

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Dr. Jerry Sue Thornton, Dr. Christine Johnson and Dr. Deborah DiCroce are women serving as community college presidents at 2-year institutions. In 2005, according to the American Association of Community College (AACC) and the National Institute of Leadership Development, these women presidents signify a small sample of the 259 women community college presidents nationally. The research describes the preferred leadership styles displayed, factors affecting her term(s) as a president, effectiveness and significant events of women community college presidents.

Hockaday and Puyear (2000), as well as Weisman and Vaughan (2002) reported that in 2002 more women held presidencies at community colleges than at other types of higher education institutions. Statistically, the number of women holding presidencies more than doubled from 1986 to 2001, yet women continue to remain disproportionately under-represented in administrative and policy-making positions, according to Corrigan (2002). The presence of racial and ethnic minorities as college and university presidents increased in 1986 from 8% to 13%, resulting in 24% African American presidents and 35% Hispanic presidents. African-American women college presidents are more likely to hold presidencies at community colleges than four year institutions, according to Hockaday and Puyear (2000) and Weisman and Vaughan (2002).

Leadership is a multidisciplinary topic that has been of interest to people in education, business, and government. The literature reports various leadership definitions, theories, styles, and models (Bass, 1990; Birnbaum, 1989; Goff, 2002; Hersey & Blanchard, 1982; Hockaday & Puyear, 2000; Kotter, 1990; Kouzes & Posner, 1987; Sergiovanni, 1984; Stodgill, 1974). According to Shakeshaft (1989), higher education leadership theories and models have placed males at the center of the research.

Gender-based research on women's leadership styles and theories were reviewed. Research suggested that women's leadership styles differ from men's (Brightharp, 1999; Helgesen, 1990; Overland, 1996; Marshall, 1995). Gilligan (1982) suggested that dominance, competition, authority and power are exhibited culturally by men. She concluded that male and female styles of leadership were different. In addition, Eagly

and Johnson (1990) and Rosener (1990) also concluded that feminine traits are distinguished by collaboration, empathy, and cooperation. Masculine traits are characterized by dominance, competitiveness, and hierarchical authority. It is also important to acknowledge that the aforementioned studies did not include or differentiate African-American women leadership styles or traits.

The first community colleges in the 20th century quickly adapted to the growing needs and desires of the community (Deegan & Tillery, 1985). The community college is responsive to the community and its workforce needs, which have maintained an increased response as compared to other higher education institutions (Phillippe & Patton, 2000). In 1901, the first public two-year or junior college was established in Joliet, Illinois. Ten years later, Fresno, California established a program that became the model program for the development of junior colleges (Deegan & Tillery, 1985). Originally, the two-year colleges focused on general liberal arts studies, serving as extensions of the high school programs. The mission of the junior college was to provide access to those who may be unprepared, unready or unable to leave home to attend college. Access often reflected remediation for many attendees. During the 1930s, job training programs were added, assisting in alleviating unemployment. After World War II, the GI Bill created the impetus for more opportunities in higher education. The Truman Commission encouraged the creation of public, community-based colleges. Community colleges notably provided access to 60% women in preparation for teaching positions.

In the 1960s, the national network of community colleges began with opening 457 public community colleges. There are currently 1600 community colleges, including branch campuses, serving 11.6 million students (Phillippe & Patton, 2000), more than half of the nation's undergraduates. Community colleges educate a very diverse student population, including 12.9% African-American, 14.8% Hispanic, 6.8% Asian/Pacific Islander and 1.3% Native American, and 64.2% Caucasian according to the National Center for Education Statistics (2004).

Since the 1970s, the presence of women and minorities as higher education administrators has increased (Brown, VanUmmersen & Phair, 2002). According to Shults (2001), "community colleges are facing an impending leadership crisis. College

presidents, senior administrators, and faculty leaders have been retiring at an alarming rate—a trend that is expected to continue as baby boomers age” (p. 1). His research indicated retirement could provide access and opportunity for many, including women and minorities, to rise into the upper ranks of administration, ultimately shaping their promotional paths that could lead them to a community college presidency. However, affirmative action may restrict women and minorities seeking these vacant positions (Shults, 2001).

Researchers have examined the descriptive profile (e.g. career paths, experiences, and perceptions of the presidency) of women community college presidents (Amey & Van DerLinden, 2002; Birnbaum, 1992; Buddemeier, 1998; Keith, 2003). The career paths of women, e.g. career patterns, social, and educational background (Brown, 2000; Kisling, 1986; Roubanis, 2000) at two and four-year institutions were examined. Also, mobility patterns and experiences of women presidents of color at two-year institutions (Reed-Taylor, 1998), career paths regarding gender differences (Mancini, 1993), and the differences in career lines of black and white women presidents in two-and four-year colleges were reviewed (Kane, 1997). Each of these studies found that the career paths of women community college presidents, regardless of race, began as a faculty member and moved to administration; a relationship between career paths were important to women presidents (Kane, 1997; Mancini, 1993; Reed-Taylor, 1998).

The importance of a supportive family, role models, mentors, sponsors, and networks for women administrators in higher education have been studied by several groups (Allen, Jacobson, & Lamotey, 1995; Lewis & McDade, 1995; McDade, 1997; Miller & Vaughn, 1997; Thompson-Jones, 1992; Vaughn, 1996). Women serve as community leaders by virtue of their presence when serving as CEOs and as senior administrators in higher education (McDade, 1997). Other authors found that networking served a crucial role in helping women achieve their career advancement goals (Lewis & McDade, 1995; McDade, 1997; Thompson-Jones, 1992).

The inspiration for this research came from the desire to know what factors helped the small number s of women achieve community college presidencies and how academic institutions can foster leadership development.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to identify what factors female community college presidents have in common: leadership styles and other factors affecting career path, and the length of time from completion of terminal degree to presidency. In addition, this study addressed the effectiveness of community college presidents. Literature concerning the emergence of women college presidents has increased over the years, but a dearth of information exists on the leadership styles or behaviors of women college presidents, especially women community college presidents. This research was designed to contribute to the literature concerning the leadership styles of women community college presidents.

The researcher used the Gregorc Style Delineator™ (Gregorc, 1982) to identify the leadership styles of the women community college presidents. Leadership styles are defined by Gregorc as mind styles. Mind styles are based on the Mediation Theory. The Mediation Theory states that the “mind has qualitative mental channels through which it receives and expresses data most efficiently and effectively. The channels are used to create an individual’s reality” (Gregorc, 1982, p. 31). This theory processes information through perception and order. The physical behaviors displayed by the leader are known as styles. A participant information sheet was used to obtain demographic information and to address questions about her desire to become president, the institution, her effectiveness as a president, and the significant events that influenced the president to become a community college president.

Research Questions

Specifically, the study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What are the preferred leadership styles displayed by women community college presidents?
2. What is the women community college president’s path of promotion?
3. What is the women community college president’s length of time from terminal/last degree to presidency?
4. Does a women community college president’s length of time from terminal/last degree differ by path of promotion?

5. What are the ways women community college presidents identify effectiveness?

Significance of the Research

This study provided an understanding of women's leadership styles, women's leadership styles for community college presidents, as well as other factors affecting their presidency. The study describes the leadership styles and preferred leadership styles displayed by women community college presidents and other factors affecting their tenure as a president, such significant events and effectiveness. This research is of importance to women interested in presidencies at a community college, and to community college search committees interested in seeking such styles in prospective presidential candidates, or to those interested in gender issues.

Women currently holding administrative positions who aspire to become community college presidents will find the study informative. Women higher education administrators can view the research findings when determining future career goals. Insight is provided on the leadership styles of female higher education leaders who are community college presidents.

This research also has significance for future research. The present study examined the leadership styles for women community college presidents and other factors affecting their presidency. Future studies could examine leadership styles of male community college presidents and leadership styles of male community college presidents by race. Another study could focus on the leadership styles of presidents at single gender institutions. The findings from the proposed study would expand information when institutional type is considered.

This research has significance on leadership programs provided by professional organizations. Leadership program coordinators might use the information to develop future programs. For example, coordinators of leadership programs could have participants take the Gregorc Style Delineator™ (Gregorc, 1982) prior to attending, with results being reviewed during the leadership program. In addition, using the established scale to view the curriculum vitae/resumé of participants may assist in understanding the progression and path of women administrators who aspire to become community college presidents.

Limitations

This research will contribute to the existing body of literature about women's leadership, but the research has some limitations. Focusing on community colleges may pose a limitation; women presidents at other higher education institutions might differ from women presidents at community colleges. This research may not suggest generalizations to other women college or university presidents. The presidents' schedules also posed a limitation. Based on the demands placed on a president, especially the African-American women community college presidents, some opted not to participate in the study.

Another limitation of this research involved the data collection method. The Gregorc Style Delineator™ (Gregorc, 1982) is based on the participants' self-reporting and perception of the instrument. Women community college presidents who volunteered to participate may differ from those who decided not to participate. Also, if the instrument was not used by the researcher as designed, or if the ranked the associated words as president rather than as an individual, the data could be distorted. This limitation was addressed in the researcher's invitation letter, with specific instructions on how to take the survey instrument.

Organization of the Study

This study was written in five chapters. Chapter one introduces the topic, the scope of this study, the problem being addressed, limitations, and significance. Chapter two includes a review of the literature on leadership and leadership styles. Chapter three presents the methodological process of data collection. Chapter four discusses and analyzes the data. The final chapter summarizes the research and implications for future research.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This research focused on the leadership styles of women community college presidents and other factors influencing their presidency. This literature review seeks to provide an overview of leadership styles of community college presidents. This research examined the literature as it pertains to models of leadership, women's leadership, college presidents, community colleges, leadership styles and the mind styles model. Research on women administrators has increased to include social power (Bower, 1996; Carey, 1996; Schwartz, 1997), challenges (Williams, 1998), and the importance of mentors, sponsors, and networks to women administrators in higher education (Allen, Jacobson, & Lamotey, 1995; Miller & Vaughan, 1997). However, limited information is available on the common leadership styles of women community college presidents. To understand leadership, one must understand the common qualities of successful leaders. More importantly, women community college administrators want to know which preferred leadership style is needed to be an effective higher education administrator on the road to becoming a community college president.

