, they have not analyzed the effectiveness of any combination of these styles or types. Their research reflects past leadership models rather than addressing either current issues or future needs.

Robert Birnbaum's (1992) research posits three types of presidential performance: Exemplary, Modal, and Failed. His analysis goes beyond description as it distinguishes between presidential myths and reality. Birnbaum asserts that the

transformational leadership of the past will not suffice in the future. Transformational leadership concentrates on technical competence, expertise, and judgement. Transcendental leadership, which alters the perceptions of institutional functions and builds relationships within a variety of environments, will be the vehicle for future leadership success. Schein (1996) appears to support Birnbaum by connecting the roles of culture and leadership: "The only thing of real importance that leaders do is to create and manage culture" (p. 229). If effective leaders create culture, then Kouzes and Posner's view of leaders as mentors supports the creation and transmission of culture from the leader to the follower (1995).

Organizational leadership identifies five major categories of leadership (Birnbaum, 1987, p. 3). The boundaries defining the categories are fluid, yet they are neither inclusive or exclusive in terms of characteristics. The theories are trait, power and influence, behavioral, contingency, and symbolic. Trait theories refer to the identification of specific personality characteristics that result in effective leadership. Power and influence theories define leadership in terms of position, source, and amount of formal ascribed power and of the manner in which that power is exercised over followers through either unilateral or reciprocal interactions. Behavioral theories concentrate on what leaders actually do--activity patterns,

managerial roles, and psychological learning patterns. Contingency theories emphasize the importance of situational or contextual factors on leadership. Symbolic theories assume that leadership is determined by social attributes that form the basis to cognitively connect leadership outcomes to causes (1987, p. 3-4).

Peter Drucker was a former university professor and administrator, business consultant, and board member who believes there are two unambiguous lessons in regard to leadership (Hesselbein et al. 1996, p. xi). First, while there may be a few "born leaders", leadership can be learned. Second, there is not a single set of leadership traits, styles, or personalities. Leadership is not a mysterious personality trait; it is a behavior that can be learned through practice. One reason there is not a single set of leadership traits is that each situation calls for a particular trait that may or may not be effective in a different context. Therefore, a variety of leadership traits are possible, and individuals can learn those traits. Bennis and Drucker have interviewed, studied, and surveyed people recognized by peers and the general public as leaders for decades (Bennis, 1985, 1989; Drucker, 1967, 1986). Both comment on leaders who representant the differing extremes of loners and gregarious, "nice guys" and stern task masters, impulsive and slow to make decisions, warm and aloof, and some who were extremely vain and some who were

very self-effacing (Bennis, 1985, 1989; Drucker, 1973). They would probably chuckle if every leader was expected to be charismatic. Both state that if there is one common trait not found in all leaders, it is charisma (Bennis, 1989; Drucker, 1992). While some have charisma, it by no means is pervasive.

What are some traits or skills that can be found to be characteristic of effective leaders? Warren Bennis (1984) conducted a 5-year study of 90 exceptional leaders and those who follow them. On the basis of this research , Bennis identified four common traits or competencies common to these 90 leaders:

1.	Management of attention	The ability to communicate a sense of outcome, goal, or direction that attracts followers.
2.	Management of meaning	The ability to create and communicate meaning with clarity and understanding.
3.	Management of trust	The ability to be reliable and consistent so people can count on them.
4.	Management of self	The ability to know one's self and to use one's skills within limits of strengths and weaknesses.

Bennis's first trait is consistent with John Kotter's (1990) contention that leaders establish direction through creating a strategic vision. This is also similar to Stephen Covey's (1994) emphasis on the need for leaders to develop a common vision that percolates from the grassroots

level of an organization and encourages ownership for the participants.

The second trait is essentially the ability to communicate the vision to the whole organization. While the development of a vision must include participants, it must also be embraced by them in order for the vision to have support. In order to "sell" the vision, leaders must listen to existing constituencies, learn the common language of the people, and design a vision with symbols considered important to the organization (Bennis, 1995). Anna Neumann (1992) supports a similar view when she points out the importance of a leader to learn the campus culture.

The third trait, building trust, is more than just doing what one says they will do because; it also about building credibility and gaining trust. Today, there is so much rhetoric, "spin", multiple meanings, and re-defining of values that when people actually do what they say they will do and speak the truth, it is a significant event. The lessons from the Hawthorne Study and the Humanistic Management movement made corporate management aware of the precious value of integrity for leaders (Kornblum, 1997, p. 591). It is also recognition that the most valuable resource in any organization is not the physical resources or technology, but it is people. Trust provides the opportunity for development of empowerment. Trust supports professional and personal development. Trust builds camaraderie and

esprit de corps (Covey, 1994). Building trust just may be the most important step a leader can accomplish to insure followers who are willing to commit to new goals or a challenging vision.

The final trait refers to the leaders ability to know themselves. Outstanding leaders say that knowing yourself is a basic tenet of leadership. Frequently leaders are surprised anyone would consider them to be a leader because they are just being themselves. The leader is more concerned with being successful and meeting goals than whether or not they are a leader.

Like Bennis, Drucker lists four distinguishing characteristics of effective leaders (Hesselbein et al., 1996, p. xii). First, leaders cannot be leaders unless they have followers. This is probably the most accurate test of whether someone is or is not a leader. Virtually every emerging definition of leadership uses followers as the litmus test.

Second, effective leaders are doers and not talkers. They are results oriented. Drucker says being loved, admired, or popular is not important to leaders (Hesselbein et al., 1996, p. xiii). They are focused on the performance of their organizations. They ask, "What needs to be done?" and "What can I do to make a difference?" While leaders frequently take charge by contributing their expertise, they also do not feel intimidated to delegate. Drucker (1922)

notes that leaders seek competent and talented people and are not afraid of the strength in their associates.

Third, Drucker says leaders are highly visible participants. They set the performance standard by personal example. Bogue (1994) and Argyris (1976) both talk about the importance of setting a good example. It is a self-test. It is the one in which leaders ask themselves if they have earned respect and dignity. Are they doing the "right" thing rather than the "popular" thing? Drucker relates a story about his high school history teacher that illustrates how effective leaders are participants and not just a preacher. His teacher, a wounded World War I veteran, responded to a students' question of why the Great War was considered by historians of the time to be an example of military incompetence. The teacher said, "Because not enough generals were killed; they stayed way behind the lines and let others do the fighting and dying" (Hesselbein et al., 1996, p. xiv). Drucker (1996) points out how important it is for successful leaders to delegate many responsibilities. Yet, effective leaders do not delegate the one thing that they do best, the one thing that will make a difference, the one thing that will set standards, the one thing they want to be remembered for whatever it may be.

Fourth, leaders take responsibility. They are not afraid to be committed to the organization and to work hard.

They measure success not in titles, rank, privileges, or money but in performance and meeting objectives. They are responsible in every sense of always maintaining a focus on institutional goals and missions. It is a case of substance and not show.

Stephen Covey (1994) advocates managing other people less and managing oneself more. People should be allowed to manage themselves. With a shift from external to internal control, a leader will understand the difference between management and leadership (Covey, 1994). Covey defines the leadership role as developing a common vision as well as creating an environment of trust. Without trust, there is not synergy. Without synergy, organizational success will elude leaders. Leadership requires a high-trust culture which takes time and patience. Actions or behavior speaks volumes more than rhetoric.

> Recent research, using a variety of methods, has made it clear that successful leaders are not like other people. The evidence indicates that there are certain core traits which contribute to business leader's success....Leaders do not have to be great men or women by being intellectual geniuses or omniscient prophets to succeed, but they do need to have the "right stuff" and this stuff is not equally present in all people. (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991, p. 59)

Shelly Kirkpatrick and Edwin Lockes (1991) contend that successful leaders have certain recognizable core traits which distinguish them from non-leaders, but not all of those traits are found in a all leaders. Many researchers also agree that highly successful business executives

frequently are "average people" and not the "intellectual cream of the crop". However, Bennis, Argyris, Covey, Kouzes, Posner, Bogue, and others would disagree with Kirkpatrick and Locke's implication that leadership traits are only in certain people. They support the idea that anyone can become a leader if they have the will to learn, the dedication to a goal, and the desire to become a leader. They firmly believe that leaders are not born and anyone can learn the tools of a leader. Leaders are committed to an organizational vision and have followers; they are normally not the "blue bloods" of society.

Another viewpoint distinguishes between leadership traits and skills. Traits are inherent to a leader, and dependent upon their personality. While skills are learned behaviors. This last set of traits or skills associated with characteristics found among successful leaders is provided by Gary Yuki (1989, p. 176):

Traits	Skills
Adaptable to situations	Clever (intelligent)
Alert to social environment	Conceptually skilled
Assertive	Diplomatic and tactful
Cooperative	Fluent in speaking
Decisive	Knowledgeable of group tasks
Dependable	Organized (administratively)
Dominant (desire to influence others)	Persuasive

Energetic (high activity level) Socially skilled

Persistent

Self-confident

Tolerant of stress

Willing to assume responsibility

Another study by Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) identified a similar set of leadership traits found in successful leaders. While their study focused on business leaders, these effective leadership traits are applicable to higher education: drive; motivation; honesty and integrity; self-confidence; cognitive ability; knowledge of the business; charisma; creativity; originality; flexibility (p. 49).

Leadership establishes direction through the development of a vision of the future accompanied by effective strategies (Kotter, 1990). Leaders also align, motivate, and inspire people while being catalysts for change. While the literature is not conclusive on a common set of leadership traits, there are several common denominators found in leadership. One sign of a leader is followers. Leaders create strategic visions from their environment. Leaders exhibit integrity and develop relationships built on trust. Leaders integrate participants in the process of carrying out the mission.

History of Higher Education

Effective leaders frequently rise out of the ashes of a crisis because they have understood the past and comprehend the charge of the future. To understand the context of the present state of higher education in America it is helpful to review the past. Leadership is a function of time and place, but success must include an awareness of the previous contexts that shaped present situations. A generation's philosophy on leadership is important because "Week by week he taught us to see ideas as part of overarching sets of concepts, part of the mind-set of a generation, its members responding to a common dilemma or shaping experience" (Conway, 1994, p. 34).

The history of higher education can be divided into three segments: pre-modern, modern, and Montana. The pre-modern segment focuses on the religious, private nature of higher education and the influence of religion and science. However, in the modern era, the emphasis is on the secular, public nature of higher education. In order to understand higher education in Montana, we must examine public, private, and tribal education.

Pre-Modern Era (1150 - 1870)

"University" is derived from the Latin word "universitas," meaning a group of people organized for a common purpose; specifically, a single community of masters and students (World Book Encyclopedia, 1988, v. 20, p. 196).

After the fall of the Roman Empire in 476 A.D., the unity of society was maintained by feudalism and the Church as civilization emerged from the Dark Ages (Waldersee, et al., 1974). During this period the Church was not only the keeper of the faith but also the guardian of knowledge through libraries and literate priests. The roots of modern universities can be traced to Europe in the Middle Ages, which covered the period from 500 to 1500; the most notably of those institutions were located in Paris, Bologna, London, Naples, Salerno, and Prague (Ross, 1976). The university is a distinctly medieval institution (Kerr, 1995, p. 8). During the Middle Ages, universities replaced the tutorial method of instruction used by aristocratic and wealthy families to educate their children (Ross, 1976).

The influence of the Roman Catholic Church continued at universities since it was the Church which educated tutors at monastic orders for the upper class and also provided formal training for faculty. At this time, specifically the outlook on life in western civilization was still spiritual rather than material. The Church was still the guardian of culture (Waldersee et al., 1974). For about 700 years, from the twelfth to the middle of the nineteenth century, the most defining characteristic of a university was the overwhelming influence of Catholic and Protestant Churches (Fleming, 1970). The Church defined curriculum, set up the system of governance, and was the primary source of

financial support (Grun, 1979). The Church was also considered the authority on the most fundamental role of a university, which was transmitting knowledge.

As feudalism faded and the Renaissance (1350-1600) blossomed, there was an intellectual rediscovery of classical Greek and Roman authors and a growing interest in humanism (Fleming, 1970). The Renaissance not only inspired explorers to discover continents, but it also inspired great thinkers to expand the human mind during the Age of Exploration (Waldersee et al., 1974). The Northern Italian city-states of Florence, Venice, and Genoa lead Europe in the promotion of private enterprise, local government and education, in the support of the fine arts, and also in assisting in challenging the singularity of Latin, which was the Church's language (Waldersee et al., 1974).

Three major events assisted in promoting the decline of the Church's control over university education and the expansion of access to knowledge for more people. First, the Hundred Years War between England and France (1337-1453) stimulated the concept of nationalism (Waldersee et al., 1974). Eventually, nationalism would be the seed for the development of secular public education. Second, Johann Gutenberg, an inventor, and Johann Fust, a goldsmith and financier, together developed the printing press in 1456 (Grun, 1979). Ironically, their first great work was the printing of a Latin bible. The printing of books would allow

people other than the clergy to become educated through a new form of communicating knowledge. Finally, the Reformation (1517-1557), a religious movement lead by Martin Luther, gave birth to Protestantism. No longer would the Catholic Church be the sole religious force in a society. Additional milestones included: Thomas Aquinas in 1273 reconciling the contradiction between reason and faith; Roger Bacon, in 1278, advocating observation and experimentation to gain knowledge, which formed the basis for modern science; and Copernicus in 1573 shocking and challenging the Church by proclaiming that the Earth is not the center of the universe (Grun, 1979). All of these events, the rise of nationalism, the ability to produce books, and the birth of Protestants began to challenge the authority of the Catholic Church and to erode its dominance in university education. During the Middle Ages science had been subordinated to theology, but the Reformation "broke the shackles which had bound the human intellect; [and] made men more independent in their scientific investigations" (Barnes, 1850, p. 625).

During the Enlightenment, the role of education changed again during the Age of Monarchs (1600-1762) and the Age of Revolution (1762-1870) (Waldersee et al., 1974). Classical drama, literature, philosophy, and science began to flourish during the Age of Kings (Fleming, 1970). While monarchs yielded great power in building prosperous nation-

states, they also championed philosophers and scientists. Rationalists advocated using reason and experiments to unravel the secrets of the universe rather than relying solely on the Church's faith-based religious perspective. Universities taught rationality and incorporated scientific inquiry into their curricula (Waldersee et al., 1974).

The Age of Revolution witnessed an increase in religious freedom, legal reform, codification of laws, and research in chemistry, physics, and medicine (Waldersee et al., 1974). Common people were inspired by the philosophical teachings of liberty, equality, justice, and freedom from the Enlightenment. This inspired revolutions in Europe and North America resulting in royal "masters" being overthrown (Grun, 1979). John Locke argued in 1688 that natural law decrees that all men are equal and independent, that the authority of government comes from the consent of the governed, and that this consent forms the basis of a social contract between those who govern and the people (Waldersee et al., 1974). If the rulers break their half of the agreement, Locke said that the people were entitled to revolt.

The political institution with the power to influence and control universities shifted from the Church, to the monarchs, and then to democratic governments (Fleming, 1970). This transfer of power was a watershed that eventually facilitated a colossal shift in the governance of

universities from private religious boards to public secular boards and a shift in the nature of the mission from sacred to secular goals.

Modern Era (1870-Present)

During the Modern Era the role of the university in providing education for a greater number of students expanded significantly. The Modern Era has been characterized by the Industrial Revolution, the phenomenal impact of technology, the rise and decline of colonialism, the growth of democratic forms of government, the prominence of science, the shift from an agrarian to an urban society, the explosive increase in world population, two devastating world wars, a world wide economic depression, and the development of a global perspective rather than the nation-state.

The university, which was once a single community of scholars and students, has become a multiversity (Kerr, 1995, p.1). Today the university is a whole series of communities held together by a common name, a governing board, and a mission. It is a social institution comprised of departments, colleges, institutes, research centers, libraries, publishing houses, auxiliary enterprises, museums, professional staff, career administrators, and, of course, faculty (King, 1995). It is a complex community with fractionalized power.

The American research university is a unique hybrid formed from three distinct models of education: British, German, and American (Marsden, 1994, p. 7). The undergraduate community is based on the English residential model and a humanist perspective. Emphasis on student welfare is illustrated by residential quarters, student activities, athletics, and a broad liberal arts curriculum. The graduate community is based on the German model favored by scientists. The emphasis is on philosophy and science and is based on graduate level instruction and research. The relationship between student and professor is critical since the German system included elective courses and student selection of their courses because it relied on a greater degree of freedom for faculty and students. The American contribution is the distinctive emphasis on the applied arts and sciences favored by social scientists. There is equal emphasis on learning and training with career development and job certification considered almost as important as the liberal arts (Marsden, 1994, pp. 104-106).

Initially, during the pre-colonial and colonial period, most American universities were based on the British traditional liberal arts residential model governed by private religious boards and exclusively dominated by faculty and presidents who were religious clergy (Marsden, 1994, p. 81). In 1840, 80% of the college presidents at denominationally-related colleges were clergymen as were 66%

of state college presidents; many faculty and tutors were also clergy--a decline from the colonial period but more than double the percentages by 1920 (p. 81).

However, during the nineteenth century, the great universities in England and France had become rigid oligarchies. They were centers of reaction that were opposed to the Reformation, antagonistic to science, and quite unsympathetic to the spirit of creativity of the Renaissance (Kerr, 1995, p.8).

In the early 1800's, the German universities were the pioneers in implementing creative and innovative educational reforms in higher education. It was the German fusion of science and nationalism that appealed to some of the educators in America (Keller, 1983, p. 30). Between 1850 and 1915 it is estimated that about 10,000 Americans were educated in Germany which most earning masters or doctorates (Keller, 1983, p.32). Thus, a strange union shaped the American university--the German elitist desire for academic purity with the American pragmatic democratic view (Kerr, 1995, p. 13-14). It was the merging of German intellectualism and American populism that shaped the current university. "Pure intellect and raw pragmatism made an unlikely, but successful alliance" (p. 36).

This progressive alliance was not considered propitious by all educators. Abraham Flexner proclaimed the study of classics and the liberal arts were being sacrificed and was

turning the university into a "social services station" (Kerr, 1995, p. 4). Cardinal Newman also believed universities should restrict the scope of curriculums to academic subjects only and were not intended to be training guilds for certain occupations (Kerr, 1995, p. 3). Critics persist today who claim education is ignores the basics and the classics while emphasizing training for jobs (Bloom, 1987).

The transformation of American society since the turn of the century has been breathtaking. There has been a progression from a basically agrarian society to a dynamic industrial society with a higher level of education and standard of living than was ever thought possible (Kerr, 1995). In addition, the degree of the scientific and technical advancement staggers the imagination (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993). Yet, conflict and global problems still exist on many levels: between nations, between races, between management and workers. There is also a tendency to believe that problems can be solved by scientific and technical skills. "Many of our most critical problems are not in the world of things, but in the world of people. Our greatest failure as human beings has been the inability to secure cooperation and understanding with others" (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993, p. 3). Even though science and technology have provided valuable benefits to society and an improved standard of living for many people, social skills and

effective communication are more important requirements than technology for a successful functional society.

Montana--The Land

Joseph Kinsey Howard (1906-1951), was a news editor for a Great Falls newspaper, a distinguished journalist, regional historian, and recognized social and political critic (Merrill & Jacobson, 1997, p. 274). He would have been surprised to know that by the 1990's Montana had been "discovered" by the national media, wore the moniker of the "last best place", and had a mystique that drew people like a magnet who are attracted to its wide-open spaces and fairly pristine natural environment. He would be surprised because he and his peers knew Montana was considered to be an isolated and provincial western state without any "culture," and inhabited only with cowboys, farmers, lumberjacks, and miners (Howard, 1943).

Natural resources continue to provide the economic base in Montana today as it did over a hundred years ago. The early inhabitants of Montana soon discovered a wealth of minerals, especially gold and silver, in the mountains. The state honestly merited its official nickname of the Treasure State. Vast fortunes were made and lost in the mining camps of Bannock, Butte, Anaconda, and Virginia City. Last Chance Gulch is a name that epitomizes the strike-it-rich cycles of boom-or-bust for miners; it is located in the state capital of Helena. Today, the barons of the mining industry no

longer dominate the economic and political domains in Montana. Another early economic giant was timber. The vast forests produced an abundance of wood and wood-related products for over a century. By the 1990's, the mining and timber industries contribution to the state economy substantially declined as a proportion of the economic base. Agriculture, one of the three original significant revenue producers for Montana, became the king of the economy.

Relatively new industries for Montana are tourism and guest or dude ranches. It remains to be seen whether the new residents will work the land or protect the environment and attempt to freeze the quality of life that attracted them. It is the difference between the native Montanan's perspective of respecting and utilizing the natural resources versa the non-native's perspective to preserve the land in it current natural state.

Montana's natural beauty and wide-open spaces invite people to move to the Treasure State. In Montana, there are only 6.04 people per square mile--the third lowest population density in the United States with only Alaska and Wyoming being less crowded (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1990, 1995). While the popular internal perception by many Montanan's is that too many out-of-state people are moving to Montana, especially those from California, the instate migration rate of 15% is comparable to the national average (Bureau of Business and Economic Research, University of

Montana, 1995). Most first-time residents are from California, 14.7% of the total number of newcomers, with Washington, Wyoming, Colorado, and Idaho making up the top five states from which new residents to Montana come (Bureau of Business and Economic Research, University of Montana, 1995). Newcomers are mostly between the ages of 45 and 64. They tend to be more educated than Montana's population but also tend to have lower incomes (p. 94). Most of the first-time residents prefer to live in the scenic mountainous western and southwestern one-third of the state, and 65% of them move into the seven most populous counties of Montana (p. 95). However, not everyone is a newcomer. More than 55% of the migrants are actually natives returning to Montana which is considered by many as the "last best place" (Merrill & Jacobson, 1997, p. 165).

Jill Ker Conway, (1994), former professor and administrator at the University of Toronto, described the Canadian mindset as one in which the British transferred English cultural norms and values before Canadians' discovered the natural Canadian experience. The predominate influence is that of the Scots which have framed the self-deprecating Canadian perspective of belittling the individual or the authority figure (p. 114). This mindset holds that it is ok for people to dream big dreams as long as they keep it to themselves or scale them down (p. 114).

Montana, which borders Canada, seems to have this sense of "leveling" or equality of its citizens.

How big is this land of mountains and plains landscapes? Montana is an enormous state with a small number of people. The state stretches from the Dakota borders on the eastern plains to the western mountains and Idaho for a distance of 550 miles and from the Canadian border in the north to Wyoming in the south for about 300 miles. With its 145,556 square miles of land, Montana is geographically the fourth largest state in the union; only Alaska, Texas, and California are larger. Yet with all of this land mass, there are very few people. The 1996 estimated population was 879,000, which ranks it forty-fourth among the fifty states. Even though the population density is low and the state is huge, 52.5% of the people are classified as urban as compared to 75% for the entire United States (US Bureau for the Census, 1995). Of course, urban in Montana is very different than urban in a state like California. It is a different definition of urban because the three largest cities, Billings, Missoula, and Great Falls, range in size from 86,000 to 45,000 people.

The average mean elevation is 3,400 feet above sea level. While the perception may be that it is a lush vegetated area, most of the state is typical of a high plains plateaus region which is semi-arid. The average

annual precipitation is only 15 inches (National Climatic Data Center, 1995).

Montana is not a microcosm of the nation. In general, it is a large rural state with a small population that is not ethnically diverse. The following table is a demographic profile of the United States and Montana.

