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PRESIDENTIAL SELECTION AND EVALUATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION: INFORMATION, COMMUNICATION, AND GENDER

BY

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ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION PRESIDENTIAL SELECTION AND EVALUATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION: INFORMATION, COMMUNICATION, AND GENDER

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Turnover among university and college presidents has been increasing steadily since 2006 (Song & Hartley, 2012). Reading just a few issues of the *Chronicle of Higher Education* or *Inside Higher Ed* leads to the realization that a prominent reason for this trend is troubled relationships between presidents and governing boards (Brown, 2015; Jaschik, 2012; Seltzer, 2016a; Stripling, 2016a). Better communication and information sharing between presidents and board members has been suggested as one way to improve the situation (Chater, 1993; Regan, 2016). This research explores these notions by asking board members and recently hired presidents how they communicate and share information with each other.

Additionally, the typical image of the academic president is shifting, with women occupying more presidential offices at colleges and universities, constituting an upward trend toward gender equity (Cook, 2012; King & Gomez, 2007; Lapovsky, 2014). This research investigates if and how communication and gender are involved in the changing dynamic of board-president relations (Zweigenhaff & Domhoff, 2011: Kellerman & Rhode, 2007).

A comparative analysis of communication competencies and behaviors of academic presidents and governing board members in the context of hiring was conducted via interviews and surveys. Universities and colleges in the U.S. that chose new presidents in the past five years were sampled. Fundamental issues include: key communication skills that boards seek when choosing a president, agreement and disagreement between board members and presidents on key communication skills that a president should possess, and the role that gender differences in communication skills play in perceptions of candidates that are important in hiring presidents.

Results indicate that presidents and board members view the importance of several communication competencies and behaviors differently. Board members' evaluations of the importance of diversity are lower than for other communication competencies. President's gender appears to be involved in perceptions of their public speaking and writing abilities.

This research explored how presidents are selected and retained. It also investigated the communication patterns between board members and presidents as well as the advancement of women and other under-represented individuals into leadership positions.

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my husband, daughter and parents.

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Chapter I: Introduction

"In actuality, a president is at the center of a web of conflicting interest groups, none of which can ever be fully satisfied. He is, by definition, almost always wrong..."

-Jack Coleman, former president of Haverford College

Problem Statement

Reading Coleman's statement, one may wonder who would want to become a college or university president and what skills he or she may need to survive and thrive in such a challenging position.

The reader may also be wondering how governing boards evaluate candidates for the presidency in terms of the skills they must possess to become a successful president. One of these skills, and perhaps the most important skill, attributed to successful presidents is communication competency (Birnbaum, 1992; Kauffman, 1980). This study provides a comparative analysis of communication competencies of male and female academic presidents and governing boards in the context of the hiring process from the perspectives of both the presidents and the board members. Reasons for doing this research include providing board members with information for making informed leadership choices and generally increasing the understanding of the hiring process for academic leadership. An additional reason for conducting this research is to identify competencies and strategies that will inform future applicants of methods appropriate for enhancing the representation of women in leadership positions. The research explores the intersection of governance in higher education, communication, and gender. Beginning with governance, the rationale for including each of these areas will be explained.

In this study, academic governance is considered in terms of presidents and governing boards. Governing boards in American institutions of higher education have many responsibilities. Although there may be variations among institutions, governing boards in universities and colleges typically have these fiduciary responsibilities: appointing the president, supporting the president, judging how well the president is executing his or her duties, dismissing the president, having the final say about the institution's mission statement and interpreting that statement as necessary, approving or vetoing long-range plans, overseeing the educational program and general curriculum, making sure the institution is financially stable, including fund-raising, preserving institutional independence, enhancing the institution's image, expressing the community's and the society's needs to the university or college, and arbitrating internal disputes, including hiring and firing decisions (Bornstein, 2003; Nason, 1980; Nason, 1984; Trower and Eckel, 2016b).

Of all the responsibilities boards have, one of the most important is the selection of their institution's president. Experts agree that the president is usually the most powerful person in the university, and the choice of president has been called a "critical matter" (Kerr & Gade, 1986; Nason, 1980, p. 28). Studying governance in the academy could logically involve the process of searching for and selecting presidents by university or college governing board search committees, as well as by the governing boards as a whole. This process may also involve the influence of stakeholders from outside the colleges and universities, particularly the search firms that colleges may hire to assist them in locating suitable candidates for the presidency. Yet, there is another reason for studying this area.

There appears to be some dissension and distrust of governing boards, both within and outside the academy. *Inside Higher Ed* reports that "board disputes aren't unusual in today's higher education landscape" (Woodhouse, 2015a). There has been an erosion of credibility for higher education, as well (Woodhouse, 2015a). Only 3% of U.S. college presidents are very confident that academic governing boards at institutions other than their own are doing a good job (Rivard, 2013).

Press accounts of various dramas played out in board rooms reflect this distrust. Examples of dissension at the highest levels of American colleges and universities, regardless of whether the dissension was internal to the board or involved other stakeholders such as faculty, have drawn public attention. These include the disagreements among the University of North Carolina's board members in hiring Margaret Spellings as president and faculty opposition to the University of Iowa hiring Bruce Herrald as president because he lacked academic experience (Brown, 2015; Jaschik, 2016b). Disagreement between factions within the board itself as well as student and faculty protest of the University of Virginia's Board of Visitors' decision to remove Theresa Sullivan as president is another instance of this sort of dissension (Jaschik, 2016a). The expulsion of Elmira Magnum from Florida A&M University, over allegations that she used university monies inappropriately was partially due to communication problems between Magnum and the trustees (Seltzer, 2016a). Another instance of these dramas that received considerable attention is the recent ouster of Simon Newman by Mount Saint Mary's University in Maryland for making negative comments

about some students and for lacking academic experience (Barden, 2016). Ironically, the search committee that hired Newman indicated that they sought a president with "strong communication skills" (Mangan, 2016). According to The *Chronicle of Higher Education*, this "controversy has been valuable in focusing the attention of boards and search committees on a candidate's ability to communicate effectively and to advocate successfully across the cultural barriers between higher education and the commercial sector" (Barden, 2016). Understanding how to avoid communication faux pas could help avert distrust.

Distrust and trust are important because they are part of a key communication competency in this research study since distrust is often a product of inadequacies in communication. Therefore, while trust is an important issue, the main focus of this study is on communication as a critical issue in board-president relations.

Clearly, presidents and governing boards face many pressures and difficulties. Studying their communication and culture is important because there is considerable power vested in these positions and because they help shape society. Universities and colleges are responsible for educating individuals so that they become informed citizens, participate in democracy, contribute to the economy, conduct research and advance knowledge. Communication by leadership at the topmost levels of institutions of higher education is an important area of study for this reason and also because there is considerable dissension and distrust swirling around these leaders.

Additional practical considerations also indicate a need for study. One of these considerations is the short tenure of presidents. Song and Hartley's report on a survey of over 1,600 presidents of colleges and universities in the US found that presidential tenure

has been shrinking, with the average tenure of a Council of Independent Colleges (CIC) university president dropping from 8.5 years to 7.1 years between 2006 and 2011 (2012). There is reason for concern, especially since the CIC presidents have longer tenures than most other universities' presidents, including those at public universities, whose average tenures dropped from 7.4 to 6 years over that same period (Song & Hartley, 2012).

High turnover among presidents is another concern. Cook's 2012 study of 62 colleges in the American Association of University Professors (AAUP) cites a turnover rate of 15% per year for their presidents. By 2022, estimates indicate that half the college and university presidents in the US will leave office (Morris, 2015). Song and Hartley found that almost half of CIC presidents and about the same proportion of presidents of public universities plan to leave the presidency in the next five years and have no intention of moving to a presidency at another college or university but instead intend to retire completely (2012). It is important to note that there may be any number of reasons for these trends in turnover, including the increasing complexity of the job (Schmidt, 2016).

In addition to presidents planning to retire, there has been an increase since 2007 in the number of presidents who were asked to step down (Schmidt, 2016). The former president of the Faculty Senate at the University of New Mexico comments in *The Chronicle of Higher Education* that "We've gone through so many presidents and provosts that we often wonder how strong our pools can be...We've gone through too many in the past twenty years" (Stripling, 2016b). Recent examples of the high turnover rate include the presidents of the University of Oregon and Suffolk University. The University of Oregon has had five presidents, including interim presidents, in six years (Stripling, 2015). Similarly, Suffolk University has had five presidents, including interim presidents, in the past five years (Jaschik, 2016a).

Adding to the potential for a shortage, recent surveys indicate that individuals in the pipeline for the presidency are becoming less interested in taking on this kind of challenge (Luna, 2012). It is possible that for professors and academic administrators, the short-term nature of the presidency may deter them from seeking that office, also leading to a scarcity of candidates for these positions. This fuels the prediction that there will be a shortage of people with the interest and the qualifications to serve as presidents (Song & Hartley, 2012). Yet one important group of potential candidates is typically under-utilized when seeking new presidents. That group is women (Cromwell, 2017).

Presidential upheaval receives sustained attention in the educational trade journals *Inside Higher Ed* and The *Chronicle of Higher Education*. Scarcely a week goes by without an article about a president leaving under questionable circumstances, or simply being fired. Such conflict and negative publicity does not bode well for the institutions experiencing such upheavals. Evidence of this is seen at Burlington College, where fallout from the disruption in leadership following Jane O'Meara Sander's conflict with the board and subsequent resignation led to decreased levels of student retention and persistence to degree, according to Carol Moore, the college's interim president (Stripling, 2016a).

There should be concern about this decline in the levels of retention and degree completion, considering what it may mean for institutional performance financially in terms of donations and student applications, retention, and graduation. Additionally, higher turnover in presidential offices potentially creates disruptions for many other stakeholders in the academic community, including faculty and candidates for the presidency (Song & Hartley, 2012; Trower & Eckel, 2016a).

Another concern is the transactional process of communication that occurs between presidents and board members when boards make decisions. It is useful to understand how board members communicate their decisions to presidents and how presidents implement those decisions and communicate back to the board members about them. A recent survey of board members and presidents concludes that many problems may be avoided through more effective communication: "As long as presidents and board chairs keep talking to each other and sharing important information that each side needs to make important decisions, then their institutions will continue to prosper despite a difficult environment" (Regan, 2016). Rosalind Brewer, the chairperson of the board during a successful search for the new president of Spelman College, noted that "communication is key" (Brewer, Tribble, Watkins-Hayes, & Campbell, 2016).

Communicating, however, is not necessarily easy. A president interviewed in a study conducted by Public Agenda, a non-profit organization, likens communicating with board members to speed dating: "You go from one trustee to the next, make sure they see you, try to make them interested in what you're doing, and then you move on to the next one. You try to see as many trustees as you can so they will put a name to a face and will support your proposals because they like you" (Schleifer, Hagelskamp & Rinehart, 2015, p. 43). Another president in the same study indicates that transparency in information transmission is at the core of some board-president communication problems, "I believe strongly that a board is only as good as the information you give them. When they're in the dark, they tend to micromanage. And that can be avoided" (Schleifer, et al., 2015, p.

48). Therefore, to understand the issues board members and presidents are facing, it is useful to explore their communication patterns and effectiveness.

Given this focus of study, it is important to define both communication and competency. There are many definitions of communication; for purposes of this study, communication will be broadly defined as the "process in which people generate meaning through the exchange of verbal and nonverbal messages" (Alberts, Nakayama & Martin, 2015).

Definitions of competency vary, but for the purposes of this study, competency is synonymous with "knowledge and skills" because this definition encompasses both thought and action (Jablin & Sias, 2001; Ruben, 2006, p.2). In this research study, communication competency is a key issue because poor communication between boards and presidents is cited, repeatedly, as a contributing factor when problems arise in institutions of higher education (King, 2015; McDaniel, 2002; Ruben, 2006; Wisniewski, 1999; Kumar & DeVise, 2012; Woodhouse, 2015a, 2015b). Board members may be criticized for operating without communicating with each other or for requiring too much communication of a president (Kumar & DeVise, 2012; Woodhouse, 2015b). It is possible that even when communication is not overtly named as a factor, it has a role in exacerbating or ameliorating problematic situations. It might be assumed that individuals involved in disagreements see nothing amiss in their communication and therefore do not realize that they could make adjustments that mitigate or prevent damage to their institution's image as well as to their personal reputations. As such, a reason to study communication competencies is that by enhancing one's understanding and utilization of

communication competencies, there is a greater likelihood of achieving success in leadership roles.

It is also important to define behavior, which is "the manner of conducting oneself" (Merriam-Webster, n.d.). In this dissertation, behavior includes verbal and nonverbal conduct.

With the increase of women rising in the academic hierarchy (Lapovsky, 2014), this study will also consider what role gender contributes in communication and decisionmaking by boards when hiring and assessing their leaders. A chart depicting the increasing number of women in presidential positions in higher education is provided in Appendix A. Although women are increasingly reaching the presidential level, they are reporting to predominantly male governing boards and board chairs (Schwartz, 2010; Association of Governing Boards, 2016). This may represent a mismatch in leadership communication styles and impact the likelihood of successful communication because research indicates that men and women have different expectations and modi operandi involving communication and leadership (Dominici, Fried & Zeger, 2009; Kendall & Tannen, 2001; Ritter &Yoder, 2004; Rosener, 1990).