An Overview of Leadership

Historically, the search to conceptualize leadership has occurred over decades. Beginning in the 1970s, and accelerating in the 1980s, the leadership was defined as a necessary part of achieving a high level of performance and efficiency (Kippenberger, 2004). As a result of research, 125 to 350 definitions of leadership exist (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Hockaday & Puyear, 2000). Earlier definitions defined leadership as behavioral (Bass, 1990; Kouzes & Posner, 1987; Sergiovanni, 1984). Bass (1990) defined leadership as an exercise of power, pointing out that certain leadership behaviors are central to group activities processes and crucial to group processes and structures. The strength of the leader's personality is characterized by a one-way, non-interactive effect on the followers (Bass, 1990). A successful leader influences, controls, and sets the behavior of the group members to achieve goals (Bass, 1990; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Gardner, 1990; Michner, DeLamater, & Schwartz, 1990; Stodgill, 1974). Kotter (1990) defined leadership as the ability to produce change and to set the direction of that change.

In summary, there is no one definition or model of leadership; however, the common strands are behaviors and relationships that are displayed.

Models of Leadership

This section discusses five models which have historically provided the frame for the review of leadership: trait, power-influence, behavior, situation and transformation (Bass, 1990). It also presents the four models upon which this research has drawn most heavily, i.e. the 10-P Models of Leadership, Kouzes and Posner Leadership Practices Model, Hersey and Blanchard Model, and Situational Leadership Model. The original sources of all these models are reviewed below.

Trait leadership determines the personality and behavioral characteristics associated with leadership. Stodgill (1974) researched personal factors associated with leadership effectiveness, also known as trait leadership. His research engaged qualified observers to rate, vote on, select, and test individuals occupying positions of leadership, and to analyze their biographical and case history data. Stodgill also administered standardized tests and questionnaires, factor analyses, rating scales, and interviews. He/she categorized results within several factors: status, participation, responsibility, achievement, and capacity (Stodgill, 1974). Stodgill's research played an integral part in the evolution of leadership theory, and encouraged further examination of research on situational analysis combined with analysis of individual traits.

The 10-P Model of Leadership developed by Sergiovanni (1984) emphasized the leader's behavior and results. The ten (10) principles of quality leadership include prerequisites, perspectives, principles, platform, politics, purposing, planning, persisting, peopling, and patriotism. This model provides the basis for behavioral leadership, which socializes members by building unity and order. Also, this model demonstrates how leaders create a supportive environment by giving attention to purpose, historical tradition, philosophical tradition, ideals and norms.

Kouzes and Posner Leadership Practice Model (1997) associated five behaviors with leadership. These researchers described and studied five leadership behaviors: challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart. A leader who "challenges the process" is effective at

taking risks, challenging paradigms. “Inspiring a vision” involves imagining a future and persuading others to join in that vision. “Enabling others to act” is accomplished through team building, collaboration, and empowerment. Leaders who “model the way” (the fourth behavior) develop situational and transformational models to create standards and exemplify the way goals should be accomplished. The last behavior, “encouraging the heart,” acknowledges the contributions made by the entire group and celebrates accomplishments by individual team members and workers. This model did not find that ethnicity affected one’s leadership practices. Kouzes and Posner (2003) continue to support this timeless model by performing case studies on administrators to prove that this model can assist in leadership development.

Hersey’s research established a situational leadership model to select the appropriate leadership style for a given situation (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982). The model shows that leaders are most effective when their leadership style is matched to the needs of the follower and the present task. The concept of situational leadership was developed by Hersey into the Situational Leadership Model, which was later developed into an instrument with Kenneth Blanchard (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982). The Hersey Model included four leadership styles: high task and low relationship (S1), high task and high relationship (S2), high relationship and low task (S3) and low relationship and low task (S4). The styles are telling (S1), selling (S2), participating (S3), and delegating (S4). These researchers further expanded this model by analyzing style flexibility based on the leader’s ability to select the styles appropriate for the situations that confronts the leader.

Transformational leadership supports leaders who raise expectations through performance. By increasing employee confidence and role modeling, transformational leaders get optimal performance out of followers (Bass, 1990). Transformational leaders advance new forms of culture by using charismatic leadership, individual consideration, and intellectual stimulation. Transformational leaders explain, legitimize, and rationalize activities for employees (Barge, Downs, & Johnson, 1989).

Women’s Leadership

Research indicates that women college presidents are recognized as transformational leaders who share power and information, encourage participation,

enhance employee's self-worth, and motivate employees to become excited about working (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989; Jablonski, 1996). Transformational leaders use four leadership strategies: "(a) attention through vision, (b) achieving meaning through communication, (c) gaining trust through positioning, and (d) gaining recognition or attention through positive self regard" (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989, p. 11). In addition, transformational leaders create a mutual bond within the members of the community, set an example, and create a common vision. Liberty, justice, and equality are values that transformational leaders want to use to raise employee moral and motivational levels, while developing and introducing new forms of culture. "Leaders are transformed and engaged with others in such a way that leaders and followers raised one another to higher levels of motivation and morality" (Burns, 1978, p. 20).

Charismatic leaders exude self-confidence, self-esteem, and self-determination. Women administrators believe and strongly foster a changing working environment, skill development and employee promotions. Some research suggests that transformational leaders have evolved to demonstrate innovative and motivational leadership (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989). This type of leader emerges during stressful times, when change is rapid and goals and structure are unclear.

As research on women's leadership evolved, women's perspective on the college presidency continued to be a focus. Brown, Van Ummersen, & Phair (2001) reported eleven keys to success for women presidents pertaining to gender, mentoring, cultivating a relationship with the board and other elements of women's leadership. This report, provided by the American Council on Education (ACE), emphasized the importance of developing the skills and competencies necessary to meet the growing needs of the community, culture, educational and political climate in order to be a successful president.

College Presidents

The research reviewed discussed leadership and gender pertaining to women college presidents (Birnbaum, 1992; Brown, Van Ummersen, & Hill, 2002; Jablonski, 1996; McDade, 1997), developmental paths of African-American women college

presidents (Thompson-Jones, 1992), characteristics (Arnold, 1994), cognitive leadership frames (Tobe, 1999), career paths (Brine, 1988; Tobe, 1999; Roubanis, 2000, Wessel & Keim 2000), and mentoring (Young, 1993). Corrigan (2002) stated that 27% of public and private community colleges have the highest frequency of being led by women. Corrigan also found that 24% of women were hired as new presidents. Although statistically the number of women holding presidencies more than doubled from 1986 to 2002, women continue to remain disproportionately underrepresented in administrative and policy-making positions (ACE, Corrigan, 2002). Corrigan found that diversity in college presidencies mirrors national trends in leadership diversity; the presence of racial and ethnic minorities as college and university presidents increased from eight percent in 1986 to thirteen percent in 2001 (Corrigan, 2002). The study also showed that a majority of the minority presidents selected would be women.

Jablonski (1996) examined leadership and gender of seven women college presidents by their perceived leadership styles. The practical experiences of women academic leaders, traditional leadership literature, alternative models of leadership, and human issues in the academy influenced the framework for her study. Furthermore, researchers organized leadership into power or influence theories, trait theory, behavioral models, contingency factors, cultural symbols, and organizational constructs (Bass, 1990; Bensimon, Neumann & Birnbaum, 1989). Power and influence theories view leadership as the amount of power the leader has and how that power is exercised over subordinates. Trait theories identify the personal characteristics that assist leaders as they serve in leadership positions. Behavioral models examine management roles and activities that reflect what the leader does. Contingency factors place importance on the task and situation. The leaders influence over beliefs and values is displayed in cultural symbols. Research on organization constructs focus on the relationship between leaders and followers and how leaders influence followers.

McDade (1997) stated that presidents are responsible for serving as leaders of the entire institutional community. Presidents are leaders who develop goals and vision for the institution. One example of presidents serving as role models and mentors is demonstrated when they encourage employees to participate in professional development programs. Her research indicates that professional development programs increase

knowledge of professional networks and possible promotional opportunities. Further research findings suggest that African-American women administrators increase their self-confidence, professional network, and access to senior administrative positions when professional networks/mentors expand, thus developing future leaders (Lewis & McDade, 1995; McDade, 1997). Professional development programs create a culture of leadership that empowers not only the participants but also the institutional community.

Brine (1988) studied the reasons the career patterns of women administrators led them into roles as deans and presidents in the Massachusetts Community College System. The study found that very few have mentors, in the traditional sense, and that they obtained their positions because of their personal and professional qualities. Family strongly influences their self-concept, as well as networks, training programs, and role models. This research further supports the influence of mentors. In this research, non-traditional mentors were found networks and the community.

African-American College Presidents

Thompson-Jones (1992) studied the developmental paths of African-American women college presidents. This research provided information on their cognitive attributes, pre-professional leadership-developing activities, life experiences, and leadership approach. Thompson-Jones' (1992) research found that women role models and a supportive family environment assists African-American women in their achievement and service. Moreover, this research found that the African-American women college presidents participated in structured extracurricular and community activities as children and adolescents. According to Thompson-Jones (1992), African-American women college presidents grew up portraying extraverted characteristics. They learned about organizations and the roles of leaders through community activity and service that started at an early age by observing working women in their family. Her research suggests that role models, mentors, and the community stimulate African-American women college presidents at an early age. This observation assists in portraying African-American women college presidents as charismatic and transformational leaders.