Table 3: Demographic Comparison between Montana and the United States

	United States	Montana
Population:	265,284,000	879,000 Rank: 44
Age distribution:		
Up to 17	26.1%	26.4%
18 to 24	9.4%	9.8%
25 to 44	12.1%	28.2%
45 to 64	20.3%	22.4%
65 and older	12.8%	13.2%
Racial and ethnic distribution:		
American Indian	0.8%	6.0%
Asian	2.9%	0.5%
Black	12.1%	0.3%
White	80.3%	92.7%
Other and unknown	3.9%	0.5%
Hispanic (may be any race)	9.0%	1.5%
Educational attainment of adults (highest level):		
8th grade or less	10.4%	8.1%
Some high school, no diploma	14.4%	10.9%
High-school diploma	30.0%	33.5%
Some college, no degree	18.7%	22.1%
Associate degree	6.2%	5.6%

	United States	Montana
Bachelor's degree	13.1%	14.1%
Graduate or professional degree	7.2%	5.7%
Proportion who speak a language other than English at home:	13.8%	5.0%
Per-capita personal income:	$24,231	$19,047
Poverty rate:	13.8%	15.3%
New high-school graduates in:		
1997-98	2,784,793	11,930
2007-08	3,323,296	11,899
New GED diploma recipients:	502,812	2,149
High-school dropout rate:	9%	6%

(Chronicle of Higher Education, Almanac, State-by-State: Montana 1997).

Montana Higher Education

"Montanans have demonstrated a strong commitment" to quality educational opportunities for all of its citizens, and education has been a priority for over a century before the Constitutional Convention of 1972 (Merrill & Jacobson, 1996, p.237). Article X. Section 1 of the state constitution declares that:

> It is the goal of the people to establish a system of education which will develop the full potential of each person. Equality of educational opportunity is guaranteed to each person of the state. (Montana Constitution-1972)

The voters have frequently exhibited their solid support for education at the ballot box locally during annual votes for local K-12 school districts and by passing the mill levy which funds higher education every ten years

(Merrill & Jacobsen, 1996, p. 253). "Considering how the state underfunds government in general, it appears quite generous in its expenditures for its public school, and thus it seems fair to conclude that it places a high priority" on education (Malone, 1996, p.123). While funding education is still an important priority, the fiscal commitment to do so may be changing.

Yet, this tradition may be eroding. The late 1990's have witnessed a shift in the state legislature to a fiscal conservative trend in funding education and social services (Baker, 1994). This is not entirely surprising since Montana's political philosophy has always been a blend of middle-of-the-road conservative and Jeffersonian in nature: the least amount of government is the best (Malone, 1996, p. 125). Current funding trends reflect status quo for the K-12 system and a gradual decline for the university system (Malone, 1996).

There are three distinguishing characteristics about higher education in Montana: funding, organizational structure/governance, and academic product. Montana higher education is predominately public rather than private. The emphasis is on four-year rather than two-year institutions, and it is underfunded. The funding differential between Montana and the national average is greater at the post-secondary level than at the primary and secondary levels.

When compared to the other fifty states or peer institutions, Montana ranks below average or in some cases even near the bottom in the amount of fiscal expenditures on post-secondary education per student. Even though the general populace and the state government have traditionally supported educational programs more so than many other state programs, it is still less than what other states spend on education. The anti-tax sentiment, typically very common in Montana, has pressured lawmakers into a fiscally conservative position in regard to higher education in the last four years. The growth in state spending has been for prisons, social-welfare services, and increasing entitlement programs (Malone, 1996). Montana tuition and fee costs are below the national average.

Table 4: Comparison of Average Tuition and Fees Cost Between Montana and the United States

	United States	Montana
Average tuition and fees:		
Public 4-year institutions	$2,848	$2,367
Public 2-year institutions	$1,245	$1,382
Private 4-year institutions	$12,239	$7,545
Expenditures:		
Public institutions	$115,464,975,000	$376,618,000
Private institutions	$67,503,635,000	$50,343,000

(Chronicle of Higher Education, Almanac, State-by-State: Montana 1997)

Today, Montana ranks forty-eighth in the salary paid faculty at the four-year public institutions (Chronicle of Higher Education, 1997). Montana ranks last in public dollars allocated per student in higher education at approximately $3,400 per student annually (1997). The political institutions in Montana continue to support education at levels below the national average.

Table 5: Comparison of Faculty Salaries in Montana and the United States

	United States	Montana
Average pay of full-time professors:		
Public universities:		
Professor	$69,924	$50,728
Associate professor	$50,186	$41,570
Assistant professor	$42,335	$36,430
All	$55,068	$42,742
Other public 4-year institutions:		
Professor	$61,076	$46,558
Associate professor	$47,850	$37,626
Assistant professor	$39,544	$32,732
All	$48,566	$37.603
Private universities:		
Professor	$84,970	n/a
Associate professor	$56,517	n/a
Assistant professor	$47,387	n/a
All	$65,405	n/a
Other private 4-year institutions:		
Professor	$57,089	$35,697
Associate professor	$44,186	$31,047
Assistant professor	$36,325	$31,518

	United States	Montana
All	$44,504	$31,834
2-year colleges:		
Public	$43,295	$30,952
Private	$31,915	$34,981

(Chronicle of Higher Education, Almanac, State-by-State: Montana 1997)

The higher education system in Montana is distinctively oriented toward four-year public institutions. The Montana University System is a state-wide multi-campus system historically weighted to four-year schools. Access to two-year schools is limited. There are six public four-year and three private four-year colleges and universities. Montana has a small number of higher education institutions when compared to the number of institutions nationally.

Table 6: Colleges and Universities In Montana and the United States

	United States	Montana
Higher Education:		
Public 4-year institutions	608	6
Public 2-year institutions	1,047	13
Private 4-year institutions	1,636	3
Private 2-year institutions	415	2
Total	3,706	24
Vocational institutions:	6,706	36

(Chronicle of Higher Education, Almanac, State-by-State: Montana 1997)

Until recently there was a distinct lack of community colleges, and the system still does not have an adequate

number of two-year schools for the distances students must travel to obtain an education. As recently as 1989, there were only three community colleges. They are not in the Montana University System and are not governed by the state Board of Regents. They are funded with about equal tax revenues from the state and from the local community college district. Two of the community colleges are located in the sparsely populated eastern third of the state. One, which was founded in 1939; is in Miles City. The other, which was founded in 1940, is in Glendive. The third, which is in Kalispell, was founded in 1967.

Two other alternatives are available for students who want to pursue certificate or associate degrees: colleges of technology or tribal colleges. Tribal and technology colleges are fairly recent developments and have existed only since the mid-1970's. The colleges of technology are located in five of the largest cities in Montana--Billings, Butte, Great Falls, Helena, and Missoula. They are currently in transition from vocational-technical centers to bonafide community colleges. They have added an associate of science degree, increased the number of academic programs, and a core curriculum with courses transferable within the Montana University System. However, they are limited in the number and variety of academic coursework and disciplines offered to students. The current system of higher education in Montana is organized as follows:

Montana State University Campuses:
Montana State University-Bozeman
Montana State University College of Technology-Great Falls
Montana State University-Billings
Montana State University-Billings College of Technology
Montana State University-Northern (Havre)
The University of Montana Campuses
The University of Montana-Missoula
The University of Montana-Missoula College of Technology
Helena College of Technology of The University of Montana
Montana Tech of The University of Montana (Butte)
Montana Tech of The University of Montana College of Technology (Butte)
Western Montana College of The University of Montana (Dillon)
Community Colleges
Dawson Community College (Glendive)
Flathead Valley Community College (Kalispell)
Miles Community College (Miles City)
Tribal Colleges
Blackfeet Community College (Browning)
Dull Knife Memorial College (Lame Deer)
Fort Belknap College (Harlem)
Fort Peck College (Poplar)
Little Big Horn (Crow Agency)
Salish-Kootneai College (Pablo)
Stone Child College (Box Elder)

Tribal colleges in Montana have developed into dynamic community colleges which provide essential local needs for

their distinctive communities with nationally recognized educational leaders. Because the tribal colleges are in the established, rural areas of the Indian reservation the outreach is limited (Office of the Commissioner of Higher Education, 1996). While there have been increases in enrollment and in the number of two year colleges, the percent of students enrolled at four year schools in 1994-95 remains dominant at 84% (Office of the Commissioner of Higher Education, 1996).

Finally, the academic product of Montana schools is above average of the rest of the country. First, is a brief examination of the K-12 system. The estimated per-pupil expenditure in 1994-95 for Montana was $5,492, which is below the national average of $5,738. This is a national ranking of 29th, and is 93% of the national average per pupil (U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 1995). The student to teacher ratio of 16.4 in 1995-96 is slightly better than the U.S. average of 17.3 (1995). The average Montana public school teacher salary in 1995-96 was $29,364. This ranks Montana teachers 44th in the nation when compared to the national average of $37,846 (National Education Association, 1996). While funding is below average, the product is above average.

In 1990, 89% of the adults in Montana had either a high school degree or its equivalent; the national average is 82%. The adult literacy rate was 93.3%, compared to the

national average of 88.7%. Again in 1990, Montana had a high school drop-out rate of 7.1% and in 1993-1995 the rate was 6.0%. The national average is 11.2%. In 1994, Montana's high school graduation rate was fifth in the nation (84.8%), the average graduation rate in the last five years has been from 86 to 90 percent (Chronicle of Higher Education, 1997).

Table 7: High School Dropout Rates, 1993-95 Average

State	Rate
Massachusetts	3%
Maine	4%
North Dakota	5%
Montana	6%
Alaska	7%
Wyoming	8%
South Dakota	8%
Oklahoma	9%
California	10%
Oregon	11%
Idaho	11%
Colorado	11%
Nevada	12%
Arizona	13%
Texas	13%
Florida	13%
Louisiana	13%

(U.S. Census Bureau)

Based on standardized test scores Montana students are above average. In the 1990 National Assessment for

Educational Progress (NAEP) of eighth-grade math proficiency, Montana ranked second highest in the nation. On the 1994 reading assessment, Montana students ranked seventh highest in the United States (Merrill & Jacobson, 1997, p. 251). Finally, for the college bound student, Montanans continue to score above average on the national standardized ACT (American College Testing) and the SAT (Scholastic Achievement Test) tests.

Table 8: Academic Test Score Comparison Between Montana and the United States

	United States	Montana
Test Scores:		
ACT	21.0	21.9
SAT	1013	1093

Note: 60% of Montana's college-bound high school graduates took the ACT, and 20% took the SAT.

Source: Chronicle of Higher Education, Almanac, 1997-98 and Montana Office of Public Instruction)

Higher education inside and outside of Montana is the recipient of these above average students. Exactly 54% of Montana's high school graduates go directly to some form of post-secondary education, and as many as 79% will eventually pursue higher education post-secondary education alternatives (Office of Public Instruction, 1996). Montana high school graduates are aggressively recruited by out-of-state colleges. Nationally, in the fall of 1994, 80% of all freshman who graduated from high school in the previous year

attended college in their home state (Chronicle of Higher Education, 1997). In Montana, only 69% of the high school graduates attended a college in their home state (September, 1997). Slightly over one-third of Montana's high school graduates go out of state for their post-secondary education (Merrill & Jacobson, 1997, p. 267). In the late 1980's, several state directors of admission referred to this out-migration of high school and college graduates as the Montana "brain drain"; they felt that Montana's most valuable export was not copper or cattle but rather was its educated young people. Consequently, many of Montana's young people do not find employment in the Montana and frequently relocate out-of-state in order to find a job.

Montana's higher education system has some bright spots of distinction. The University of Montana at Missoula ranks fourth in the nation for the per capita number of students selected as Rhodes Scholars over the last 28 years. They have also produced 31 International Fulbright Scholars and 8 Truman Scholars. Montana State University at Bozeman has produced a remarkable number of Goldwater Scholars and USA Today All-Americans, above the average per capita basis. Several other schools including Montana Tech of the University of Montana, Carroll College, and the University of Great Falls have been recognized more than once as schools with academic excellence and quality at affordable prices in both U.S. News & World Report (1987, 1996) and in

Money Magazine (1992, 1996). With 20% of its adults with at least a bachelor's degree, Montana ranks ninth in the nation in proportion of adults with advanced degrees (U.S. Census Bureau, 1990).

Despite its high rankings, state funding for higher education ranks Montana 50th in annual per student expenditures, and the average salaries paid professors ranks 48th (Chronicle of Higher Education Almanac, September, 1996). Even with its lower than average funding, Montana colleges and universities continue to graduate quality accountants, engineers, creative writers, teachers, and historians.

According to the Office of the Commissioner of Higher Education in Helena, enrollment for the majority of post-secondary institutions in Montana can be considered to be in the low range, and the institutions can be classified as small when compared on a national scale. The following is a comparison of the student enrollment for Montana and the United States.

Table 9: Student Enrollment Comparisons - Montana and the United States

	United States	Montana
Enrollment:		
At public 4-year institutions	5,814,545	31,412
At public 2-year institutions	5,277,829	6,023
At private 4-year institutions	2,954,707	4,319
At private 2-year institutions	214,700	920

	United States	Montana
Undergraduate	12,231,719	39,113
Graduate	1,732,470	3,325
Professional	297,592	236
American Indian	131,304	3,762
Asian	797,359	337
Black	1,473,672	146
Hispanic	1,093,839	484
White	10,311,243	36,924
Foreign	454,364	1,021
Total	14,261,781	42,674
Enrollment highlights:		
Women	55.5%	53.2%
Full-time	57.0%	76.8%
Minority	25.3%	11.4%
Foreign	3.2%	2.4%
10-year change in total enrollment	Up 16.5%	Up 18.7%
Proportion of enrollment made up of minority students:		
At public 4-year institutions	23.2%	5.7%
At public 2-year institutions	29.9%	21.0%
At private 4 year institutions	20.9%	23.5%
At private 2-year institutions	28.4%	84.5%
Degrees awarded:		
Associate	539,691	1,329
Bachelor's	1,160,134	4,354
Master's	397,629	857
Doctoral	44,446	66
Professional	75,800	n/a

(Chronicle of Higher Education, Almanac, State-by-State: Montana 1997).

This categorization of being small is based on the average annual fiscal year full-time equivalent (FTE) for 1996-97. Only two institutions in the state exceed 10,000 FTE; these are the University of Montana--Missoula and Montana State University--Bozeman (Office of the Commissioner of Higher Education, 1996). There is a large enrollment difference between these two institutions and the rest of the colleges and universities in the state. The next largest institution and the only other one with more than 2,000 FTE is Montana State University--Billings with 3,221 FTE. There are four public and two private institutions with an FTE of more than 1,000 but less than 2,000: Montana Tech of the University of Montana (Butte), Montana State University--Northern (Havre), Flathead Valley Community College (Kalispell), Carroll College (Helena), Western Montana College of the University of Montana (Dillon), and the University of Great Falls. All of the remaining institutions have less than 1,000 FTE, and have headcount enrollments that range from 200 to 749.

Full-time Equivalent (FTE) equals 30 semester hours for an undergraduate student and 24 hours for a graduate student. The FTE for colleges in the Montana University System for 1996 were as follows:

MSU-Bozeman	10,285
UM-Missoula	9,911
MSU-Billings	3,275

MSU-Northern	1,494
UM-Western	1,082
UM-Montana Tech	1,679
Billings College of Technology	436
Butte College of Technology	329
Great Falls College of Technology	727
Helena College of Technology	468
Missoula College of Technology	629

Head count is the actual number of full-time and part-time students. The head count for colleges in the Montana University System for 1997 were as follows:

Institution	Head Count
MSU-Bozeman	11,603
UM-Missoula	12,124
MSU-Billings	3,801
MSU-Northern	1,704
UM-Western	1,122
UM-Montana Tech	1,823
Billings College of Technology	476
Butte College of Technology	418
Great Falls College of Technology	830
Helena College of Technology	731
Missoula College of Technology	755

Based on the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching classification system, Montana has no Research

Universities, 2 Doctoral Universities, 4 Master's (Comprehensive) Universities and Colleges, 3 Baccalaureate Colleges, and 15 Associate Degree and Certificate granting community, tribal, and colleges of technology (Chronicle of Higher Education, September, 1997). The two large universities are both developing strategies to become Research Universities in the near future. One of the associate degree granting tribal colleges, Salish Kootenai College, is in the process of seeking and obtaining accreditation from the regional accrediting agency to grant baccalaureate degrees in nursing and human services.

In the public sector, the Montana University System has two universities, four colleges, three community colleges, and five colleges of technology. There are three traditional functions in the system: Instruction, research, and public service. In 1972, the state legislature re-wrote the constitution and placed complete governance and control of the Montana University System under a semi-autonomous single Board of Regents of Higher Education. This board has full power, responsibility, and authority to supervise, manage, coordinate, and control the whole system. The Board of Regents, which is composed of seven members appointed by the governor to serve for seven years, appoints a Commissioner of Higher Education as the chief administrative officer for the Montana University System. The legislature still submits and approves funding levels for education, but

the Board of Regents along with campus administrators decide how the funds are spent and manage the day-to-day operations of the colleges and universities.

In 1988, the governance of the state's vocational technical centers were transferred from the local K-12 school district to the Montana University System. They were renamed "colleges of technology", restructured to offer both vocational and academic coursework, and re-organized to eventually fulfill the role of community colleges in the local areas. The mission of the colleges of technology has expanded from terminal certificate and vocational programs to include academic associate of science degrees and the first two years of core coursework for transfer to a four-year institution.

In 1994, the entire Montana University System was restructured to place all two-year and four-year public institutions under the governance of the two large universities in Missoula and Bozeman. Each public institution is now governed by either the University of Montana or Montana State University. However, there are two exceptions: Community colleges and tribal colleges.

The three original Montana community colleges are located in Kalispell, Glendive, and Miles City. While their governance remains with a local district board, they now receive a greater proportion of state funding as a result of the 1994 restructuring, and technically they are under the

ultimate authority of the Montana University System. This reflects a loosely coupled relationship with the Board of Regents which exercises limited control.

The second exception is the tribal colleges. They also have a local governing board for each college, but the degree of authority and influence from the reservation tribal council varies at each college. The local tribal college board is very autonomous at some institutions, while at other ones the tribal council exerts a strong degree of influence. Tribal college funding is complex and is a blend of federal funds.

There are only three private or independent higher education institutions in Montana. They are the University of Great Falls, Carroll College, and Rocky Mountain College. One is a university, and two are colleges. Two have Roman Catholic affiliations, and one has a combined Methodist and Presbyterian affiliation. All three are liberal arts institutions. Rocky Mountain College in Billings is the oldest college in Montana were founded in 1878, and was originally located in Deer Lodge and for awhile in Helena before its final destination in Billings. The Dominican Brothers founded Mount St. Charles College in 1909, which was re-named Carroll College in 1932, in the capital city of Helena as a boys school by Bishop John P. Carroll (Merrill & Jacobson, 1997, p. 262). The Sisters of Providence founded the University of Great Falls in 1932 as a junior college

for girls with programs in nursing and education; it achieved co-educational four-year status by 1939.

Montana has one of the most extensive tribal college systems in the country and is the only state in which every single reservation has a tribal college. Almost one-third of the total number of tribal colleges in the nation are located in Montana. Each college is on one of the seven reservations; one is now a four-year college, and six are two-year colleges. All seven of them have mission statements that support the local tribal culture, promote Indian cultural awareness, and include community involvement. The seven tribal colleges and their native tribes are as follows:

Tribal College	Reservation	Resident Tribe(s)
Blackfeet Community College (Browning)	Blackfeet	Blackfeet
Dull Knife Memorial College (Lame Deer)	Northern Cheyenne	Cheyenne
Fort Belknap College (Harlem)	Fort Belknap	Assiniboine & Gros Ventre
Fort Peck College (Poplar)	Fort Peck	Assiniboine & Sioux
Litle Big Horn (Crow Agency)	Crow	Crow
Salish-Kootenai College (Pablo)	Flathead	Salish, Kootenai, & Pend d'Oreilles
Stone Child College (Box Elder)	Rocky Boy's	Chippewa-Cree

Educational Leadership

While exemplary leadership traits are evident in any field, there are some fundamental differences between leadership traits in business and education. Even though there are a few leadership traits germane to one field or the other, most leadership attributes are applicable in both fields. Several fundamental differences between non-profit higher education or government agencies and for-profit businesses or corporations (Baldridge et al., 1978). A private business is organized to deliver a product or service for a profit. If it is not managed properly, if there is no demand for what it does, or if it becomes insolvent, then it will no longer exist. In general, a business must be organized for efficiency and solvency. In education, even though there are both private and public entities, the majority are public and are virtually always non-profit organizations. While universities must be organized in a proficient manner and while budgetary commitments must be met in higher education, they are secondary to the primary mission of academic scholarship. The intangible product is learning and dissemination of knowledge.

Educational goals are more diffuse and ambiguous than the clear financial objectives found in business and industry (Cohen & March, 1974). The ultimate goal for any business or private enterprise is to be profitable. The

goal for public non-profit organizations, such as the state and federal government agencies that furnish police and fire protection, is to provide efficient and competent services. Private, non-profit organizations provide a philanthropic or social welfare service. In education, the primary goals are teaching, research, and public service. Personnel in education, specifically professors, act autonomously and often identify more with their academic discipline than the institution. However, administrative and support staff personnel follow a more traditional bureaucratic organizational model while working alongside more independent academic professionals. The two manage to co-exist even though they adhere to different models of operation and mission. Most of the literature in education on organizational theory focuses on three topics: Structural aspects (goals, technology, and groups), decision-making models (collegial, political, and bureaucratic), and presidential leadership styles (Astin & Scherrei, 1980, p. 8).

Most of the literature on leadership was written for corporate organizations and managers. Even though most of these studies are from the field of business management and marketing, there is a small body of literature written by presidents in higher education. Most of this literature is based on their direct experiences and written from their perspective. While there is a growing interest on this

topic and an increasing number of research studies on higher education leadership, it is very limited in breadth and number. The section includes brief profiles from presidential and non-presidential perspectives.

E. Grady Bogue

E. Grady Bogue wrote Leadership by Design: Strengthening Integrity in Higher Education in 1994 after he resigned his position of president at Louisiana State University at Shreveport. The main thesis to his book is three-fold: Leadership is a challenge of character; leaders are designers; and leadership is a conceptual, moral, and performing art. He firmly believes leadership is a challenge of character and that presidents should embrace a values-based moral philosophy (p. 145). There are two principle challenges to leadership effectiveness: The challenge of intellect to acquire and use good ideas, and the challenge of character to learn and apply constructive ideas (p. xiii).

In his mind, presidential character means having a strong sense of personal identity. It is an affirmation of self, of knowing who you are, of recognizing your strengths and weaknesses, and of being autonomous rather than being swayed by the political winds on campus. It means resisting the temptation to be all things to all people (p. 108). Effective leaders are those who have been tested in battle--on the field of administration.

> I want to assist leaders who have spiritual scars and calluses on their characters; these are the evidence that they have contended with moral issues of difficult demarcation, that they have weighed contending moral calls whose resolutions defy neat decision algorithms, that they have agonized over the guidance of their own conscience and the judgement of an opposing majority, that they have struggled to know what it means to answer the call of honor. (p. xv)

Campus leaders have a special freedom and responsibility to construct a philosophy that frees and elevates the human mind and spirit. The most fundamental act of leaders is decision making, which implies choices involving both theory and value. Those decisions should reflect a mental map representing a vision of social reality (p. 14).

"Academic leaders hold in trust the mission of learning organizations [which is the] dissemination, production, conservation, application, and the evaluation of knowledge" (p.33). For Bogue, one is tempted to think that the fulfillment of the mission is a quest for the holy grail.