Although the number of women presidents has increased, progress has recently stalled, indicating that there may still be areas to address for their numbers to increase further (Lapovsky, 2014). For example, this year, three faculty members sued Kennesaw State University for not considering anyone but a white man for the job of president when they hired Sam Olens without a formal search (Schmidt, 2016). This litigation demonstrates another way that issues of gender may have an impact on presidencies, board members, and institutions of higher education. However, without study of these situations, it is not possible to tell if or how communication competencies may have been involved in this and it is possible that this was due to other, as yet unknown, factors.

One of the barriers to becoming a respected member of the academy is poor communication skills (Chliwniak, 1997). Considering gendered communication practices, women may communicate in ways that are perceived as feminine, speaking more tentatively than assertively, compared with men (Kendall & Tannen, 2001; Tannen, 1990). These differences in communication behavior by women have been linked to evaluations of women as being less competent, according to Kendall and Tannen. More than half the women presidents of four-year universities and colleges indicated that their gender factored into whether others perceived them as being competent (Caton, 2007). Even when they speak in a similar fashion, men and women are perceived differently, with women being viewed less favorably than men with the same communication style (Tannen, 1990). Consequently, understanding gendered communication competencies is important in enhancing our overall understanding of how to advance the role of women in leadership positions at universities and colleges.

Perceptions and attitudes are very different from actual actions and behaviors. The literature in psychology cautions against predicting behaviors from attitudes, since review of the research indicates that attitudes and behaviors typically are not related in this manner (Wicker, 1969). This dissertation addresses *perceptions* of board members' and presidents' behaviors rather than their actual behaviors. It does not imply that these perceptions predict behaviors.

Theoretical and Conceptual Models

A theoretical model will be described presenting a general picture of how decision-making occurs in higher education governing boards. The related conceptual model also will be presented depicting the specific variables involved in this process and their relationships with each other. A group of variables that may be important in this decision-making process are communication competencies. To see the known and possible components in the process of selecting the president of a university, the conceptual model depicts political, environmental, and socio-cultural/human/normative overtones. The proposed model, shown later in this chapter, offers a drone-level view of the selection process. This is the Components of Higher Education Top Tier Governance (CHETT) Model, containing both endogenous and exogenous facets of process. The model assumes that all the components may not always be present, but those that are present may have a major impact on the process.

Extant theories relating to the theoretical model are considered. Certain models of organizations have been created especially for higher education and other corporate models have been applied to university governance. The six most pertinent to this thesis are: General Systems Theory (GST), (Thayer, 1968; Kast & Rosenzweig, 1972; von Bertalanffy, 1950), Organized Anarchy (Cohen & March, 1974), Loosely Coupled Systems (Glassman, 1973; Weick, 1976), Polycentric Model of Constituencies (Walker, 1979), Agency Theory (Eisenhardt, 1989; Olson, 2000; Toma, 1986), and the Homophily Principle (McPherson, Smith-Lovin & Cook, 2001). Operating along a continuum from highly centralized governance to anarchical lack of governance, they offer a variety of perspectives to articulate how policy goals are established. Table 1, presented below, compares these theories. It outlines their major attributes, followed by brief descriptions

of the basic tenets of each.

Table 1

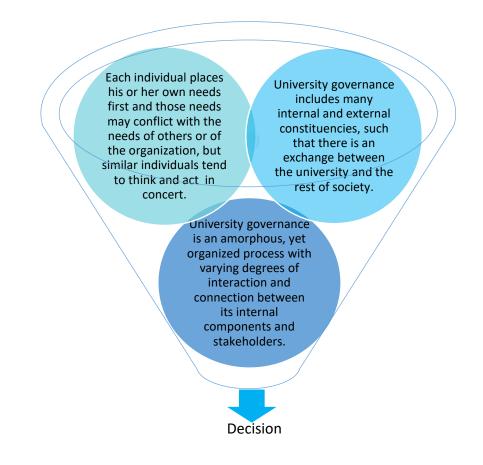
Organizational Theoretical Models Applied to Institutions of Higher Education

Theory	Citation	Method of Derivation	Summary	Advantages	Disadvantages
General Systems Theory	-Von Bertalanffy, 1950; -Kast & Rosenzweig, 1972 -Thayer, 1968	All are theoretical.	Living systems consist of living beings and are open systems. Via exchange with their environment, living systems are able to maintain themselves.	Allows for exogenous factors and their relationships with internal factors.	Not founded in empirical study or data.
Organized Anarchy	-Cohen & March, 1974	"Empirical data combined with speculation to form an interpretive essay" (Cohen & March, 1974, p. xxi).	The university's leadership processes are ambiguous and amorphous and resemble an anarchy, but also have some form of organization.	Offers a more tailored approach than simply applying corporate theories to academic institutions.	-Old data from 1970 era - Use of speculation.
Loosely coupled systems	-Glassman, 1973 -Weick, 1976	Glassman & Weick are both purely theoretical.	Systems that "have few variables in common" or "common variables that are weak in comparison to other variables which influence the system, are loosely coupled" (Weick, 1976, p. 3).	Aligns with a systems theoretical perspective and allows for varying levels of interaction between higher education systems and sub-systems.	-Loose coupling (or rather the lack of evidence of loose coupling) may be an artifact of the methodology used to study/detect it.
Polycentric Model of Constituen- cies	-Walker, 1979	Theoretical - based on Walker's and Lane's models. Sponsored by the Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges (AGB).	Governance is not by elites, but is pluralist involving six main groups: external authorities, external stakeholders, special interest groups, faculty, administration, and governing board.	Allows for a multiplicity of stakeholders*both internal and external to the university or college. * Stakeholder multiplicity is "the degree of multiple conflicting, complementary, or cooperative stakeholder claims made to an organization" (Neville & Menguc, 2006, p. 277).	-Confusing graphic depiction of how information, communication, and power flow. -Ignores organizational structure and culture, antecedents, expectations.
Homophily Principle	-McPherson, Smith-Lovin & Cook, 2001	Theoretical, qualitative, and quantitative research.	The homophily principle is based on the idea that similarity is what determines connections between people and its basic premise is simple: "birds of a feather flock together."	-Research support runs the gamut from qualitative to quantitative. -Recognizes that relationships do not occur in a vacuum and external forces may be involved.	-Not all research results are consistent.
Agency Theory	-Eisenhardt, 1989 -Olson, 2000 -Toma, 1986	<u>Eisenhardt:</u> Theore- tical review of the literature. <u>Toma</u> : Applied agency theory to universities using	Agency theory posits that both the agent who does the work and the principal who directs the agent's work put their own needs first, act	-Examines organizational complexities (Eisenhardt). -Can be used to test hypotheses	-Focus is too abstract (Eisenhardt). -Accused of tautological

statistical analysis of existing public data. <u>Olson</u> : Cross- sectional mail questionnaire sent to Council of Independent College	rationally and may have conflicting needs. There is also an imbalance in that one party may have more information than the other.	empirically (Eisenhardt). -Takes exogenous factors into account.	reasoning (Eisenhardt). -Assumes bounded rationality, which may not be applicable to higher education
(CIC) members.			organizations.

These extant theories are integrated and simplified into a graphic depiction of the theoretical model that the conceptual model is based upon, as shown below, in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Theoretical Model of the Decision-Making Process in Higher Education



Overview of the Model

The model contains both external and internal components. This division is not arbitrary, but is meant to explicate the workings of a system and its subsystems and is based on the application of systems theory to academic organizations. Most systems are part of a larger environment, which is also a system, so any system may have a number of sub-systems within it (Boulding, 1975). A system exists in relation to its environment so the external environment needs to be taken into account when describing the system.

General Systems Theory. General Systems Theory (GST) is often associated with Ludwig von Bertalanffy and is based in scientific logic and mathematics. It posits that there are two kinds of systems: open and closed. Living systems consist of living beings and are open systems. An example of an open system is a university or a college. Via exchange with their environment, living systems are able to maintain themselves. Von Bertalanffy's GST also includes the concept of "true finality" which means that behavior is goal directed, something he considers typical of human behavior (1950).

Kast and Rosenzweig applied the scientific views of GST to organizations using theoretical reasoning (1972). Thayer applies GST to communication from a theoretical perspective, indicating that "Communication is therefore ultimately a co-function of the individual and what is going on around him in his world(s) that has immediate relevance for him. The world and our conceptions of it co-determine each other" (1968, p. 112). Like Bertalanffy, Thayer acknowledges the interaction between the system and its environment. GST is relevant in this proposal because it offers an overall perspective, a context, and a theoretical background regarding university governance.

External antecedent and concurrent conditions. In this research, the system under study is higher education, i.e., universities and colleges. Conditions external to that system include antecedent norms and expectations either within or outside the university,

such as how similar institutions handled the presidential selection process in the past. In addition to antecedents, concurrent conditions may be involved.

The concurrent conditions are: a) normative and cultural expectations, such as public attitudes toward higher education, b) political aspects, involving state and federal government regulations and authority, c) environmental issues, which would be the general funding situation for higher education, the overall national and global economy and any impact of geography on the process, including restrictions as a result of geographic factors, and d) stakeholders, such as the media, donors, and parents, in addition to search firms that assist governing boards in locating candidates and provide counsel to both candidates and governing boards during the hiring process. A normative expectation may be the societal belief that universities and colleges should prepare students for jobs by teaching practical or technical skills rather than "soft" skills such as communication. Political conditions, for example, could come in the form of a mandate that board members must be appointed rather than elected. Donors, via their financial investments, may have some impact on the process. Media may help shape and reflect opinions both inside and outside university and college gates, as in the case of Teresa Sullivan at the University of Virginia, discussed earlier.

Internal antecedent and concurrent conditions. The internal factors are also divided into antecedent and concurrent conditions. Internal antecedents encompass: a) what this institution did in the past in selecting its presidents, b) its institutional traditions and history in general, c) the personal histories and traditions of the board members, and d) the behaviors and actions of previous presidents and board members. An example of the influence of past behavior might be how a university or a college typically arrived at

the decision that it needed to select a new president. Antecedents may involve a rubric or heuristic process for decision making that is based on past institutional practices. Concurrent internal conditions consist of: a) organizational culture and conditions, b) human conditions and board culture, and c) board-president interactions, information and communication.

Internal concurrent conditions: organizational conditions and culture. Antecedent conditions are thought to affect concurrent organizational conditions and culture, which include organizational structures (hierarchical versus flat, autocratic versus democratic, shared versus unicameral governance), university mission, existence of a chancellorship, the role of the board chair, the level and type (formal or informal) of consultation with all stakeholders, and the degree of faculty, administration, student and board agency and involvement in the search process). These conditions also include organizational responsibilities and strategies: assessing needs and defining skills and traits desired in a president. The organizational conditions and culture may affect the specific responsibilities and strategies envisioned and enacted which may impact the outcome of the selection process. For those without academic backgrounds, stepping into an academic culture is akin to traveling to an entirely different country, according to Susan Resnick Pierce, a former president of the University of Puget Sound (Jaschik, 2016c). Similarly, when presidents without academic background are hired there may be concerns. Such hires can be problematic because presidents without academic experience tend to carry over their business culture and corporate priorities to the college or university, where there can be a clash between the business world's organizational hierarchy and the academy's organizational anarchy (Ginsberg, 2011). Eckel and

Trower's research with governing boards leads them to believe that exploring and understanding board culture is crucial to helping boards and presidents perform well together (2016a). They find it useful for board members to recognize the difference between academic and corporate viewpoints and to realize that these differences may play out in ways that are both helpful and unhelpful.

Internal concurrent conditions: human conditions and board culture. It is posited here that concurrent human conditions and board culture have three facets. The first involves the characteristics of the president and members of the board and any similarities between them. It consists of personality, physical characteristics, demographics, leadership traits, styles, and experience, board socialization and training, as well as board turnover rate and tenure. Based on Lazarsfeld and Merton's 1954 research, McPherson et al. (2001) describe two types of similarities, which they label homophily. The two types of homophily are status and value. In status homophilous relationships the ties that connect people are based on their formal or informal status, which includes demographic characteristics such as education, gender, race, religion, education, and job or employment. Value-homophilous connections are based on attitudes and beliefs.

Research support for the homophily principle spans the spectrum from qualitative to quantitative and it has been used across multiple disciplines (Borgatti, Brass & Halgin, 2014; McPherson et al., 2001). However, its use is sometimes criticized (Borgatti et al., 2014). Its value for this proposal resides in the typical composition of a board of trustees as fairly homogeneous in terms of both status and attitudinal variables.

The second facet involves internal stakeholders (alumni, faculty, administrators, students, and staff). The following definition is used here because it specifically includes other organizations and focuses on decisions: stakeholders are "any person, group or organization who affects and/or is impacted by an organization's decisions" (Wilson, Bunn & Savage, 2010, p. 78). The manner in which stakeholders are involved is portrayed by the Polycentric Model of Constituencies, a theoretical model of how university governance works, as advanced by Walker (1979). The Polycentric Model imagines the university as having a power structure that is fragmented, involving a variety of competing factions, such that "government is shared and contested" (Kerr & Gade, 1986, p. 143). Governance in higher education is not considered to be the domain of the elite, but rather is pluralistic and involves six main groups: external authorities, external stakeholders, special interest groups, faculty, administration, and governing boards (Walker, 1979). One could also argue that students have input into governance in higher education, even at the board level. However, their impact appears to be limited by the brevity of their tenure on boards (Rall & Maxey, 2015).