Arnold (1994) examined the variables which influenced the success of black women college presidents and chief executive officers. The study was designed to

identify important personal and professional characteristics of presidents. These characteristics include personal traits, educational background, and personal experiences. The research participants, black women college presidents, shared the personal characteristics of age range, education, and family background. The participants were over forty, born in the southern region, and were married with one or two children. The participants graduated from a predominantly black public high school, a predominantly white undergraduate school, and predominantly white graduate school completing a doctoral degree. A majority of the participants were the youngest child or only-born. Many participants indicated that their mother was most instrumental to their success. Affirmative Action was not an instrumental cause of their career advancement. To be black and female positively affected their career progress. The study also found the financial stability of the institution improved under their leadership. Arnold (1994) stated that the black women college president's success did not lie in her professional accomplishments but in her inner characteristics such as purpose, optimism, self-confidence, determination, concern for community, strength, and decisiveness. Moreover, these findings also suggested that African-American women college president's portray characteristics found in transformational leaders.

Cognitive leadership skills have been linked to college president success (Tobe, 1999). Tobe (1999) studied the development of cognitive leadership skills among African-American female college presidents. The study provided findings on how African-American college and university presidents developed leadership skills. Tobe used interviews, curriculum vitae, and the Bolman and Deal Leadership Self Questionnaire. In this research, presidents developed leadership skills by participating in activities, work experiences, and formal leadership development programs but there was little or no formal training by the participants or institutions to become presidents. The study also found that a career path related to leadership development in higher education administration assisted in preparing a participant for the presidency. The participants increased their network by joining professional organizations and mentors were used for advice and recommendations. The aforementioned experiences assisted in the preparation of African-American women administrators for college presidencies. By incorporating

networking and mentors into their experiences as administrators, this helped their progress to become presidents.

Young (1993) examined the role of mentoring in the attainment of the college presidency among Historically Black College and University presidents. Only one African-American woman out of the eleven African-American presidents who participated in the study reported she had not had a mentor. This participant stated that there were African-American and white men and women who significantly influenced her life, but she would not identify them as mentors but rather influencers. For the other eleven participants, mentors were important in obtaining a presidency.

Community College Presidencies

Leadership has been defined as “holding the goals of the institution in one hand and the people of the institution in the other and somehow bringing these two together in a common good” (Hockaday and Puyear, 2000, p. 3). African-American women college presidents are more likely to hold presidencies at community colleges (two-year institutions) than other types of colleges (Weisman & Vaughan, 2002). The community has played such a significant role in educating and grooming African-American women administrators (Berry, 1982; King, 1999), that the connection to community colleges should be anticipated. Research states the importance of minority presidents as the number of minority students increases at community colleges (Vaughan, 1986).

Vaughan (1986) researched the black community college presidency to understand the issues and opportunities experienced by black presidents. His research suggests that some governing boards view blacks as leading predominantly black, urban colleges and universities but not predominantly white, suburban colleges and universities. Participants stated that some college communities perceive that predominantly white institutions are not ready for a black president, due to institutional fit. Although this perception is related to the experiences of blacks interviewing for a community college presidency, this research found that it is particularly relevant for blacks interviewing at all predominantly white institutions.

According to Vaughan's (1986) research, 86% of the 26 participating presidents stated that they had role models who influenced their career, and 36% had mentors.

Twelve participants had black role models. "Blacks seem to have a special obligation to serve as role models and mentors to other blacks until that time when blacks are represented at the presidential level in a suitable fashion" (Vaughan, 1996, p. 23). These findings suggest that mentors are vital for African-American presidents, male and female, to progress in administration. More importantly, African-American presidents feel obligated to serve as mentors and role models for other African-Americans interested in preparing for a community college presidency.

Vaughan and Weisman (1997) examined the characteristics of trustees and presidents as related to gender, ethnicity, age, political party preference, and educational level. In 1997, of 680 community college presidents, 5.2% and 18% were women. It is important to note that community college presidents often teach to fulfill their professional role. Teaching helps broaden their understanding of the community and students. According to Vaughan and Weisman (1997), successful presidents, especially in the community college, exhibit sound judgment, personal adaptability, and role flexibility.

A theoretical approach is a significant step in analyzing roles in leadership. Miller and Vaughan (1997) suggested a theoretical model to analyze African-American females in roles of leadership within higher education. This model reviewed family and community, informal and formal professional networks, and the workplace as levels within the model. All levels were interactive and interconnected. Their research indicates that in the African-American community, family is one of the strongest forces. In addition, religion, culture, racial identity, rituals, beliefs, and values are specific dynamics of the family and community. A sense of self and identity are also developed in this social and cultural environment.

Career Trajectory

The career trajectory of a college president within higher education was studied by Wessel and Keim, 1994; Kane, 1997; Roubanis, 2000; and Waring, 2004. The research of Wessel and Keim (1994) determined the career trajectory of male and female college presidents at private, doctoral granting institutions, comprehensive universities and colleges, and liberal arts colleges in the United States. Through a stratified random

sample of the population, 291 presidents were identified and surveyed, but only 270 responses were used. A work history of each president was reviewed. Research confirmed that academic and administrative routes to the presidency exist. Wessel and Keim (1994) found the following:

Sixty one percent (61%) of the college presidents entered as faculty, 13% entered as administrators, and 10% came in as a president or chancellor. Wessel and Keim's research stated that immediately before assuming the presidency, 23% of the participants served as academic vice presidents, 19% worked outside higher education, 15% served as presidents or chancellors at other institutions, 12% served as administrative vice presidents, 9% were executive vice presidents and assistants to the presidents, 7% were academic deans, and 6% served as faculty (p. 217).

In conclusion, many obtain a presidency after serving as a faculty member. According to this research, serving as a faculty member may be critical when developing a career path to the presidency.

Kane (1997) explored the career paths of Caucasian and African-American female college presidents. Kane requested her participants to complete a survey on her experiences, career mobility, background, as well as submit a vitae to determine career trajectory and educational background. She found that the career paths do not vary between two-year and four year institutions. This research confirmed that there are various points of entry for women to progress to become presidents. Women in academic affairs highly favor entry into a first presidency. Many women move into presidencies from the same type of institution, e.g. four year institution to four year institution. In this research, race was reviewed and the only significant difference found was the increased number of jobs held by black women compared to white women prior to their first presidency.

Roubanis (2000) interviewed six women community college presidents in the Raleigh-Durham metropolitan region to determine the path women take to become presidents. Roubanis requested each participant to identify and explain three critical experiences which contributed to her success in higher education. Roubanis (2000) stated, "Several primary themes were generated from the analysis units, including:

leadership opportunity (seven), school or learning experience (five), death of someone close (three), and call for justice (three)” (p. 102). Family of origin and family of creation were also identified as themes.

Leadership was the most common theme identified by Roubanis (2000) and the women participants were identified as leaders or the participants saw themselves as leaders. The participants did not indicate that presidency was their initial career goal. “For most of the participants, the idea of assuming an academic presidency occurred fairly late in their careers” (Roubanis, 2000, p. 125). Academic tract, academic support agency and the presidency were identified as the participant’s first important exposure to upper administration. Four of the women participants identified having a mentor who served as president. In conclusion, Roubanis recommended that women aspiring to become presidents should have a good mentor and pursue opportunities to enhance leadership and decision making skills.

Waring (2004) researched career paths for women of color in higher education administration. This research included six women community college presidents. Participants confirmed that community colleges were open to having them serve as president and they wanted to see the students who attend community colleges (e.g. minority, under prepared, vocationally-oriented, etc.) succeed. Teaching experience at a community college was prevalent. More importantly they were selected and groomed by deans and presidents while navigating the administrative maze. Only one participant followed an academic path while others worked as administrators or for nonprofit educational organizations.

Based on the various career opportunities and exposure, many presidents were noticed because of their success in earlier positions. Presidents identified the talent of each and encouraged them to further develop administrative skills through professional internships. Parent(s), guardians, and more specifically, mothers were named as personal mentors by the participants. In conclusion, community colleges have provided many opportunities for women of color to become successful presidents compared to the opportunities presented at four year institutions.

Amey et al. (2002) researched the career paths of community college administrators. In this research, 42% of chief academic officers (CAOs) and 27% of

presidents were women. This research also stated that participants were hired into the presidency (22%) and CAO position (52%) from within their present institutions. The degrees held were also documented in the research.

Mentors

The concept of mentoring is documented as being important within higher education research and literature (Allen, Jacobson, & Lomotey, 1995; Anderson & Ramey, 1998). Allen, Jacobson, and Lomotey (1995) defined a mentor as “providing counsel and moral support for an aspiring administrator” (p. 410). Anderson and Ramey (1998) defined a mentor as “a person who led, guided, influenced, and advised someone more junior in experience, also known as a protégé, toward career accomplishments” (p. 184). Sponsors and role models are often referred to as mentors. “People who open doors of opportunity and employment” have been defined as sponsors (Allen, Jacobson, and Lomotey, 1995, p. 410-411). According to Anderson and Ramey (1988), role models possess the skills or qualities admired by others. Researchers reviewed suggest that mentors, role models and sponsors play important roles in the success of women administrators.

Leadership Styles

Leadership styles are defined in many ways. Before defining leadership styles, one must define style. Kippenberger (2004) defined style as “a way of behaving e.g. mannerisms such as voice tone, volume, body language, physical appearance, loyalty shown, trust, commitment, honesty, and truthfulness” (p.6). Also, Kippenberger (2004) defined leadership as “the style a leader adopts in their dealings with those who follow them” (p. 6).