Bogue talks extensively about the ideals of leadership. He considers eight principles to be the core of his leadership design:

1. The call of honor--a vision of right action
2. The dignity test--treating others with respect
3. The habit of curiosity--a compulsive inquisitiveness
4. The case for candor--create openness, tell the truth
5. The touch of compassion--be sympathetic and care

6. The question of courage--expect performance & integrity
7. The expectation of excellence--actions of caring and daring
8. The servant exemplar--service as a moral art form

These principles of ideal leadership are very broad, yet specific. The leader is a designer and is not unlike a builder or an architect. The leader's values and ideals are the basis for constructing social reality on a campus. Following the Golden Rule places performance before pedigree. Bogue comments on how it is not only reasonable to make mistakes, but one can learn through the "exhilaration of error" (p. 70). "Truth is the foundation for trust. And trust is the principle building and bonding force of all organizations, especially for those whose mission is the pursuit of truth" (p. 71). It is important to nurture the collegiate community in the university.

Another perspective on courage is that it is an exercise of will showing that one cares enough to do the right thing. Excellence is not achieved with the cookbook act of imitating someone else, but rather it is achieved by reaching for and discovering ones' own promise. The servant exemplar metaphor sums up Bogue's philosophy quite well. Leadership is a test of character, a moral art form. Too often a leader is filled with arrogance and pride, a side-effect which often accompanies power.

Three problem areas in relation to leadership can result in the failure of a president: Technical, ethical,

and cultural. The first one refers to the lack of technical expertise. The second one refers to moral irresponsibility. The third one has to do with being insensitive to the people on campus and unaware of the campus culture.

Derek Bok

Derek Bok, former Harvard president and a law professor, advocates the creation of a contemporary program of moral education with coursework in higher education. In his Universities and the Future of America (1990), he argues that universities have a responsibility to assist the nation in becoming economically competitive on an international scale and to address social problems (p. 4). It is the task of higher education to help students acquire higher levels of ethical and social responsibility and to contribute to the progress of society (p. 7).

Bok advocates a rebirth of moral education, which is a return to the 19th century commitment to strengthen the character of students and their service to society (p. 55). Like the majority of private religious institutions in America, Harvard University taught moral philosophy since it was founded to prepare ministers, lawyers, and civic leaders (Boyer & Hechinger, 1981, p. 9). President Francis Waylan at Brown University felt that students should study religion, philosophy, and science to build moral character (Bok, 1990, p. 63). Evidence of the importance of non-classroom reinforcement of character building were the

extensive codes of conduct enforced by fines, demerits, and possibly even expulsion (p. 64). President Charles Eliot of Harvard, someone who stressed the importance of scholarship and freedom of inquiry, extended the emphasis on character in the hiring of faculty by placing great weight on their personal qualities. While he apparently could never be accused of being indifferent to a prospective professors' scholarship or teaching ability, the primary question in Eliots' mind was always that of character (p. 65). Even the undergraduate curriculum reflected the prominence of building student character with a senior capstone course on moral philosophy. By the end of the nineteenth century, moral instruction had declined substantially. There were two reasons why moral philosophy lost support: The ideas of Charles Darwin and the Morrill Act of 1862.

The effort to intellectually reconcile science and religion was undermined by Charles Darwin's On the Origin of Species (1859). Even St. Thomas Aquinas's Summa Theologica (1265), which eloquently reconciled faith and reason and formed the basis for Roman Catholic theology to today, was not persuasive enough for academicians (p. 66). Coupled with the growth in the teaching of science was the emergence of the modern research university which brought a new intellectual environment on campus. The Morrill Act created land grant colleges for the instruction of agriculture and applied mechanics (engineering) in virtually every state.

These public state-universities brought a more secular attitude to higher education (Boyer & Hechinger, 1981, pp. 12-13).

The growth of science created greater specialization based on more objective methods of inquiry, intellectual discourse became more probing and rigorous, and confidence in moral consensus and faith-based answers declined (Bok, 1990, p. 67). Reverence for scientific authority increased as moral philosophy replaced theology for defining collegiate intellectual life (Marsden, 1994, p. 99). Harvard University quit grading students on their conduct in 1869, and the responsibility for student behavior transferred from the faculty, who now were only responsible for evaluating the students academic performance, to deans or other administrators (Bok, 1990, p. 69). For the first time in the history of higher education, the training of the mind and character was separated and responsibility for these was given to two different groups. By 1886, Harvard had reduced the student book of rules from 40 to 5 pages, abolished compulsory chapel and class attendance, and eventually dropped the strict dress codes (p. 69). In 1939, a committee of Harvard professors stated that it was more important to hire faculty with distinctive scientific and scholarly credentials "regardless" of the potential faculty members personal behavior or attitude ("Report on Some Problems of Personnel in the Faculty of Arts and Science,"

Cambridge, MA, 1939, p. 77). By World War II, public higher education no longer was actively involved in the moral and civic education of students, and private higher education marginalized or secularized religious teachings to the periphery of the curriculum (Bok, 1990; Marsden, 1994). Higher education lost its former status as an important source of moral guidance for society (Bok, 1990, p. 68). The research university does not fulfill the function of providing the moral vision role in society.

Now after almost 50 years of virtually no emphasis on moral education in higher education, research universities are beginning to teach courses in practical ethics and moral reasoning again due to the ethical concerns affecting personal and professional behavior (especially in medicine, business, government, and engineering) (Bok, 1990, pp. 72-73). Faculty have been reluctant to teach ethics and are critical of the efforts to do so because they are concerned about ethics instruction becoming taught by ideologues to indoctrinate students (p. 74). They also do not think ethics is an academic discipline and behave that college is too late to teach ethics effectively.

Bok counters this criticism of either instruction with two arguments. First, the solution is somewhere in the middle of the discussion which becomes polarized between the two extremes of indoctrination and ethical relativism. Second, what is taught today is applied ethics, the ability

to stimulate thinking in regard to moral reasoning after identifying ethical problems utilizing the discussion and debate method of instruction and not the lecture method of conveying a single set of moral "truths" (p. 74). The role of the president becomes critical because they can champion campus debates on ethical issues that reflect societal trends and dilemmas (p. 107).

Bok's position on the role of the university in society, which is to be responsive to and a partner with society's institutions in solving social problems and inculcating moral values, is diametrically opposed to the classic one elucidated by Cardinal John Henry Newman who claims that the modern university has become an instrument for career training or social change agents rather than the place to seek truth as an end in itself. Newman defined the university "as a place detached from society, uncontaminated by its worldly values, and undistracted by pursuits other than the search for greater knowledge and understanding" (p. 8). Bok believes the current trends in society serve to weaken the tenuous links that connect the needs of society with the priorities of universities (p. 110).

Beyond the Ivory Tower (1982), Bok stressed the idea that universities should address and be responsive to moral dilemmas, ethical issues, and social problems in (p. 301). He also asserted that a basic social obligation existed between the university and society to communicate a higher

ethical standard beyond the reach of the existing law of the land (p. 299).

> The second issue is moral in nature and recognizes that the revitalization of our corporations, our government agencies, our schools, and our urban areas is ultimately dependent on the values of individual citizens. Since values are so decisive, are our universities doing enough to build in our society--especially among its most influential members and leaders--a stronger sense of civic responsibility, ethical awareness, and concern for the interests of others? (Bok, 1990, p. 7)

The obvious candidates to provide leadership and to advocate educational reform in higher education are the president, provost, and deans. Faculty and regents tend to be conservative and more interested in the status quo (Bok, 1986, p. 191). Presidents lack sufficient authority to implement serious educational reform in the academy since it is an environment of shared governance with the faculty. However, presidents do have limited but significant powers (Bok, 1982, p. 85). Bok agrees with Clark Kerr who says the faculty have the market on power today in academia. Bok (1986) is optimistic that presidents can still foster educational reform, fashion the academic agenda, and create an environment on campus that facilitates creativity and innovation (p. 193).

There is a peculiar paradox facing higher education. University presidents and deans are selected from the academic ranks, but frequently they do not have any formal training in or extensive experience with administrative

duties (Bok, 1986, p. 195). Administrative officers are drawn from the faculty because of the belief that leaders in educational institutions need to understand the principal values and issues of academia. "The irony is that academic leaders have less time to give to the intellectual agenda they were chosen to pursue. Instead, they must devote almost all their energies to administrative tasks for which they are so notably unprepared" (pp. 195-196). Search committees and governing boards face a predicament when selecting a president: Do they hire someone with solid managerial and political skills who may not have intellectual attributes, or do they select a scholar who lacks financial and managerial experience? Since the modern presidency demands both functions, one solution is to hire two "presidents": One who would be in charge of academics and one with managerial responsibility (p. 196). However, it would be difficult to separate these two functions or to find two leaders willing to co-share leadership power. One model would be to hire an academic for president and a strong executive vice president for finance and administration. Another is to hire a provost to handle the academic functions while the president handles the fund-raising and external affairs functions. The last suggestion seems to be the route selected by administrators in recent years.

Warren Bennis

"Leadership is the most studied and least understood topic of any in the social sciences" (Bennis & Nanus, 1985, p. 20). Warren Bennis, former president of the University of Cincinnati, is a most prolific writer on leadership. He studied leadership in the worlds of business and education using the case study method of interviewing a large number of presidents and corporate leaders. Bennis (1989) notes that leadership is like beauty. It is hard to define, but you know it when you see it (p. 1). In one way, leadership is not unlike art; both can be demonstrated, but frequently one cannot define it. Braque, a French painter, once said, "The only thing that matters in art cannot be explained" (p. 4). There seems to be one single characteristic that distinguishes leadership; this is a guiding purpose or an overarching vision" (p. 6). Many leaders are capable of re-defining or shifting an institutional vision drawn from the culture of an institution. "Leaders articulate and define what has previously remained implicit or unsaid, then they invent images, metaphors, and models that provide a focus for new attention" (Bennis & Nanus, 1985, p. 39).

Leaders agree on two things: Leaders are made, not born; and, no leader sets out to be a leader (Bennis & Nanus, 1985, pp. 5-6). Leadership is earned through dedication and hard work and is more a product of individual effort than external forces or innate gifts. Even though

Max Weber would agree with Bennis that leadership through traditional and rational authority is a product of performance, leadership through charismatic authority implies a degree of innate-based leadership which is not earned but which is a "gift". Most corporate leaders do not set out to become industry leaders, but they are recognized as leaders after fulfilling a vision or dream. Another common thread Bennis found in leaders is a desire for life-long learning (p.6). They continued to grow and develop throughout their lives as adult learners.

The context of leadership includes commitment, complexity, and credibility (Bennis & Nanus, 1985, pp. 7-9). Successful leaders manage to create a vision, instill meaning or purpose, and build trust with their followers. This empowerment of followers assists in accomplishing the mission of the organization since more people participate in meeting the objectives. Effective leaders are capable of synthesizing the complex, polarized, and contradictory dichotomies within an organization. This strength allows them to remain focused on the mission and to remain true to the character of the organization. Many leaders demonstrate an ability to successfully conquer the political nature of organizations, but exemplary leaders exhibit credibility. A sense of honesty and integrity goes a long way to being a credible leader even while always under the microscope of scrutiny. Leaders know who they are, know their strengths

and weaknesses, know how to gain support, and know how to achieve their goals (Bennis, 1989, p. 3). Leaders synthesize a vision from the institution and focus the attention through the commitment to the vision (Bennis & Nanus, 1985, p. 106).

Leaders are social architects (Bennis & Nanus, 1985, p. 110). They build the type of organization they believe is synonymous with their vision. The three primary organizational styles are collegial, personalistic, and formalistic. The first is more participatory and attempts to create win-win situations through increased communication and cooperation (p. 118). The second is based on personal trust and usually is found in small organizations (p. 123). The third is more formal, organized, rational, and centralized. It is the dominant model in the world and is a product of industrial organizations.

Exceptional leaders incorporate four strategies that ensure their success. First, they focus attention through vision (p.27). Leaders pay attention to the agenda, goals, and outcomes by creating a focus on them. The second strategy is the creation of meaning through communication (p. 33). It is the capacity to influence an organization with meaning through style, symbols, and methodology. Trust through positioning is the third strategy (p. 43). Trust is the "lubrication" for a successful organization. Leaders create trust through clear predictable positions and clear

directions. Persistent, reliable decisions facilitate trust in leadership. Effective leaders develop integrity. The fourth strategy is the "deployment of self through positive self-regard" (p. 55). The importance of human relations cannot be overstated. Leaders, even if they are considered to have charismatic attributes, which make them appear immortal, are not afraid to be human or to admit to some of their weaknesses because they have self-respect and a positive self-image (pp. 56-58).

Leaders are frequently challenged in their attempts to be exceptional. One lesson leaders face is the challenge of overcoming resistance to change. Another one is how a leader must broker or balance needs of constituencies within and outside of the organization. A third lesson is one in which the leader is responsible for ethics or norms that govern the behavior of people within an organization (pp. 184-186).

Bennis recognizes the importance of power. Power is the reciprocal of leadership (p. 17). Power is the "basic energy needed to initiate and sustain action" and the "capacity to translate intention into reality and to sustain it" (p. 17).

Bennis lists five critical skills leaders must have in order to lead: (a) The ability to accept people as they are, and not as you would like them to be; (b) the capacity to approach relationships and problems in terms of the present

rather than the past; (c) the ability to treat those who are close to you with the same courteous attention extended to strangers; (d) the ability to trust others, even if may be a risk to do so; and (e) the ability to do without constant approval and recognition from others (pp. 66-67). For Bennis, leadership is (a) a learned behavior that begins with a vision, (b) is fulfilled with systematic team building through a trust relationship, (c) involves followers who participate in the process and become empowered, and (d) includes a willingness to take risks.

Jill Ker Conway

Another presidential perspective is provided by Jill Ker Conway, who was president of Smith College from 1975 to 1985. Australian by birth, Conway's (1994) book True North--A Memoir, is really the personal story of her journey through graduate school and of her career path as a professor and educational administrator in the United States and Canada. Even though society was experiencing social reforms that were placing more women in managerial and leadership positions at increasing rates, the academic world in the 1970's was still dominated by male faculty and administrators at the University of Toronto. From her perspective, a significant amount of talent and ability was severely underutilized on a campus. When she accepted the presidency at Smith College, one of her chief desires was to have an impact on the education of women. Her chapter on

entering the world of the university is aptly titled, "Entering the Fortress Culture" (p. 109).

Her list of effective leadership traits include the following: communication, teamwork, problem solving, and enjoyment of what you are doing. Communication is essential. Without it success is not possible. A leader should be visible on campus, leave the presidents's office, and meet staff members in their own environments. Genuine teamwork means everyone works for a common goal. However, vision alone will not do the job. "Most visionary leaders lack the skill and application to focus on the details necessary to translate vision into reality" (p. 212). Again, teamwork is important if the leadership style is collegial and promotes problem solving (p. 212).

Conway detested turf protection. Campus politics invariably focus on the curriculum, which is usually the hot bed of political contention. However, academic issues are just props on a stage because the real concern is how well certain individuals or groups contend for power (p. 154). She learned early to never pretend that the academic system was based on merit; this was due to the experience of a close colleague, who was more qualified for tenure than the person who granted it (p. 59).

Frequently, she would frame decisions from the perspective of whether or not they were the right thing to do for students. Conway contends that undergraduates are

"short-changed" in their education at research universities due to the greater emphasis given to graduate education and research (p. 158).

As is the case with most presidents, Conway remains an academic at heart. Her thirst for the pursuit of knowledge in academia was described as a calling, and knowledge was a vocation to be followed regardless of external rewards (p.60). In comparing the academic life to that of an administrator, she conceded they were very different. "An academic's life is busy, but usually on a schedule she or he can control. It allows time for quiet reflection, periods of study, teaching, discussion". However, in an administrator's life, "every waking hour in a 18 hour day was allocated all day, every 30 minutes I had to focus on a new subject and often make a decision without the usual careful and exhaustive study that is the core of an academic's life. The cast of characters on any given day can be mind boggling" (p. 213). Her sense of humor is also evident. "It was like having a ringside seat at a daily serial drama, except that I had to do something about each installment" (p. 214).

> Besides, John said, "It's a tough job running universities these days. That man needs help, and you ought to give it to him. You can have a private life another day." (Conway, 1994, p. 207)

Conway refers to the fact that universities have unique cultures. Reforming or changing the bureaucracy of higher education is a formidable challenge. It was also a culture

that is dysfunctional for many reasons but especially due to formulation of job categories around gender stereotypes. So much energy and talent is underutilized when women are not in positions of authority (p. 223).

John Silber

John Silber, who was the former president of Boston University, and a professor of philosophy, has been an outspoken, articulate critic of higher education. He believes the role of higher education is to teach democratic values. In Straight Shooting, Silber (1989) is critical of education and other social institutions. The threat to America is not from outside the borders but is from self-destruction from within (p. 97). For Silber, there is a moral deficiency with a loss of integrity and self-responsibility resulting in a "no fault life" (pp. 308-309). Ethical responsibilities for one's personal and professional roles have become separated and have different standards (p. 304). In his view, lawyers are "self-expanding organisms driven by professional imperialism," and faculty unions are self-servicing units more concerned about contracts than education (p. 306). In the quest for self-indulgence and present day consumption, the number of uneducated citizens has increased because of the inability to reform public schools (p. 306). Silber refers to Edmund Burke and the importance of society to self-reform from within by the

people rather than state or government proclamations imposing change externally.

> Men are qualified for civil liberty in exact proportion to their disposition to put moral chains upon their own appetites. Society cannot exist unless a controlling power upon will and appetite be placed somewhere, and the less of it there is within, the more there is without. It is ordained in the eternal constitution of things that men of intemperate minds cannot be free (Edmund Burke cited in Silber, 1989, p. 96)

Education is important because it can inculcate values and educate the underclass. America's poor ignorant disenfranchised underclass must be educated and have economic hope (p. 197). America cannot be half educated and half illiterate, and it cannot afford to not educate itself (p. 211). Due to increased tuition costs, a decreasing number of academically qualified students will be denied opportunities to pursue a post-secondary education. Access and choice to college will be available only to the affluent. Silber proposes a Tuition Advance Fund program on the scale of the Servicemen's Re-Adjustment Act (G.I. Bill) of 1944 and the scope of the Morrill Act of 1862 to provide financial aid funds to expand access for education (p. 171).

While Silber recommends significant reform for K-12 public schools, he is equally disparaging of higher education. In the chapter entitled "Poisoning The Wells of Academe", Silber is critical of the abuses perpetrated in the name of academic freedom. The university, considered to be a free market place of ideas in the pursuit of truth, has

become politicalized, ideologicalized, polarized, and formulated into a hot bed of trade unionism (p. 98). The curriculum has become the battle ground for political motives (p. 100). Under the guise of academic freedom, faculty have become enslaved by ideological license to actually restrict free speech (p. 117). Higher education should re-examine the role of the American Association of University Professors (AAUP), union affiliation, and tenure (pp. 156-157). The encroachment of trade unions in the faculty ranks has shifted loyalty from the institution to the union. The AAUP has fervently perpetuated the rights of academic freedom but has ignored concomitant responsibilities. Due to the special character of the university, there are certain conditions on which the marketplace of ideas exists and which the freedom of that marketplace depends; with freedom comes responsibility (p. 96).

Finally, while Silber believes tenure is essential to protect faculty from arbitrary dismissal and to allow for the free expression of ideas in the classroom, he also thinks tenure needs to reformed. Those reforms may include placing reasonable time limits on tenure rather than granting lifetime tenure.

Clark Kerr

Clark Kerr, President Emeritus of the University of California at Berkeley, and professor of economics,

originally published The Uses of the University in 1963. He updated this study in three editions in 1972, 1982, and 1995. Kerr's book focuses on the roles of the president and of the university in society. "Universities are imperfect, pluralistic institutions that perform the dual roles of participating in society and simultaneously serving as critics...that was part of their magic" (Kerr, 1995, p. ix). Like Bogue and Bok, Kerr believes the academy should not be an exclusive ivory tower insensitive to the culture surrounding it. It should be setting a course for society that appeals to mankind's highest nature yet that is also grounded in sound theory and social reality.

Kerr sites four issues confronting higher education. First, universities neglect undergraduate students. Similar comments were made by Conway and Bok. Second, the "agency as alma mater" syndrome is when faculty become more attached to their funding agencies in Washington, D.C., than to their school and campus. Third, an internal intellectual debate concerns whether or not the university should be the citadel of knowledge teaching the classics or should be educating and training graduates for occupations. Fourth, the "intellect" is no longer devoted to scholarship or critical issues but is an instrument of the national purpose (p. viii).

The land-grant institution is an example of the co-dependent relationship between universities and the federal

government. This influence can be traced through several actions including (a) the Northwest Ordinance of 1787 which set aside land for public K-12 schools, (b) to the Morrill Land Grant Act of 1862 which set aside land for agriculture and applied science colleges, (c) the second Morrill Act of 1890 which funded support for instruction in certain subjects and agricultural experiment stations, (d) the Smith-Lever Act of 1914 which developed the agricultural extension service, (e) the placement of ROTC units at land grant schools in 1918, of the job programs of the Great Depression Work Projects Administration in the 1930's, (g) the research grants for science during and after World War II, (h) the G.I. Bill in 1945, and (i) the federal financial aid program since the 1960s (p. 100). The dominate presence of the federal government continues today in higher education. Recent emphasis on research has reversed the once primary role of teacher and secondary role of researcher. A three class system exists of teachers, researchers, and the majority of those who do both (p. 32).

Kerr discusses virtues, roles, and character of presidents. Presidential leadership is currently in a transitional phase (p. 99). Presidential leadership can be divided into three eras: The pre-modern era before 1870 when faculty reigned; the Era of "Giants" from 1870 to 1920 which is a period of tremendous reform when presidents were bold and led with dramatic leadership; the Era of

"Administrators", 1920 to the 1990's, a period of stability when presidents became academic administrators (p. 99). It is time for new presidential giants to provide leadership for the changes needed in higher education. "Virtually all of the successful major reforms or revolutions in academia have come either from presidential leadership or from outside of academia" (p. 79).

Three past "hinges" in the history of American higher education molded the modern American university system. Hinges create a new direction or a significant change in course. The first "hinge" occurred in the 1860's with the introduction of land-grant universities. This began the shift in governance from private to public and from sacred to secular. The second "hinge" occurred during World War II when the federal government supported scientific research at universities. This changed the role of the professor from predominately a teacher to a researcher. The third "hinge" occurred in the 1960's when there was an explosion of student enrollments, substantial curricular reform, and a re-definition of academic freedom (pp. 35-36). A fourth "hinge" may develop in the 1990's. Presidents will be faced with reduced external resources from the government, a decline in the "golden flow of money" (p. 165). They will also be confronted with issues related to faculty tenure, contracts, academic freedom, and standards of professional behavior (pp. 166-169).

The role of the president in molding the university will be a critical one over the next 20 years. Most will select paths of survival; a few will choose paths of duty (pp. 181-182). Which presidents have been accused of being a two-faced character, presidents are actually a of multi-faced character because they must deal with multiple constituents who may agree or disagree and argue (p. 23). The president must seek consensus in a situation where there is a struggle for power among groups who share it (p. 25). The rigor of the role of a modern president is not for everyone in academia.

> 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 foundations 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, a supporter of the professions (particularly law and medicine), a spokesman 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 airplanes, eating his meals in public, and attending public ceremonies. No one can be all of these things. Some succeed at being none.
>
> He should be firm, yet gentle; sensitive to others, insensitive to himself; look to the past and the future, yet be firmly planted in the present; both visionary and sound; affable, yet reflective; know the value of a dollar and realize that ideas cannot be bought; inspiring in his visions yet cautious in what he does; a man of principle yet able to make a deal; a man with broad perspective who will follow the details consciously; a good American but ready to

> criticize the status quo fearlessly; a seeker of truth where the truth may not hurt too much; a source of public policy pronouncements when they do not reflect on his own institution. He should sound like a mouse at home and look like a lion abroad. He is one of the marginal men in a democratic society--of whom there are many others--on the margin of many groups, many ideas, many endeavors, many characteristics. He is a marginal man but at the very center of the total process. (Kerr, 1963, pp. 22-23)

There are three moral virtues and four roles for a president. The moral virtues are judgement, courage, and fortitude. The four roles of leadership for a president include: Mediator, (referee or consensus builder), initiator (promotes progress through effective reform or change); gladiator (a fighter for academic quality and freedom) and, image maker (creator of institutional and self image) (p. 109). One of the overarching roles of a president is to communicate the importance of higher education to a society and to be a source for solving social problems.