An advantage of this model is that it allows for a multiplicity of internal and external stakeholders in higher education. However, this model ignores organizational structure and culture, antecedents, and expectations. Also disadvantageous is the fact that it is derived anecdotally, rather than empirically, in that it reflects Walker's (1979) personal experience as the president of a university. Yet, this model does apply to the research at hand because it explores the multiplicity of stakeholders involved in university governance. The characteristics and structures may affect the third facet, which covers the perceptions of the job of president and the qualifications necessary for that office. These perceptions and qualifications include attitudes about the difficulties inherent in the presidency and the skills and traits needed and sought for this position. These perceptions, in turn, are expected to relate to the outcomes. Therefore, the relationship between characteristics and human structures is indirectly related to the outcomes via the perceptions. Agency Theory will be used to address this theoretically.

Agency theory is a business-oriented theory that uses financial metrics as outcome variables. According to Olson (2000), in agency theory there are two actors, the agent who does the work and the principal who directs the agent's work. Agency theory posits that: a) both the agent and the principal put their own needs first, b) both act rationally (but in a bounded rationality framework), c) they may have conflicting needs with respect to each other, or needs that conflict with organizational goals, and d) one party may have more information than the other (Eisenhardt, 1989; Olson, 2000; Toma, 1986). Applying this theory to the research being conducted here, board members' needs, goals and information levels may differ or conflict during the presidential selection process.

Although some of this work is purely theoretical, Olson took a more empirical approach to Agency Theory (2000). He developed a cross-sectional mail questionnaire that was sent to all CIC members. He investigated revenue and gift income in relation to board and board member demographics (board size, member tenure, and business executive experience) in addition to the boards' diversity in terms of their ethnic, educational, and professional backgrounds. Olson found that the bigger the board, the longer the tenure of those on the board. He also found that as the number of board members having business experience increased, the college's financial performance improved. Olson's study of independent colleges revealed that institutional gifting was greater for long-tenured boards of trustees and presidents. A possible reason for this is that board members and presidents' outlooks and approaches begin to align more closely as time passes, resulting in more successful outcomes.

Advantages of agency theory are that it examines organizational complexities and can be used to test hypotheses about cooperative behavior empirically (Eisenhardt, 1989). Another major advantage is that it takes external factors into account as Toma did in his examination of why some states have a single board of trustees that governs all the state's universities while in other states each public state university or college has its own board of trustees (1986).

Disadvantages are that it assumes bounded rationality which may not be applicable to higher education organizations, it is relatively abstract, and it has been accused of involving tautological reasoning, according to Eisenhardt's review of the literature (1989). It applies to the research being done here because it accepts that different individuals or stakeholder groups, such as administration and faculty, may have different and possibly opposite motives, goals, and needs (Eisenhardt, 1989; Olson, 2000; Toma, 1986).

Internal concurrent conditions: board-president interactions, information and communication. The third facet is at the center of the entire process. It involves information and communication processes and board-president interactions. This facet connects organizational conditions and culture with human conditions, board culture and

internal antecedent conditions. It is composed of: communication style (formal or informal), network demographics and alliances, frequency of interactions, interaction characteristics including words used, communication climate (supportive or agreement), and focus on oneself versus focus on others in communicating. There is also an information component to this facet, consisting of information seeking and reception along with assessments of the amount of information and its utility. Interaction, communication, and information relate directly to the outcomes and form the connection between organizational structure and board culture, having a bidirectional relationship with each of these.

Systems Theory and the Model. Understanding how all of this works involves taking a step back and considering the overall system of higher education. Continuing in accordance with systems theory, the meta-theory for this research, the concept of loosely coupled systems is applied to institutions of higher education. Glassman (1973) explains loose coupling:

The degrees of coupling, or interaction between two systems depends on the activity of the variables which they share. To the extent that the systems either have few variables in common or if the common variables are weak in comparison to other variables which influence the system, they are independent of each other. It is convenient to speak of such a situation as one of loose coupling...Speaking in these terms helps to direct attention to the fact that the stability of systems may be due not only to immediate compensation for imposed input but also sometimes to lack of communication (p. 84).

Given this perspective, Weick (1976) posits that because loosely coupled systems have high levels of ambiguity, they are good examples of how reality is socially constructed via communication. This part of the theory applies to the research done here because the focus of this research is on the communication between the board members and their interactions with the president. From such communication and interaction, educational realities are formed.

This was demonstrated by Cohen and March's study of a panel of college presidents, chief academic officers, chief business officers, chief financial officers, and other leaders (1974). From this research, they conclude that a university is an organized anarchy, with "problematic goals" in which action precedes goal definition, there is "unclear technology" or a lack of understanding of its own processes, and a tendency exists toward heuristics and "fluid participation" in which individuals often cross porous boundaries (1974, p. 3). Essentially, they describe the university's leadership processes as ambiguous and amorphous.

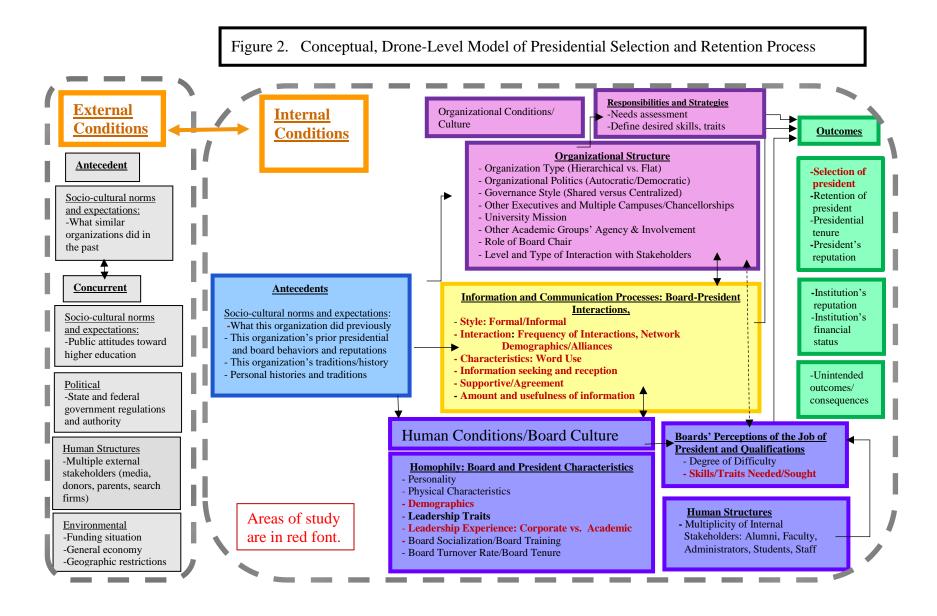
Turning their attention to presidential leadership, Cohen and March see organized anarchies as presenting highly ambiguous situations for the presidency in which the president's power, purpose, assessments of his or her effectiveness and even the president's learning experiences are unclear. Based on interview results and their own speculation, they interpret this to mean that most traditional theories of organizational behavior, which assume clarity and/or bounded rationality, do not apply to universities and their leadership. This is relevant to this research project because it illustrates the amorphous nature of high-level interactions in the academy and the need for a model that can make sense of them so that decisions can be made more effectively and efficiently. The fourth and final facet consists of the outcomes of this process. In addition to unintended outcomes, which are always a possibility, the major measurable outcomes focusing on the president are the selection and retention of the president, the president's reputation, and the length of the president's tenure. Additional measurable outcomes are the institution's reputation and financial status.

To summarize, the model operates in this manner: external antecedent and concurrent conditions may influence the internal portion of the model. Internal antecedents may influence organizational conditions/culture and human conditions/board culture as well as board-president interactions, information and communication. In turn, homophily of characteristics and a variety of internal stakeholders influence perceptions of the job of president and the qualifications needed in a president. Perceptions plus organizational conditions and culture plus human conditions and the board's culture lead to the outcome, which includes the selection of the president.

One other part of the model that is important to consider involves the expressed and tacit assumptions brought to the situation by various parties. First, they may not align with each other and second, they may guide the direction in which various stakeholders wish to proceed. Certain assumptions may be taken for-granted, such as the need for change or the need for a new president. What is necessary is an assessment of the situation that is well considered and seeks to explore these assumptions (Lewis, 2007). Before any change occurs, it is important to decide if it is warranted because if it is not, time and money may be spent unproductively and relationships with some constituencies may be jeopardized. As noted earlier, for reference, the full model is depicted in Figure 2. Additional theoretical perspectives. Other theories of organizations and organizational communication may not be as relevant to colleges and universities due to the unique nature of higher education, including the multiplicity of stakeholders and workers with extensive expertise, such as professors, who need to have input into the decision-making process (Mintzberg, 1998; Ruben, 2010). As Mintzberg suggests, individuals with either unique talents or unique expertise may not respond well to typical methods of leadership with the result that there could be difficulty managing and communicating with them effectively.

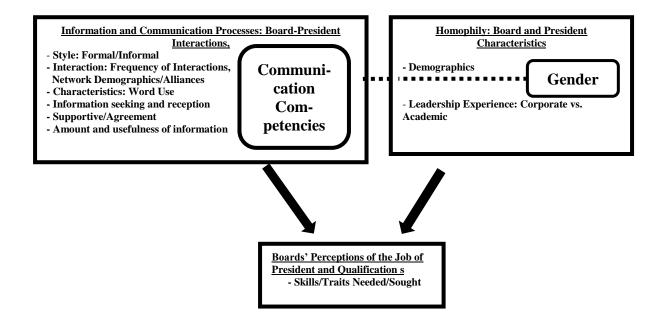
Additionally, corporate organizations may be structured more hierarchically with rigid direct lines of authority and pyramidal organizational charts. Most of these organizations also lack the numerous and disparate types of stakeholders that are relevant to the academy (Ruben, 2010; Agnew, 2014). Therefore, most well-known corporate-based theories do not fit or help explain the communication and decision making processes in the academy. Thus, it is argued here that a new model may be useful.

Conceptual model summary. The proposed conceptual model explored in this research appears in Figure 2. Frames and categories used in the models proposed are based on these researchers' models plus other, more general ideas from the literature: Hensley and Griffin (1986), Kast and Rosenzweig (1972), Lattuca and Stark (2011), Lewis (2007), McLaughlin and Riesman (1990), Ruben (2006), and Tierney (2008a, 2008b).



Central areas of the conceptual model for investigation. Figure 3 displays the proposed relationships between several antecedent conditions, homophilous personal characteristics, and communication and information behaviors during the presidential search and selection process. The main antecedent is prior board or institutional behavior, which is believed to influence perceptions of the skills and traits sought in the search and selection process. These connect to the personal characteristics of the board members, including personality variables, physical and demographic characteristics, and leadership traits and styles. In turn, the board members' and presidential candidates' personal characteristics are connected. Similarities between the board and the candidates may be expressed by the words used by board members to describe the selection process and the discussions that occur during it. Communication and information practices, as well as board-president homophily also are related to perceptions of the skills and traits necessary for a president to possess, and therefore are also related to the selection and retention of the president.

Figure 3. Areas of the Model to Be Investigated



Summary of the current situation and the models. The current situation is one of dissension and distrust between boards and presidents that sometimes involves communication problems. There is currently substantial turnover and presidential turnover can have negative consequences for the institutions. A shortage of qualified and interested candidates for the presidency is expected in the next decade. The rate of women ascending to the presidency has slowed, yet they present an additional pool of applicants for the presidency that could be tapped.

The theoretical model of the process of selecting a president considers the roles of general systems theory, organized anarchy, and loosely coupled systems. Conditions that are external to the higher education system, both antecedent and concurrent, may cross a permeable boundary and influence the internal areas of the higher education system. Major internal areas of the model include organizational conditions and culture, human conditions and board culture, and the information and communication processes in which boards and presidents interact. The section of the conceptual model researched in this dissertation, which looks at the communicative aspects of the selection process, is based on Agency Theory (Toma, 1986), the Homophily Principle (McPherson et al., 2001), and Role Congruity Theory (Eagly & Carli, 2007).

Research Questions

There are four main diagnostic questions guiding this inquiry, all related to the intersection of governance, communication competencies, and gender in the academic domain. They are:

1. What are the key communication skills that boards seek in hiring a president?

- 2. What are the areas of agreement between board members and presidents on the key communication skills that a president should possess?
- 3. What are the areas of disagreement between board members and presidents on the key communication skills that a president should possess?
- 4. What role, if any, do gender differences in communication skills play in perceptions of candidates that are important in decisions to hire presidents?
 - a. Which communication skills do board members believe female presidents possess and lack?
 - b. Which communication skills do board members believe male presidents possess and lack?

Objectives and Scope of the Study

To summarize the scope of the research, it is an in-depth study of how the governing boards of institutions of higher education communicate with respect to hiring a new president. It may provide information not formerly known about their methods of crafting their communication and about information patterns in one of their most important decision-making tasks.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

A review of the studies that pertain to hiring and retaining presidents in higher education is presented here. The main subject areas explored are: decision making, employee selection decisions and similarity, the uniqueness of higher education, communication in the selection process, communication competencies and four models used to assess them, employee selection, gender, and similarity, and governing boards in higher education and similarity. The contemporary and evolving nature of the area being researched occasionally necessitates the inclusion of trade journal articles. These are often written by experts in their fields.