Research reviewed on women’s leadership and styles (Astin & Leland, 1991; Brightharp, 1999; Cantor & Bernay, 1992; Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Overland, 1996; Ramey, 1995) supports that women are gaining positions within the upper ranks in higher education institutions. Eagly and Johnson (1990) conducted a meta-analysis on gender and leadership styles that involved an organizational assessment of leaders conducting laboratory research. The research found that women's style of leadership is interpersonal,

participatory, and democratic. Women participants were concerned with the maintenance of interpersonal relationships and task accomplishments. The leadership for women was democratic or participatory, aimed at understanding others' feelings and intentions. Decisions were made collaboratively with peers and subordinates, preserving good relationships with all involved.

Astin and Leland's (1991) and Cantor and Bernay's (1992) books focused on the dynamics of women and leadership. Cantor and Bernay's book researched women in politics and not in other fields. The research expressed how the participant's confidence in her abilities helped her succeed in a male-dominated area. Through the research, the authors developed the following leadership equation: "Leadership = Competent self + Creative Aggression + Woman Power" (Cantor and Bernay, 1992, p. 348). Although the research did not involve women in higher education, Astin and Leland's (1991) book is a descriptive study presented to inspire further research on women's leadership, continue the fight toward equality, and help others realize how 75 women leaders realized their achievements. In this research, participants in the 1960s are identified as instigators, predecessors and inheritors. Instigators are women who influenced the modern women's movement in education and social justice. Women who held leadership positions in institutional administration in the 1940s and 1950s are identified as predecessors. The most recent women leaders are called inheritors.

A limited amount of research exists on African-Americans in administrative positions in higher education (Ramey, 1995; Overland, 1996; Brightharp, 1999). Although this research area is increasing, Ramey (1995) wrote about the obstacles faced by senior-level African-American women administrators in higher education at four-year institutions. She addressed the difficulties faced while achieving and keeping their positions. Support systems and role models/mentors were also addressed in Ramey's research. Participants commented on racial and sexual barriers. Many expressed a belief that colleagues felt that African-American women lacked certain leadership skills and had limited networking opportunities.

Brightharp (1999) studied the real and ideal leadership practices of African-American and Caucasian women in mid-level administrative positions by using the Leadership Practices Inventory by Kouzes and Posner (1997). The Leadership Practice

Inventory examined whether leadership practices differed based on the ethnicity (African-American vs. Caucasian) of administrator, whether *self-reported* leadership practices of women administrators were the same as the practices *observed* by others, and the differences between leadership practices. Brightharp (1999) utilized the participant's staff and colleagues as observers. According to Brightharp's findings, the participants (mid-level administrators) most frequently exhibited four of the five skills in the Leadership Practices Inventory. The four skills exhibited in this research included enabling others to act, followed by modeling the way, encouraging the heart, challenging the process, and inspiring a shared vision. This research found no significant differences between the African-American and Caucasian women in her leadership practices. In addition, the participants and observers agreed that the four skills were exhibited. These findings further suggest that African-American women administrators who become presidents exhibit such transformational leadership skills.

Transformational Leadership

Burns (1978) and Bass (1985) developed the concept of transformational leadership. The pioneer, Burns (1978), suggested that there are leaders and there are managers. Leaders are admired because they engage and understand employee's needs which motivate performance, whereas managers appease followers barter for their support. Transformational leaders have vision and purpose that can be beneficial socially to the educational system and to the community (Burns, 1978). Based on Burns' work, Bass (1985) expanded transformational leadership to include transactional leadership dimensions.

Kouzes and Posner (1987) further expanded transformational leadership to include "personal characteristics of leaders, e.g. challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart" (p.10). These characteristics of leaders are confirmed by working with people, not controlling employees. Mitchell and Tucker (1992) support these findings by stating that "transformational leaders are people-oriented and rather than focused on tasks and performance, they build relationships and help followers develop goals and identify strategies for their accomplishments" (p. 32).

Prior research indicates that women college presidents are recognized as transformational leaders who share power and information, encourage participation, enhance employee's self-worth, and motivate employees to become excited about working (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989; Jablonski, 1996). Lashway's (1997) review of literature concluded that effective leadership is designed to include hierarchical, transformational and facilitative strategies. Leaders who exhibit transformational leadership skills and strategies engage an employer's organizational beliefs, values, and culture.

Mind Styles Model

Dr. Anthony Gregorc developed phenomenological research in 1970, after eleven years of study on cognitive learning. Gregorc's theory suggests that individual's have specific mind styles consisting of perception and ordering. Kolb's Theory of Experiential Learning and Jung's Theory of Personalities (Gregorc, 1982) were utilized to develop the Mind Styles Model. These theories utilized extroverted versus introverted psychological types of personalities.

The dimensions of mind styles include four leadership characteristics or channels: concrete sequential (CS), abstract sequential (AS), concrete random (CR), and abstract random (AR). Concrete sequential (CS) leaders develop the necessary structure and procedures to accomplish the vision. This leader will also manipulate people, places and things to fulfill the organization's purpose. More importantly, this leader provides legal and financial foundations to make a solid operational base (Gregorc, 1982).

Abstract sequential leaders (AS) share the vision, shape the vision, and develop the plan to bring the vision to fruition. AS leaders remains the "voice of reason" (Gregorc, 1982, p. 24). while working well with other leaders. These leaders predict the future, but keep the economic view in mind. AS leaders are highly organized, logical and analytical (Gregorc, 1982).

Concrete random leaders (CR) are not discouraged when there is a lack of rules and regulations; however, they look for alternative problem solving. These leaders work independently, as well as by collaborating with others. CR leaders are intuitive, impulsive

and independent. When communicating with others, words do not convey true meaning. This leader thrives in a competitive environment (Gregorc, 1982).

Abstract random (AR) leaders are multidimensional and make decisions in the moment. This leader makes decisions based on an inner system that guides them. Relationships, memories, and the potential to achieve are all important. This leader encourages group discussion with reflective time to process decisions. AR leaders are not distracted from accomplishing a goal (Gregorc, 1982).

Critique of the Gregorc Style Delineator™

The Gregorc Style Delineator™ is a self-reporting instrument that can assess whether participants accurately report their leadership style. In order to accurately report a participant's leadership style, the participants must complete the instrument in true self, not in professional dimensions in a leadership role, or as a mother or father. It is important to know that no information was found by Gregorc to reject or support that the Gregorc Style Delineator™ is biased towards any particular ethnic group. Other than studies that research the learning styles of adults/instructors (Terry, 2002), few studies have been published using the Gregorc Style Delineator™. Interviews, observations, and administration of the instrument are used to verify the validity and reliability of the instrument. The delineator uses rank ordering word sets with compilation of scores across rows.

Research using Gregorc Style Delineator™

A minimal number of research studies have used the Gregorc Style Delineator™. A search of various databases (e.g. dissertation abstracts, etc.) resulted in identifying limited research that used the Gregorc Style Delineator™ on learning styles (Churchill, 1994; Dunn & Griggs, 2000) and community college retention (Pepe, 2001). However, no dissertations were found using women community college presidents. O'Brien (1991) studied the gender differences of college students involving styles, majors and academic levels. Gregorc (1982) encouraged researchers to use the instrument for self-assessment, not career or academic advising.

A review of literature found that leadership and leadership styles are important for administrators who wish to become college and university presidents. Leadership styles develop over time, along with various other factors (e.g. environment, path, mentors, motivation, and timing). A combination of leadership styles and models exist, but based on leadership styles, certain behaviors can influence a successful entrance into a presidency. Arnold (1994) and Kippenberger (2004) found that leadership styles and personal characteristics positively contribute to effective attainment of a college presidency. Although multiple studies have researched various aspects of women college presidents (Arnold, 1994; Eddy, 2003; McDade, 1997; Thompson-Jones, 1992) using leadership models and instruments (Jablonski, 1996; Tobe, 1999), no studies were found which explore leadership styles of male or female community college presidents, using the Gregorc Style Delineator™. This study focuses on the “mind styles” or leadership styles used by current female community college presidents, along with other factors influencing their presidencies. The self-reported frequencies of women community college presidents and information on the participant information sheet provide information on the type of administrator attracted and recruited to be president of a community college.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to identify the leadership styles, effectiveness and other factors of career path, and length of time from completion of terminal degree to presidency which characterize the road to becoming a female community college president. The variables, research questions, sample, methods of data collection, instrument and data analysis are described in this chapter.

The participant information sheet was used to obtain demographic information (race, number of years in presidency, public/private institution, rural/urban, union/non-union, size of student population, etc.) to address questions about her desire to become president, effectiveness as a president, and the significant events that influenced the participant to become a community college president. Descriptive statistics were used to address the preferred leadership styles. Contingency tables described the value obtained from the Gregorc Style Delineator™ (Gregorc, 1982), path of promotion, and length of time.

Variables

The researcher used the Gregorc Style Delineator™ (Gregorc, 1982) to determine the styles of women community college presidents as they relate to leadership. Style, known as mind style, was measured by the Gregorc Style Delineator™. The constructs, known as styles, were displayed as Concrete Random (CR), Concrete Sequential (CS), Abstract Sequential (AS), and Abstract Random (AR). Many combinations of channels are displayed through characteristics called styles. Individuals work best by using one or two channels (Gregorc, 1982).

Path of Promotion was identified as the route taken prior to presidency. The path of promotion variables were defined as follows:

- PP1 represents an academic insider, i.e. a participant who worked at some other two-year institution before becoming president of their present institution
- PP2 represents an institution insider, i.e. a participant who worked at the same two-year institution before becoming its president.