Theodore Hesburgh

Theodore Hesburgh, (1973), former president of the University of Notre Dame, forewarned higher education leaders to institutionalize education as a lifelong process over two decades ago (pp. 3-5). Presidents need to understand that learning can be a lifelong endeavor and that it is necessary if a society wants to be literate and competitive in a global world. The adult education movement of the last three decades has recognized the importance of informal learning, self-learning, continuous life-long

learning, and learner directed objectives (Knowles, 1962, 1969; Lindeman, 1961). Recently, adult learning educators have increased their research interest in learning that occurs in real-life contexts (Fellenz & Conti, 1989). This concept is related to learning which takes place outside of formal educational settings and which has functional use. A form of self-directed learning called autodidaxy is defined as learning which takes place outside of formal instruction (Candy, 1987).

Administrators will need to consider new learning systems for the adult education movement and be aware of three attitudinal changes that are important (Hesburgh, 1973, p. ix). First, outmoded is the "attitude that young people need formal education while adults do not, that the education one receives as a child or young adult is enough to carry one through a lifetime" (Hesburgh, 1973, p. ix). Much of the knowledge and training one receives now is outdated or obsolete in less than 15 years after receiving a degree unless people continually updates their learning. "The worst education is the one which produces a person who thinks he or she knows everything, that formal education is finished and left behind" (p. x).

Second, there is an attitude that education is the same as schooling, and that meaningful education is found only in educational institutions. There is too much of an emphasis on the amount of time spent in school, the number of degrees

or types of credentials, and formal educational settings (Hesburgh, 1973, p. x). Learning occurs not only in school but also in the workplace, in the home, and in avocations. There must be the realization that the purpose of education is learning and knowledge rather than merely earning degrees.

Attitude three is that educational leaders are concerned mainly about formal schooling and not education. "The center of educational gravity in society is shifting away from educational institutions toward informal learning, continuing education outside of school in the community, and self-learning without formal structures or conventional teachers" (Hesburgh, 1973, p. xi). Leaders in higher education need to recognize this revolution and the concomitant shift in learning styles.

> A leader in the airlines industry was once asked how it was that the railroads which carried so many people across the country in an earlier day, had lost so much of this business to buses and airlines. His answer was that the railroads thought they were in the railroad business when they should have realized that they were in the transportation business. The same kind of problem exists today in education. (p. x)

Hesburgh believes American educators need to move toward a conciliation and articulation of both core education and continuing education (Hesburgh, 1973, p. xii). The goal should be to create a new learning system that combines the intellectual integrity of the core academic system with the authenticity of life experience.

Recommendations include an easier entering and exiting of education, formal education should more integrated with careers, and the use of technology should accommodate adult learners. Hesburgh concludes with a reminder that the educator has a social responsibility to build a new and broader educational system through lifelong learning for all.

Robert Birnbaum

Birnbaum is professor of Higher Education at Columbia University. His studies include a variety of research topics: Leadership theories of presidents, the relationship between faculty and presidents in relation to the Chief Executive Officer's success and failure, effective college and university presidents, individual preferences and organizational goals, and academic organization and leadership.

The study of leadership in higher education is more difficult than in private industry or government settings because of shared authority and mixed goals (Birnbaum, 1987a, p. 1). The unique nature of higher educations' dual control systems and normative professional organizations inevitably leads to conflicts between faculty and administrators. In higher education, there is definite resistance to leadership as defined in traditional and hierarchial organizations, and faculty are viewed more as constituents than as followers (p. 2).

There are five categories of theory in organizational leadership. Those categories include trait, power and influence, behavioral, contingency, and symbolic. Birnbaum's study indicates that 88% of the presidents surveyed used either the power and influence or the behavioral theories while only 12% preferred trait, contingency, and symbolic theories. The study supports the perception that college and university presidents are traditional and adhere to leadership theories based predominately on power and influence. The sample of 32 presidents represented a cross-section of public, private, two-year, four-year, and a wide range of enrollment.

Social power theories emphasize one-way influence, while social exchange theories emphasize two-way mutual influence and reciprocal relationships between leaders and followers. Birnbaum's (1987a) the study indicated that the majority of presidents described their leadership from the two perspectives of power and influence, and behavioral (p. 6). There are two major theoretical perspectives to power and influence: social power which is a one-way attempt to influence others or social exchange which is a mutual interaction with followers. The first perspective includes five bases: Legitimate power from a formal position, reward power, coercive power through punishment, expert power through persuasive personalities, and referent power through identification (French & Raven, 1959).

In the 1987 study, 63% of the leaders reflected perceptions of leadership influence as social power or a one-way process, and 25% utilized social exchange or a two-way process. Phrases used to express their use of social power were "the power of persuasion", "getting people to buy into your goals", or "getting people to act positively" (Bernbaum, 1987a, p. 8). For the eight presidents who preferred social exchange, they conceptualized their influence best as "shared concepts of responsibility", "assimilation and articulation of goals", or "collectively move the institution" (p. 8). Social power theory shows the tremendous burden of leadership that is placed on a single person while social exchange implies more of a team concept with shared responsibilities.

Virtually all (97%) of the presidents included behavioral activities in their definitions of leadership (Bernbaum, 1987a, p.8). There were four patterns of behavioral activity: Expressing goals, motivating to action, management support, and psychological support. Approximately, three out of four (77%) of the presidents used institutional goals. Typical references included setting direction, setting goals, or providing vision. Two out of three (66%) were concerned about moving people to action to accomplish goals. Common phrases for this included "setting the pace, mobilize people, move people, stimulate, or serve as a catalyst" (p. 9). Slightly more

than one out of three (38%) expected leaders to use administrative support to manage behavioral activities. These responses focused on resource management, planning, communication, and proper structure and processes. Finally, slightly less than one out of three (31%) of the presidents felt psychological support was important. The presidents referred to the need to inspire, to encourage, to challenge, and to provide a sense of achievement. In this study, there were modest or no significant differences based on institutional type (university, college or community college), control (public or private), or length of presidential tenure with "new" defined as less than three years and "old" defined as more than five years (p. 10).

Birnbaum's (1987a) general definition of leadership is that it is a process of influence directed towards the achievement of goals (p. 11). Goals could be leader or institutionally defined, but frequently they were referred to as mission-directed. The leader-directed orientation denoted a presidential role as directive and controlling, and could be referred to as the "sheepdog". The follower-directed orientation indicated a presidential role as facilitating and supportive, and could be referred to as the "cheerleader".

The survey results indicated that three out of four presidents viewed leadership as directive (social power) while one out of four viewed it as an enabling (social

exchange) influence. A large majority of presidents (78%) identified the role of leadership as one in which the president directs staff towards achievement of certain goals or objectives. In this directive group, 48% felt that the goals should be determined by the president. Another 30% stated that the goals were inherent in the institutional mission. The respondents (22%) who saw the presidential role as an enabling influence or based on a social exchange perspective, also established goals but did so from the context of organizational participants rather than having them come solely from the president. This group saw leadership as a group phenomenon rather than based on an individual characteristic or a single leader.

Another result of this 1987 study was in reference to the consistency or divergence of institutional goals and individual presidential preferences of goals (Birnbaum, 1987b). While not conclusive, there were three generalizations based on correlational data which could not determine the causal relationship with the plausible premises. The first conclusion concerned a definite relationship that existed between presidential goals and the goals of other campus leaders. One explanation suggested that goal consistency develops because presidents exert influence over followers. Another explanation was that in order for presidents to be successful, they must listen, understand, and respond to goals expressed by staff and

faculty. The second conclusion indicated that goal consistency is related to institutional type. Leaders at universities and community colleges have the least consistent goals, and leaders at independent or private institutions have the most consistent goals. One explanation is that universities and community colleges have a variety of goals because they are more pluralistic in nature and respond to a variety of constituents. This may actually be effective because inconsistent goals may be appropriate for some institutions (p. 10). The last conclusion is that goal consistency is a function of how leaders communicate with their followers. Essentially, there is greater goal consistency when presidents communicate in a personal way than when they communicate in a formal impersonal way. One explanation is that "interpersonal communication by presidents increases the degree to which leaders's goals inspire others and influence goal consistency"(p. 10).

A third result of the 1986-87 study on leadership by Birnbaum (1990) was the degree of faculty support for presidents. Birnbaum wanted to know why faculty support seemed to decline as presidents gained experience overtime (p. 1). The study showed that strong faculty support for new presidents, who were in office less than years, was at 75% while it was only 25% for experienced presidents, who had more than five years experience in the position (p. 6).

Previous survey research data by Birnbaum (1993) indicated that higher education presidents could be divided into three categories: Failures--25%, modal--50%, or exemplary/successful--25%. Presidents categorized as failures were those who lost faculty support early in their tenure, modal or status-quo presidents gradually lost support over time, and exemplary presidents retained faculty support throughout their terms in office. Recent studies examining the relationships between faculty and their presidents indicate a contentious and apprehensive association. Only 57% of faculty in a national survey of full-time faculty were satisfied with the quality of their chief administrative officers, and only 54% were pleased with the relationship between administration and faculty (Russell, et al., 1990). Earlier, 60% of the faculty in a 1984 national survey identified their schools as autocratic, and 64% thought the administration to be only "fair" or "poor" (Boyer, 1987). A similar study conducted 5 years later indicated that only 49% of the faculty respondents believed their schools were being effectively managed (Mooney, 1989). The level of faculty dissatisfaction suggests that while some presidents enjoy faculty support, a fairly large proportion of presidents may not. Birnbaum's study considers the dynamics associated with one significant factor related to faculty support--the length of the presidential term of office.

There are several propositions worth noting based on the dynamics of this relationship; Birnbaum lists 10 propositions, but 3 are directly related to leadership. Successful or exemplary presidents maintain faculty support by "sustaining over time the enthusiasm, institutional commitment, desire to interact with faculty, and openness to influence that typifies new presidents" (Birnbaum, 1990, p. 14). They continue to respond to and remain open to the influence of faculty. Successful presidents recognize the faculty as an institutional strength, support faculty governance, accept faculty influence, and encourage the development of faculty leaders. Exemplary presidents view communication and interaction as essential and critical to the evolving nature of a campus community (p. 15).

Modal presidents experience initial success and minimal criticism, but they tend to overestimate their effectiveness and eventually lose faculty support because they become less sensitive to complaints and diminish the importance of two-way communication (Birnbaum, 1990, p. 11). During the "honey moon period," those who agree with the president will publicly support the president while those who disagree or are concerned will usually continue to engage in close scrutiny but refrain from overt criticism. As presidents gain more experience, there is a tendency to communicate and respond more to board members and administrators than to faculty (p. 12).

Failed presidents usually begin as modal presidents but end with the president losing the confidence of the faculty as well as either the board of trustees or administrative colleagues (Birnbaum, 1990, p. 13). This confidence is lost when presidents are perceived as violating faculty rights and status by taking action without consultation during a crisis or decision-making process or "when authoritarian leadership is not accompanied by conspicuous institutional success" (p. 13). Usually it is a "task-oriented, rational managerial act" by the president with token or no consultation and seems to be "insensitive to the human aspects of organization" and does not accurately comprehend faculty culture (p. 13). These types of incidents remain fresh in the mind of the faculty for years and are considered to be "a crucial turning point in the politics of the campus" (p. 13). Faculty quotations illustrate this:

> She acted in a manner contrary to faculty rights...her reaction ended her career.
>
> He got off to a very bad start and never recovered.
>
> There is manifest destiny of him in the faculty.
>
> He simply does not understand the human reaction to this kind of thing. (pp. 13-14)

Birnbaum (1990) believes the relationship between presidents and faculty is crucial to the success of a president. Since governance in higher education is normally predicated on shared authority and mutual respect between faculty and administrative leaders, whenever faculty support

deteriorates it will decrease the effectiveness of a president (p. 18).

Future Leadership Concepts

Leadership in the Future

Bennis and Townsend (1995) believe leadership is going through a metamorphosis from one paradigm to another one (p. 95). Currently, higher education is in transition between the 19th century militaristic "tough leader" paradigm of order, control, and predictability toward a 21st Century paradigm that is based on collaboration, empowerment, risk-taking, and team-work. The new paradigm is also designed to deal with chaos and unresolvable issues (Bennis & Townsend, 1995). Effective leaders in the future will be team players who recognize, appreciate, and empower people to seek their potential (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993).

There is also a relationship between learning and leadership. The best and the brightest of leaders are also pioneers in learning (Senge, 1990). Effective leaders continue to learn throughout life; their thirst for learning is seldom filled. People are taught from childhood to break apart problems, to fragment the world. It makes complex tasks and subjects more manageable, but there is an enormous hidden price to pay. The loss is the intrinsic sense of connection to a larger whole. One cannot see the big picture

since one cannot also see the consequences of one's actions (Senge, 1990).

There are five new components available to innovate learning organizations and assist them in reaching their highest aspirations and objectives: Systems thinking; personal mastery; mental Model; building shared visions; and, team learning (Senge, 1990). Systems thinking simply refers to a conceptual framework that encompasses all parts of the whole while observing all of the patterns. Personal mastery includes both a commitment to lifelong learning and clarification of one's personal vision of priorities in life. Mental models allude to the deeply ingrained assumptions, perceptions, and mind-sets of a person; new learning occurs when one examines them and engages in self-reflection of those deeply ingrained philosophical frameworks. Building a shared vision is the capacity to hold a shared picture of the future; the consequences include genuine commitment and participation. Team learning is important because teams, not individuals, are the fundamental learning unit in modern organizations.

Dynamics of Leadership

Vision

Evoking a vision that the whole campus embraces is difficult. The president's role in "selling" the vision is described as "infecting", "injecting energy", "permeating", and "inspiring" faculty and staff efforts (Neumann, 1995, p.

263). First, this vision is a restatement of the community's perception of who they are based on what the president has heard from trustees, faculty, and staff. Rather than relying only on their perception of the college, presidents learned the college on their own terms even embracing some of their language in one-to-one informal situations. Presidents also accept and respect the identity they discovered. Second, instead of focusing entirely on the future or what should be, the vision draws upon the college's historical identity, and upon how it perceives itself in the present.

Third, the president's choice of the verb "infect" is for a significant reason. Leaders can project a vision, but they cannot force it upon others. Followers must seize it on their own. Terms which reflect this are that the president's vision is "fundamentally authentic" to the college because the vision is a synthesis of the college's core beliefs and that the president was successful at "identifying the college's hidden identity--unearthing it, recasting it, and calling it vision--although it was a vision that emerged more from rememberences of the past than from a totally novel view of the future" (Neumann, 1995, p. 264). In a way, the president merely rediscovered and returned the essence of the college back to the college (p. 264). Finally, the president converted personal learning of the college into a "vision" which they embraced. An

institutional vision is not solely self-defined from the exclusive perspective of the president who then would impose it upon the campus (Neumann, 1995). Instead, it is established in the context of the culture and is co-defined by the president and constituents in a mutually respectful relationship.

Charisma

Leaders seem to have almost supernatural powers to inspire and motivate people especially masses of followers (Kornblum, 1997, p. 223). Max Weber referred to this ability as charisma (p. 223). One question that invariably surfaces in the study of leadership is the role of charisma. Is charisma essential in order to be effective? Is it innate or learned? While Bennis (1993) and Covey (1994) recognize that some leaders have charisma, both say that charisma is not found in all leaders and is not a requisite for effective leadership. Bennis found that leaders in business and education frequently were actually missing charismatic qualities. Commitment to an institutional or organizational vision, and to a mission were more common than charisma.

Charisma, "the gift of grace", refers to charismatic authority and can be traced back to early Christianity. It was conceptualized in modern terminology by Rudolf Sohm (Eisenstadt, 1968, p. 47). The concept has a thesis--antithesis nature: Sacred vs. profane or extraordinary--

temporary vs. everyday--routine (p.47). Max Weber was a the German historian, economist, and sociologist, and he wrote extensively about charisma in Theory of Social and Economic Organization. In his examination of political action and organization in society, Weber distinguishes three types of legitimate authority: Traditional, charismatic, and rational (p. 44).

Traditional authority is based on a belief in the sanctity and legitimate status of a particular person, such as a tribal chief, absolute monarch, or father (Eisenstadt, 1968, p. 46). It is hereditary authority legitimated by traditional values, which are sometimes even sacred beliefs (Kornblum, 1997, p. 605).

Charismatic authority is devotion to an individual based on revelation, heroism, or exemplary character. It results in personal trust and loyalty in the charismatic individual (Eisenstadt, 1968, p. 46). The authority comes to an individual through a personal calling, which is sometimes inspired by supernatural powers, and is legitimated by people's belief that the leader is someone with God-given powers (Kornblum, 1997, p. 606). Charisma may be irrational, be anti-rule oriented, repudiate the past, and be revolutionary.

Rational authority is legitimatized by a legal system with written norms and rules for the organization. It is authority by position or office such as a president or prime

minister (Eisenstadt, 1968, p. 46). Obedience is owed to a set of principles and not to a person (Kornblum, 1997, p. 606). In a democratic society, it is found in the rational formal bureaucracies of government and corporations.

Charismatic leaders have been prophets, revolutionaries, saviours, heroes in war and in ordinary life, and agents of social movements. Weber used three examples or types of groups that tend to follow charismatic leaders: Religious, military, and political (p.51). The "rule of genius", which is the elevation of people of humble origin to regal thrones or high military command or religious prophets, is proof that someone is not formally appointed to the status of charismatic leader but it results as a "calling" to follow a leader after that person has demonstrated leadership qualities (Eisenstadt, 1968, p. 52). Charisma is transitory, not permanent, and eventually results in traditional or rational authority. Charisma is the greatest revolutionary force in a society, one that provides the impetus for significant social change and reform (p. 53). Like Bennis and Covey, Weber believed that charisma cannot be learned or taught; it can only be "awakened" or "tested" (p.58).

Followers

Research on leadership frequently focuses on relationships between leaders and followers. The implication is that a leader is someone to whom the followers look to

for guidance and vision. The literature that defines the phenomenon of followers includes directive or participatory leadership (Lippert & White, 1958), transactional leadership (Hollander, 1985), transformational leadership (Burns, 1978), and instrumental or symbolic leadership (Pfeffer, 1981).

Bennis and Townsend (1995) stress how often good leaders are also good followers. "To lead, one must follow," said Lao Tzu. The most effective leaders were once committed followers. They also still understand the importance of being a follower in certain situations even when they are in the role of leaders. Leaders listen, collaborate, and resolve competitive issues and problems (Bennis & Townsend, 1995, p. 8). Basically leaders perform the roles of students and teachers interchangeably throughout their careers. Douglas K. Smith (cited in Hesselbein et al., 1996, pp. 199-209) reinforces the idea that following is an important function of leadership. Also, attracting competent staff, which sometimes has different or better expertise, is important to any successful operation. To quote Andrew Carnegie, "Here lies a man who attracted better people into his service than he was himself."

Values

Traditionally there are three primary values in higher education. The freedom to inquire, the freedom to teach,

and the freedom to learn are the cornerstone of values in academia (Balderston, 1974, pp. 26-35). It is the responsibility of faculty to pursue new knowledge through scholarship, and it is the obligation of administrators to provide a forum for the discussion of ideas and the transmission of truth. A university is not only an intellectual resource to students, but it is also a moral community. Creative scholarship from faculty is important, but they are also character models (p. 35). There is a constant tension between the forces of cohesion and individuality. The same characteristics that promote individual autonomy and preserve exploration and disagreement make it vulnerable to intolerant (p. 37). The three primary enemies of university values are disinterest, isolation, and intolerance (p. 35). The foundational value of free expression in "defense of the liberty of ideas makes the university community an easy forum for some kinds of demagoguery" (p. 37). The concern is that higher education overcomes these hazards to protect a moral community and to foster an atmosphere for learning (p. 37). Finally, higher education must guard against adopting managerial practices for organizations from the business world because it would damage both individual autonomy and collegial cohesion (p. 36).

Power

Bennis and Nanus (1985) claim that all traditional leadership theories ignore one critical ingredient--power. There are many examples of the ineffective use of power or outright abuses of power. However, a genuine understanding of the positive aspects of the use of power is not common. The error of misusing power has been perfected more so than the positive use of power.

There is an integral relationship between leadership and power (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993). The concept of power is closely related to leadership because power is one of the ways leaders can influence the behavior of their followers (p. 220). In order to facilitate career advancement or the ability to influence an organization, there must not only be an understanding of power but a willingness to exercise it (Benzinger, 1982). A leader must seek power and not be afraid to use it. Indeed, leaders may discover that power is fun because it gets the things the leader wants done in the organization. The following is a twelve step strategy for obtaining power.

1. Learn and use your organization's language and symbols
2. Learn and use your organization's priorities.
3. Learn the power lines.
4. Determine who has power and get to know these people.
5. Develop your professional knowledge.
6. Develop your power skills.
7. Be proactive.
8. Assume authority.
9. Take risks.
10. Beat your own drum.

11. Meet your supervisor's needs.
12. Take care of yourself. (pp. 18-20)

British philosopher Bertrand Russell also supports the argument that leadership and power are connected. He criticizes the social sciences, psychology, sociology, and political science for being impotent when compared to the physical sciences, chemistry, biology, and physics. While the logical and empirical nature of science provides both the theory and practice for credibility in the "hard" sciences, Russell says that the "soft" sciences are missing the boat:

> The fundamental concept in social science is power, in the same sense in which energy is the fundamental concept in physics. (Bertrand Russell cited in Bennis & Nanus, 1985, p. 16)

Russell is saying that the essence of the social sciences is the true understanding and implementation of power in the realm of human relations. The impact of power reverberates throughout social institutions and organizational structures in a society.

True power is gauged by influence and not by control. Power is the ability to influence people. Power can be separated into three categories: Coercive, utility, and principle-centered (Lee, 1997). Coercive power is based on a position of authority. It is usually found in formal situations and uses fear as leverage. Utility power, the fairness principle, is based on negotiation. It is an adversarial relationship resulting in win-lose, lose-lose,

or win-win. Both of these types of power may use the "stick" or the "carrot" which appeal to people's self-interest for compliance. Principle centered-power is character based and utilizes honor, trust, and integrity. This type of power builds loyalty through synergy. Carl Jung referred to the awesome power of synercincity (Lee, 1997). The secret of true power is actually letting go: "Give up the desire to control someone" and instead "try to influence others" (Lee, 1997). This formula is predicated on the principle of empowerment. Influence people to become aware of their own internal power. True leaders support followers on a path of self-discovery of their individual strengths, talents, and abilities. This removes the hierarchial, supervisor-employee structure and changes relationships to a collaborative level.

Culture

"Inattention to social systems in organizations has led researchers to underestimate the importance of culture--shared norms, values, assumptions--in how organizations work" (Schein, 1996, p. 229). The relationship between leadership and culture in higher education has not been sufficiently examined. Previous theories on leadership view organizations and the dynamics of leadership within structural, behavioral, or process-centered models (Yukl, 1989). There has been very little recognition of the thinking, learning, and feeling of people in an organization

(Neumann, 1995a, pp. 252-253). Traditional leadership studies are based on one-way dynamics with the focus almost exclusively on the leader. Culture provides another dimension to leadership because it endeavors to examine the relationship between the leader and those who follow. It is based on the assumption that both the leader and followers learn from each other through a two-way dynamic in the context of a campus culture.