Decision Making

The process of making a decision has been studied for many years and results indicate that a variety of factors are part of this process and within each individual or group the salience of each of these factors varies.

Basically, there are two major schools of thought with respect to decision-making: one sees the decision as moving along rational lines and the other sees it as moving along emotional lines (Carroll & Johnson, 1990). A synopsis of rational decision-making theory posits that people or groups use logic to make their decisions, and that they are consistent and knowledgeable, aware of their own beliefs and biases and can understand and predict the outcome of their decisions, according to Carroll and Johnson. It is not that simple, however, because rationality is constrained by a human being's physical and mental capacity. Limits to an individual's rationality "fall into three categories: he is limited by his unconscious skills, habits and reflexes; he is limited by his values and conceptions of purpose, which may diverge from the organization's goals; he is limited by the extent of his knowledge and information" (Simon, 1997, p. 323).

Carroll and Johnson (1990) note that individuals and groups of people tend to make decisions based on rules of thumb that they have developed from prior experience. These rules are often referred to as heuristics. Research on naturalistic decision-making (decisions that occur in real-world situations, particularly those in which action must be swift, such as firefighting or nuclear power plant operations) proposes a model indicating that people do not analyze each new decision situation as a unique entity, but rather that they tend to use heuristics that evolved from previous situations encountered (Klein & Klinger, 1991). This model has been tested and found to apply in numerous settings including corporate information management, according to Klein and Klinger.

On the other hand, Etzioni argues that the emotional aspect is a critical component of decision-making and that it may operate in harmony or in support of the rational/logical component (1988). He proposes that both emotional factors and social norms strongly impact decision-making. Emotional and social normative factors could include some commonly held ideas about the basis of decision-making, such as personality, "chemistry," physical characteristics, legality, and the degree of group cohesion, as opposed to factual or logical considerations. Using this framework, decision-making could be thought of as the result of a symphony of factors, both logical and emotional. Some research attention focuses on normative affective factors in the decision-making process (Dane & Pratt, 2007; Etzioni, 1988; Lowenstein & Lerner, 2003). Etzioni holds the opinion that normative factors of the emotional type can "shape to a significant extent decision-making, to the extent it takes place, the information gathered, the ways it is processed, the inferences that are drawn, the options that are being considered and those that are finally chosen" (1988, p.127). He therefore concludes that logic and rationality are dependent on emotional structures.

To complicate this dichotomy between rational and emotional, researchers find that it is not clear that people really know exactly and truly how they make their decisions, but they note that it may be helpful to consider some factors involved in the decision-making process (Simon, 1997; Carroll & Johnson, 1990). These factors include, but are not limited to, what information is used, how it is inter-related and integrated, responses to the decision, and other environmental factors including time constraints and whether it is an individual or a group that is making the decision. Additionally, Carroll and Johnson find that people, individually or as a group, react based on their own perceptions, which are not necessarily anchored in reality (1990).

Groups have the additional distinction of being vulnerable to the effects of cliques within the group. If a clique is powerful enough, it could lead to groupthink, a decision that is arrived at too hastily, or its opposite, polarization, in which the decision is made more difficult and time consuming because initial differences in opinion within a group become more pronounced as time passes (Carroll & Johnson, 1990). On the upside, an advantage that groups have over individuals in decision-making is the bringing and sharing of information that no one individual could access alone, according to Carroll and Johnson (1990).

Hiring decision research often is based on corporate, rather than academic, hiring practices. According to Donaldson and Lorsch's empirical study of a dozen industrial corporations, business executives' choices may be limited by both internal and external conditions (1983). Using documents and interviews, they found that market and organizational factors, including shareholder expectations, constitute some of the external factors that constrain executives, while organizational belief systems are the psychological, internal constraints that may be involved in influencing decisions. Beliefs that these executives internalized when the torch was passed to them from the executives who preceded them are thought to be an important part of their decision-making process, potentially limiting their options and the information to which they are receptive. Argryis agreed with this, pointing out that individuals tend to become embedded in the group culture and will avoid doing anything that goes against the group's norms (1976).

However, such belief systems may be altered by changes in upper management. Donaldson and Lorsch found that "new personalities invariably do bring some new perspective" and that for a business to change its trajectory, there must be a shift in the belief system undergirding management's decision-making (1983, p. 134). Etzioni posits that normative values operate both within the person, as Argyris (1976) argues, and they may additionally operate from outside the person as external constraints. This aligns theoretically with Donaldson and Lorsch's findings (1983).

Employee selection decisions and similarity. Questions inspired by general research on homophily and Rivera's specific work on cultural matching arise as well. In the corporate world, where hiring decisions have been studied extensively, candidate selection is seen as going beyond "organizational and institutional factors" and as a "fundamentally interpersonal process" (Rivera, 2012). In the past, employee selection was viewed as a process in which employers sought a "match" with a candidate in terms of human capital, social capital, and demographic characteristics, according to Rivera's

review of the literature. Rivera notes that all these factors still do not explain hiring in its entirety, and proposes that "cultural matching" helps explain the previously unexplained variance in hiring decisions. Cultural matching includes candidates' hobbies and experiences as well as the manner in which candidates present themselves. Cultural matters were measured by "sex, ethnicity, educational prestige, GPA, prior employer, and extracurricular activities" (Rivera, 2012, p.1005). In fact, in interviews with companies that were recruiters for top level corporations, she found that not only was cultural matching important, but that in hiring decisions, it often was *more* important than impressions of a candidate's productivity.

Higher Education as a Unique, Complex Entity

Higher education organizations have multiple communities and typically are complex entities. Differences between faculty and administrative cultures, the loosely coupled systems that comprise colleges and universities, the multiple interests of stakeholders, and the involvement of state and local government in public colleges and universities contribute to the complexities in governing colleges and universities. (Gayle, Tewarie, & White, 2003; Ruben 2009; Weick, 1976). For example, state and local governments are involved in the affairs of public, state universities as well as community colleges. In public universities, boards are typically appointed by the state's governor, so they may present a different approach to decision-making than is customary in collegial environments. (Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges, 1980). In contrast, in the boards of private institutions, which are not externally appointed, "apparently custom and tradition often prevail over reason and preclude formal policies for effective trustee selection" (Nason, 1980, p. 49). Additionally, at religiously affiliated colleges and universities, the choice of board members is usually influenced by the religious orientation of the institution (Nason, 1984). Depending on the university or college, governmental, religious, and economic factors will exert influence on the choice of the board members who select the presidents. Therefore, this research will study a variety of institutions to learn if there are similar patterns identified across institutional types.

An analysis of communication with respect to board members is not a simple task. Although many stakeholders are part of the process of selecting a president, at its heart is the reciprocal communication process in which boards engage with current and prospective presidential candidates, as depicted by the arrows in Figure 4.

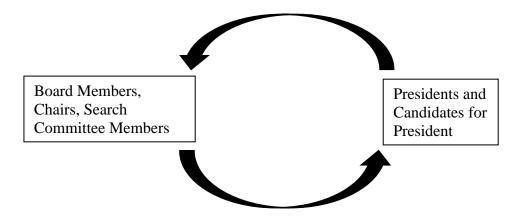


Figure 4. Reciprocal Communication in the Search Process

Communication in the Selection Process

Communication has an integral role in human cognition and behavior, both generating and influencing interactions with others (Ruben, 1970). The words used or chosen to describe a situation are essential to the management of the meaning of that situation or event by "framing" it, giving it a particular perspective or "spin" (Fairhurst & Saar, 1996). Therefore, the actual words used to express how the selection process evolves are important because they may offer useful clues as to various influences during the process. For example, there may be words related to personal characteristics that offer deeper insights into the foundations on which these important decisions are made by boards of trustees. The appearance or lack of appearance of these words in board members' communication may offer a glimpse into a process that is often not very transparent.

Although according to news stories in academic publications such as *Inside Higher Ed* and The *Chronicle of Higher Education*, communication competence may be related to presidential selection issues, there is a lack of research investigating the general communication between presidential candidates and boards. Hartnett questioned if there had been enough emphasis on communication with respect to boards of trustees at academic institutions (1969). This study will address the dearth of research about the presidential selection process, communication skills between boards and candidates, and the influence of gender on candidate selection (Rosser, 2003). A communication-oriented approach that focuses on competencies will be useful to provide a contemporary understanding of the competency issues involved in presidential selection by board members.

Leadership competency models and communication competencies. There are several leadership competency models that include communication competencies. Four models for assessing leadership competencies, all including communication competencies, are of interest because they "offer specific attributes and frameworks for behavioral benchmarking" (McDaniel, 2002, p. 82). All of the models contain a module focusing on communication. The four are: Extension Administrative Leadership Program (EALP) Model, American Council on Education (ACE) Model, Higher Education Leadership Competencies (HELC) Model and Leadership Competencies Scorecard 2.0 (LCS 2.0) (McDaniel, 2002; Ruben, 2006, 2012; Smith, 2007; Smith & Wolverton, 2007; Wisniewski, 1999; Wisniewski, 2004). LCS 2.0 has been used in an empirical, qualitative study of the competencies of higher education presidents (Agnew, 2014). However, as the most recent of the models in this area, LCS 2.0 not been subjected to quantitative study prior to this. Some quantitative analysis of LCS 2.0 is presented in the Results chapter. Each of these models takes a slightly different approach to the issue of leadership competency.

Although all the categories in these models may be important, the focus here is on the *communication* competencies. Table 2 provides a chart comparing the competencies of these models. Each of the four models mentioned built on the work of its predecessor, which makes a chronological discussion of these four models appropriate.

Extension Administrative Leadership Program (EALP). Wisniewski began the leadership model competency research in 1999 with her qualitative interview study of senior administrators in the University of Wisconsin's Extension Administrative Leadership Program, or EALP, and their perceptions of what made them effective leaders. This research generated a leadership competency model consisting of seven areas, including communication: 1) a core set of values and vision, 2) effective communication, 3) reflection and analysis, 4) a positive climate, 5) facilitation and collaboration, 6) problem solving and risk taking, and 7) perseverance.

The EALP model's communication module mainly involves competencies in language, interpretation, explanation, and being adept in various mediated venues, as shown in Table 2 (Wisniewski, 1999, 2004).

American Council on Education (ACE). The next researcher to explore this area was McDaniel in 2002, who also used interviews. The interviews were conducted with upper level administration and faculty who were in the American Council of Education (ACE) Fellows Program. This year-long program is designed to identify participants' gaps in leadership training and fill those gaps. Analysis of the interviews resulted in a model comprising four main types of leadership competencies: 1) context, 2) content, 3) processes, and 4) communication. The ACE Leadership Communication Competencies focus on competency in interactions with varied constituencies, articulation, and presentation, as shown in Table 2 (McDaniel, 2002).

Higher Education Leadership Competencies (HELC). Further research by Smith in 2007 followed up on McDaniel's model. To create the HELC model, he developed an online survey based on the extant literature, which he distributed to chief academic officers, senior student affairs officers and athletic directors at NCAA Division I schools. From this, Smith developed the Higher Education Leadership Competencies (HELC) model. It covers five dimensions of leadership competency: 1) analytical, 2) communication, 3) student affairs, 4) behavioral, and 5) external relations. Smith used factor analysis to reduce the number of items in the ACE Model, resulting in a Communication Leadership Component consisting of these five items which mainly involve competency and effectiveness in interactions with varied constituencies, as well as articulation and presentation. See Table 2 for a list of these.

Leadership Competencies Scorecard 2.0 (LCS 2.0). Ruben created a

competencies framework in 2006 and updated it in 2012. His Leadership Competencies Scorecard 2.0 (LCS 2.0) was based on an extensive review of the literature and comprises five leadership areas: 1) Analytical, 2) Personal, 3) Communication, 4) Organizational, and 5) Positional. The seven items comprising the communication module of LCS 2.0 relate mostly to issues of understanding, effectiveness, and competency in interactions and relationships with varied constituencies, articulation, persuasion, negotiation, and creating credibility and trust. These are shown in Table 2.

Table 2 below compares the various models' communication modules. Items involved in the transformation of the ACE model into the HELC model are shown in italics in this table.