- O1 represents an outsider, a participant who worked at a 4-year institution, business or government agency.
- A represents an academic, or a participant who served as a professor or resident instructor at the same or some other college prior to the presidency.
- AD represents a participant who served as an academic administrator, such as a Vice President, Vice Provost, Provost, Chair, prior to their presidency.

Many combinations (e.g. insider/academic, insider/administrative, outsider/academic, outsider/administrative) existed in the path of promotion, depending on the community college president. Path of promotion was validated by the researcher's review of the president's vitae/resumé. After reviewing the resumé, the researcher contacted the participant via telephone if discrepancies were found due to the participant misreading the request or the participant not listing all jobs and titles on the resumé. Path of promotion was the independent variable in the fourth research question.

Length of time was identified as time taken from completion of degree to presidency. The length of time was defined as LT1 (1-5 years), LT2 (6-10 years), LT3 (11-15 years), or LT4 (16-20+ years). The researcher reviewed the participant's resumé to validate the length of time. Again, the researcher contacted the president by telephone or e-mail to correct length of time discrepancies between the resumé and the information sheet. Length of time was the dependent variable in the fourth research question.

Effectiveness was defined as the accomplishments achieved by the participant as president. Questions pertaining to effectiveness were developed during the one-on-one interviews with three presidents in the Mid-West. Based on the themes developed from the one-on-one interviews, three questions were placed on the Participant Information Sheet, as described below.

The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What are the preferred leadership styles demonstrated by women community college presidents?
2. What is a woman community college president's path of promotion?
3. What is a woman community college president's length of time from terminal/last degree to presidency?

4. Does a woman community college president's length of time from terminal/last degree differ by path of promotion?
5. What are the ways women community college presidents identify effectiveness?

This chapter describes the design of the study, including the sample, data collection procedure, instrumentation, and data analysis.

Population

The population was identified by using the American Association of Community College (AACC) Membership Directory (2005) and that of the National Institute of Leadership Development (NILD). NILD provides opportunities for men and women in higher education to develop leadership skills. The AACC membership directory includes the name of the community colleges, addresses, telephone numbers, president's name, and electronic mail (e-mail) addresses. Comparing the NILD and the AACC directories and eliminating overlap showed that there were 270 potential participants. Before mailing, the researcher adjusted the database base to reflect retirements, presidential departures, and non-academic institutions, which left 259 participants.

Data Collection Procedure

A mixed-methods research design was proposed. "A mixed-methods research design is a procedure for collecting and analyzing and 'mixing' both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study to understand a research problem" (Creswell, 2005, p. 510). This research provides a clear understanding of the research problem presented by using both research methods, versus using one individually (Creswell, 2005; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003).

Prior to data collection, the researcher requested and received permission from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of Virginia Tech in order to comply with the university's policies governing research on human subjects. The review ensured ethical conduct of research and limited the risk of participant exposure. The researcher received permission from Dr. Anthony Gregorc to use the Gregorc Style Delineator™ (Gregorc, 1982) in this research. The data were collected by fax and U.S. mail. The data collection consisted of a pre-postcard and packet distribution through the United States Postal

Service. Follow-up phone calls and e-mails were made to randomly selected non-respondents two weeks after the packet was distributed. This was designed in an effort to ensure maximum participation.

One-on-One Interviews

The researcher began the data collection process by interviewing three women community college presidents one-on-one. The three women community presidents were interviewed in a Mid-Western state. The women community college presidents were asked the following three questions, and all interviews were taped and transcribed by the researcher (Appendix F).

1. How do you measure effectiveness as a community college president?
2. The community college president is faced with a major budget cut from the state. In your opinion, what is the most effective leadership style for the community college president to display when she must allocate scarce resources?
3. The community college president wants the community college to reach out to more students in geographically isolated regions or be a player or partner to the local K-12 schools. In your opinion, what is the most effective leadership style for the community college president to display in order to develop outreach collaborations?

The researcher transcribed the interviews and reviewed each for consistent themes. The researcher determined that effectiveness would be measured by examining the top two responses given by the presidents on the three questions asked on the Participant Information Sheet. The themes determined by the researcher were added to the Participant Information Sheet (Appendix D) as possible responses for the women community college presidents. Each participant selected the top two responses to each question. The researcher also added a question that would give each president the opportunity to give three significant events that influenced her to become a community college president.

Pre-Postcard

One week before the survey mailing, a pre-postcard was mailed to the sample from the researcher. The postcard (Appendix A) introduced the research, alerting the

president that the survey packet would be arriving within a week, and requesting their assistance and participation in the study.

Initial Mailing

The survey mailing began October 12, 2005. The invitation packet included initial letters of invitation from Dr. Belle Wheelan, President of the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools Commission on Colleges (SACSCOC) and past president of Northern Virginia Community College (Appendix C), and from the researcher (Appendix B). In addition, the invitation packet included the Participant Information Sheet (Appendix D), Consent Form (Appendix B) and the Gregorc Style Delineator™.

E-mail and Phone Follow up

A week after the president received the packet, the researcher followed up by telephone or e-mail with randomly-selected tenth of assistants or administrative assistants to the presidents. The follow-up communication served as a reminder to complete the survey and confirm participation. The majority of respondents of color reported that such request were often made and denied due to the volume received and limited time available for the president to respond. Others reported that they were busy, out of the office or could not participate at the present time due to scheduling demands.

Instrumentation

The Gregorc Style Delineator™ (Gregorc, 1982) is a self-scoring and reporting instrument using word matrices scored to obtain the four mind styles. This instrument, which can be completed in approximately five minutes, provides immediate feedback to the participants. Concrete Random (CR), Concrete Sequential (CS), Abstract Sequential (AS), and Abstract Random (AR) scores are totaled to receive the styles. There are ten categories of descriptive words, ranked by the participants. The highest ranking, “4”, is for word(s) the participant used to best describe herself and “1” is the ranking for word(s) the participants would use that least describe her. In this instrument, the highest score indicates the preferred mind style. The instructions stated that it is possible to have numerous preferred styles. The style characteristics are listed on the back of the Gregorc Style Delineator™. Additional information on the instrument and Dr. Gregorc can be found at <http://www.gregorc.com/>.

Reliability and validity were completed on the Gregorc Style Delineator™ (1982). A test-retest correlation coefficient completed reliability on 110 adults on two occasions. The interviews conducted by Gregorc confirmed that many of the descriptions were accurate. The standardized alpha coefficients were as follows: 0.92 and 0.92 for the Concrete Sequential scale; 0.89 and 0.92 for the Abstract Sequential scale; 0.93 and 0.92 for the Abstract Random scale; and 0.91 and 0.91 for the concrete Random scale (Gregorc, 1982). Correlation coefficients between the first and second tests were as follows: 0.85 for the Concrete Sequential scale; 0.87 for the Abstract Sequential scale; 0.88 for the Abstract Random scale and 0.87 for the Concrete Random scale (Gregorc, 1982). A strong score ranging from 0.89 to 0.93 indicates high reliability.

The validity of the instrument was conducted through correlations between the instrument's scores and ratings of attributes. The Gregorc Style Delineator™ scores and the attribute scores correlated as follows: 0.68 and 0.70 for the Concrete Sequential scale; Abstract Sequential scale of 0.68 and 0.76; 0.61 and 0.60 for the Abstract Random scale; and the Concrete Random scale was 0.55 and 0.68 (Gregorc, 1982). Any score above 0.55 was considered high validity.

On a different occasion, 475 participants took the Gregorc Style Delineator™ and rated the results on a likert scale from one to five. The scale was labeled as follows: Strongly Agree (1), Agree (2), Unsure (3), Disagree (4), and Strongly Disagree (5). The research results indicated 31% strongly agreed with the description of the Delineator, 58% agreed, 10% were unsure, and 1% disagreed either partly or strongly with the delineator.

High	27-40 points
Intermediate	16-26 points
Low	10-15 points

The scoring range for the Gregorc Style Delineator™ (Gregorc, p.7) is indicated in the chart above. Due to the execution and reliability of this instrument, it will serve as a valid and reliable instrument for this study.

Data Analysis

Each question's data was collected by using a relevant method of collection as indicated in the chart below.

Question	Data Collection Procedure
1. What are the preferred leadership styles demonstrated by women community college presidents?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ●Gregorc Style Delineator ●Participant Information Sheet
2. What is a woman community college president's path of promotion?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ●Gregorc Style Delineator ●Participant Information Sheet
3. What is a woman community college president's length of time from terminal/last degree to presidency?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ●Participant Information Sheet ●Vitae/resumé
4. Does a woman community college president's length of time from terminal/last degree differ by path of promotion?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ●Participant Information Sheet ●Vitae/resumé
5. What are the ways women community college presidents identify effectiveness?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ●Participant Information Sheet ●Vitae/resumé

The participant information sheet and consent form were returned to the researcher by fax or mail. The vitae/resumé was received by the researcher by fax or e-mail. To protect the anonymity of the participants, pseudonyms were used for all information that could be verifiable. The participant, as a token of appreciation for involvement in the research, kept the instrument and explanation of the style characteristics.

The researcher hand-scored the Participant Information Sheet and analyzed the data. Information pertaining to the highest degree earned, path of promotion, and length of time from terminal degree/last degree earned to presidency and age was documented by reviewing the vitae/resumés. After reviewing the resumé, the researcher noted the significant positions held prior to the presidency and documented them as academic (serving as a professor or resident instructor) or academic administrative (serving in academic administration as Chief Academic Officer, Provost, Chair, etc.). The researcher further documented the positions to reflect non-academic administrative positions (Chief

Student Affairs Officer, Dean of Students, etc.). The three significant events that influenced the participant to become a community college president were recorded by the researcher.