Sometimes, the power of culture is lost on leaders. What is culture? All modes of thought, behavior, and production passed from one generation to the next through language and non-genetic transmission constitute culture (Kornblum, 1997, p. 86). It includes the ideas, values, norms, and material goods (Kornblum, 1997, p. 60). Every culture has assumptions about expected behavior. Each campus has a culture unique unto itself. Effective leaders are aware that each organization has a particular culture. Effective higher education presidents understand the importance and critical nature of culture. Successful presidents learn the existing campus language and culture, and incorporate it into their vision for a school.

It is the assumptions in a culture that drive or define norms and values (Schein, 1992). Culture is as "the set of shared, taken-for-granted implicit assumptions that a group holds and that determines how it perceives, thinks about, and reacts to its various environments" (Schein, 1992).

Most members of a culture do not question or examine those assumptions. Some are not even aware of the assumptions in their own culture until they encounter a different culture, domestic or foreign (Schein, 1996, p. 236).

Three different cultures exist in management: operators, engineers, and executives (Schein, 1996, pp. 236-237). Operators are line or staff managers who deal with the systemic interdependence of functions within and without offices. Engineers are the technology "experts" who understand and design the technical side of an office. Executives are the senior level of management responsible for financial and operational decision-making (pp. 236-237).

Anna Neumann's (1992, 1995a, 1995b) research focuses on the relationship between leadership and culture, but from a constructivist conception of social reality. Her thesis is that faculty and staff do not respond to realities changing around them in an objective sense from their own conceptions of what is happening based on their perceptions of reality (Neuman, 1995a, p. 253). Frequently, these conceptions are "constructed" from conversations with people whose credibility of interpretation defines them as leaders in the organization (Smircich & Morgan, 1982).

Culture can also be defined as "a system of inherited conceptions expressed in symbolic forms" through which the members of a community "communicate, perpetuate, and develop knowledge about and attitudes toward life" (Geertz, 1973, p.

89). Recent research has begun to define collegiate culture from a variety of perspectives (Masland, 1985; Peterson & Spencer, 1990; Tierney, 1988, 1990). The studies conceptualizing collegiate leadership have also increased over the last 10 years (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989; Birnbaum, 1988, 1992; Dill, 1984; Dill & Fullagar, 1987). However, only a few researchers have studied the relationship between collegiate culture and leadership. These studies indicate a social cognition perspective (Sims & Gioia, 1986); (Berger & Luckmann, 1967); (Rabinow & Sullivan, 1987); and an interdependent relationship between culture, leadership, and human cognition in higher education organizations (Bensiman, 1990a, 1991a). Effectively presidents often use symbols to construct meaning on a college campus (Tierney, 1989). How campus constituents perceive and experience their leaders, especially their presidents, and the organizational events and conditions leaders impose on the campus culture has also been examined (Bensimon, 1990b; Neumann, 1992).

Leadership is a relationship (Bensimon, 1990a, 1991b; Bensimon & Neumann, 1993; Neumann, 1992a, 1995b). The fusion of cognition, context, and culture is as much about learning as it is leadership (Neumann, 1995a, p. 253). Culture, context, and cognition are relational, interactional, and full of symbolic content (p. 252). Previous studies of educational leadership have overlooked human relationships

in an academic organization and the contexts within which they interact on a day-to-day basis (p.252). Academic leaders and other campus constituents construct and reconstruct campus realities. Yet, it is not known how formally designated leaders of higher education exert their effects and influences on campus life. The effect of leadership is complex and multi-directional. Leaders affect others on campus not in leadership positions (the traditional hierarchial view); leaders affect other leaders (leadership-as-colleagueship view); leaders may be influenced by people not in leadership positions (bottom-up view); and included in this is how non-leaders effect other non-leaders, (the grass-roots view) (p.252).

Leadership is a relationship that can be viewed cognitively and from a constructivist perspective (Neumann, 1995a, p. 271). The relationship between leader and follower is complex and involves perceptions, interpretations, and understandings drawn from their communication. This underscores the importance of learning the nature of a campus culture. Without comprehending norms unique to an institution, values held in high esteem, and beliefs considered to be significant, any leader is at risk. It is a quest on the part of the president to discover and distill the root meanings in a campus culture (Smircich, 1983), prior to imposing his or her vision. It is possible that leadership might be re-defined, "not as the doing or

thinking of leaders acting on behalf of others but as the collective creating of contexts within which people, regardless of title or status, are free to learn and lead together" (Freire, 1984).

Bureaus

When the word bureaucracy is spoken, it is said with a degree of disdain. No one looks forward to dealing with bureaucracies, but they are necessary entities in a modern society. Bureaus employ a large number of people. They also provide a social structure for critical decisions that shape many educational, economic, political, social, moral and religious aspects of people (Downs, 1967). The fundamental premise in a bureau is that bureaucrats are significantly but not solely motivated by their own self-interests (p. 2). Three important aspects of bureaus are that (a) bureaucratic officials attempt to attain goals rationally and efficiently, (b) bureaucratic officials have a complex set of goals which result in five types of bureaucrats, and (c) bureau social functions influence the internal structure and behavior (p. 2).

Bureaus have a particular life cycle. They begin with a period of rapid growth, usually dominated by advocates or zealots. In the struggle for survival, they create legitimacy and then seek autonomy. Once established, most bureaus either accelerate or decelerate in budgetary growth and political stature; status quo occurs occasionally but

infrequently. Climbers thrive in an accelerator bureau climate, and conservors control a decelerator bureau environment. As bureaus age, they become more conservative, stable, and less flexible with formal rules. They also tend to expand their functions or services in an attempt to survive. The death of a bureau is usually rare. If they die, it is early in the life cycle because they become large and because large organizations have strong survival rates (p. 23).

There are five types of bureaucrats: Climbers, conservers, zealots, advocates, and statesman (Downs, 1967). Climbers are resume builders seeking greater advancement, power, income, and prestige through promotion, aggrandizement of current position, and job hopping (p. 92). Conservers seek to maximize their job security and benefits by holding on to what they have in a conservative status quo manner (p. 96). Whereas climbers are change agents, conservers avoid change. Both of these bureaucrats are motivated for personal reasons. The three other types of bureaucrats are mixed-motive officials who act on behalf of the public interest with a combination of altruistic and self-interested motives (pp. 102-103). Zealots tend to have a narrow focus on policies, exert a tremendous amount of energy in the promotion of these projects, and are rather idealistic. Advocates comprehend the big picture, have a

broad long-term focus on major policies, are innovators, and are both external partisans and internal arbiters.

The major causes in both the growth and decline of bureaus are found in external factors in their environment (Downs, 1967, p. 10). Max Weber defined a bureaucracy as an organization which has positions with clearly defined responsibilities, has positions ordered in a hierarchy, has written rules and precedents, has a career ladder, is impersonal and impartial, and values the norm of efficiency (Downs, 1967; Kornblum, 1997). Higher education is another form of a bureau (Kornblum, 1997). It definitely meets the first five of the seven criteria listed by Max Weber, and partially meets the last two criteria for being a bureaucracy. While the institution of higher education has unique characteristics normally not found in government agencies such as shared governance, academic freedom, and scholarship, it still remains a bureaucracy. It is imperative that presidents learn and understand the nature of bureaucracies since they must work in the context of one of the life cycles of a bureaucracy. Successful presidents adjust their leadership style to fit the current life cycle. They also learn to maximize the abilities and talents of their administrators who fit into one of the five types of bureaucrats.

Why Leaders Fail

"The first task of a leader is to define reality. The last task is to say, 'thank you; and in between he's a servant (De Pree, 1989, p. 29). Those leaders who do not understand this usually fail. There is some research on why leaders fail. Certain negative traits hinder some from accomplishing leadership potential (Yuki, 1989, p. 177). Three traits that inhibit people from identifying others as a leader are the perception of being uninformed, of being a nonparticipant, and of being extremely rigid (Geir, 1967). These traits are considered detrimental to leadership because participants believe people who are uninformed, disinterested, and rigid impede group goals. Comparisons of the differences between executives who made it to leadership positions and those who were expected to do so but did not indicate that while leaders and those who did not make it had similar strengths and weaknesses, those who failed had one or more of the following 10 "fatal flaws".

1. Insensitive to others: Abrasive, intimidating, bullying
2. Cold, aloof, arrogant
3. Betrayal of trust
4. Overly ambitious: Thinking of next job, playing politics
5. Specific performance problems with the business
6. Overmanaging--unable to delegate or build a team
7. Unable to staff effectively

8. Unable to think strategically
9. Unable to adapt to boss with different style
10. Overdependent on advocate or mentor. (McCall & Lombardo, 1983, pp. 26-31)

The most frequent causes for failure are insensitivity to others and not following through on promises or double-dealing.

Summary

Each higher education leader previously discussed several specific leadership characteristics used by effective college presidents. What follows is a brief summary of the leadership traits or characteristics they believed to be critical for a president to be effective. While not inclusive, they are the primary traits or characteristics each author emphasized.

E. Grady Bogue stressed the importance of exemplary character of building trust with staff and faculty, and of service to the whole academic community. Derek Bok discussed the need for presidents to exemplify high moral and ethical standards which are based on solid values. Warren Bennis believed that effective presidents created contagious visions, developed networks based on trust, learned how to use power effectively, and are not afraid to take risks. Jill Ker Conway emphasized the importance of meaningful communication, the empowerment function of team-work, the benefits of problem-solving, and the importance of

not being afraid of manifesting power. John Silber recommended that presidents pursue a macro view of leadership by stressing the importance of higher education promoting democratic values, public school reform, and access to education. Clark Kerr maintained presidents should be bold in their leadership, embrace transformation, have courage, communicate extensively, and engage in problem-solving. Ernest Boyer asserted that the relationship between higher education and the nation's future is dependent upon presidents building bridges between the two by placing civic education as a priority. Robert Birnbaum advocated that presidents understand the campus culture, communicate with all constituents, develop a healthy relationship with the faculty, and learn to develop the skill of listening.

Understanding leadership is a formidable and challenging endeavor. It appears that there are as many definitions of leadership as there are persons defining it. These differing views in the literature on leadership suggest that no comprehensive theory exists. There is no grand theory that explains universal leadership traits or the specific type of leadership required for all situations.

Some theorists claim that the "best" style of leadership is one that maximizes productivity, satisfaction, growth, and development in all situations (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993, p. 111). However, recent research supports

the contention that there is no one best style. Effective leaders have the ability to adapt to fit the requirements of the situation. Even though Hersey, Blanchard, Bennis, and Argyris all indicated that no single leadership theory is conclusively validated by scientific evidence, leadership is recognized and known to exist. However, like love it is difficult to define. The literature does provide fundamental characteristics of leadership, and the following are representative of a few common interpretations:

> Leadership is the reciprocal process of mobilizing, by persons with certain motives and values, various economic, political, and other resources, in a context of competition and conflict, in order to realize goals independently or mutually held by both leaders and followers. (Burns, 1978, p. 425)

> Leadership is the art of getting someone else to do something that you want done because he wants to do it. (Ziglar, 1986, p. 31)

> Leadership is the ability to gain consensus and commitment to common objectives, beyond organizational requirements, which are attained with the experience of contribution and satisfaction on the part of the work group. (Cribbin, 1981, p. 31)

Research studies of Bennis, McCall, Owens, Yuki, Kouzes, Posner, Covey, and Lee suggest that leadership is a dynamic process, varying from situation to situation with changes in the leader, the followers, and the demands of the situation (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993).

Leadership is an influence process. It is the ability to influence another individual or group. The fuel of the process is power. Power is the resource that enables a

leader to gain compliance or commitment from others. It is critical that a leader understand power, accept power, and to use power in a positive manner.

The leadership paradigm that emerges from the literature indicates that effective leaders promote an environment that includes participation, empowerment, continual learning, self-governance, and exceptional performance in an organizational structure conducive and committed to these attributes. Traditional hierarchies are unresponsive to the rapidly changing, knowledge-driven, and high-risk environments of organizations (Senge, 1990). Five disciplines for effective learning organizations of the future are systems thinking, personal mastery, mental models, building shared visions, and team learning (Senge, 1990). Whether this is wishful thinking or world class scholarship is unclear," but there is no data to substantiate the demise of traditional hierarchies or the success of emergent organizational alternatives (Ballard, 1997, p. 245). However, many people are hoping for a significant change in organizational structures and correspondent leadership styles.

Even though universal agreement does not exist on the most effective new leadership style and organizational structure, there is significant agreement that leadership and organizations are going through a transformation that only occurs in the context of significant paradigm shifts.

If there is indeed a major paradigm shift in leadership, then it is possible that it may be as significant as the previous shifts. Leaders of the new leadership paradigm must define their jobs as shapers and keepers of a performance-oriented culture while the old hierarchial paradigm leaders use a command and control culture.

> The basic difference between an ordinary man and a warrior is that a warrior takes everything as a challenge, while an ordinary man takes everything as a blessing or a curse. (Casteneda, 1968, p. 209)

This analogy is also applicable to leadership. There are basic differences between leaders and non-leaders. Leaders perceive a difficult situation as a challenge; they do not see it as a burden. Leaders are a problem solvers; they do not resist change. Leaders believe there is a solution; they do not seek the status quo. Leaders seize the moment as one of opportunity with the belief that change is a natural evolution; they see beyond the catastrophe. Leaders are willing to be risk-takers; they are not afraid of failure. Leaders have the courage to take action; they do not retrench. Leaders build a shared a vision rather than an isolated perception of the future. Leaders have followers because their vision is infectious and provides inspiration, hope, and direction. Finally, effective leaders also have integrity, character, and courage.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN

An in-depth investigation of the nature of presidential leadership in higher education must identify and define effective leadership factors and the relationship between those factors based on the defined problem and due to the nature of the data. To accomplish this, a qualitative, naturalistic research method was utilized.

Specifically, the qualitative case study method was employed. The unit of analysis was a selected number of presidents or chancellors at Montana colleges and universities, but the population from which the sample was selected included all of the chief executive officers. Case studies are invaluable whenever the researcher needs to understand a special or unique group of people to a significant depth (Patton, 1990, pp. 54-55). To study presidential leadership characteristics in Montana, it was necessary to conduct extensive analyses of philosophies of leadership, management styles, decision-making skills, and charismatic qualities that inspire people to support a unified vision set forth by the presidents of various Montana higher education institutions. Qualitative case studies seek to describe the unit of analysis in depth, detail, context, and holistically (pp. 384-385).

Classification of qualitative data for content analysis facilitated the search for patterns and themes in each unit of analysis. The content analysis sought effective presidential leadership patterns and themes. Case analysis involved organizing data on each president and then conducting a cross-case analysis to determine if certain patterns or themes existed in more than one unit.

The data were collected, organized, and analyzed using qualitative analysis. The purpose was to collect comprehensive, systematic, and in-depth information about each selected Montana president in order to determine why each was considered a good president (Gay, 1992, p. 236). While there may have been consensus that someone is a cutting-edge leader based solely on observation and recognition, this was not sufficient. The more important question dealt with in this study is why they are effective.

Sample

The target population for this study included all chief executive officers at two-year and four-year Montana colleges and universities. There are 19 presidents or chancellors in Montana. All public, private, and tribal post-secondary institutions were included in the study. Proprietary schools and the state's colleges of technology were not included.

Colleges of technology were excluded for two reasons. First, the most common title for the chief executive officer

at each college of technology campus is "dean" rather than president or chancellor. Deans do not have the same autonomy as presidents and chancellors. Also, organizationally these deans lack the authority of a college or university presidents. In three of the five cases--Billings, Butte, and Missoula--the schools are a division or school or department of a four-year institution. Second, the mission of Montana's colleges of technology recently changed from vocational-technical centers to community colleges. No longer do they only offer certificates or applied science associate degrees. Students now earn associate of science degrees and can complete transfer coursework to four-year schools for a bachelors degree. Traditionally, their enrollments have been small. However, with the re-organization of the Montana University System, some are experiencing rapid enrollment increases. Yet, even though the mission has changed, they are still in a transitional phase between being vocational-technical schools and community colleges in terms of curricular academic standards and sufficient student support services. Even though this research study did not include the deans of the colleges of technology in the sample of potential effective presidents, it encompassed 19 of the 24 presidents at post-secondary institutions. The colleges of technology were included in the selection process used to identify the most effective presidents of Montana.

All 19 Montana chief executive officers were considered as potentially effective leaders. While each was initially considered as a leader, only those recognized through a formal logical nominating process were considered to be the most effective leaders of higher education in Montana. Those selected by the nominating process were the sample which was interviewed for the descriptive case study. This nominating process was drawn from educators and non-educators throughout Montana and included administrators at every institution plus six professional staff members from the Office of the Commissioner of Higher Education. This nominating process was implemented with a one-page survey mailed to 100 people. Once identified, the top five chief executive officers were interviewed. Follow-up interviews were conducted to clarify and verify content data. Administrative and staff personnel on each of the five campuses were also interviewed. This included those who knew the chief executive well and worked with the president on a daily basis. These multiple sources of data assisted in triangulation and verification of effective leadership patterns or themes.

Procedures

The case study method was used to describe examples of effective leadership. This descriptive research method defined presidential leadership attributes and identified exemplary leaders of higher education. The overall process

involved a literature review, two surveys, and personal interviews.

First, a literature review was conducted that focused on educational leadership and included a limited examination of leadership in business, a brief history of American higher education, a review of Montana higher education, an examination of the theoretical nature of leadership, and future leadership concepts and dynamics. Three major historical influences on educational leadership of religion, science, and economics were also addressed.

Second, a nominating process was used to identify chief higher education executives in Montana who exhibited exemplary leadership. This process consisted of a survey mailed to 100 sources who assisted in identifying those presidents and chancellors with superior leadership ability.

The one-page survey included the leadership nominating list, which contained the names of all 19 Montana chief executive officers, and quotations defining effective leadership from noted authors (see Appendix A). One hundred people in and outside of Montana higher education received the survey. Private and public institutions were included. The survey participants were asked to list either three, four, or five of the presidents that they considered to be the most effective leaders in Montana. Returned information was maintained in a confidential manner. Each survey source remained anonymous. The survey assisted in identifying

effective presidential leaders by professionals in the field of education. Once identified, each of the selected presidents was interviewed. Other appropriate people who work directly with the chief executive were also interviewed.

The survey to nominate exemplary presidential leaders from the logical nominating group was mailed to 100 professionals in higher education in Montana. The survey was distributed to a representative sample of educators at multiple levels of administration. Table 10 lists the positions of those surveyed.

Table 10: Position of Survey Recipient

Position Type	Number
President	15
Chancellor	4
Vice President, Vice Chancellor, or Assistant Vice President or Chancellor	29
Dean	24
Director	22
Commissioner's Office	6
Total	100

The Vice President, Vice Chancellor group had combined areas of responsibility. The combination varied but included any two or three of the following: academic affairs, administration, business, finance, research, development, or student services. The deans' group included the five deans

at the Colleges of Technology who were not considered chief executive officers. In every single case, these people were very familiar with the leadership and management styles of their president since they worked with that person virtually every day. In some cases, they knew the president not only at work but also through formal and informal functions on and off campus. Most of them referred to the president by first name rather than title indicating a high level of familiarity.

The survey was mailed to 21 public and three private institutions. and to the Office of the Commissioner of Higher Education. These included nine four-year, eight two-year, and seven tribal two-year schools. The two-year schools included three public community colleges, seven tribal community colleges, and five colleges of technology.

The nominating process assisted in objectively identifying presidents who where recognized by professionals in education as effective leaders in higher education in Montana. The process sought to be objective but still contained political overtones.

The selection process identified five presidents who exhibited exceptional leadership in Montana. These five were self-evident because the percentage of votes received were double the percentage of the next group of presidents. There was a natural break between the fifth president with 35% and the sixth president with 15%. The group of five

presidential leaders included three males and two females. In all five cases, they were presidents for the first time. Two were from large universities, two were from tribal colleges, and one was from a college. Three lead four-year schools, and two lead two-year schools. There average age was in the late fifties.

Third, after the nominating process had identified the most effective presidential leaders of Montana, the interviewing stage commenced. Each of the five chief executives were interviewed. A limited number of appropriate staff members at each institution who were familiar with the presidential leadership style were also interviewed. The interview group included middle-management and support-staff personnel along with other upper-level administrators. The group included vice presidents, provosts, directors, deans, secretaries, and physical plant personnel.

The interviews were conducted in the presidents' offices or another office in order to facilitate a relaxed atmosphere. All interviews were tape recorded and transcribed for content analysis. A standard protocol list of 15 open-ended questions was used. The questions focused on four specific areas. The first questions pursued basic biographical and demographical information. The next questions were designed to define and elicit examples of the president's leadership style, management style, problem-

solving ability, and communication networks, including details about the characteristics of leadership. The presidents were asked to provide examples of their leadership successes and failures.

The questions were designed using a behavior-based interviewing method. This is a technique of interview question writing intended to elicit answers based on perceptions of past behavior through in-depth narrative answers. The main theory behind behavior-based interviewing is that "past behavior is the best indicator of future behavior...that more recent behavior is a better predictor of future behavior than older behavior, and that long standing trends are better predictors of behavior than isolated incidents" (Roth & McMillan, 1993, p. 76). This method attempts to obtain answers grounded in the reality of someone's experience rather than a theoretical response.

A separate list of protocol questions was used for each interview group. The following questions were asked of the selected presidents:

1. What do you like the most about your job?
2. What do you like the least about your job?
3. Who is your "kitchen cabinet", who influences your leadership?
4. Give me an example of one of your successes as a president, and what were the major challenges or hurdles in the situation?
5. Give me an example of one of your failures as a president, and what were the major challenges or hurdles in the situation?

6. Explain your process for making decisions?

7. How and to whom do you delegate?

8. How else might you describe your leadership style not covered in previous questions?

9. How would you define the campus culture here at your college?

10. What leadership characteristics or tenets do you use that make you an effective president?

11. What are two examples of internal pressures that influence your job?

12. What are me two examples of external pressures that influence your job?

13. What is your vision of the future for your college, and how do you go about bringing it into existence?

14. Describe the type of leader a college president will need to be in the year 2010?

15. When you leave your presidency, how would people with whom you work describe your leadership performance and your legacy?

The non-presidential groups had a separate set of questions designed to elicit how and why the president at their college exhibited leadership. They were asked the following questions:

Background Questions

1. How long have you been at this school and in this position?

2. What are your major responsibilities?

3. Describe your working relationship and how often you meet with the president and in what context?

Leadership Questions

4. Why is your president an effective leader?

5. Describe your presidents' leadership style?

6. What is one of your presidents' major success stories? Describe how their leadership style contributed to this success?

7. What is one of your president's failures, and describe why it occurred?

8. What is a situation in which your president solved a major campus or off-campus problem or issue that exemplified their leadership ability, please describe it?

Management Questions

9. How does your president delegate?

10. With whom does your president share decision-making (i.e., kitchen cabinet)?

11. How has your president affected the campus culture?

12. What do you believe to be your president's vision of your school, describe it?

13. What do you consider to be the essential characteristics of an effective college president?

A second survey was mailed directly to the five selected college presidents after the interview. This written survey asked some new questions, repeated some of the interview questions, and asked them to respond to certain items. The intent was to clarify previous answers or to probe certain questions. These questions are as follows:

1. List at least two examples of internal pressures (on-campus) that influence your job, and why they influence the job.

2. List at least two examples of external pressures (off-campus) that influence your job, and why they influence the job.