Table 2

Model, Author, Year Published	Components
EALP	- The ability to identify the unspoken problem that lies
	beneath the surface of verbal communications
Wisniewski	- The ability to consider multiple perspectives
1999	- The ability to use language which is clear, direct, honest and respectful
Based on qualitative research	- The ability to depersonalize the problem/situation - to state it in objective terms
Primary Foci:	- The ability and willingness to provide an explanation for decisions made
Language, interpretation,	- The ability to utilize appropriate metaphors and analogies
explanation and media	- The ability to communicate in multiple forums: memos,
	newsletters, interpersonal interactions, formal meetings
Communication is one of seven	
competency categories	
ACE ¹	- Engages multiple perspectives, disciplines and voices in
	decision making
McDaniel	- Facilitates effective communication among people with
2002	different perspectives
	- Listens and observes, using frameworks to analyze and ask

Communication Components of Leadership Competency Models

Based on qualitative research	right questions in complex situations
Primary Foci:	- Communicates and interacts effectively with faculty, staff, and students and other constituencies in one-to-one and in
	small and large group settings, in writing and
Interactions with varied	electronically
constituencies, articulation,	- Expresses views articulately orally and in writing
presentation, effectiveness	- Engages in civil dialogue on controversial issues
-	- Articulates and communicates a vision
Communication is one of four	- Presents self well as a leader
competency categories	
HELC ¹	- Presents self well professionally as a leader
	- Communicates vision effectively
Smith	- Communicates effectively
2007	- Expresses views articulately in multiple forms of
	communication
Based on quantitative research	- Communicates effectively with multiple constituent groups
	in multiple contexts
Primary Foci:	
To take a stick as with a stick	
Interactions with varied	
constituencies, articulation, presentation effectiveness	
presentation effectiveness	
Communication is one of five	
competency categories	
LCS 2.0	- Credibility and Trust: Being admired, seen as magnetic,
	authoritative, honest, competent, and trustworthy
Ruben	- Influence and Persuasion: Convincing others to adopt
2012	advocated ideas, points-of-view, or behaviors
	- Interpersonal Relations and Team-Building: Creating
Based on review of the	effective interpersonal relationships, groups, and teams
literature	- Listening, Attention, Question-Asking and Learning:
	Attending verbally and visually to the thoughts, behaviors,
Primary Foci:	and actions of others
The dependence diverse office of income	- Writing and Public Speaking: Conveying information,
Understanding, effectiveness,	ideas and opinions clearly through writing and oral
interactions and relationships	presentations Diversity and Intercultural Relations: Valuing and
with varied constituencies,	- Diversity and Intercultural Relations : Valuing and
articulation, persuasion, negotiation, credibility, trust	working effectively with both men and women, and individuals of varying cultural, racial, ethnic, political, or
negotiation, credibility, itust	life-style orientations
Communication is one of five	- Facilitation, Negotiation, and Conflict Resolution:
competency categories	Convincing others to adopt advocated ideas, points-of-
	view, or behaviors
	HELC models are in italics.

¹Areas of similarity between ACE and HELC models are in italics.

Assessing the four models. None of these assessment models have been used with

presidents and board members in higher education. Most were not constructed with the

involvement of presidents or board members in higher education. Also, none were used to assess communication during the hiring process. However, the populations they sampled were very high level personnel in the academic hierarchy, which constitutes an approximation of the desired population. Also, they were designed for use in higher education, which gives them an advantage over more generic models for the purposes of the present study.

The most recent version of the EALP model was developed based on a geographically and institutionally limited sample of approximately 130 faculty and staff who completed a leadership training program at one large public university in the central United States (Wisniewski, 1999). This leads to concern about how well it may be adapted to other types of universities and how it will perform with a broader population. The ACE model originally proposed by Mc Daniel in 2002, while based on a more diverse group from different types of institutions and areas of the US, is limited because it was created based on just thirty individuals chosen to participate in the ACE Fellows program. In both the EALP and HELC models, the individuals were either interested in obtaining specific training in leadership, or already received such training, which makes them somewhat unique and further limits generalizability.

When Smith transformed the ACE model into the HELC model in 2007, he used a larger sample of 295, all from NCAA Division I schools. Their titles mainly included athletic director, student affairs officer and chief academic officer, so again board members were not involved, although some presidents were consulted. HELC represents a more varied and larger sample than the previous two models, however, NCAA Division I schools are not representative of all schools. Moreover, the HELC model is based largely on individuals with specific domains of expertise, whereas board members and presidents deal with a larger set of issues and constituencies. Also, because board members may not have a great deal of academic leadership expertise, the HELC model may not be the best one to use when studying them. However, Smith's research was very useful in testing the ACE model, which he found did not fit the data very well. This result is unsurprising, given that the population from which the ACE model was derived was limited in several ways, as discussed above.

Relative to the other three models, LCS 2.0 has several important advantages. First, it offers a key phrase to describe each communication competency, then explains the various aspects of that competency in a clear and detailed manner. This may make it easy for respondents and those interviewed to understand each competency and apply it to their experiences accurately. Second, it has the most varied array of foci when considering the underlying dimensions of these competencies. Third, because it is the most recent model, it is based on the most current literature, which makes it more relevant in today's complicated and sometimes turbulent world of higher education. Fourth, because it is based on extensive research of the literature rather than on a small or non-representative sample of individuals, it is more robust. Fifth, while it has mostly been used in higher education, it could also be used in other sectors. This makes LCS 2.0 the ideal model to use in future research that compares leadership communication competencies in higher education to other sectors.

This study considers and potentially addresses two drawbacks of using LCS 2.0. LCS 2.0's competencies have not been shown to be related to successful leadership overall or in higher education and the competencies have not been validated by empirical quantitative research. However, a recent doctoral dissertation did perform an empirical, qualitative analysis of presidential leadership competencies (Agnew, 2014). If many of this study's participating presidents are considered successful leaders by their governing boards, it could provide limited, preliminary validation of LCS 2.0 for use in evaluating communication competencies related to leadership in higher education. Additionally, the quantitative results of this study may be useful in potentially validating LCS 2.0's communication competencies.

Although all these models offer options for assessing competencies, none directly address the emotional undertones of communication that decision-making literature suggests may be involved in hiring. Gendered communication issues also are not addressed in these models. These gaps provided the impetus for creating the set of behavioral communication competencies used in this study.

Employee Selection and Gender

Gender parity occurs at various levels in the university, fueled by the 1972 passage of the Title IX of the Education Amendments, which prohibit discrimination by gender in any federally funded educational program or activity. By 1982, half of college graduates were women (Eagly & Carly, 2007). Yet in 1980, only 10% of university and college presidents in the US were women (Cook, 2012; Lapovsky, 2014). The idea of a woman being selected as the president of a university or a college, half of whose students are female, seems like a logical step toward representing many of a university's stakeholders. Yet, paradoxically, gender parity in the presidency has not been achieved in twenty-five years, although some progress has occurred.

Women are relatively new to the office of president in higher education, particularly at highly selective and elite institutions. Research spanning the period between the early 1970s and 2007 indicates that the demographic norm for a college president was a white, married, 50-ish, Protestant, well-off, family man with a doctorate in education (Bennis, 1973; Cook, 2012). While presidents' race and ethnicity held relatively stable prior to today, gender diversity increased (Lapovsky, 2014). Although the number of women college and university presidents doubled in the twenty-five-year period between 1986 (10%) and 2011 (26%), the numbers have not risen since then (Lapovsky, 2014). In 2014, 26% of university presidents were women, indicating that advancement toward gender parity plateaued during those five years (Lapovsky, 2014). Progress at some types of institutions outpaces progress at others. For instance, women presidents are more prevalent at community colleges than at four-year colleges or universities, with 33% of two year colleges versus between 22% to 23% of colleges and universities that award bachelor's, master's, and doctoral degrees being led by women in 2011 (Cook, 2012). Yet, there are persistent inequities in the system that fundamentally may be related to communication.

In comparison, among U.S. corporations, the pace of change in this area is slower. Going back to 2007, 23% of college and university presidents were female whereas more recently, in 2016, only 4% of Fortune 500 companies' CEOs were female (King & Gomez, 2007; Zarya, 2016). Why would the corporate and academic worlds operate so differently with respect to this issue? If, as Bowen and Tobin (2015) state, "Governance has always been a product of the times, and it has evolved in response to the pressing needs of new days", then this change in women's leadership roles could be a socially prompted shift in thinking (p. 218). In that case, one would expect that changes in presidential leadership relating to gender would be evident throughout the academy and throughout the corporate sphere. Yet, this is not quite the case. Therefore, an examination of those bellwether institutions in which change has occurred is essential for understanding the direction of higher education leadership and governance.

Given higher education's tendency toward being slow to change, and toward stability, this degree of change in a relatively short span of about 20 years is surprising and perhaps somewhat counter-logical, therefore its evolution elicits curiosity (Gayle, Tewarie & White, 2003; Bowen & Tobin, 2015). One might wonder what was communicated by, to, and about these women that led to their success in the presidential search process.

In addition to calling for investigation into the relationship between higher education governance and communication, multiple scholars have called for investigation into the relationship between gender and communication (Canary & Hause, 1993; Putnam, 1982). In a recent qualitative study of female presidents, these women often cited communication as an important facet of their presidential skill set (Wolverton, 2009). This study will add to our knowledge of gender and academic leadership because little empirical research on this topic has been completed, despite an expressed need for it in addition to its relevance among women presidents (Rosser, 2003). With more women presidents in the academy, the quality of their communication skills becomes even more important (Cook & Kim, 2012).

Research demonstrates that women and men lead and communicate in different ways, with men tending to be more transactional and women leaning toward a more transformational leadership style (Dominici et al. 2009; Rosener, 1990). In transactional leadership, leaders are controllers in a quid-pro-quo arrangement, in which they expect something from their followers, who are then rewarded if they produce it and punished if they do not (Burns, 1978; Northouse, 2013). In contrast, transformational leaders are not as interested in control, punishment, and reward, but seek to transform themselves and their followers through a synergy created by working together, encouraging, and elevating each other (Burns, 1978; Northouse, 2013). The transformational style is thought to align more closely with today's higher education needs, although it may not be practiced in reality (Dominici et al., 2009). Exploring the transformational leadership skills, including communication competencies, that women bring to their positions may assist both men and women as they address the challenges of the presidency and may be especially helpful to women striving for the presidency. One specific aspect of gender studies, Role Congruity Theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002), may facilitate extending understanding of this area.

Role Congruity Theory posits that when women step outside their stereotypical role of nurturing and caring to become assertive or agentic, they are regarded unfavorably (Eagly & Karau, 2002). This may affect perceptions of their leadership skills, since women are less likely than men to be considered good leaders, according to Eagly and Karau. Women who communicate in a non-communal or agentic style are disliked and less likely to be hired (Carli, 2001; Rudman & Glick, 2001). This creates a dilemma for women leaders in that they need to be both communal in order to be liked, but agentic in order to get the job done (Hoyt, 2010). Investigating if, and how, women presidents achieve this balance via communication may offer clues for how to successfully relate to predominantly male governing boards.

Some women have mastered this balancing act and their effective communication competency may be related to this. A qualitative study of nine female presidents in academe found that they were "consummate communicators" who understood the "power of words" (Wolverton, 2009, pp. 4-5). Learning more about the special skills that female presidents possess may assist other women in reaching the highest levels of the academic hierarchy. It may offer them a roadmap to follow so that they cultivate the communication competencies needed to successfully fulfill the job of president.

Employee selection, gender, and similarity. There is a potential rival explanation to the gendered explanation for this phenomenon, inspired by general research on homophily and Rivera's (2012) specific work on cultural matching. Investigating similarities between those doing the hiring and those who are candidates for these top leadership positions may help understand the role that gender plays in such decisions in that it may not be as large a role as suspected. If other similarities outweigh gender concerns in hiring decisions, gender becomes a non-issue and in some situations that appear to be primarily about gender, other important factors are involved that were not previously considered. Our current assumptions about how the selection and hiring process works may be reoriented by what is found in this research.

Gender, diversity, and profits. Considerable research has been done to ascertain if women produce better financial outcomes for corporations. This research may have some bearing on the current study. Although there is some debate about the relationship between board diversity by gender affecting corporate bottom-line results, there is some Fielevidence that women presidents and board members may make a slight positive difference in corporate finances, although reverse causality may be a concern (Eagly, 2016). The Harvard Business Review indicates that new research, which attempts to compensate for the limitations of earlier work, shows that when a company goes from having no top-level executives and no female board members to having these positions consist of women 30 percent of the time, corporate profitability increases by 15% (Noland & Moran, 2016). A study from the Netherlands indicates that firms with female board members outperform those with no female board members (Luckerath-Rovers, 2013). If top-tier women executives can generate financially superior results in the corporate sector, perhaps similar results are possible in higher education. Considering declines in funding from state governments, it may be prudent to focus attention on choosing presidents who can generate more income for academic institutions and entertain the possibility that women may be good candidates in this respect.

University and College Governing Boards and Similarity

Focusing next on a related aspect of the presidential selection process, we turn to the governing boards at these institutions. In many private universities, these boards are large, with possibly ten to twenty members, and typically consist of individuals from varied corporate backgrounds but who also have demographic homogeneity (Nason, 1980). Individuals typically have been asked to join the board based on their ability to contribute funds to the university (Bennis, 1973). Given that the corporate world has so few women presidents, it is interesting to note that although these university board members typically are from the corporate world, they behave very differently in academic settings by accepting women as presidents for their universities.

Historically, the typical composition of academic boards of trustees was fairly homogeneous in terms of demographic and psychological characteristics (Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges, 1980). The principle of homophily proposes that similarity is what determines connections between people, and is often metaphorically described by the phrase "birds of a feather flock together" (McPherson, Smith-Lovin & Cook, 2001). Initial studies of social networks indicate that homophily may be demographic and psychological (McPherson et al., 2001). Findings from mail surveys of 618 board members and 680 presidents of community colleges belonging to the Association of Community College Trustees found that they were very much alike in gender and age (Vaughan & Weisman, 1997). The 1997 study did not distinguish between boards that were appointed versus those that were elected. Some boards may have a combination of appointed and elected members. This represents a limitation of this study because potential variability produced by election versus appointment was not taken into account. It should also be noted that these numbers only represent 14% of the trustee population in contrast to 74% of the presidential population, indicative of very selective participation by trustees, which additionally limits generating implications of these results. However, this study is important because it provides information on the role of similarity in hiring.