Data analysis followed Bailey's (1982) method, as described here. A measure of association is determined when a statistically significant relationship between two variables is found; the strength of the relationship needs to be measured (Bailey, 1982). Variables in this research were defined as nominal. "Nominal is a discrete non-numerical category such as male or female" (Bailey, 1982, p. 128). A contingency table and descriptive statistics were used to describe the statistical value obtained from the Gregorc Style Delineator™, path of promotion, and length of time. Frequency was used to address all research questions presented. In addition, the researcher coded the three questions including effectiveness, budget, and outreach on the Participant Information Sheet to determine the common words/themes selected by the participants. "System for organizing and managing data...Coding is nothing more than assigning some sort of shorthand designation to various aspects of your data so that you can easily retrieve specific pieces of the data" (Bailey, 1982, p. 164). Coding the data from the Participant Information Sheet resulted in specific categories and developed the following themes concerning effectiveness, e.g. goals, outreach, relationships, student success, and communication.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to identify the leadership styles, effectiveness and other factors of career path, and length of time from completion of terminal degree to presidency that identified the road to becoming a female community college president. This chapter summarizes the sample and data collected. The demographic data was collected from the Participant Information Sheet. The research questions were used as a guide in the study. The study is guided by the following research questions:

1. What are the preferred leadership styles displayed by women community college presidents?
2. What is a woman community college president's path of promotion?
3. What is a woman community college president's length of time from terminal/last degree to presidency?
4. Does a woman community college president's length of time from terminal/last degree differ by path of promotion?
5. What are the ways women community college presidents identify effectiveness?

Sample

The population consisted of 259 women community college presidents, with 53 participating (20%). The race of the participants is shown in Table 1. The majority of respondents reported that such requests were often made and denied due to the volume received and limited time available for the president to respond, due to scheduling demands or being out of the office. The data of the presidents of color were not statistically analyzed but was reported. The qualitative description of the presidents of color is provided in Appendix I. The timeline of each participant, including (when provided on the vitae/resumé) entry date into a professional position in higher education (e.g. professor, administrator) year terminal/highest degree was received, and the year selected for the presidency in Appendix H and Appendix I. The response rate from this

research can not be generalized. These descriptive statistics are of the participants who responded to this research.

Table 1 *Race of the Sample (N=53)*

Race	n	%N
Caucasian	44	83%
Hispanic/Latino/Hispanic/Asian	6	11%
Native American	1	2%
African American	1	2%
Other	1	2%

The highest academic degree received by the participants is shown in Table 2. The data indicated 87% held a Ph.D., Ed.D. or J.D. as a terminal degree. One participant had two terminal degrees (a Ph.D. and J.D.).

Table 2 *Highest Degree Held by Participants (N=53)*

Terminal Degree	n	%N
Ph.D.	28	53%
Ed.D.	17	32%
J.D.	1	2%
Masters	7	13%

Note: Four (4) received their Ph.D./Ed.D. while serving as president.

The findings indicated that 66% of the participants were in their first presidency and 34% of the participants were in a second presidency. Before securing a presidency, nine (9) of the participants served as interim or acting president at a community college. One participant held a presidency at a four year institution prior to the community college presidency.

Table 3 *Number of Presidencies Held by Participants (N=53)*

	n	%N
First Presidency	35*	66%
Second Presidency	18	34%

Note: *Nine (9) served as interim/acting president before securing a presidency

Was A Presidency An Articulated Goal?

The majority of the participants did have an articulated goal to become a community college president (Table 4). Four (4) women of color had an articulated goal to become a community college president. Five (5) of the women of color community college presidents did not have an articulated goal to become president.

Table 4 *Was it an Articulated Goal to Become a Community College President? (N=53)*

Race	Yes	No
Caucasian	39	5
Hispanic/Latino and Asian	4	2
Native American	0	1
African American	0	1
Other	0	1

The findings indicated that of the 43 who articulated a goal, 20 (38%) identified the goal during the first administrative position held, prior to their presidency (Table 5). The women of color participants who had an articulated goal to become a community college president when the terminal degree was completed and when she saw the job announcement. Five (5) women of color did not have the goal to become a community college president.

Table 5 *When was the Goal to Become a Community College President Articulated?*
(N=43)

Description of when the goal was articulated	n
When I was contacted by a search committee/firm and/or nominated to submit credentials/materials	6
When I saw the job announcement	3
When I finished the terminal degree	5
Prior to receiving the terminal degree	10
During the first administrative position, prior to the presidency	12
When I was serving as a Vice President	2
Other:	
1. When another president suggested it to me	
2. Prior to receiving a masters and prior to enrolling in Ph.D. program (accepted) at first administration position	5
3. 25 years ago, when I first learned about community colleges	
4. During a leadership institute	
5. Faculty release time for admin. duties	

Institutional Characteristics of the Sample

Table 6 shows demographic information pertaining to the community college, e.g. location, systematic details and the size of the student population. All participants were presidents of public community colleges. Participants were from 15 non-union affiliated institutions in urban settings. Fifteen of the institutions were within a community college system and eight (8) were local district colleges.

Table 6 *Institutional Characteristics of the Community Colleges (N=53)*

	N
Characteristics	
Public	53
Private	0
Union	13
Non-Union	15
Non-Responders	25
Urban	13
Rural	12
Non-Responders	28
Local District College	9
CC System Authority	15
Non-Responders	29
Size of Student	
Population	
Less than 1,000	9
1,000-3,000	11
3,001-5,000	10
5,001-7,000	2
7,000+	21

Research Questions

Research Question One: What are the preferred leadership styles demonstrated by women community college presidents?

As shown in Table 7, Concrete Random was the preferred mind style of the participants, followed by Concrete Sequential. These findings can also be viewed in the participant's timelines in Appendix H and I. Four participants did not place scores on the Participant Information Sheet. Concrete Random (CR) was the preferred leadership style for 45% of the participants. Twenty three percent (23%) of the participants selected Concrete Sequential (CS) as the second preferred leadership style.

Gregorc (1982) stated that "Concrete Random participants view the 'now' which contains the sum total of the past, the interactive present, and the seed of the future" (p. 35). The thinking process for a CR emphasizes impulse and perception and the responses are quick, insightful, and critical to the matters at hand. Concrete Random scorers are change agents, but they need individual space. "Most CR's are natural leaders and can thus become impatient and/or frustrated if not placed or working in a leadership-type position" (Gregorc, 1982, p. 36). Competitive with dramatic expression and colorful speaking will often describe the Concrete Random style in a leader. The negative aspect of the Concrete Random leadership style can result in participants exhibiting merciless behavior, not keeping promises, quick decision making, not accepting "don't" and "can't" (Gregorc, 1982, p. 37). Other common descriptions of CR leaders are: outgoing, curious, multitasking, charismatic, leaders not followers, and purposeful multiple-career movers.

Concrete Sequential (CS) leaders are clear thinkers who believe that there is a beginning and end. These thinkers are deliberate, intuitive, influencers, and have a "photographic memory," (Gregorc, 1982, p. 19). CS leaders are detail-oriented, organized, fact-oriented, instinctive and reproductive in thoughts, products and ideas. Talents allow the CS leader to reorganize programs, businesses, and people for maximum benefit, but they are not easily adaptable and can be adverse to change. Other common descriptions of CS leaders are: as solid as a rock, stabilizer, calm, cool, patient, steady, loyal, tenacious, and expects recognition for a job well done (Gregorc, 1982). On the negative side, CS leaders can be inflexible, unforgiving and unsympathetic, expecting

things to run like a fine tuned engine. At home and work, high standards or perfect performance are expected.

CR and CS leaders hold some attributes in common, as influencers and visionaries with can-do attitudes. These are attributes confirmed by the leadership definitions (Bass, 1990; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Gardner, 1990; Michner, DeLamater, & Schwartz, 1990; Stodgill, 1974) as displayed by the women community college presidents in this study. Bass (1990) confirmed that many of the attributes mentioned above are displayed in the behavior of leaders. However, these attributes of CR and CS can be a detriment to leadership style where flexibility is needed. The awareness of this limitation can help a leader recognize this style and modify behavior.

This research supports previous studies on leadership as being behavioral (Bass, 1990; Kouzes & Posner, 1987; Sergiovanni, 1984). A successful leader influences, controls, and sets the behavior of the group members to achieve goals (Bass, 1990; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Gardner, 1990; Michner, DeLamater, & Schwartz, 1990; Stodgill, 1974).

This research also supports the literature related to women's leadership. Prior research indicates that women college presidents are recognized as transformational leaders who share power and information, encourage participation, enhance employees' self-worth, and motivate employees to become excited about working (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989; Jablonski, 1996; Kouzes & Posner, 1987). The results of this research provided documentation that a women community college presidents surveyed were multitasking visionaries and motivators who inspired coworkers to do their best and to achieve all goals set for the institution. These are recognized as attributes and skills displayed in Concrete Random and Concrete Sequential styles.

Studies related to the women's perspective on presidency continue to evolve as evident in The American Council on Education's study (Brown, Van Ummersen, & Phair, 2001). A successful president should develop the skills and competencies necessary to meet the growing needs of the community and culture, as well as the educational and political climate. Concrete Random and Concrete Sequential styles and pathways described the leadership styles present among the women community college

president respondents. These skills also support transformational leadership. However, a leader with dominate abstract style may also succeed as a president. For this study, 7 or 13% of the presidents were most comfortable with Abstract Sequential or Abstract Random. When the situation demands a concrete style, most leaders can adjust (Gregorc 1982).