3. Give me an example of one of your successes as a president, and why you were instrumental in the process.

4. Give me an example of one of your failures as a president, and why you were instrumental in the process.

5. Define the nature of higher education in Montana, and include anything unique about Montana higher education.

6. If you could change the organizational structure at your school, what would you do?

7. How would you change the governance relationship between your school and the Montana University System and/or the Office of the Commissioner of Higher Education?

8. Which characteristics or tenets of leadership do you use that make you an effective president?

9. Why does your leadership style work?

10. Describe the type of leader a college president will need to be in the year 2007?

The interview data generated from the presidential group was compared and contrasted with the other groups interviewed. Content analysis was conducted to identify consistent patterns or themes on leadership. A small number of follow-up interviews, nine, in addition to the original twenty-four, were conducted with a few staff members to confirm leadership characteristics, traits, patterns, and themes. The surveys, interviews, and researcher

observations were used to generate multiple sources of data related to the leadership patterns of each president, and for a typical model of leadership characteristics.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

Identifying Effective Leaders

Surveys and extensive interviews conducted during 1996 and 1997 were used to identify effective presidential leadership characteristics of chief executive officers at post-secondary institutions in Montana. Two surveys were used. In December of 1996 the primary survey was sent to administrators in higher education to identify the leaders. In November of 1997 the secondary survey was mailed to the five identified presidential leaders to gain additional in-depth information. Interviews were conducted with the designated presidential leaders and with several of their administrative staff members. While the primary survey assisted in determining which presidents to interview, it was the interviews with presidents and administrators that revealed the traits associated with effective leaders.

The primary survey group identified five chief executives in higher education that were perceived as effective leaders. A secondary survey was sent to these presidents to clarify and define issues related to presidential leadership in Montana. Their responses were

combined with the interview data to produce the effective leadership themes.

Each of the five selected presidential leaders were interviewed at least twice for a minimum of two hours and a maximum of five hours. The first set of interviews were conducted in the summer of 1997, and the second set of interviews were in the winter of 1997.

A total of 24 administrative members were also interviewed from the five schools identified by virtue of the selected presidential leaders. These interviews provided perspectives that would support or negate the presidential interview data. This group of interviewees were often more guarded in their responses than the presidents who were actually very candid. Several non-presidential administrators requested absolute anonymity in regard to their comments.

While the degree of openness varied among presidents, each one was willing to share his or her insights on leadership. One president remarked that the interview was beneficial because the questions encouraged self-reflection related to the nature of leadership which had changed for this president as the institution had evolved over the years. Another president downplayed leadership theories and refused to relate to the leadership issue by saying that it was up to those around the chief executive to say whether that person had leadership abilities. This president

focused on organizational goals and performance and preferred to not indulge in defining the presidential tenor of the office held in terms of leadership excellence. Whether or not presidents exhibited effective leadership abilities appeared to be of no concern to this president. Several presidents seemed flattered and somewhat surprised to be considered an exemplary leader by their peers in Montana but did not dwell upon it or revel in the designation. Again, almost without exception, each of them seemed more concerned with the current performance and future direction of their institution than with the past or with dwelling on previous successes or failures. With the exception of one president, four expressed how failures should be perceived as learning experiences and not the end of the world. All were committed to making their school a better learning environment for students and faculty. Frequently, they commented on how important it is to remember students and the impact of decisions upon them.

The primary or nominating survey was mailed to 100 people in higher education at all 24 institutions of post-secondary education in Montana. While the Deans of the Colleges of Technology were not considered as chief executive officers and eligible as exemplary presidents or chancellors, they did receive the survey used to identify presidential leaders.

The number of surveys returned was 43% of the total sample mailed. The composition responses on the surveys returned included a broad cross-section of educators in Montana (See Table 10). The initial distribution for the mailing is listed by institutional type and administrative position (See Table 11).

The number of surveys mailed to each institution was roughly proportional to the percentage of students enrollment at each school in relationship to the state's total enrollment which was based on the 1996-97 Fiscal Year Full Time Equivalent. However, the mailing weighted in favor of the smaller school rather than the larger school. For example, while Montana State University at Bozeman and the University of Montana at Missoula each comprise 27% of the total state enrollment, each school received only 10% of the total number of surveys. The University of Montana at Montana Tech in Butte had an enrollment of 4% of the total and received 4% of the surveys. The Montana State University College of Technology at Great Falls had an enrollment of 2% of the total and received 2% of the surveys. Fourteen out of the twenty-four post-secondary institutions had an enrollment that was within 2% of the number of surveys mailed to that institution. Consequently, the two big enrollment schools in Bozeman and Missoula received less votes, the medium size schools received about the same number of votes equal to their enrollment, and the small

schools received more votes than their enrollment; this was especially so for the private and tribal colleges. The number of surveys mailed to each institution ranged from 1 to 10 (see Table 11). The two doctoral universities each received ten surveys, the seven four-year colleges received either four or five surveys, the two-year colleges of technology received one or two surveys, the two-year community colleges received four or five surveys, the two-year tribal colleges received anywhere from two to five with three as the average number of surveys mailed. The following table summarizes the percentages:

Table 11: Distribution of Surveys for Nominating Effective Presidents

Institution Type	Number	Survey (N)	% Enrollment
Four-year public			
Doctoral university	2	20	54%
College/university	4	18	19%
Four-year private			
College/university	3	15	8%
Two-year public			
Community college	3	12	5%
College of technology	5	7	7%
Tribal college	7	24	7%
Total	24	100	100%

Thus, the distribution of the nominating surveys was weighted to the number of institutions rather than by enrollment. This was an attempt to mitigate the influence

of the two largest institutions and to create a dispersion of the surveys across a broad cross-section of colleges and universities. The sample size for the logical nominating group was 100. Of these, 43 responded. Three of the surveys did not list any of the presidents. The 43 returned surveys indicated a natural break between a primary group of 5 presidents and a secondary group of 14 presidents. Each survey recipient could vote for up to five presidents. However, the actual results from the returned surveys were as follows: Eight voted for five presidents, eight voted for four presidents, 16 voted for 3 presidents, six voted for two presidents, two voted for one president, and three voted for no presidents. Only two presidents did not receive any votes at all. There was one vote for the previous Commissioner of Higher Education, who is now the president of a college in Iowa. Three survey respondents refused to nominate anyone stating that Montana did not have any presidents who exhibited leadership.

Each of the top-ranking five presidents received between 14 and 22 votes (see Table 12). The next highest group of 2 presidents received 7 votes, and the remaining 10 presidents received from one to 6 votes each. The top 5 presidents received 67% of the votes while the next 12 received 33%, and two presidents did not receive any votes. On this basis, the five in the group receiving the highest number of votes were selected for interviews concerning

effective presidential leadership in higher education in Montana.

Table 12: The Number and Percentage of Votes by President

President	Number of Votes Received	Percentage of Total Votes Cast	Frequency (%) of Selection on Ballots
A	22	16.5	51.1
B	19	14.3	44.2
C	18	13.5	41.9
D	16	12.0	37.2
E	14	10.5	32.6
F	7	5.3	16.3
G	6	4.5	14.0
H	5	3.7	11.6
I	5	3.7	11.6
J	5	3.7	11.6
K	4	3.0	9.3
L	3	2.3	7.0
M	2	1.5	4.7
N	2	1.5	4.7
O	2	1.5	4.7
P	2	1.5	4.7
Q	1	0.8	2.3
R	0	0.0	0
S	0	0.0	0
	133.00		

Note: Total number of ballots returned: 43
Average number of votes per ballot: 3
Total number of votes cast: 134

The results of the primary survey clearly differentiated the top five presidents or chancellors in

Montana. The five presidents who were identified as effective leaders included three males and two females. This is disproportionate since only 3 out of 19 eligible presidents were female. While females make up only 16% of the total number of presidents, they were 40% of the identified leaders. All five presidents were from public institutions; three were from the Montana University System, and two were from the tribal college group. Two were from the doctoral degree granting institutions, one was from a four-year college, and two were from two-year colleges. The president who received the greatest number of votes was invariably mentioned by the other four as a leader when they asked who had been identified by their peers. This seemed to verify that this president was well respected by those surveyed and the other presidents who were identified as exemplary.

Brief Leadership Style Review

President A

President A probably seemed less "presidential" than any one of the five selected as exemplary leaders, yet he received the most votes and has the respect of many educators around the state. Despite limited financial resources, he has accomplished a number of significant goals for his institution. His success is proof of his ability to appeal to a wide variety of constituents in his community

and to solicit their support for projects. He has received several prestigious state and national awards. Despite all of his awards and the respect he commands within the educational community, he is very non-assuming and is very accessible. He was open and candid on any topic. The assumption of this president was that the "buck stops" in his office.

The following characteristics apply to President A's leadership style: Democratic, communication, participatory and team oriented, delegation and empowerment, campus-community network, patience and compromise, humanist, lead by example, honor & respect staff, and courage or intestinal fortitude. Issues that this president sees as future areas of concern for his college are as follows: Housing, degrees in nursing and dental hygiene, scientific research, distance learning program, and funding stability.

President B

President B seemed very relaxed and open to sharing insights about his presidency but also downplayed his selection as a leader in Montana. He spoke about higher education in broad global perspectives, however he was specific about his institution's objectives and goals. In reflecting on the future, he referred to today's donors as the last generation with significant monetary resources to be able to give so generously to higher education by recognizing that "in the United States, the wealthiest

generation is passing on." He was philosophical at times but also well grounded in the day-to-day performance of his staff and the progress of institutional objectives. He was not concerned about the press since he felt that it will say what they want to say regardless of what may be said. However, he also said one cannot ignore the press, and one should utilize it to one's advantage. Like four of the five presidents, he loved his job. His responses indicated that he truly relished and thrived on being president. He seemed to genuinely enjoy the challenges with a steady eye on the future in spite of his focus on the present. He said, "One must love being president! You have to like the job. I relish the give-and-take plus the politics. To be an effective president you must be one-third politician, one-third salesman, and one-third visionary." It is important to define the public benefit and to do an effective job of communicating to the public those benefits.

President B's leadership style includes the following characteristics: Vision, strategy, communication, integrity, energy and commitment, creativity, risk-taker, and intelligent and conversant on higher education. Leadership issues for the future include: Single university with multiple campuses--one entity, public service, graduate level research, competency based education, and education of the whole person.

President C

President C was low key, self-effacing, and hesitant to open up to a great depth. His answers were short with little elaboration. His comments implied that he was pushed into becoming president and that it was not a job he sought. He seemed to imply that his response had been, "Well, I'll apply if you insist and think I would make a good president, but I don't seek the office." He dwelled on the negative or down-side of being a college president more than the other four presidents. Negative publicity and the press seemed to be his nemesis. He expressed a view of being a team player. Perpetuating the status quo and designing low-risk policies were important to him.

President C's leadership style was participatory, delegation, coalition and consensus building, cautious and low-risk, collaborative, and conservative. Leadership issues for the future included the following: Improve undergraduate teaching, graduate research, stabilize enrollment, and buildings.

President D

President D was very philosophical, theoretical, and self-reflective. She was also grounded in the reality of the every-day operations of her school. She held a strong belief in the power of the "people", in respecting the learner, in the welfare of her students, and in remaining focused on learning. She was open and candid in expressing

an inner strength or power not discussed by the other presidents. While all five felt comfortable to one degree or another with power, she had both outer and inner power. She also loved her job, especially due to the variety of tasks and challenges. "There is never a dull moment!" she said. She spoke of a full-circle philosophy which connects the college with the community and with the home: College community to the culture of the local community to the home community back to the college. She referred to the "time conundrum" in higher education. In higher education, instruction and learning has been immune to time historically. Yet, from an administrator's point of view, time is critical for the operation of the college and in meeting goals which are frequently imposed from external agencies. She bemoaned the fact that deadlines in higher education are unnatural phenomenons and do not facilitate learning. She shared her perspective of the two leadership styles she has used: Developmental leader and deliberative participatory leader. During the first 10 years of her tenure as president she was in the crusader role and a "jack-of-all-trades" administrator. Since then her role is more as a facilitator participating in the development of group consensus; this process requires more patience and deliberation.

Characteristics of President D's leadership style include: Participatory, shared governance, staff & faculty

ownership, group consensus, share power and information, trust & respect with staff, integrity, community interconnectedness, listening key, culture & community, populist, empowerment, and mission. Issues for future leadership challenges included: Community of scholars, service to the community, community of equals, and creating a learning environment.

President E

President E was very open and candid. The interview was a "stream of consciousness" exchange. She literally started talking about her role as president and answered the questions in the protocol before they were asked. Therefore, most interview questions were those asked to probe, clarify, or follow-up on a new topic. She thought that collaborative leadership is based on a democratic model and hierarchial leadership on a dictatorial model. While she supported a collaborative leadership style, she did recognize two deficiencies with a democratic model. Collaboration sometimes leads to a "sense of drift" or an undefined direction and leads to a lack of closure on certain issues. This may be due to the need for a greater amount of time to process decisions with this model. Shared governance and employee empowerment are evident in the Administrative Council at her school. Listening is important! Since leadership style includes one's personality, her style "is part and parcel of who I am."

To her, the first law of a president is to be yourself by living up to who you are and what you believe. For her, leadership ability is more a function of experience than training; she referred to it as a philosophy based on street experience. She included self-education, campus culture, and the importance of following the mission statement as important factors in success. Since she believes that one of the purposes of education is to create a learned citizenry which supports a liberal democratic view and the ability of the government to be a playmaker in solving social problems. Public relations is communicating and publishing the "good work" of a school to the campus and the community or public at-large. Image is the appearance one presents to the public in order to confirm or to transform the perception of the institution. One detriment to collaborative management is the "poison pill" concept, which is a staff or faculty member who undermines the campus culture or campus goals with negative behavior or actions.

Leadership style characteristics for President E included: Be yourself, communication is key, share information, participatory, shared governance, empowerment, mission, consensus building, collaborative decision-making, team-oriented, and community and culture. Future leadership issues included: Restore a climate of belief in college, campus master plan, enrollment stability, improve

technology, rural technology and distance learning, and multi-media center.

Interview Data

There were seven prominent themes consistently identified by the presidents from the interviews and the second survey to presidents. Each president referred to these themes as reasons for their success. The themes reflect a leadership characteristic. Each characteristic enables the presidents to be effective. These themes were (a) mission, (b) consensus--team building, (c) risk-taker, (d) campus--community culture, (e) empowerment, (f) communication network, and (g) respect--trust.

Mission

Mission refers to the mission of the institution. It is related to the purpose, the role, the scope, and the type of college or university. Every single president said that it was important to focus on the institutional mission. Any vision must be built around the mission. "You must know it, believe in it, and follow it, be committed to it, and never forget it and your roots in the community (the mission)" (President A). In relation to mission, President C felt, "It is very important! It is especially important to assess and re-assess the mission and the purpose of the institution." According to President D, a college should "focus on it and stick to the mission. It is the heart of

any school but especially so at a tribal school. The mission is everything, [and] it must be student-centered." Further validation of the critical nature of mission came from President E: "The mission is critical for success. Clearly define the mission, know the mission, and focus on your mission. The institutional mission should be the target and the guiding light for extended periods of time. However, the mission statement should also be a dynamic document that can be revised when necessary so that it is still appropriate." The mission statement is important enough at President E's school that supervisors include it as part of their employees' performance evaluation; it is one of the written standards that staff and faculty are expected to understand and follow. President E said that when one relates the mission statement to job performance, it brings out the best in employees and sets the work ethic at the highest common denominator.

Vision, strategy, and mission all seem to be interconnected. President B emphasized the relationship between vision and strategy. At times President B as well as Presidents D and E were uncomfortable with the word vision. President B felt that "vision is a word that is overused and nebulous." Because vision could have more than one definition, it was difficult for the presidents to define one. Yet, in one way or another each one of the presidents mentioned vision as being important and said that

a school should have a vision. When asked about their vision, most of the answers were not theoretical or philosophical. While their reasons differed, all had a series of immediate goals to help them accomplish their vision. The goals addressed the following topics: New degrees or majors; buildings; research projects; special programs or institutes; organizational re-structuring; funding sources; student services initiatives; teaching reforms; enrollment programs; and housing. President B argued that one must combine responsibility with authority in order to develop a strategy if one is to have a successful vision. Vision and strategy are interrelated, responsibility and authority are interdependent.

While these presidents had a vision, they did not identify with the term "vision." President D even said that she was not visionary, but she declared, "I am a nuts and bolts leader." She thought her specialty was achieving goals, brokering goals, and networking to accomplish goals. Being visionary is too simplistic. The idea of hero status really bothered her. Successful presidents engage in the "fundamental basics." They perform in the role of facilitator acting as a member of the academic community where "everyone is just as important" as every other person. Likewise, President E preferred the term, "realistic visionary." Vision requires a positive attitude, planning, insight, and patience.

While presidents were not always comfortable with the word "vision," interviews with other administrators indicated most thought their president had a vision.

> "President A has a vision of where we are going. He must be doing something right. [Our college] is growing, expanding; leadership is self-evident. It works. We have a very low turn-over in the faculty and with staff. That says a lot!"

> "President B definitely has a vision. He is visionary. His focus is on the future, and [he] deals with the big picture. There has been a criticism that his vision has not been articulated to some on campus. But I think this is a minority opinion with a different view of the vision. At times there is the president's vision and a campus vision that are different. He is focused and systematic with his vision. We now have direction and confidence with where we are going."

Consensus--Team Building

Consensus--Team Building is a broad identifier for several themes that center around the mobilization of staff and faculty for the pursuit and successful attainment of institutional goals. It has two effects. One, through the consensus process communication becomes a campus-wide exchange between a variety of constituents. Two, team-building develops a concerted and unified effort directed towards attainment of institutional objectives. Those themes include developing consensus, team building, coalition building, "kitchen cabinets", and the "engineer's role" in leadership.

The consensus process provides the opportunity to educate other people about an issue or subject. As each

group learns more about the issue, it they gradually gains consensus on what would be the best or most appropriate way to handle the issue. It is an educational process in which staff and faculty learn more about not only the arguments surrounding the issue itself but also the rationale of why people support their position in the argument. Reaching consensus may result in a compromise or two original perspectives combining into a new perspective. The end result of consensus is that people agree to support institutional goals. Consensus helps build a team effort so vital to a campus working together to accomplish a strategy for attaining goals defined by a vision and within the context of the mission of the university. To be successful, building coalitions to support a position or perspective is important for consensus to occur. Realistically, not everyone will agree on the position or the decision; there usually will be a majority and minority position. So if all are involved in the discussion, have an opportunity to express what they think, and are involved in the development of a solution or decision, there is a greater likelihood of consensus and support.

According to President A, "The most critical factor for a leader to be successful is getting people to work together...[and] especially the ability to get a team to work together." He also stressed that in order to build consensus, a president must have, "patience, patience, and

more patience." Recognizing the importance of persistence in building consensus seems to be essential. This president also mentioned that it is beneficial to accept responsibility for successes and failures whenever developing consensus.

Team building was mentioned often by all five presidents. Each spoke about the subject in a different manner, but all stressed the importance of consensus and team building. President E emphasized how important it was for a president to "listen, listen, and then listen some more." This president referred to the process in terms of building consensus by listening to people and then by developing ways for other groups to "buy-in" to the decision. Participation allows people to develop a sense of "in-put" or having contributed to the process. "Campus town meetings are very helpful in creating consensus," President E pointed out. "I involve the whole campus, ask everyone to contribute--this is teamwork!" This president also uses a "kitchen cabinet" but in a different sense than President C. Her "kitchen cabinet" is the Administrative Council and has at least one representative from every constituency on campus, including the administration, faculty, contractual staff, non-contractual union staff, and students. "It is a collaborative decision-making body. With the exception of personnel issues, the council works as a team to decide what is best for the campus."

Another perspective on team-building is the organizational structure. President E stated that the structure facilitates a team-oriented environment. President B also noted that the organizational structure is critical in order to be effective. The organizational chart on President E's campus is quite unique; it is a circle rather than a pyramid. A circle chart is based on a participatory management design which encourages consensus and team building. Pyramidal charts are based on a hierarchial management design which reflects the traditional top-down decision making process. At the center of the circle organizational chart is the mission statement, which reflects President E's emphasis on learning and students. In this organizational arrangement, the president is just one section of the circle chart at the top on the outside ring. President B is in the process of re-designing the organizational chart. The current one is very traditional with boxes stacked in order of status and authority. This president wants to "re-think the functions of each office on campus with an organizational design that reflects the interdependence of offices in order to better deliver the services and staff to students as one unit rather than multiple units."

President B talked about consensus and team-building, but did so in a more indirect way than the other presidents. There seemed to be traces of the old Management-By-Objective

administrator who has adjusted to the current participatory management theories but has retained a healthy respect of certain fundamentals which remain constant regardless of the theory. Of all the presidents, his vocabulary on this topic made him sound more "business like," but with a personal style that also indicated his depth and breadth of education. There was talk of "working together" to meet institutional objectives, of developing organizational structures to be successful in meeting institutional goals, and of defining a strategy for fulfillment of institutional mission. He even referred to the importance of mentoring people in their jobs; seeing one of the primary responsibilities of a president to be, " to mentor, assist, support, and help develop the potential of fellow administrators." This was central to his plan. Yet, this president did not strongly believe in a "kitchen cabinet" or a close advisory body. Instead, President B prefers to draw from "...a variety of sources for support and advice." He felt that this is essential to the smooth operation of a university since it broadens the pool of recommendations rather than restricting it to a smaller kitchen cabinet which may not provide a variety of perspectives and may even be insulated from other sources.

President C spoke on the importance of consensus building. In contrast to President B, President C believed in a strong "kitchen cabinet." Successful leadership is

dependent upon a cabinet that influences the president and is involved in the majority of the decisions. Consultation with other administrators is the key to his success. It is important to ask them their recommendations for a policy or a solution to a personnel problem. "I like to test-the-waters on campus and ask people what they would do." What they say carries weight in his decision-making process. He believed in shared decision-making. "I make the easy decisions alone, but I consult with my executive council for the hard decisions." When he referred to his management style, he characterized it as a coalition model; one that involves a lot of people. In his opinion, "I certainly would not be categorized as a 'lone wolf' or an authoritarian type of president."

"The role of an effective president involves decision making that builds programs and directs staff. It is not unlike an engineer," according to President D. The role of a president as an engineer relates to other metaphors found in the literature on leadership such as builder or architect. Whether it is engineer, architect, or builder, it is clearly a leadership role embedded with three characteristics: Designer, decision-maker, and visionary. Each of these metaphors imply the development or design of a plan by the leader with the ability to organize, with the willingness to make decisions with the courage to take risks, and with the role of creating a vision so compelling

that people follow it. According to President D, to be effective in the role of president as an engineer of education one must "build trust with staff and faculty, brainstorm, not be afraid to take risks, to listen to people and direct them, to compare and exchange ideas, to cast the net widely, and to be a problem solver." This president described the job as one in which the leader "engineers" or "orchestrates" staff and resources in meeting goals or objectives.

The choice of the word engineer is interesting because it implies someone who applies knowledge rather than a seeker of knowledge. The comparison would be the one between a scientist and an engineer. The former is engaged in pure research and the later in applied research. One is pursuing knowledge in a theoretical sense while the other one is learning how to apply the knowledge to the "real world". This does not preclude the engineer from being a teacher or learning esoteric or theoretical knowledge.

Together, obtaining consensus and team building is one of seven characteristics essential for effective leadership according to those identified as Montana's five most effective presidents. The bottom-line result of consensus and team building is a campus with genuine participatory management. When the leader involves staff in the decision-making process, there is more ownership in the operation. It also insures better solutions to problems when one

consults with those who work directly with the situation. The Myles Horton factor is another perspective expressed by President D. Myles Horton was a pioneer in teaching people to become self-empowered and self-educated by recognizing individual and group knowledge and experience. Authentic team-building "mines" and uses the knowledge of staff members. "Leaders do not ignore the vast knowledge and experience base existing at their own school." When a leader recognizes that staff and faculty have knowledge and experience and incorporates that expertise into the decision-making process, it provides an integrity and authenticity to the decision and to the leader. The bottom-line is that it becomes learner-directed.