From this perspective, it is likely that boards may tend to choose presidents with whom they have much in common. As described earlier, two types of homophily exist: status and value (McPherson et al., 2001). In status homophilous relationships, the ties that connect people are based on their formal or informal status, while valuehomophilous connections are based on attitudes and beliefs (McPherson et al., 2001). Boards are typically homogeneous on both value and status (McPherson et al., 2001). This presents an additional explanation to more gender-specific theories.

Summary of knowledge claims from the literature. Communication can help frame a situation (Fairhurst & Saar, 1996) and communication competency is important. Four communication competency models existed at the time of this study: EALP (Wisniewski, 1999), ACE (McDaniel, 2002), HELC (Smith, 2007), LCS 2.0 (Ruben, 2012). Of these, LCS 2.0 comes closest to the ideas being investigated in this dissertation. The leadership communication segment of LCS 2.0 includes: Credibility and Trust; Influence and Persuasion; Diversity and Intercultural Relations; Facilitation, Negotiation and Conflict Resolution; Writing and Public Speaking; Listening, Question-Asking, Attention and Learning; Interpersonal Relations and Team-Building.

There are more women in the academic leadership pipeline now, yet the number of women reaching the presidency has not changed very much in the past several years. The literature suggests that men and women communicate in slightly different manners. Women face difficulties in leadership roles relating to Role Congruency Theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002). If women do not behave in what is considered a feminine manner, as expected, they face a backlash effect (Rudman & Glick, 2001).

Cultural matching often occurs in hiring decisions (Rivera, 2012) and along with the Homphily Principle (McPherson et al., 2001) may be applied to the hiring process. Boards represent a very homogenous group (McPherson et al., 2001) and they may choose to hire presidents who would fit in with that group because they are similar to the members of the board. Several gaps in the literature that could be addressed by this study have been identified. They are:

Gap: What is the relationship between higher education leadership and communication?

Gap: What are the gendered communication issues involved in hiring a president?

Gap: What is the role of cultural matching in the presidential hiring process?

Gap: Agency Theory suggests that supervisors and employees have differing perspectives and act differently. This theory could be applied to college presidents and governing boards because the question of whether boards and presidents communicate differently has yet to be explored.

In short, the existing knowledge in this topical area is minimal because no empirical research has been found that involves the presidential selection process, communication, and gender (Lapovsky, 2014; Rosser, 2003; Williams, 2015). Due to this scarcity of information, a goal of this thesis is to explore issues of communication and gender in the selection of presidents by governing boards.

Chapter 3: Pilot Study

Prior to the main study, a pilot study was conducted for code development to inform the questionnaires. It was also used to address concerns regarding a) the pace of recruiting, b) how forthright and forthcoming respondents would be, and c) how well respondents recalled the presidential search process. The pilot study employed both qualitative and quantitative methods.

Sample and Sampling: Interviews and Surveys

A sample list was constructed using Inside Higher Ed's "New Presidents or Provosts" announcements of recently appointed presidents in the first calendar year quarter of 2013. This timeframe was used to determine if there was adequate recall of the events of the presidential search process three years prior.

Female presidents were targeted in order to assess whether there were any genderrelated communication issues that needed to be included in the questionnaire. On this list, there were 15 four-year institutions and six two-year colleges. However, only 20% of the presidents of those four-year institutions were female, whereas 83% of the presidents of those two-year colleges were female. Hence, the population from which this sample was drawn consisted largely of two-year institutions. For the sake of comparison, 2015 data indicates that 33% of community college presidents and 22% to 23% of four year institutions were female (June, 2015).

Sampling began by contacting the administrative assistant or the board of trustee's secretary/professional to obtain information about how to contact the board and president. This was done based on the results of another dissertation that involved interviewing board members and presidents (Holloway, 2015). In every instance, the

assistants and professionals were helpful and granted me access to the contact information, often securing the president's agreement to participate. They were aware of the president's schedule and could determine whether or not interviewing was feasible within my timeframe.

Sampling occurred in either of two ways. In single phase sampling, board members and presidents were recruited simultaneously in order to obtain individuals from the same institution so that the consistency of their answers could be checked. In two-phase sampling, board members and presidents were recruited sequentially, so that interview sampling was done first and after the interviews were completed and initially coded, questionnaire recruiting began. This latter method was used in order to develop a worst-case scenario estimate of the timeframe for the study.

It is important to note that a more restrictive sample was used than for the main study. Only women presidents and male board members were sampled, whereas the full study involved presidents and board members of both genders. This was done to determine the outermost perimeter of the sampling timeframe and to make recruitment more stringent so that the amount of time needed for the full study would not be underestimated.

Recruitment Procedures: Interviews and Surveys

The interview script was always provided in advance, based on recommendations from a dissertation in which upper level academic administrators were interviewed (Agnew, 2014). Both the board member and the president who were interviewed indicated that they appreciated seeing the questions in advance because answering the questions required reflection, so providing these when recruiting for the full study is suggested.

Unless the quota was already filled, a minimum of three attempts were made to contact each prospective participant. Initial contacts were always conducted by phone and via the assistants or professionals. Follow-ups were either via phone or email.

Of the eight institutions in the sample, a total of five were contacted initially to determine if anyone on their boards would be interested in completing an interview or a survey. At only one of those institutions did the board decline to be interviewed or surveyed. Overall, trustees' interest in being interviewed was surprisingly good.

Of the eight institutions in the sample, three presidents were initially contacted for the interview. The president who completed the interview was recruited after one contact, during an eight-day period that included one weekend. Her interview occurred five days later, immediately after the interview with the trustee from the same institution.

As soon as a president agreed to be interviewed, recruiting of another president to complete the questionnaire began. Four other presidents were also interested in participating in the questionnaire, but the pre-test quota was already full. The remaining two presidents were in the process of deciding at the time that this was being written.

This means that following up during recruiting is especially important in securing participation. Additionally, cross-recruiting is possible because, at five minutes in length, the questionnaire is even shorter than the fifteen-minute interview, so it is reasonable to attempt to recruit a respondent for the questionnaire should he or she decline to be interviewed. In additional support of this, one president's assistant also indicated that due to her travel schedule, an online survey would be easier to complete than an interview.

Overall, recruitment for the presidents' questionnaire took 18 days, which included one weekend and a fortnight holiday break.

Timing: Interviews and Surveys

Recruitment began December 3, 2015. The interview phase was completed on December 15, 2015 and the questionnaires were finished on January 4, 2016. Total recruiting time was one month, including a two-week holiday break during which no recruiting occurred. Based on this, recruiting presidents and board members appeared to be very difficult and time-consuming, but not impossible.

Qualitative Instruments: Interview Scripts

One in-depth personal telephone interview each was conducted with a male trustee and a female president, both from the *same* community college.

The interview scripts for board members and presidents were prepared using five questions, two of which employed the Critical Incident Technique (CIT) (Flanagan, 1954). The CIT questions are designed to elicit specific crucial events in the respondent's memory (Flanagan, 1954). Designing questions in terms of positive and negative experiences is one prescribed way of using the CIT (Radford, 2006). This technique was employed because it is helpful in exploratory research to understand important negative and positive occurrences (Kain, 2004; Sharoff, 2008). It is particularly vital that the CIT facilitates the rapid relay of information by the respondent, which is important in this research study because the presidents and board members have many commitments and little free time (Sharoff, 2008).

The critical incident method has been used successfully in a variety of disciplines (Butterfield, Borgen, Amundsen & Maglio, 2005). However, there are disadvantages to

CIT which must be noted. First, it relies on the respondent's own reporting of the incident, which may be biased or incorrect (Kain, 2004). CIT also presumes that the respondent has a clear memory of the event in question, which may not always be the case and which may result in fabrications relating to the critical event (Sharoff, 2008). Finally, coding of categories, if not conducted carefully, may become overly subjective, so caution must be exercised in the analysis of data collected using the CIT (Grove & Fisk, 1977). Being aware of these potential disadvantages may allow the researcher to overcome them by employing proper data collection and analysis techniques.

A pair of CIT-style questions asked of board members in this dissertation are: 1) Take a moment to think about your involvement in the search for a new president for this university and try to recall a memorable event in which a female presidential candidate exhibited communication that helped her move into the presidency and 2) Take a moment to think about your involvement in the search for a new president for this university and try to recall a memorable event in which a female presidential candidate exhibited communication that did not help her move into the presidency.

Additional information regarding the interview scripts is found in Appendices B and C. Three additional questions asked in the interviews were:

- Has there ever been an instance of discord involving communication between the president and one or more board members?
- Please tell me which communication skills you seek when selecting a president.

3) Research indicates that men and women sometimes communicate in slightly different ways. Have you noticed any differences in the communication styles of male and female academic presidents or presidential candidates?

Qualitative Analysis of Interviews: Coding Method

Both interviews were transcribed by the researcher. The researcher completed all coding using the constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967 cited in Charmaz, 2014), without using coding software.

Coding was conducted to explore three major areas:

1) female candidates' communication during the search and selection process

2) the key communication skills that boards seek in a president

3) episodes of conflict and how they were handled from a communicative perspective.

In compliance with standard recommended procedures for coding, interviews were coded twice (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The initial coding was done immediately after the interview was transcribed. Coding targeted "themes, causes or explanations, relationships among people and theoretical constructs" (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 69). Simultaneously, in-vivo codes were obtained, using the respondent's own language. In-vivo coding is a method for analyzing transcripts in which the actual words or "vivid language" of the persons being interviewed are used to name codes or concepts, instead of the researcher applying his or her own words to the codes or concepts (Corbin & Strauss, 2014; Lindloff & Taylor, 2011, p. 251). Several interesting comments, which some may call "juicy quotes" that exemplified important themes were noted as part of the in-vivo coding. Initial coding was followed by focused coding, in which overarching

themes were identified via data consolidation (Charmaz, 2014). The focused coding was performed after multiple re-examinations of the transcripts and extensive reflection. A list of themes was compiled and a mini-codebook was developed using those themes. Codes were mapped to research questions and the LCS 2.0's communication competency categories to check for comparability (Ruben, 2012). Consistencies and differences between the trustee and the president were also noted.

Phrases or "chunks" of text were the unit of analysis. Each sentence was considered in the context of the paragraph and then in the context of the whole text. All coding proceeded using the constant comparative method in which comparisons are made within each interview as well as between interviews (Glaser & Strauss, 1967 cited in Charmaz, 2014; Corbin & Strauss, 2014; Lindloff & Taylor, 2011). In addition, the seven categories within the Communication Competencies segment of LCS 2.0 were used as a backdrop for coding (Ruben, 2012). Aspects of six of these competencies that were represented in these two pilot interviews and the areas in which the responses of the trustee and the president overlap are displayed in Table 3.

Table 3

Competencies	Specific Overlaps	Indicated by
Credibility and trust	Honest, competent	President,
		Trustee
Influence and	No Overlap	Not Indicated
persuasion		
Interpersonal	Team work, team-building, creating	President,
relations and team-	effective interpersonal relationships, groups	Trustee
building	and teams	

LCS 2.0 Pilot Test Communication Competencies

Listening attention, question-asking, and	Attending visually and verbally to the thoughts, behaviors and actions of others	President
learning		
Writing and public	Conveying ideas, information and opinions	President,
speaking	clearly though writing and oral	Trustee
	presentations	
Diversity and	Valuing and working effectively with both	President,
intercultural	men and women	Trustee
relations		
Facilitation,	Conflict resolution, encouraging the	President,
negotiation and	expression of varying points of view,	Trustee
conflict resolution	effectively addressing tensions and conflicts	

Qualitative Analysis of Interviews: Code Development

Emotion, honesty and trust drove the selection process according to the board member. Additional key codes were: conflict resolution, analytical competency, teambuilding and balance. Conflict resolution involved resilience, and the avoidance of confrontation and negative communication. Throughout the interview, the board member talked about emotion and objectivity, nurturing and disciplinary toughness, confidence and overconfidence, selling and overselling. He saw these as "subtleties" that influenced his judgment of the presidential candidate.

The president's perspective was somewhat different, centering on resilience, fairness, teamwork, stakeholder communication, and downplaying conflict by seeing it as "normal". She saw the selection process as open and fair and considered it her duty to keep stakeholder communication alive and work as a team player. Thoughts expressed by both the trustee and the president were: teamwork, openness, resilience, and avoiding confrontation and negative communication. Codes for both interviews are displayed in Tables 4 and 5.