Table 7 *Preferred Mind Style (N=53)*

Preferred Mind Style	Frequency n	Frequency %
Concrete Random	24	45%
Concrete Sequential	12	23%
Abstract Random	2	4%
Abstract Sequential	5	9%
Concrete Sequential /Concrete Random	5	9%
Abstract Random /Concrete Random	1	2%
Did not transfer scores	4	8%

Table 8 *Preferred Mind Style by Path of Promotion (N=53)*

Preferred Mind Style Score	Path of Promotion			Frequency
	PP1	PP2	O1	n
CR	17	2	5	24
CS	10	0	2	12
AR	1	0	1	2
AS	4	1	0	5
CS/CR	2	3	0	5

AR/CR	0	0	1	1
Did not transfer scores	1	0	3	4

Note: Path of promotion was coded as Insider 1 (already in academia, PP1), Outsider (O1), or Insider 2 (already at the same college, PP2). Styles were displayed as Concrete Random (CR), Concrete Sequential (CS), Abstract Sequential (AS), and Abstract Random (AR).

Research Question Two: What is a woman community college president's path of promotion?

To investigate the path of promotion for the participants, the researcher recorded the path of promotion based on the president's resumé. The path of promotion was coded as Insider 1 (already in academia, PP1), Outsider (O1) and Insider 2 (already in the same college/system, PP2).

Seventy-five percent (75%) of the participants were insiders who worked within academia, either at some other a two-year institution (PP1, 64%) or at the same two-year institution (PP2, 11%), prior to their presidency (Table 8). Six participants had worked at the same college or community college system before becoming president. One hundred percent (100%) of the participants served as administrators (Chief Academic Officer, Provost, Chair, Chief Student Affairs Officer, Dean of Students, etc.) prior to becoming a community college president.

Only twenty-five percent (25%) worked outside of the two-year system prior to becoming presidents. Those who worked inside the community college institution/system had a more direct and shorter path to the presidency. These results supported the finding by Wessel and Keim (1994) and Kane (1997) which confirmed administrative routes existed to the presidency, and positions in academic affairs are highly favored for entry into a college presidency. In addition, women moved into presidencies from the same type of institution where they worked. Although studies by Wessel and Keim (1994) and Kane (1997) did not specifically research community college presidents, their findings on upward mobility within the same type of institution were supported in this research.

This is evident by the number of women serving as presidents at community colleges versus four-year institutions (Corrigan, 2002). Based on the number of

participants in this study, 81% had an articulated goal to become a community college president, which supported the career path revealed by women participants in the Roubanis' (2000) study and in Table 9. The findings of this research also speak to the ability for women to have long, successful careers at an institution or within a system that supports upward mobility and the grooming of women leaders. Eight (8) presidents of color worked at a two-year institution prior to the presidency and one (1) was an outsider. Two community college presidents of color had served in two presidencies, but seven (7) of the participants were in their first presidency.

Table 9 *Path to the Presidency (N=53)*

Path of Promotion	Frequency n	
		Frequency %
PP1 (Insider from another 2-year college)	34	64%
PP2 (Insider at the same college/system)	6	11%
O1(Outsider)	13	25%

Research Question Three: What is a woman community college president's length of time from terminal/last degree to presidency?

The length of time from receiving the terminal degree until the first presidency was coded as indicated in Table 10. Forty percent (40%) of the participants received their first presidency between the first and fifth year after receiving a terminal degree or last degree, i.e. Ph.D., Ed.D., J.D., M.A., or M.S. In addition, four (4) participants received a terminal degree while serving as a president. Based on the research of women who completed a terminal degree, the majority pursue a presidency within the first 5 years. Five (5) of the presidents of color received a first presidency within the first five (5) years of completing the terminal degree.

Table 10 *Length of Time from Highest Degree to First Presidency (N=53)*

	n	%N
LT1 (1-5 years)	21	40%
LT2 (6-10 years)	14	26%
LT3 (11-15 years)	4	8%
LT4 (16-20 years)	14	26%

Research Question Four: Does a woman community college president's length of time from terminal/last degree differ by path of promotion?

To define whether the length of time from terminal degree to presidential promotion related to her path of promotion, the researcher studied the relationship among certain variables.

To review, PP1 represents an academic insider (from another two-year institution), PP2 represents institution insider (from the same two-year institution/system), O1 stands for an outsider (from a 4-year institution, business or government). AD's are those presidents who previously worked in academic administration, (as Vice President, Provost, Chair, etc.) either as a PP1, PP2 or an O1. And A's are those presidents who held an academic position (professor, instructor), again as a PP1, PP2 or an O1. The lengths of time were identified as LT1 (1-5 years), LT2 (6-10 years), LT3 (11-15 years), and LT4 (16-20+ years).

All presidents, regardless of the length of time and the path of promotion, were college administrators (Table 11). As indicated in the participant's timelines in Appendix H and I, all participants worked in administrative positions prior to accepting a community college presidency. However, those who worked within the college where they were promoted to presidency became presidents, on the average in 5 years.

Table 11 *Length of Time Differs by Path of Promotion*

Length of Time	Path of Promotion		
	PP1	PP2	O1
LT1 (1-5 years)	10	3	2
LT2 (6-10 years)	12	2	2
LT3 (11-15 years)	5	1	0
LT4 (16-20+ years)	8	0	8

Research Question Five: What are the ways women community college presidents identify effectiveness?

Most respondents based their effectiveness on achieving either institutional goals and objectives (42 responses) or student success and access (35 responses) (Table 12). Student success is defined by academic achievement, in terms of grades. High student access means students have access to the educational and career resources to meet their professional and personal goals.

Table 12 *What are the ways community college presidents identify effectiveness?*

Each participant could select 2 responses (N=104)

	PP1	PP2	O1	Total (N)
Accomplishments by achieving institutional goals and objectives	27	5	10	42
Outreach to the community and students	6	1	3	10
Developing relationships with the community, students, faculty and staff	12	0	5	17
Achieving student success and student access	22	5	8	35

Note: Two (2) participants selected only one response.

Participants were asked about the most effecting leadership response to budget cuts. The largest number valued truth and honesty to faculty, staff, students, and the community (44 responses) (Table 13). Next, respondents valued clarity about institutional priorities (33 responses). Twenty-four (24) respondents preferred engagement of the faculty and staff.

The responses were measured from two subvalues and provided the basis for the top two responses for effective leadership style when a community college president is faced with budget cuts. The top two responses were truth and honesty to faculty, staff, students, and the community (44 responses), and clarity about institutional priorities (33 responses) (Table 13).

Table 13 *The community college president is faced with a major budget cut from the state. In your opinion, what is the most effective leadership style for the community college president to have/display when she must allocate scarce resources?*

Each participant could select 2 responses each. (N=101)

	PP1	PP2	O1	n
Truth and honesty to faculty, staff, students, and the community	31	5	8	44
Engagement of the faculty and staff	18	1	5	24
Clear about institutional priorities	19	5	9	33

Note: Five (5) participants selected one response.

The preferred effective leadership style needed when conducting outreach activities to the surrounding regions/schools was to articulate a clear purpose of outreach and the positive impact on the community (45 responses). In addition, 40 responses supported developing relationships by visiting communities and constituencies (Table 14).

Table 14 *The community college president wants the community college to reach out to more students in geographically isolated regions or be a player or partner to the local K-12 schools. In your opinion, what is the most effective leadership style for the community college president to have/display in order to develop outreach collaborations?*

Each participant could select 2 responses each (n=102)

	PP1	PP2	O1	n
Develop relationships by visiting communities and constituencies	26	5	9	40
Have respect for the community, service area(s), and students	4	3	2	9
Display honest communication	7	0	1	8
Ability to articulate a clear purpose of outreach and the positive impact on the community	30	4	11	45

Note: Four (4) participants selected only one response

Data was coded according to Bailey's method (Bailey, 1982). "Coding is a shorthand designation to various aspects of your data so that you can easily retrieve specific pieces of the data" (Bailey, 1982, p. 164). Results of coding the data, on the Participant Information Sheet, into specific categories have developed the following themes concerning effectiveness: goals, outreach, relationships, student success, and communication. The coding results are indicated in Table 15.

Table 15 *Effectiveness Themes*

	PP1	PP2	O1	n
<i>Effectiveness Themes</i>				
Goals				
Accomplishments by achieving institutional goals and objectives	27	5	10	42
Clear about institutional priorities	19	5	9	33

Outreach

Outreach to the community and students	6	1	3	10
Ability to articulate a clear purpose of outreach and the positive impact on the community	30	4	11	45
Have respect for the community, service area(s), and students	4	3	2	9

Relationships

Developing relationships with the community, students, faculty and staff	12	0	5	17
Engagement of the faculty and staff	18	1	5	24
Developing relationships by visiting community, service area(s) and students	26	5	9	40

Student Success

Successful outcome of student success and student access	22	5	8	35
--	----	---	---	----

Communication

Truth and honesty to faculty, staff, students and the community	31	5	8	44
Display honest communication	7	0	1	8

Effectiveness

The participants of the study identified how they measured their own effectiveness as a community college president on the participant information sheet. As indicated in this research, achieving institutional goals and objectives and the successful outcome of student success and student access were the top two ways community college presidents measured effectiveness. Fisher et al. (1988) provided the characteristics of

effective presidents, which supported strong interpersonal skills, maintaining an image that reflects appropriately on the presidency, valuing respect from others (e.g. faculty, staff, constituencies), and believing in the purpose of higher education.

Significant Events of Influence

The significant events that influenced community college presidents to achieve a presidency were compiled into four themes. As indicated in Appendix G, various events were provided, which were organized into categories of themes:

family/mentor/supervisor encouragement or support, seeing an ineffective president in the position, attending leadership programs, and completing a last/highest degree.