Risk-Taker

Risk-taking is a leadership characteristic that can be viewed from two different perspectives. One view is that successful presidents are those who are willing to take risks in order to achieve institutional objectives because they are not afraid to fail. The opposite view is to avoid taking risks because they are fearful of failure. It is either an anti-failure attitude or a fear of making a mistake. The bottom-line is that effective leaders take risks because failures are perceived as opportunities for growth rather than as a mistake.

"I'm not much for failures," President B stated clearly. "There is no such thing as a failure; it is just

another learning experience." President D referred to failures as "temporary set-backs" and uses a process called "doubling back" to rectify a failure or unsolved problem. Presidents A and E also dismissed failures as catastrophic and pointed how important it was to learn from mistakes and not be fearful of them.

President E spoke at length about two failures as a president. One was an employee recognition plan which was based on merit that failed. Staff members did not respond positively because it was a top-down decision rather than a grass-roots one. President E felt that the plan failed because administration failed to ask and to listen to the staff. The lesson learned was, "do not push your pet projects." The second failure was a decision related to sports. The president made a decision to eliminate the wrestling program, re-implemented it after pressure from the community, then eventually cut the program. The second lesson learned was to "make the decision, do it, do not go back on it, do not vacillate ... cut your losses and run."

Only President C expressed concern about failure. "I try to avoid making mistakes. My long-term goal is to have no scandals during my presidency." This president admitted to being very cautious in regard to taking risks and he would avoid a decision if the potential for failure was possible. President C felt that it was necessary to be

cautious and on guard with the media due to "attack journalism."

Campus--Community Culture

The concept of culture is not a new idea. Recognition that each culture has unique characteristics that define it as a society, nation, ethnic group, religious identity, or a geographic region has been studied for centuries. While cultural anthropologists have studied small groups, most of the analysis on cultures has been at the macro level. The term "corporate culture" has been used for over half a century. It simply refers to the style and expectations of an organization based on a system of values and modes of behavior that reflect the history, tradition, goals, and objectives of the organization. It includes the formal and informal system of norms and mores found within that organization. Therefore, since institutions of higher education are communities with values, norms, and roles, it is self-evident that a campus culture exists.

President A encourages leaders to "know all of your constituents, be involved, participant on and off campus." This president talked about the relationship between the campus community and the community at-large and about how important it was for him to be involved with non-academic groups and individuals. He recommended blending into the community. Build bridges between the campus and civic, political, economic, and service organizations. The goal is

to teach people the ability to relate to all kinds of people. This will assist a president in job performance. "I get down on their level; why, I even drink coffee with the rednecks in town. Notice, I don't wear a tie around here very often. It's too formal for this community." In his mind, the ultimate team player is a diplomat and ambassador for the college.

President B's campus community is currently undergoing a self-analysis of its organizational structure. The president initiated a campus-wide self-examination on the quality of the work-life. The surveys and focus groups indicated a campus with poor communication and unclear goals. Three things were discovered: (a) "Work was being pushed out from the center with the responsibility but no authority," (b) "work was being assigned but staff did not know why they were doing what they were doing," and (c) there were undefined objectives. This president believes there needs to be a structural re-organization since the traditional structure is not effective. Rethinking the functions of offices so they are more interdependent could improve the delivery of services to staff and students. He recommended a pragmatic definition of performance objectives with outcomes assessment and with a visionary perspective that is based on a long-term investment. Articulating priorities is also a goal of this president. The critical factors for an effective campus culture include the

following: Efficient organizational structure, a structure that facilitates office functions, centralization and coordination of delivery of services, rethinking functions of offices and program areas, communication is absolutely critical, goals must be clearly defined, and authority must be assigned with responsibility to staff.

Unlike President C, President D stressed the importance of community and culture. Community refers to those both on and off campus. For her the college is a integral part of the larger community, the county, and the state. When the campus community is cohesive, then it can serve the needs of the community-at-large. One of her goals is for the college to become a community of scholars. Higher education is at its best when the campus is a community of scholars, a community of equals, a community that values the search for truth regardless of the consequences.

Yet, there is the cloning effect, which is one of her concerns about the future of higher education. The clone effect is the pressure to be like other institutions. It threatens the campus culture by encouraging the college to imitate other colleges and universities at the peril of losing its own identity. It results in not taking risks, in attempting to be something it is are not, and in ignoring the institution's unique characteristics and traits.

"The campus culture is important., It is the bedrock of a college." For President E, a campus culture determines

the values, sets the tone, and defines the character of a college. "Values infuse a campus, values guide a campus, and values form the foundation of a culture." In America, the campus culture is a reflection of a pluralistic democratic society. Communication is an important goal. Contribution and "buy-in" to the process is also critical. Which is why collaboration works well.

President C did not talk about campus culture. He did talk about the history of the institution as it related to the mission, and his future legacy, but he did not speak specifically about campus culture. One interesting comment he made was in reference to the office of the presidency itself. "I don't think anyone really understands what being a president is like until you are in the position--I didn't!" He said one can imagine what one thinks the demands of the job are but one cannot really comprehend it until one is in the office.

Four of the presidents recognized the significance of community. They also were aware of the culture of a campus and two of them compared it to a personality. Only President C did not seem to comprehend the value and power of a campus culture.

Empowerment

Empowerment--the very word is so foreign to previous management styles that it cannot be found in the literature until recently, however it is the hot "buzz word" in many of

the participatory leadership styles. Is this a new concept or a new label for a long-standing practice? The end-result of empowerment is to remove all institutional or organizational barriers in order for someone or an office staff to meet a defined goal. In the old days, this was simply known as the management practice of delegation with authority. However, to reduce empowerment to this definition does not do any justice to the concept. Empowerment fundamentally is an issue of individual freedom of choice. It is the most essential factor in creating an environment in which people can take charge of their area of responsibility.

When asked about leadership style, President A said, "I run a loose ship. I leave people alone, and let them do their job." He referred to his management philosophy as a "hands-off" one. He said he tries to hire good people and not micro-manage them. He supports individual responsibility by letting people do their job. "We have an agenda with goals, and they keep me appraised of the situation." It is important to "build trust and develop lines of communication, and then let them go." President A believes in his staff's ability to get the job done, but mentioned the importance of taking care not to place blame when a plan does not work. The "buck stops" with the president who must take responsibility for institutional failures. Every single person who contributes to the

college is important. Other administrators at the college felt, "He does not say you have to do things his way; he is open to letting everyone else explore their ideas."

The two presidents of institutions with large enrollments and administrative staff did not talk at length about empowerment. Each of them referred to delegation within the existing organizational structure. Both claimed not to be micro-managers but spoke more about assigned responsibilities with appropriate authority to do the job. Due to the size of each operation, it would be difficult not to delegate responsibility to staff but this does not imply empowerment. President B talked abut mentoring staff, about assisting their growth as professionals. This president attempts to empower through extensive formal and informal delegation to staff and faculty. Empowerment for President C involves a system of delegation through a variety of councils and committees. It is more formal utilizing the methods of consensus and coalition building.

President D spoke of leadership as something one shares with staff members. Leadership is an inclusive endeavor; it is not something to restrict to a few people. When knowledge and power are shared, it facilitates effective decision-making. An attitude of openness to the process of decision-making and access to information is important. As more people become more empowered, their degree of ownership is greater, and the likelihood that solutions will be

effective increases. For her, empowerment is "holistic sharing." Facilitating and providing opportunities for staff to develop "ownership" of their "area" is important. If one recognizes that people learn from their experiences and that knowledge is everywhere, then one realizes that everyone has something to contribute. Her leadership style creates a climate that encourages empowerment of people in an informal and personal way.

"It is critical to empower staff, faculty, and students in order to be successful," according to President E. Likewise, a shared governance model empowers staff and contributes to sharing the responsibility. Again, it is important to listen to staff and faculty in this model. This president meets with a variety of groups and individuals on campus through "town meetings." Empowerment builds consensus and ownership or "buy-in" from staff and faculty.

Communication Network

Effective communication is so critical that enough cannot be said about it. The presidents indicated that leadership functions at an optimum when there is clear effective communication to students, staff, faculty, and outside constituencies. The president must be able to clearly elucidate a vision of the university that incorporates the institutional mission and objectives. The communication style should be professional but friendly and

be a style that indicates a leader with direction and a willingness to listen to other ideas.

President A clearly stated what happens when presidents do not communicate. "Without it, there will be trouble!" This president talked a great deal about networking and the importance of visiting with people on and off campus. Campus goals cannot be accomplished by a president without gaining the support of staff, faculty, and community leaders. President A bounces ideas off staff and faculty, and he seeks their feedback on decisions. "A president has to stay in-touch and in-tune with his people [faculty] a lot if they have any expectation of academic program development."

In discussing communication, President B commented, "I believe that my [leadership] style works because I have a clearly articulated vision for the University, and I dedicate time and effort to make certain that everyone understands the vision." According to another campus source, this president seeks out the opinions of faculty and staff through efforts to consult and communicate with them. "[President B] goes the extra mile to listen." This president meets weekly with a "kitchen cabinet" to discuss issues and to stimulate ideas.

President C did not talk directly about communication, but it was implied. This president utilizes the communication function through two avenues: The president's

executive council and formal communiques. The council serves as a forum for communicating proposed policies and decisions through a consensus-building method of operation. Written campus memos, press releases to the print and television news media, and two or three campus forums each year are communications vehicles preferred by this president.

Communication is important but should be a natural phenomenon and not fabricated according to President D. There must be a sense of "openness and accessibility," staff must feel comfortable with sharing their ideas, recommendations, and criticisms with the campus leaders. President D preferred to refer to this process as connections. "Leaders must connect with all groups on campus. They must be engaged, involved participants, who are aware of the issues. It involves being personal, listening, and caring."

President E spoke at length about communication. This president's leadership style is predicated on communication and collaboration. Listening is important! Communication and information is the key to success. An informed staff improves moral and "information is the grease of operations on a campus." It is important to educate staff and for a president to be visible by meeting with groups on campus. It is the sharing and giving of information that increases the productivity of staff members. An axiom for this

president is that: "The greater the problem, the greater the need for communication." She has come to realize that "[employees] can take bad news, but no news at all is much worse. Let them know what is going on, what is happening--let them decide how grave the situation really is." Also, it is better to release or "get out all the bad news." She pointed out that, "keeping people informed is a morale booster... Give out good news with the bad news. Remember, rumors become more prevalent whenever no communication exits."

Respect--Trust

Successful leaders are respected and trusted. When leaders display integrity, courage, and character, they will have followers. Followers do expect leaders to uphold a higher standard.

"Treat everyone as an important person, and treat them with respect," President A said. Trust them, honor them, and let them know they are special. "As president, it is my job to be honest, upfront with them....to speak the truth with conviction. You've got to see their perspective, their viewpoint....to know where they are coming from." President A believes it is important to "recognize and reward" people. One way to support them is to encourage them to continue their education and their life-long learning endeavors.

President B did not talk much about trust or respect. Yet, one response to the question of what do you like the

most about your job was, "I like to mentor, assist, support, and help fellow staff members to develop professionally." While trust was not mentioned directly, several answers in relation to delegation and decision-making implied implicit trust relationships when staff members were doing their jobs.

Trust and respect were not specifically mentioned by President C, however, answers to other questions made it clear it was a concern. When one's leadership style is based on the extensive building of consensus and coalitions to determine decisions, a great deal of trust is required. Also, when a primary goal is to avoid making mistakes or creating scandals, one needs to trust people not to make mistakes and not to encourage risk-taking.

President D had a strongly held belief in the power of the "people," in respecting the "learner," and in the success of her students. "The best way to respect students is by staying in touch with them. Treat everyone as important. Each [student] class is unique, is special. Respect them by being concerned about their needs. Get to know them; connect with them." Another form of trust for this president is the desire to share the leadership role with staff and faculty. The effort to facilitate them developing "ownership" in an issue displays a degree of trust. This president did not want the college to become a "welfare" school. Consequently, one of the primary roles or

missions of the college is to teach self-responsibility through learning and education rather than perpetuating the role of a social service agency or of perpetuating self-dependency on the system. The reward of seeing the impact of learning and personal growth on a student was high on her list of satisfaction as a president. Finally, respect is gained when presidential decision-making concentrates on "every single decision must be made in the context of making the students' experience more positive." This fits with this president's belief that students and learning are the fundamental reasons higher education exists.

For President E respect and trust are earned through leadership that provides direction. Direction is based on a positive attitude and vision. The vision must be inculcated in staff, administrators, and faculty. They must understand the process of vision building, the campus culture, and where the college is going in the future. This is what builds respect and trust.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

Summary of Study

This study was an examination of presidential leadership in Montana higher education. The rapidly increasing rate of change influencing higher education is the reason for this study; especially the external sources which pressure and challenge the leadership abilities of presidents. The cry for new leadership to lead colleges and universities into the next century increases in Montana and the nation (Apps, 1994; Argyris, 1976; Bennis, 1993; Bennis & Townsend, 1995; Bensimon & Neumann, 1993; Bogue, 1994; Bok, 1990; Covey, Merrill & Merrill, 1994; Dolence & Norris, 1995; Drucker, 1992; Keller, 1983; Kerr, 1995; Neumann, 1995a; and Senge, 1990). Higher education is going through a transformation which will result in a significant metamorphosis of leadership.

> Radical changes are occurring that will alter fundamentally the nature of the university as we have known it for nearly a century. They will also transform the shared governance model we have followed since the 1950s. These changes will force adjustments in how faculty teach and how students learn, how colleges and universities are financed, and how institutions are administered. They will require that colleges and universities restructure their management processes and modify their traditional notions about academic leadership (Munitz, 1995).

Educational leadership must formulate innovative, creative solutions to meet the demands of a variety of constituents (Argyris, 1976; Bennis, 1993). Robert Hahn believes higher education should not expect presidents to provide the soul leadership since leadership is a collective responsibility (1995, p. 19). Consumer-oriented students are expecting substantially improved customer service in a buyers market. Adult students, who now make up the majority of the college-age population, are entering higher education in large numbers with a different set of expectations and requirements which change campus life and culture. In exchange for funding commitments, governing boards and government entities are expecting greater accountability by setting faculty performance standards and student outcomes assessment (Bogue, 1994; Conway, 1994). The impact of technology, specifically the computer and the Internet, will probably transform learning in higher education to the degree the printed book did 500 years ago (Dolence & Norris, 1995). Traditional foundations of higher education such as academic freedom, tenure, and funding sources will continue to be examined by political and economic forces (Baker, 1994; Kerr, 1995). Due to the increasing cost to obtain a college education in an era of diminishing fiscal resources, presidents will be faced with the issues of providing greater access to higher education, and insuring social equity for underprivileged classes of people (Boyer, 1981;

Silber, 1989). With pressures such as these, higher education is undergoing a profound transformation. Administration needs to be radically reconceived, "Higher education's view of leadership is the last bastion of a amateur management" (Munitz, 1995, p. 16). Educational leadership will be challenged to respond to the magnitude and nature of changes on the horizon (Apps, 1994; Bennis, 1993; Bennis & Townsend, 1995). The future calls for a model of visionary exemplary leadership (Bennis, 1993; Dolence & Norris, 1995; Kerr, 1995; Senge, 1990).

Therefore, the purpose of this study was to identify and describe thematic patterns of presidential leadership at higher education institutions in Montana. The goal was to define characteristics of presidential leadership. Examples of exemplary leadership traits were also listed.

The case study method was used with qualitative research techniques to identify leadership traits. Interviews and surveys provide the data for analysis. Two surveys are utilized to conduct the research: A peer nominating survey and a presidential survey (See Appendix). Based on a state-wide survey returned by 43 administrators, staff members, and state office personnel, 5 of the 19 college or university presidents were nominated as ones who exhibit effective leadership.

The second survey to presidents assists in clarifying and defining higher education issues and leadership

characteristics. This survey was mailed directly to the five selected chief executives with two types of questions. The purpose of this survey was to gather data to verify information from the previous interview or to elicit a response that went into greater depth on a previously asked question. In addition, questions were asked which focused on issues related to governance, the future, and educational challenges in Montana.

Extensive interviews were conducted with the five selected presidents. Each president was interviewed on their respective campuses. The interviews ranged in length from about 90 minutes to almost 180 minutes. All of the males chose to be interviewed in their office. All of the females preferred to be interviewed in neutral conference rooms. Without exception, all of them expressed interest in the subject of exemplary leadership characteristics. All but one wanted to know the outcome of the study. Almost without exception, each of them was fascinated with the research topic and was candid in discussions of leadership. All shared a few common traits. None of them grew up with a desire to be a college president. While all would say they are seldom alone, they also noted how lonely it can be in the office of president. All of them were keenly aware that they were not a one-person show and that their success depended upon a large number of other people. All but one of them were not afraid to make a mistake in their job.

Finally, their sincerity and sense of responsibility for being president were something they did not take lightly.

A limited number of related administrators who work with the president were also interviewed. The total number of interviews conducted with vice-presidents, deans, directors, and secretaries was 24. Most of the interviews were brief, lasting between 15 and 45 minutes. The majority of the responses verified the type of presidential leadership and style professed by the president. Frequently, the language utilized by this group to describe the leadership characteristics did not deviate from that which was used by the president. Either the presidents are effective in communicating their leadership style and vision to staff or they did not want to be perceived as being different or discordant. There was some discrepancy among this group in regard to the effectiveness of the president, but it is minimal. A very small number of administrators at two of the institutions expressed a different opinion on the leadership of their president. Yet, the overwhelming number thought of their president as an effective leader and expressed respect for their leadership style.

One of the basic research questions of this case study was to define the effective attributes and characteristics of presidential leadership in Montana. Seven distinct themes emerged from the data. These themes were consistently identified by most if not all of the five

presidents. Each theme represents a leadership characteristic. Each characteristic enables the presidents to be effective. All of the presidents attributed their success to these themes. The seven themes were (a) Mission, (b) Consensus--Team Building, (c) Risk-Taker, (d) Campus-Community Culture, (e) Empowerment, (f) Communication, and (g) Trust--Respect. Conclusions can be drawn related to each of these characteristics of effective leadership.

Mission

Conclusions

The mission must be authentic to the values and norms of the campus culture.

The mission provides the philosophical foundation from which institutional visions and strategies are developed.

In order for the mission statement to be operative, it must be a dynamic document.

Effective presidential leaders believe the institutional mission statement to be a dynamic document and not just a symbolic wall plaque or report collecting dust on the shelf. The mission is the life blood of a college or university. The mission defines the purpose, the role, the scope, and the values of the university (Bennis, 1989; Bogue, 1994; Bennis & Townsend, 1995; Young, 1997). The mission usually includes academic, research, service, and student affairs programs. The mission forms the philosophical foundation of an institution (Boyer &

Hechinger, 1981). The president who focuses and commits to a mission developed through a participatory process will be successful. In turn, the school will also be successful.

Recommendations

The president should:

Develop an institutional vision and strategy that matches the mission through a participatory process that includes all campus constituents.

Annually evaluate the vision and strategy to insure that administrative and academic actions and decisions match the mission.

Bi-annually re-assess the mission for revision if necessary.

A vision is developed from the mission statement. While the mission statement must be grounded in historical authenticity, it must also be a dynamic document adaptable to agents of change. The mission needs to be flexible so it has the ability to adapt quickly to internal and external changes. Periodic review of the mission assists in remaining on target and in insuring that the vision and strategies match the mission. Mission, vision, and strategy are all interconnected (Bennis, 1989; Birnbaum, 1992; Covey, Merrill & Merrill, 1994; Keller, 1983). An institutional vision obtains direction from mission values. Institutional strategies and goals are derived from the role and scope of the mission (Apps, 1994). Vision and strategy are interrelated. Authority and responsibility are

interdependent. If the vision and strategy is indigenous to the mission and if authority is assigned with the responsibility, then it is a climate fecund for effective presidential leadership.

Consensus--Team Building

Conclusions

The metaphor of the engineer's role is critical to the development of consensus and team-building.

Presidential leaders orchestrate staff and resources in meeting institutional goals.

Team building involves creating an esprit de corps within the organization through a participatory management style.

Most of the presidents thought their title of president was not descriptive of what they do. Their title should be engineer or architect or builder because they orchestrate a unified team effort in meeting institutional goals (Conway, 1994; Dolence & Norris, 1995; Senge, 1990). They perform each of these roles everyday as they seek consensus among their constituents. They have learned that collaboration and compromise are necessary in a shared governance system between faculty, administrators, and governing boards (Birnbaum, 1989; Kerr, 1995). Consensus building facilitates communication across campus and among a variety of constituents. Team building results in coalitions organized in a united effort to achieve institutional objectives. This process facilitates ownership because

staff and faculty have the opportunity to participate in the process by contributing their ideas and solutions. However, this is not a rapid process. Patience should be in the job description when presidents are hired since building consensus requires persistence. They also stressed the importance of listening (Birnbaum, 1987a, 1990). It is a basic skill, but one essential to effective team building and goal attainment. Effective presidents listen as much as they talk. This includes listening to people both on and off campus.

Recommendations

Administrative leaders should:

> Use an organizational chart that is circular in design rather than hierarchial.
>
> Achieve ownership by involving multiple groups and levels of power in the decision-making process to facilitate participatory management.
>
> Assign teams that constitute staff members from a variety of offices and responsibility areas to resolve issues and conduct problem solving. Assign the task by function and not the office responsible.

Consensus building also provides presidents with a wealth of information which assists in the decision-making process (Bensimon, 1990b, 1991b). Several presidents stressed how much the organizational structure affects team building and decision-making. Some organizations impede this phenomenon; others facilitate it. Those organizations which are less hierarchial seem to be flexible enough to

accommodate group communication and decision-making. In order to reduce the "silo effect" common in bureaucracies, offices should be interdependent and organized by function rather than territory (Downs, 1967). Rather than breaking all responsibilities into separate components and assigning them to different offices, presidents should involve all of the offices affected by the function in an interdisciplinary connection. The bottom-line consequence of consensus and team-building is participatory management (Plas, 1996). Ownership occurs and trust is developed (Bennis, 1989, 1993). Finally, those leaders who incorporate the knowledge and experience of their staff and faculty into the decision-making process will add integrity and authenticity to the operation (Adams & Horton, 1975). The engineer's role as visionary, designer, and decision-maker is critical for effective presidential leadership.

Risk-Taker

Conclusion

> One common denominator of effective cutting-edge leadership includes the ability to be a risk-taker.

Presidents must be willing to take risks, otherwise, institutional direction stagnates into the status quo rather than charting new territory. Virtually every successful president experiences failure or defeat. If they do not fail, then they are probably not doing their job (Birnbaum, 1989, 1990; Bogue, 1994). Failure on a project is a sign of

a president who is willing to take risks, and one who will have more winners than losers over a long period of time (Bennis & Nannus, 1985; Bennis & Townsend, 1995). Risk taking is similar to the opposite sides of a coin. On one side is risk-taking, and on the other side is the fear of failure. Presidential risk-takers view failure as acceptable. They define it as a "temporary set-back" because they are more interested in learning from their mistakes and moving on with the resolution of the situation; it is an opportunity for growth. Risk-taking is considered part of the job as president. It is also the key to being an effective president." All of the presidents except for one were not worried about failures. For them, failure is an experiment on a project that did not work. They are more interested in analyzing the results of the failure in order to determine how the project can work. Only one president expressed concern about failure. For this president, avoiding mistakes was more important than learning from them; that is, do not make mistakes in the first place and one will not have to deal with them. This president said that was necessary to be cautious and on guard with the media.