Table 4

Themes	Trust	Emotion	Conflict resolution	Analytical Competency	Team building	Balance
	Honesty (2)	Emotional sensitivity/caring/ compassion (3)	Resilience (5)	Conciseness (3)	Team approach (2)	Academic leadership as not gendered- male- female balance (3)
	Openness/ Absence of secrecy (4)	Emotional awareness (2)	Non- confrontational (3)	Condensing/ filtering information (3)	Inclusive (as opposed to autocratic) (1)	Emotion vs. objectivity/ facts (2)
	Honor/ Honorable intent (2)	Emotional toughness/ability to discipline (2)	Avoid negative communication (2)	Objective (1)	Keep people talking with each other (1)	Selling vs. overselling (2)
	Not overselling (2)	Confident/Not insecure (4)	Able to communicate about tough issues (1)	Decision maker/ Decision helper (1)		Nurturing (3) vs. toughness (5)
Codes and Number of	Not bragging (5)		Self-policing by board of trustees (2)	Ability to communicate strategy and options (1)		Confidence (2) vs. over- confidence (5)
Mentions		Guardianship/ parental role (maternal/paternal instinct) (4)		Precision (1)		Present facts <i>and</i> emotions to trustees (2)
		Nurturing (3)		Not appear ineffective (1)		
		Emotional attachment to the job (1) Emotional commitment to the				
		job (1) Passion for the job (2)				
		People-oriented (2) Emotional detachment (not take things personally) (1)				
		Emotion as gendered (3) /Emotional awareness as subtle difference between men and women leaders (1)				

Pilot Test Interview Themes, Codes, and Counts: Trustee

Table 5

Themes	Fairness	Conflict Resolution	Stakeholder communication	Teamwork	Resilience
	Equal treatment (3)	External stakeholders source of differences of opinion (1)	Job is to communicate with internal stakeholders, i.e., faculty and staff (1)	Not autocratic (1)	Thick-skinned (1)
	Objective (3) [Fair (1) Open (1) Objective (1)]	Difference of opinion is normal (2)	Other internal stakeholders, (i.e., non-academic trustees on the board) and discomfort (2)	Not top- down leadership (1)	Endure things (1)
	Not gendered (8)	Discomfort, not discord (1)	President is responsible for listening <i>and</i> speaking (1)		Keep going (1)
Codes and Number of Mentions	Structured interview process (all candidates receive same interview questions) (1)	Avoid negative communication (1)	Clear communication, i.e., no misunderstandings between president and trustees (2)		Accomplish things/Get it done (2)
	Subtle changes over time in gender fairness (1)	Emotional detachment/See conflict as a problem to be solved (1)			Problem-solving as trait of presidents (1)
		Nuanced gendered communication (3)			Handle/ Manage the situation (1)
		Use situational leadership for problem-solving (1)			Positive attitude/Avoid negativity (Non- confrontational) (3)

Pilot Test Interview Themes, Codes, and Counts: President

Quantitative Analysis of Questionnaires: Code Confirmation and Development

The quantitative pilot test involved an online survey of one male trustee and one

female president, but this time they were from *different* community colleges. The

purpose was the same as for the qualitative work. Open-ended questions were coded and closed-ended questions were tallied. The two interviews were then analyzed separately and compared to each other. Issues that surfaced in the questionnaire results were related back to the research questions, LCS 2.0 communication competencies, and the interview results.

Questionnaire responses were hand-tallied by the researcher. Due to the small number of interviews, only the most rudimentary descriptive data analysis is presented.

The president stated that she "hopes" that the top communication skill she demonstrates in interactions with the board is "honesty and transparency", although she added that she was "not sure that the board would agree" with that. She also said that "she tells them what they should know, but not necessarily everything they should know", which seems to indicate that she acts as an information filter for the trustees. On a similar note, the trustee indicated that the top communication skill his president possesses is the ability "to keep the board of trustees informed of all issues." It appears that the board wants complete information, whereas the president sees her job as a gatekeeper in communicating only certain information to the board.

When asked to rank order the importance of the seven communication competencies from the scorecard, the president and the trustee chose the same rankings for most of the competencies, with two exceptions. The trustee ranked Interpersonal Relations and Team-building towards the top, while the president ranked it toward the bottom. Similarly, the president ranked Facilitation, Negotiation and Conflict Resolution toward the top and the trustee ranked it toward the bottom. They both ranked Credibility and Trust as the most important competency, while Diversity and Intercultural Relations was considered the least important competency. Influence and Persuasion were ranked third, Writing and Public Speaking were ranked fourth and Listening, Attention, Question- asking and Learning were ranked fifth by both the president and the trustee. Rankings are presented in Table 6.

Table 6

Pilot Test Rank Order of Communication Competencies

Communication Competency	Ranked by Trustee	Ranked by President
Credibility and Trust	1	1
Interpersonal Relations and Team-building	2	6
Facilitation, Negotiation and Conflict Resolution	6	2
Influence and Persuasion	3	3
Writing and Public Speaking	4	4
Listening, Attention, Question-asking, and Learning	5	5
Diversity and intercultural relations	7	7

Both the president and the trustee did not think that communication between the president and the governing board was very effective. The reason for this seems to lie more with the governing board than with the president. Both the trustee and the president ranked their boards at the midpoint or below for all but two communication competencies. Facilitation, Negotiation and Conflict Resolution, along with Influence and Persuasion, received low scores for effectiveness from both the president and the trustee. The evaluation of presidential communication competencies was almost exactly the

opposite, with all but two scores being on the high end of the scale and the remaining competency scores falling at the scale's midpoint.

Concerns Addressed by the Pilot Study and Lessons Learned

As noted earlier, one purpose of the pilot study was to assess the validity of several concerns about executing the study. These are discussed next.

Concern #1: the pace of recruiting and fielding. Because recruiting for a small number of interviews and surveys took a considerable amount of time, the concern about recruiting and fielding was justified. Therefore, a relatively long time frame for the study must be accepted. Additional useful information was gleaned from the pilot study with respect to recruiting and fielding.

Lessons learned for recruiting and fielding.

1. Always contact the gatekeepers first via personal phone calls. These are the presidents' assistants and the board secretaries, sometimes also called board professionals.

2. Always provide the interview script in advance. This serves to make the respondents comfortable with the questions, avoids them feeling blindsided by any particular question, and gives them time to ruminate and let their answers gel. It saves time during the interview as well, according to the board member interviewed.

3. Cross-recruit whenever possible to save time and maximize participation.

4. Follow-up during recruiting every two days to keep your request "top-of-mind."

5. Allow extra time for recruiting presidents because they travel extensively.

6. Keep interview scripts and surveys as short as possible, because these are extraordinarily busy people.

Concern # 2: respondents as forthcoming and forthright. The concern about being forthright and forthcoming was explored using both the interviews and the surveys with the presidents and the board members.

Interviews. In general, the presidents and board members responded to the interview questions quickly and without hesitation. The president was slightly guarded at the beginning of the interview and indicated that the concept of a critical incident did not apply to her experience because her selection was more of a *process* than a set of discrete incidents. The president interviewed asked for more information about how the data collected would be used. Perhaps providing more information at the start of the interview would have been helpful in eliciting more detailed responses, since her initial reticence was followed by more open responses. Developing rapport at the start of the interview also tends to put respondents at ease and reduces hesitancy.

This president was not able to answer the first two critical incident questions very well, but she agreed to answer two additional questions and added her own comments after that as well. This interview lasted almost eighteen minutes, very close to the approximately fifteen minutes promised.

The board member was well prepared for the interview and had clearly put considerable thought into his responses to the interview questions. He was surprisingly candid, answered in detail, and his 34-minute interview was twice the amount of time requested. He also did not relate well to the critical incident idea at first, indicating that it was not "one major, stand-alone, in your face" moment, but subtler incidents that betokened the important skills that were needed in a president. This slight difficulty with the critical incident concept is not a surprise, since another dissertation noted a similar issue (Agnew, 2014).

The board member was also very open about discussing internal conflict, even when it reflected poorly on the board, indicating that he knew this would be confidential. Additionally, he confirmed what the president said, but in more detail and with greater specificity. From his description of the president, it seemed that her style of communication was non-confrontational and that her approach to negativity was to "take it on the chin, whether it's deserved or not" and re-channel it to her advantage. This confirmed my impression that the president was very circumspect in her communication, but also that it was in her nature to downplay the negative. Therefore, I was able to feel more comfortable with her interview responses as being forthright.

Questionnaires. Although they had the option to skip a question, no survey questions were omitted by either respondent, which could indicate that they did not experience any discomfort with what was being asked. The responses from both the board member and the president who completed questionnaires contained a full range of responses, both positive and negative. Surprisingly, the president gave the board multiple low ratings for effectiveness and most of the board member's ratings of the board were in the mid-range. Therefore, based on these pilot test results, it was expected that there would be little difficulty obtaining reasonably honest and open responses in the full study.

Lessons learned about respondents being forthright and forthcoming.

1. Provide respondents with a copy of the interview questions in advance, preferably at least a few days prior to the interview.

2. Explain the researcher's motives and interests more at the beginning of the interview if the respondent seems reticent. Take an extra moment to develop rapport.

3. Respect their time constraints by honoring the fifteen-minute time limit – do not go over unless you very politely ask for more time and they give you permission to do so. However, always encourage them to entertain additional questions.

4. Ask for additional comments at the end of the interview. Both the president and trustee who completed interviews offered useful insights in the open-ended "any other comments" section.

Concern # 3: recall of the presidential search and selection process. In the interviews, neither the president nor the board member had any problem recalling the search and selection process that occurred three years prior. There were no instances of "I don't recall" or "let me think about that because it was so long ago" or comments of that type. In fact, the board member was able to recount very specific facts and impressions of the process. The choice of president was seen by these individuals as a very serious and important event which they seem to have burned into their memory rather well. Additionally, as noted in the discussion of concern #2, no questions in the survey were omitted, corroborating the impression that recall of the events was clear and full. Therefore, it is anticipated that recall should not be problematic in the larger study.

Lesson learned about respondent recall. A three-year distance from the events being studied does not seem to present recall issues for respondents.

Summary of pilot test: key outcomes. Based on the interview with the board member, these key codes emerged: emotion, honesty/trust, conflict resolution, analytical competency, team-building, and balance.

From the president's interview, these key codes emerged: resilience, teamwork,

fairness, stakeholder communication and downplaying conflict.

The survey results reflected the following:

- the board member wants thoroughness in communication and information
- the president wants to be concise and relatively transparent
- although they differed along several dimensions, the board member and president agreed that credibility and trust were very important and diversity was least importance.
- neither the board member nor the president thought that the communication between the president and the board was highly effective.

From the pilot test, the following conclusions were derived:

- recruiting and fielding would be difficult and time consuming
- respondents would be forthright and forthcoming
- respondents would be able to recall events from the search process for at least three years in the past.

In short, the pilot study provided valuable information, especially regarding code construction, recruiting, and veracity of responses. These all indicated that the research plan, although not without difficulties, was viable.

Chapter 4: Method

Introduction

To address the research questions, a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods was used for the research design because neither method alone seems sufficient for exploring the topic. This allowed the gathering of "different but complementary data on the same phenomenon", which enhances the study's validity and increases its thoroughness (Edmonds & Kennedy, 2013, p. 149; Morse & Niehaus, 2009). The qualitative segment consists of in-depth, personal interviews, while the quantitative segment consists of online surveys of the presidents and board members. Thus, this is a mixed methods study designed to use qualitative and quantitative methods to more fully and deeply explore the topic, with the results from each method being used to verify and corroborate the other method's findings. This research also seeks to examine competencies and behaviors at the individual level as well as in the aggregate, i.e., for large groups of presidents and board members, and mixed methods research is reputed to be helpful in accomplishing this (Morse & Niehaus, 2009).

In considering the research methods, issues of reasoning methods, ontology and epistemology were considered. There are essentially two paths for reasoning. One path is inductive, in which theory is derived from the data collected (Bryman, 2004; Judd, Smith & Kidder, 1991). This is often accomplished though qualitative procedures, such as the semi-structured interviews conducted here (Morse & Niehaus, 2009). The other path of reasoning is deductive, in which a theory is conceived and data are collected to determine whether the theory is correct (Bryman, 2004; Judd et al., 1991). In this study, deductive reasoning is approached via the survey questions that are more structured and are based

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on the theories described earlier in this dissertation (Morse & Niehaus, 2009). By employing both types of reasoning, a more vivid and complete picture of the hiring process and the necessary competencies was composed. The interview results were used to inform the survey questions, which is one way that qualitative research may be used to develop a quantitative instrument (Krathwohl, 2009). This design is useful for data validation via triangulation of quantitative and qualitative results, and increases confidence in the results because the strengths of one method compensate for the weaknesses of the other (Stake, 1995; Edmonds & Kennedy, 2013; Tanner, 2013).

From an ontological perspective, this study takes a constructionist approach to board-president communication. It considers communication and the generation of meaning as an interactive, fluid, and socially-constructed phenomenon (Bryman, 2004; Creswell & Clark, 2011). By acknowledging individual differences in evaluations of skills and demonstrating this through the use of vivid language and "juicy quotes" from the participants, exploring a broad range of presidents' and board members' perceptions of competencies and behaviors is possible.

Epistemologically, this study takes a post-positivist approach by using the survey instrument for fielding the quantitative component of the study in an attempt to comprehend perceptions of competencies and behaviors with minimal involvement by the researcher (Creswell & Clark, 2011). Additionally, a pragmatic approach is taken because interviewing more than one group of people (i.e., board members and presidents) involved in the process may produce a more cohesive collective memory of the events than interviewing only one group. Therefore, this study takes a mixed method approach, using both qualitative and quantitative methods, both inductive and deductive reasoning, and both constructivist and post-positivist perspectives in order to develop as complete an understanding as possible of communication between governing board members and presidents.