The theme displayed throughout the significant events of influence (Appendix G) included mentors. Respondents consistently indicated mentors, sponsors and role models as important in administration within higher education research and literature. This confirms similar findings in the research (Allen, Jacobson, & Lomotey, 1995; Anderson & Ramey, 1998). “The encouragement and support of my family,” “The encouragement of my president,” and “The encouragement of successful community college presidents and university professionals” were mentioned by many participants.

Participants also wrote about “receiving directions from a mentor... a mentor early on who saw potential for leadership... realizing the participant could do the job... being encouraged by mentors to consider the possibility,” and so on. “Strong role models and mentor input and guidance” were also mentioned by the participants. The value of mentors is strongly supported by the participants’ listing them as a significant, as indicated in Appendix G.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION and CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to identify the leadership styles, effectiveness and other factors of career path, and length of time from completion of terminal degree to presidency that identified the road to becoming a female community college president. This chapter discusses the research results and implications. Limitations are also presented in this chapter. Finally, future research possibilities are proposed which might make a further contribution to the literature.

Research Summary

This study was guided by five research questions, as presented in Chapter Four. Results from this study revealed that 45% of successful women community college presidents surveyed have the skills and attributes of a Concrete Random personality, and 23% were Concrete Sequential. All totaled, nearly 80% demonstrated concrete behavior, whether random or sequential. This suggests that women who aspire to community college presidencies should be multitasking visionaries and motivators who inspire others to achieve institution goals. These attributes and skills are displayed in Concrete Random and Concrete Sequential styles.

Studies related to the women's perspective on presidency continue to evolve as evident in The American Council on Education's study (Brown, Van Ummersen, & Phair, 2001). A successful president should develop the skills and competencies necessary to meet the growing needs of the community, culture, educational, and political climate. This research supports the above research by emphasizing the leadership styles present among the women community college presidents as indicated in Table 7.

Women leaders serving in administration at community colleges have strategically planned their career trajectory to prepare for the presidency. As found in this research and in Appendix I and J, four women received their terminal degree during their presidency, which means that the skills and abilities needed to obtain a presidency were present when the presidential opportunity became available.

All of the participants had served as administrators (Chief Academic Officer, Provost, Chair, Chief Student Affairs Officer, Dean of Students, etc.) prior to becoming a

community college president. The majority (87%) of presidents held post-masters degrees (Table 2), though four respondents completed these degrees during their presidencies. These results suggest that women aspiring to a community college presidency should target academic leadership positions first, and they should pursue a Ph.D. or an Ed.D. Based on this research, women who completed a terminal degree were more likely to pursue a presidency within the first 5 years, as shown in Table 10 and Appendices I and J. Nonetheless, 60% entered the presidency after that five-year period. This suggests that women may pursue presidencies at almost any time after holding other leadership positions in academic administration, particularly if they already hold a post-masters degree.

The results of this research support that most presidents (75%) were hired from within that community college or from another community college. Only one fourth of the presidents came from outside the community college network. This suggests that hiring boards prefer those who are familiar with the community college system and how these colleges interact with the community. They may be more familiar with the political structure of such institutions and the variety of goals and unique needs of 2-year community college student bodies.

The findings of this research also speak to the possibility of having long, successful careers at an institution or within a system that supports upward mobility and the grooming of women leaders. This is evident by the number of women serving as presidents at community colleges versus four-year institutions (Corrigan, 2002). Indications suggest that community colleges provide leadership programs within the institution or through the national organization, American Association of Community Colleges. The AACC encourages women to become presidents of community colleges and sponsors development programs, such as the Future Leaders Institute and the Future Leaders Institute Advanced. Moreover, women community college presidents appear to be welcomed by the community college environment. Women in higher education may consider positions in academic administration at community colleges when planning a career trajectory towards obtaining a community college presidency.

Research findings indicated that working in a community college system or college where mobility is possible may lead to a presidency, if success is achieved as an

administrator. Understanding the community college from within would help women administrators interested in becoming women community college presidents.

Research findings indicated that mentors are an important aspect of being an administrator when pursuing a presidency. Obtaining a mentor could assist the administrator in climbing the educational ladder. Mentors should be positioned at various levels within administration, e.g. Presidents, Directors, and Deans. Institutions of higher education will need to support mentors in order to foster an environment to develop leadership.

Research findings indicated that participants identified the goal to become a community college president during the first administrative position held, prior to their presidency. The women of color participants who had an articulated goal to become a community college president realized that goal when the job announcement was viewed and the terminal degree was completed.

Implications

The results of this study have several implications for future practice. Search committees may want to consider a candidate's leadership style and suitability for the position. Women with advanced degrees may consider the presidency as attainable after any number of years in academic administration, though many have entered the presidency within as few as five years from their degree completion. Women administrators who are concerned about gender being an issue should consider career path, administrative preparation, and educational attainment. Specifically, those interested in research involving women community college presidents will want to determine the most direct paths and preparation for the presidency.

Role models and mentors are especially important for emerging community college presidents. By the year 2050, college demographics projections have estimated that 60% of the U.S. population will consist of racial and ethnic minorities (Hobbs & Stoops, 2000). Demographic growth has also demonstrated an increase in women's enrollment to 56.3% of undergraduates; enrollment for women is more likely to continue to increase, as compared to men (National Center for Education Statistics, 2002). Zamani (2003) emphasized the multicultural aspects of community colleges: "Community

college students are among the most diverse collegiate populations in the United States” (p.12). The community college’s role in providing access and opportunity is significant in our communities. According to Phillippe and Patton (2000), African Americans consist of approximately two-fifths (47%) of students enrolled in community colleges. Based on the number of women and the diverse student population present in community colleges, the importance of role models and mentors for women are key in developing future leaders.

Future Research

Future research could involve various administrators and institutional types. Although this research was limited in the number of women community college presidents of color participating, this population is present and should be researched. Focus groups could assist in securing groups that are over-researched; more specifically, African-Americans. This research could be conducted on presidents at various types of institutions, such as four-year, research-focused, gender-specific, Historically Black Colleges and Universities and tribal institutions. Specific populations could complete this research at various conferences when audiences are captive and responsive to the research.

Future research could use the Gregorc Style Delineator™ or other leadership inventories and display results based on gender, types of institutions, geography, and the number of years as president. Also, future research on the number of presidencies held may provide information for those aiming for a community college presidency.

This research could prove helpful to leadership programs provided by professional organizations. Leadership program coordinators might use the information to develop future programs. For example, coordinators of leadership programs could have participants take the Gregorc Style Delineator™ (Gregorc, 1982) prior to attending, with results being reviewed during the leadership program. A future study could also focus on the leadership styles of presidents at single gender institutions by using the Gregorc Style Delineator™, interviews, and the Participant Information Sheet. Also, these results may assist women who have articulated a goal to become a community college president.

Conclusion

The data showed a distinct path to the presidency for women in community colleges. The combination of the results of this research may be used as a road map to improve success in the journey for a presidency. The critical elements to a presidential opportunity are as follows:

1. Academic Credentials
2. Mentoring
3. Upper Level Academic Administrative Role
4. Advanced Leadership Training
5. Timing/Positioning

Academic Credentials

This research found that 46 participants (87%) had terminal academic degrees (i.e. Ph.D., Ed.D., or J.D.) prior to becoming a community college president or while in the position of president. Those interested in becoming a president should have the academic credentials for this position. Although a few held presidencies without terminal degrees, those were the exceptions, as supported by the high percentage of participants with terminal degrees. This research also reflected the data provided by Amey et al. (2002) in their study on community college presidents; they found that their participants were more likely to hold a Ph.D. rather than an Ed.D. This same trend can be seen in the participant timelines in Appendix I and J, where 28 or 53% of college presidents held a Ph.D., while only 17 or 32% held an Ed.D. and 1 or 2% held a J.D.

Mentoring

Mentoring is an essential part in preparing for a career in higher education also in obtaining a presidency. Mentors were mentioned by 13 participants as significant in becoming a community college president. These findings are consistent with research which supported mentoring in their research by stating the importance of having a mentor for women aspiring to become presidents (Roubanis, 2000; Shults, 2001; Young, 1993). This research supports the importance of mentoring in providing an environment in which women develop leadership skills.

Upper Level Administrative Role

Obtaining an upper level administrative role is one of the critical elements of becoming a community college president. Seventy five percent (75%) of the participants served in academic administration before becoming a community college president. This is consistent with the Amey et al. (2002) and Ross and Green (2000) research. The research of Amey et al. (2002) stated that 37% percent of their participants held positions in academic administration before their presidency. The ACE study on presidents by Ross and Green (2000) stated that 56% of the participants served as senior administrators prior to obtaining a presidency.

Advanced Leadership Training

Participants of the study had common experiences of receiving advanced leadership training. Participants received advanced leadership training by attending institutes, serving as educational fellows, as well as participating on community and national boards or committees. As evident in many resumés reviewed for this research, leadership training is on-going and a life-long experience. Shults (2001) reported various influential professional development opportunities, e.g. formal degree programs as well as community college or higher education leadership/administration programs that influenced community college presidents in their attainment of a presidency.

Timing and Positioning

Finally, the critical element of timing and positioning was essential to becoming a community college president. Some said timing was essential, while others said that positioning was essential. Both were essential, as the pieces of the administrative puzzle were put together for these women pursuing a presidency. The goal to become a community college president may be facilitated when expressed to those who can assist—e.g. current supervisors, mentors, supporters, and other presidents—in accomplishing the goal of presidency. As indicated in the significant events (Appendix H), mentors, supervisors, other presidents, etc. were key in becoming a community college president.

This research supports the need to provide the proper environment to develop leadership skills and competencies of women who wish to obtain a leadership position, such as a presidency. The demands of the growing need to educate and service

communities through the community college system make it critical that leaders be prepared.