Recommendations

Presidential professional educational organizations should:

Provide training workshops for presidents with their peers to inculcate an attitude

conducive to the benefits of being a risk-taker.

Focus on the learning dimension of risk-taking and comprehension of the concept of rationally analyzing those lessons in a failure.

Teach a philosophy of learning that reduces the fear of failure.

However, four of the presidents felt they had to embrace their failures rather than running from them--learn from mistakes and do not be fearful of them. It is interesting that four of the presidents brought up how important it is to view failure as a learning process and not a mistake or set-back. Their positive perspective redefined failure as something other than a loss or feelings of guilt about something but as an opportunity for growth. By learning from it, failure can be one of the best teachers.

Campus--Community Culture

Conclusions

Campus culture is a reality. It is important, and it forms the "bedrock" of a campus.

Culture has both cognitive and affective dimensions, formal and informal organizational structures, and reflects the real ideals, values, and norms of a campus.

A cardinal rule for presidents is to never underestimate the role and significance of campus culture.

If a president does not comprehend or if they misinterpret the culture of a campus, then they will be a

stranger in a strange land. Eventually they will become isolated in their office or insulated by an inner cabinet. This is the kiss of death for a president. It is the beginning of the end for any degree of effectiveness for a president as an administrator or leader. Successful presidents have a presence on campus (Birnbaum, 1987a; Plas, 1996). They connect in meaningful ways with faculty and staff (Birnbaum, 1990). They extend this presence into the local community substantively or symbolically (Tierney, 1988). They also learn to bridge between the campus and community cultures; this is an important relationship. These presidents network with a variety of individuals and groups on and off campus in a professional and individualized manner. The significance of clearly comprehending the campus culture is something that cannot be underestimated (Bensimon, 1990a; Neumann, 1995a; Schein, 1996). Successful presidents listen to staff and faculty. They learn campus norms and values (Bensimon, 1990a, 1991a). They ask them what their hopes and dreams are for the campus. They do not ignore the campus history and tradition by creating a vision or culture that is not appropriate for the campus (Neumann, 1995a). They also do not transfer their conception of culture onto the existing culture (Bensimon & Neumann, 1989). When the campus community is cohesive, then it can serve the larger community-at-large regardless of how that is defined.

Recommendations

Be visible by doing such things as: Visit staff on their "turf;" hold "town" meetings on campus.

Listen first. Assume nothing. Pretend to be a foreigner visiting a new country and learning the culture.

Be a participant in a variety of activities on campus and in the community.

A campus culture forms the bedrock of a university. Culture includes the objective and subjective aspects of a campus (Neumann, 1995a). It is the cognitive, affective, and physical environments on a campus that make up a campus culture, regardless of whether or not those perceptions are reality or not reality (Neumann, 1995a). The bottom-line is that the president who performs the role of diplomat and ambassador for the college will be effective if he or she is cognizant of the concept of culture (Schein, 1992, 1996). In regard to culture, effective presidents become familiar with it, they understand it, and they never ignore its potential impact. Effective leadership cannot be separated from the campus community.

Empowerment

Conclusions

Empowerment includes three critical elements: Participatory management; delegation of responsibility with authority; and collaborative decision-making.

Empowerment is a "hands-off" philosophy based on trust and communication.

Empowerment is "holistic sharing".

There is one iron-clad guarantee about leadership. At the heart of every progressive cutting-edge university is a participatory management structure with empowerment of employees as the life blood of the organization (Hesselbein, et al, 1996; Plas, 1996). Whether called delegation with authority or empowerment, it has the same objective. Design an organization that gives employees the resources and the power to meet institutional objectives (Drucker, 1967, 1986). The shared governance model facilitates empowerment of staff (Bok, 1990; Kerr, 1995). Empowerment and shared governance are similar, the former reflects an informal network and the later a formal structure. One way to degenerate employee morale is to delegate responsibility but not the authority to accomplish the job. Another way to disempower people is to remove their decision-making ability. This is called micro-management. Limiting the options available to a supervisor or making the decision for them is a sure way to eliminate employee initiative. For empowerment to work effectively, the lines of communication must be open between the president and employees. There is a degree of trust required whenever a president empowers someone. Empowerment frequently is thought of as a transfer of authority and power to an individual, but it can also be given to a committee or a council. Another president said leadership is inclusive, it is a shared endeavor. Sharing

leadership opens up the possibilities of an infinite number of solutions. When knowledge and power are shared, the result is effective decision-making (Bennis, 1993).

Recommendations

Implement a shared governance management structure which truly shares the power and authority.

Decrease vertical lines of power and authority with more group decision-making processes and when either process is appropriate.

Change titles to reflect a participatory management philosophy.

Provide more brainstorming sessions on issues so solutions can percolate from the grassroots level of staff members

Train staff on the differences between individualistic and group decision-making processes.

An attitude of openness to the process of decision-making and access to information is essential. As more people are empowered there is a greater degree of ownership which increases the likelihood of effective solutions. Bottom-line is that empowerment builds consensus and ownership or "buy-in" from staff and faculty (Bensimon & Neumann, 1993). Four of the presidents believed very strongly in this idea. One referred to it as a "hands-off" management policy. Another said to empower is to develop true staff ownership. Not just ownership of their job duties but also of their decision-making abilities. It is the concept of shared governance or shared power. President A said the most important aspect of empowerment is trust.

Trust your staff to do the job and do not interfere unless necessary. Effective presidents share power and information which results in greater creativity, decision-making, and ownership among staff and faculty.

Communication Network

Conclusions

Communication is the single most critical factor in effective leadership.

Communication is the "grease" or "lubricant" or "glue" that synthesizes all of the ingredients in a presidential leadership package.

It is important to "stay-in-touch" and "stay-in-tune" with the campus.

Does the sound of a tree falling in the forest exist regardless of whether or not there is someone to hear it? Communication is one of the most critical patterns evident in successful presidencies (Birnbaum, 1993; Conway, 1994). Presidents who communicate effectively demonstrate a style with visionary direction. However, communication is a two-way dynamic. Listening is just as important as speaking. Effective communication is vitally critical to the success of effective presidents. Clear succinct communication to staff and faculty assists in the articulation of the vision, mission, and objectives. The communication style should be professional but friendly. It is a style that indicates a president who is in charge with a direction but also has a willingness to listen to other ideas.

Recommendations

Provide ample opportunities for genuine two-way communication between constituents on campus with meetings, forums, and social functions.

Develop formal and informal networks to facilitate meaningful communication.

Utilize written and verbal methods of conveying communication to the campus.

Set-up a response plan to handle crises so people are informed of the reality of the situation.

One president emphasized the importance of networking. A function which allows for the exchange and critique of ideas, and feedback on proposals with staff, faculty, and community leaders. When a president stays in-touch and in-tune with people campus goals gain support from constituents. Communication avenues may be formal or informal. Whether it is through individuals or committees, both is best, it does not matter, but creating the network and using it does matter. One president said connecting is a better word than communication. Connecting with people involves being personal, listening, and caring. This president preferred to think of communication as a natural phenomenon and not an artificial fabrication for the purpose of image building. However, for communication to exist, there must be a sense of openness and accessibility so staff will feel comfortable sharing their ideas, criticisms, and recommendations. Communication and collaboration are sisters. The bigger the problem, the greater the need for communication. Informed and educated staff members improves

moral, assists in their decision-making ability, and increases productivity (Burns, 1978; Bogue, 1994; Graham, 1995; Kerr, 1995). Without effective and productive communication, it is difficult to be successful in implementing a strategy and in engaging staff in the team building process. Staff members can take the bad news, but, no news at all is worse. Keep people informed and educated, sharing the situation assists empowering them. Rumors will fill the vacuum whenever genuine communication does not exist. Communication and dissemination of information is the key to effective leadership.

Trust--Respect

Conclusions

Leadership that is based on honesty, builds trust with staff, and results in respect for the leader.

Presidents who engage in exemplary leadership demonstrate character, courage, and integrity.

Treat everyone as an important person, treat them with respect, trust them, honor them, and recognize them.

When a company of combat Marines charge a position, it is more than the order which motivates them. There is a bond of trust that respects the decision of the officer. Trust and respect are the opposite sides of the same coin. If trust is manifested, then respect is given. Yet, one cannot exist without the other. Presidents receive respect from followers when they prove to them that they can be

trusted (Bennis, 1993). When it is evident they deserve their respect. Successful leaders are respected and trusted. When leaders display integrity, courage, and character they will have followers (Bogue, 1994). Followers expect leaders to uphold a high standard of conduct. Respect is earned, not demanded. Presidents earn respect when they treat someone as an important person. As one president noted, it is important to trust them, honor them, and make them feel special [staff and faculty]. Another idea is to understand their viewpoint. Most people appreciate the opportunity to share their perspective, to be heard, regardless of whether or not any action is taken. It is a matter of simply feeling that you contributed with the possibility of making a difference. It never hurts to recognize and reward people.

Recommendations

> Keep your word as president. Do what you say you will do. Follow through with decisions and commitments.
>
> Insure that campus policies and procedures are consistent and that everyone is treated equally.
>
> Set a high standard of professional and personal performance.
>
> Treat everyone with an attitude of respect.

Another dimension of trust is the delegation or empowerment of staff (Plas, 1996). The result is ownership when a staff member is placed in a leadership role. This is another display of presidential trust. Effective

presidential leaders remember the reason for the existence of and the ultimate mission of higher education, to facilitate the learning of students. The goal is to teach people self-responsibility and self-direction so they create solutions. This occurs in an environment of trust and empowerment. Respect and trust are earned through leadership that provides direction. Direction is based on attitude and vision. Effective presidents engage in vision building, nurture campus culture, and have a dynamic direction (Bennis & Townsend, 1995).

Effective Leadership Models

Based on this study it is possible to recommend a model of presidential leadership for Montana. There are two potential models to discuss: Transformation model and an exemplary model based on the results of this study. Also included are Jeff Baker's perceptions of a management model for the Montana University System. Conclusions can be drawn from these seven effective leadership characteristics.

Jeff Baker's Management Model

A model presented in September of 1994 by Dr. Jeffrey Baker, Montana's Commissioner of Higher Education from 1993 to 1996, presented a higher education model for the Montana University System for the next century. According to Jeff Baker, continuous rapid change and external pressures are in the future for Montana higher education. With the next

century approaching, he referred to two distinguishing characteristics emerging to describe the current situation. First, this is a "period of unusually rapid change, with the pace likely to accelerate in the years ahead" (Baker, p. 1). Peter Drucker (1993) reinforces the potential for a transformational change on the horizon:

> Every few hundred years in Western history there occurs a sharp transformation. Within a few short decades, society rearranges itself--its worldview; its basic values; its social and political structure; its arts; its key institutions. Fifty years later, there is a new world. And the people born then cannot even imagine the world in which their grandparents lived and into which their own parents were born. We are currently living through just such a transformation. (p.1)

Second, Baker also recognizes that the pressures for change are predominately external to higher education. Clark Kerr also believes there will be increasing demands upon higher education in the future (1979, 1995). Baker refers to the Pew Higher Education Roundtable recommendation in "To Dance With Change":

> The changes most important to higher education are those that are external to it. What is new is the use of societal demand--in the American context, market forces--to reshape the academy. The danger is that colleges and universities have become less relevant to society precisely because they have yet to understand the new demands being placed on them. The argument is simple and to the point: no institution will emerge unscathed from its confrontation with an external environment that is substantially altered and in many ways more hostile to colleges and universities. (pp. 1-2)

Baker recognizes the changing times, and recommends that "we carefully consider the future and point the

direction we believe will best serve the public. We must communicate the direction in terms that are understandable and ...be accountable for our actions" (p. 4). Increasing public understanding of and appreciation for the role of higher education in improving the quality of life in Montana is important. He advocates a direction for the Montana University System which ensures a high-quality education for students. It emphasizes a specific direction, a greater degree of accountability, and new methods of finance. The process the Board of Regents used was to include all constituents involved in the educational system. It is a collaborative endeavor with a variety of participants. Baker recommends a model that recognized the diversity of students seeking educational services, the growing ethnicity of the student population, and the demands for adult and lifelong learning. He noted the new realities of greater competition, demand for institutional effectiveness, and the need for creative funding to mitigate the increasing cost to attend and student debt. One major goal is to revitalize undergraduate education by "reaffirming its priority, refocusing curriculum and resources, emphasizing learning as an active, collaborative process of discovering knowledge, and measuring faculty productivity through student learning or outcomes" (p. 4). Future challenges for Montana's presidents will test their leadership skills and abilities.

Based on the research of this case study, there are several concluding remarks related to presidential leadership in Montana. Nationally, the consequences of the three historical antecedents of religion, science, and economics resulted in the following paradigm shifts in higher education. The authority for governance shifted from private religious institutions to public secular institutions. The philosophical foundation of learning shifted from religious faith to the rationality of science. Funding sources for higher education changed from the church, to private, to public, and now to a combination of federal funds and institutionally invested endowments. These paradigm shifts in higher education have changed the traits needed for exemplary leadership in the future. Warren Bennis and Townsend (1995) provide a definition of leadership which may assist leaders in the future:

> Leadership is the capacity to create a compelling and plausible vision and to translate that vision into organizational realities. It is the ability to generate and sustain trust. It is the ability to be agile and adaptive to change. It is an openness to diverse points of view. It involves self-knowledge and self-awareness. (p.27)

Transformation Model

The Transformation Model is one example of a model that incorporates the impact of the Information Age on leadership in education. Dolence and Norris (1995) assert that society is undergoing a fundamental transformation from the Industrial Age to the Information Age (p. 2). The existing

Industrial Age model for education is changing to a learning vision that is fundamentally realigned with the needs of learners in the Information Age (p. 3). Currently, colleges and universities "own" or dominate the learning franchise. In the 21st Century the learning franchise will expand to a greater number of providers, new learning agents, different teachers, new types of facilitators, and new methods of technology. This will increase the competition and provide more options for students. The Information Age is being driven by learning and knowledge. The amount of information and the rate of knowledge will increase exponentially (p. 6). The life cycle of information will continue to contract, yet the demand for effective learning opportunities will continue to increase dramatically (p.6). It is time for a new vision, one which creates new delivery systems for learning, new paradigms for financing, and new models for higher education (p. 7).

Dolence and Norris anticipate a partial shift in governance of higher education. The teaching franchise is the current system in which the teaching and awarding of credits and degrees are packaged together in accredited institutions of higher education. The awarding of course and degree credit is authorized by credentialed faculty. Exclusive rights to the teaching franchise are granted by regional accrediting associations. These associations are empowered by the collective of institutions and the federal

government, which restricts federal financial aid to accredited institutions (p. 9). The learning franchise "provides access to powerful learning systems, information and knowledge bases, scholarly exchange networks, or other mechanisms for the delivery of learning" (pp. 9-10). Learning systems, on the other hand, are open to anyone with access and has the resources to compensate the provider. In the Information Age the race is on to determine ownership of the learning franchise (p.10). The options are new and endless: Interactive, multi-media systems; on-line learning; electronic classrooms; information networks; distance learning; and contract learning. The "factory model" has served the Industrial Age extremely well. Yet, it is not flexible enough for the rapid changes of the Information Age (p. 11). The electronic information age is the first paradigm shift since the printed book transformed higher education during the Renaissance.

> The classroom will not disappear, nor will the campus fade into oblivion. Rather, American higher education in the 21st century will provide a spectrum of choices for learners, ranging from truly traditional to the totally transformed. These choices will be exercised by individual learners, faculty, researchers, and practitioners in their daily work and as they chart the pathways for their learning careers. Individual learners are an inexorable force driving learning in the Information Age....They illustrate the power of learner choice. (p.14)

The transformation model is one way for presidents to develop a vision of learning for the future. Transformation is not a purely linear process but includes four

interlocking subprocesses of (a) re-aligning higher education with the Information Age, (b) redesigning higher education to achieve this realigned vision, (c) redefining the roles and responsibilities in higher education, and (d) re-engineering organizational processes to achieve greater productivity and quality (p. 20). These four processes are interconnected, perpetual, and mutually reinforcing. To transform higher education, presidents must realign it with the three conditions of the changing nature of information, knowledge, and scholarship. These processes focus on the individual learners needs, and the changing nature of the work-world and the nature of learning.

When considering the redesign of higher education, the primacy of the network metaphor is paramount. The transition from autonomous, hierarchial teaching institutions to globally networked learning organizations has profound implications for higher education leadership. Due to the increasing use of the Internet, information and knowledge systems are available to learners anywhere and anytime (p. 34).

The re-aligned, redesigned higher education organization will have the opportunity to redefine the roles of all participants. Faculty roles will become known as researchers, synthesizers, mentors, and navigators. Administrator roles, including presidents, will become known as architects, general contractors, developers, and systems

operators. "In order for higher education to tap the opportunities that will exist in the early stages of the Information Age, academic and administrative leaders must exercise vision and aggressive leadership" (p. 66).

Exemplary Presidential Model

The leadership model for Montana in the next century may be based on four possible attributes. One attribute is presidential initiative that a re-invigorate the spiritual dimension. This is not religious in nature but centers on values, ethics, and character. Two, presidents develop relationships that are based on cooperation rather than competition. This refers to participatory management and empowerment. Three, organizational structures are configured on holistic or integrated designs rather than rigid pyramids or hierarchies. This implies a team-oriented approach with the goal of consensus through communication. Four, presidents who are willing to be risk-takers embrace the challenges, the paradoxes, the ambiguities, and view failures as learning experiences. In summary, exemplary leadership could be reduced to two categories. There must be common vision based on direction, participation, and consensus, and an environment of trust which is based on support, delegation, and empowerment.

The exemplary model has four attributes: An ethical and value based dimension; cooperative in nature; team or holistically organized; and engages in risk-taking. This

model is suited to meet the leadership challenges of the future as identified by Gerald Apps (1994). The emerging era demands new ways of thinking from educational leaders (p. 227). There are five fundamental leadership challenges for the future: (a) Accept paradox and ambiguity as reality, (b) develop sophisticated perspectives about diversity, (c) develop global awareness, (d) reconsider empowerment from a variety of perspectives, and (e) challenge and examine the basic concepts and elements in education about teaching and learning (pp. 228-229).

> When you ask people about what it is like being part of a great team, what is most striking is the meaningfulness of the experience. People talk about being part of something larger than themselves, of being connected, of being generative. It becomes quite clear that, for many, their experiences as part of truly great teams stand out as singular periods of life lived to the fullest. Some spend the rest of their lives looking for ways to recapture that spirit. (Senge, 1990, p. 511)

Metanoia (Senge, 1990) refers to a shift of mind. It is a Greek word which means "fundamental shift or change, or more literally transcendence of mind" (p. 512). "Meta", means above or beyond, as in metaphysics, "noia" means of the mind. To grasp the meaning of "metanoia" is to grasp the deeper meaning of learning, because learning also involves a fundamental shift or movement of mind.

> "Real learning goes to the heart of what it means to be human. Through learning we re-create ourselves. Through learning we become able to do something we never were able to do. Through learning we re-perceive the world and our relationship to it. Through learning we extend

> our capacity to create, to be part of the generative process of life" (p. 512).

There needs to be a new paradigm shift in the leadership of higher education. The challenges of the time call for an exemplary leadership model. There are a few courageous pioneers discovering new leadership territories. It is time for metanoia, a shift of the mind; this paradigm shift is a prerequisite for leadership to chart the way into the next century.

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APPENDIX

Presidential Nomination Survey

December 2, 1996

Mr. Robert J. Hensley
Director of Admissions & Registrar
University of Great Falls
Great Falls, MT 59405

Dear Survey Recipient:

Leadership is a key ingredient for the success of any institution. A study is being conducted to identify the major characteristics of Montana's exemplar collegiate presidents or chancellors. An exemplar president is someone who has demonstrated exceptional leadership through dynamic and effective management of their institution. This survey will assist me in identifying presidents who are on the "cutting-edge" of administrative leadership in Montana.

List those chief executives who you think are true leaders in the administration and management of their institutions. As you reflect upon your decisions, be honest and sincere in your selections. Please try to set aside institutional loyalty and political considerations when you consider the candidates. Your selections will remain strictly confidential. The envelopes with the cancelled postmarks will be destroyed so only the surveys will exist. Your participation and assistance with the nominating process is critical in identifying the exemplar presidents of Montana, and sincerely appreciated.

This survey will assist in the study of leadership for my doctoral dissertation in the Adult, Higher Education Administration, and Community program.

Please complete the enclosed survey and return it in the self-addressed stamped envelope by December 15, 1996. I have also attached a list of Montana's chief executives for your information. Again, thank you very much for your response.

Sincerely,

Robert J. Hensley
Director of Admissions & Registrar

Dynamic & Effective Presidential Leadership Survey

Survey Question

Please list, in your professional opinion, the top 3-5 current Montana presidents or chancellors who have exhibited the most dynamic and effective leadership skills. The attached list of chief executive officers is included to assist you with names and institutions.

*_____

*_____

*_____

*_____

*_____

Comments

Please write any comments or recommendations or questions you may have in regard to this survey.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

To assist you in your deliberations, the following quotes and list of characteristics may assist you in defining or clarifying presidential leadership.

"We will not know the heart of the leader until he [or she] is placed in a position of power"

Sophocles - "Antigone"

"The principal challenge to leadership effectiveness in colleges and universities is more than a challenge of intellect, to acquire and use good ideas, it is a challenge of character -- to learn and apply constructive ideals"

E. Grady Bogue

"...the only thing of real importance that leaders do is to create and manage culture"

Edgar H. Schein

"Presidents lose effectiveness when they cease being learners and start being teachers"

Robert Birnbaum

"Transcending leadership is dynamic leadership in the sense that the leaders throw themselves into a relationship with followers who will feel 'elevated' by it and often become more active themselves, thereby creating new cadres of leaders"

James MacGregor Burns

"Effective leaders reward dissent, as well as encourage it"

Warren Bennis

"The leader should have the spirit of adventure, ... It should be the pioneer spirit which blazes new trails. The insight to see possible new paths, the courage to try them, the judgement to measure results -- these are the qualifications of the leader"

Mary Parker Follett

Dynamic & Effective Presidential Leadership Survey

I. Key Characteristics of Leadership
   1. Creativity
   2. Flexibility
   3. Broad vision
   4. Development of self
   5. Development of followers

by Janice Gray Ryles

II. General Leadership Characteristics
   1. Overall Leadership Presence
   2. Institutional Vision
   3. Decision-Making Skills
   4. Problem-Solving Skills
   5. Creativity/Innovation
   6. Management
   7. Communication Skills
   8. Character
   9. Crisis Management
   10. Commitment
   11. Integrity
   12. Public Relations Skills
   13. Political Skills
   14. Collegiality with Faculty, Staff, Students, and Officers of the Governing Board

by Robert Hensley

List of Chief Executives (President/Chancellor) and Institutions

Name of President	Name of Institution
Carol Murray	Blackfeet Community College
Matthew Quinn	Carroll College
Donald Kettner	Dawson Community College
Alonzo Spang	Dull Knife Memorial College
David Beyer	Flathead Valley Community College
Margaret Perez	Ft. Belknap College
James Shanley	Ft. Peck Community College
Janine Pease-Pretty On Top	Little Big Horn College
Frank Williams	Miles Community College
Ronald Sexton	Montana State University - Billings
Michael Malone	Montana State University - Bozeman
William Daehling	Montana State University - Northern
Lindsay Norman	Montana Tech-University of Montana
Arthur Derosier	Rocky Mountain College
Joseph McDonald	Salish Kootenai College
Steve Galbavy	Stone Child College
Frederick Gilliard	University of Great Falls
George Dennison	University of Montana - Missoula
Sheila Stearns	Western Montana College-Un. of MT.