Qualitative and Quantitative Sampling

Presidents and board members were recruited and interviewed. Purposeful sampling was used in which board members and presidents involved in a presidential search at a public or private, religiously affiliated or non-affiliated, two-year or four-year college or university in the US within the past three years formed the population from which the sample was drawn. Attempts were made to recruit equal numbers of men and women, although given the relative scarcity of female presidents and board members, ultimately that was not feasible. This original three-year timeframe resulted in too few respondents, so it was extended to the past five years. A recent dissertation involving presidents and board members found this timeframe workable (Holloway, 2015). For all interviews and surveys, a list of at 739 institutions with new presidents taking office from January 1, 2012 through December 31, 2016 was generated using the feature "New Presidents or Provosts" from *Inside Higher Ed*, accessible via *Inside Higher Ed*. Each institution's president and governing board were contacted and invited to participate in the study.

Qualitative Interviews: Recruiting

Those being recruited proved relatively difficult to contact and engage in the study because they were often insulated from researchers by gatekeepers (Hertz & Imber, 1995). Recruiting was therefore accomplished, as necessary, via contact with the

gatekeepers who were typically administrative assistants to the president or board secretaries. Gatekeepers were contacted by phone or email and asked for their assistance in either obtaining names and contact information for potential study participants or they were asked to forward the request to participate in the study to the president or board members. Following this, the researcher sent a personalized email letter of introduction about the study to each gatekeeper or directly to the president or board members. To remove any hesitation to participate, respondents being recruited for interviews were assured that all identifying information would be removed from their transcripts. Followup phone calls were made shortly after the letter was sent, to encourage voluntary involvement in the study. A consent letter was collected from each person who completed an interview and consent was given via the online questionnaire by all who responded to the survey. For interviews, the letter requested permission to digitally record and physically transcribe the interviews. Once consent was obtained, either an interview or a survey was completed. Rutgers IRB approval was granted on April 12, and the field period commenced six days after that, on April 18, 2017.

Overall, a total of 29 presidents and 17 board members were contacted and asked to participate in the interviews. Of the 29 presidents, a total of four responded, including one pilot study interview, producing a response rate of 14%. Board members were somewhat easier to recruit. Of the 17 board members contacted, 4 completed interviews, including one pilot test interview, for a response rate of 24%.

Qualitative Instruments: Interview Scripts

There were two, very similar sets of interviews: one with board members and the other with presidents. Personal, in-depth interviews following a semi-structured script

were employed to allow for the greatest flexibility and to collect the richest data (Stake, 1995). Due to the geographic dispersion of the presidents and board members, interviews were conducted by telephone.

First, presidents and board members involved in the presidential search were asked about the communication skills that they believed to be important in a candidate. These two respondent groups provided the perspective of those doing the hiring as well as those being hired.

In accordance with the Critical Incident Technique (CIT), two questions were designed to elicit specific watershed moments in the respondent's memory of the hiring process (Flanagan, 1954). Time permitting, other potential questions were also asked to ascertain if there was a gendered perception of presidential communication competencies, or if an example of the competencies that made a candidate appropriate for the presidency could be provided. Demographic questions, such as age, race, and education level were also included to ascertain the background of the respondents. Additionally, to categorize the institutions, respondents were asked about their college or university's status (e.g., enrollment level, two-year versus four-year, private versus public, religious versus nonsectarian, size and gender of the governing board, etc.).

Pre-testing of all instruments was completed to check for any issues that could negatively affect the results (O'Connor, Personal Communication, 2015). Interview scripts, presented in Appendices B and C, were pre-tested via a pilot study to determine how administrators responded to the question wording, as discussed in the previous chapter. Boards, presidents, and high-level academic administrators have little time for participating in research studies, so these interviews needed to be short to secure their participation and to help prevent them ending the interview prematurely. The interviews were designed to be less than fifteen minutes long since the pilot test indicated that most presidents were willing to spend only fifteen minutes discussing this topic.

Four board members and four presidents were interviewed. Three of these interviews were transcribed by the researcher and five interviews were transcribed by a transcription service after its owner signed a confidentiality agreement. All interviews were coded by the researcher using constant comparative methods (Glaser & Strauss, 1967 cited in Charmaz, 2014, p. 54). To check for inter-coder reliability, two interviews (25%) were coded by a doctoral student in organizational communication. The initial result was Cohen's Kappa = .82, T = 16.06, p < .001, which is considered to be a very good level of inter-coder agreement (Hruschka, Schwartz, St. John, Picone-DeCaro, Jenkins & Carey, 2004; Warner, 2012).

Qualitative Interviews: Field Procedures

All the same procedures used in the pilot test interviews were used in the main study, except that interviewing proceeded until redundancies were observed at the eighth interview. All the same questions were used. There was a discussion about changing the critical incident questions because some respondents indicated that there was no one critical incident that swayed their decision. However, the lack of a singular incident is an important finding because it indicates that hiring decisions are made on a broader basis, rather than being based on only one particular event. Therefore, the questions that guided the main study interviews remained identical to those in the pilot study. The interview scripts are available in Appendices B and C.

Qualitative Analysis Method for Interviews

There were two reasons for conducting the qualitative research. First, these interviews were designed to determine if board members and president's comments reflected the literature on leadership skills generally, as well as specifically with respect to gender differences. If they did, then those items related to gender that were founded in the literature and reiterated in the interviews would be included in the questionnaire. Second, respondents' comments could be useful in interpreting the quantitative results and explaining how board members and presidents perceived communication competencies and behaviors.

In addition to the researcher coding all interviews, memos were written after each interview to assist in analyzing the interviews. These were used to elucidate the codes that had already been created and to formulate new codes. They were also useful in interpreting the interview data from both theoretical and analytical perspectives. The unit of analysis for the coding was phrases or "chunks" of text. Each of these was compared to the rest of the interview as well as to the other interviews.

Coding proceeded in two sequential phases. Open coding was done first. Phrases were analyzed to create categories to augment the codebook from the pilot study. At the same time, in vivo coding occurred, in which compelling words or phrases mentioned by the presidents and board members were incorporated into the codebook as well. The second phase was focused coding, in which the codes were arranged into larger conceptual areas. All of this was done in accordance with the constant comparative method recommended for qualitative research analysis (Glaser & Strauss , 1967 cited in Charmaz, 2014; Corbin & Strauss, 2014; Miles, Huberman & Saldana, 2014). To verify the reliability of the researcher's coding, a doctoral student coded two (25%) of the

interviews. Reliability analysis was conducted using SPSS, resulting in a Cohen's Kappa of .82, which indicates strong inter-coder reliability (Hruschka, et al., 2004; Warner, 2012).

Quantitative Surveys: Recruiting

Because this research is exploratory, additional statistical analysis is considered more descriptively informative than predictive. It was anticipated that a binary linear regression (BLR) would be performed to assess presidential gender with respect to communication skills. To perform this analysis, a minimum of ten individuals per independent variable is suggested (Peduzzi, Concato, Kemper, Holford & Feinstein, 1996). Since there were, at most, seven potential independent variables (IVs) in the communication module group, 70 presidents and 70 board members were needed for the BLR. Therefore, based on the statistical requirements of this data analysis method, a sample of 70 presidents and 70 board members was the goal. Although the selfadministered surveys obtained quantitative information, there were relatively few respondents due to the small universe from which they were drawn. Because it was difficult to obtain a large number of respondents, recruiting required extensive effort. In some cases, not enough quantitative data were collected to employ certain statistical analytical or modeling techniques beyond those of a descriptive nature.

Quantitative Instruments: Surveys

The survey portion of the research involved two short, online questionnaires: one for presidents and one for board members (see Appendices D and E). The major topics investigated were communication competencies and behaviors of presidents and board members. Given the busy schedules of the respondents, the questionnaires were designed to be completed within five to ten minutes. Pilot test results indicated that presidents were willing to complete a five-minute questionnaire.

Each survey began with an open-ended question which was coded by the researcher, again using constant comparative methods (Glaser & Strauss, 1967 cited in Charmaz, 2014, p. 54). To check for inter-coder reliability, one person from outside the university who had been trained in coding methods by the researcher coded a random sample of 10% of the responses. The result was Cohen's Kappa = .96, T = 16.05, p < .001, which is considered to be very good inter-coder agreement (Hruschka, et al., 2004; Warner, 2012).

Within the questionnaires, the communication competency module from a leadership scorecard, the Leadership Competencies Scorecard Inventory (LSC) 2.0, was used to assess the competencies that boards seek in a president. In addition to reasons stated previously, this scorecard module was used because it was both used and useful in a recent dissertation investigating college presidents' competencies (Agnew, 2014). It is similar to the HELC Model, which is essentially a quantitative data-driven refinement of McDaniel's theoretical model. However, LSC 2.0 is in an earlier stage of development, therefore, using LSC 2.0 here would also help advance our knowledge by providing some quantitative perspective for its theoretical underpinnings.

LCS 2.0's communication module assesses the "knowledge and skills necessary for effective interaction in interpersonal, group, organizational, and public settings" (Ruben, 2014). The seven variables that are included in the communication module, along with shorter versions of their names that will be used throughout this dissertation are:

- Credibility/Trust = Credibility and Trust
- Influence = Influence and Persuasion
- Relationships = Interpersonal Relationships and Team Building
- Writing/Speaking = Writing and Public Speaking
- Diversity = Diversity and Intercultural Relations
- Facilitation = Facilitation, Negotiation and Conflict Resolution
- Listening = Listening, Attention, Question-asking and Learning.

Further descriptions of the components of each of these variables is found in the questionnaires in Appendices D and E.

In the surveys, respondents were asked to assess the importance and the president's effectiveness in practice for each competency. These competencies are related to recruiting because they represent key abilities necessary to carry out the duties of the president, abilities on which board members must judge candidates for the presidency. These competencies also are related to retaining presidents because they represent key qualities that are needed for sitting presidents to maintain themselves in office when board members conduct performance evaluations of them. Board members rated their presidents' effectiveness in practice and presidents rated their own effectiveness in practice. Assessments were based on an eleven-point Likert scale, indicating that communication competence is not a binary concept, but that it exists along a continuum (Jablin & Sais, 2001). The choice of an eleven-point scale instead of the five-point scale used in LCS 2.0 reflects research indicating that eleven-point scales tend to capture more of the variance in the data (Dawes, 2002). Respondents also rank-ordered the importance of these competencies for a college or university president. Additional

questions on communication behaviors involved in the hiring process were evaluated similarly. These behaviors, along with shorter versions of their names that will be used throughout this dissertation are:

- Communal = Communal Communication
- Agentic = Agentic Communication
- Concise = Communicating Concisely
- Thorough = Communicating Thoroughly
- Emotion/Fact = Communicating Emotion and Fact
- Passion = Communicating a Passion for the Institution or its Mission.

These behaviors were generated from the literature and the pilot study (discussed in detail earier) and the interview results. Communal and Agentic were included based on research relating to Role Congruity and gender stereotyping by Carli (2001), Rudman and Glick (2001), Eagly and Karau (2002) and Hoyt (2010). Concise, Thorough, Emotion/Fact, and Passion were added based on the pilot study results.

Towards the end of the survey, a question gauging the importance of cultural alignment between the president and the board and another question asking for an assessment of the effectiveness of board-president communication in general were presented. Demographic and institutional profile questions relating to the respondent's college or university were also included. Respondents were given space to offer any additional comments, if they wished to do so.

Additional pertinent personal and institutional facts were added to the data base by the researcher after the field period ended. This information was collected from online sources including the institutions' official websites. Personal data added included the gender of the board members and presidents who participated in the survey, as well as the gender of the other members of the board. Institutional data included highest degree conferred, total enrollment, and institutional type (i.e., public/private, single-sex/co-ed, Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCU).

Quantitative Surveys: Field Procedures

The questionnaire was implemented via Qualtrics, a survey distribution platform, used to conduct online surveys (California State University Long Beach, n.d.; Qualtrics, n.d.). Two separate questionnaires, one for board members and one for presidents, were uploaded to the Qualtrics secure server. Respondents were invited to participate in the survey from April 18, 2016 to August 26, 2016, although no useable responses were received after July 29, 2016.

Each president accessed the survey via a personalized letter of introduction containing one individually generated personal link to the Presidents Questionnaire. Each board member accessed the survey via a personalized letter of introduction containing one individually generated personal link to the Board Members Questionnaire. In governing boards where a gatekeeper was involved, a letter of introduction served as the survey invitation. Such a letter contained as many unique personal links as the gatekeeper requested. In some cases, the gatekeeper was an assistant to the board or to the president and in some cases, the president was the gatekeeper for the board. Certain boards preferred not to be contacted unless the president was informed first and their wishes were respected.

No quotas were set and the survey was allowed to run for both presidents and board members until at least 70 board members and 70 presidents had completed their respective questionnaires. Finished questionnaires were inspected for completeness and consistency throughout the field period and those not deemed complete or consistent in their responses were eliminated at the close of the field period. The result was 70 completed questionnaires from board members and 73 completed questionnaires from presidents.

In several cases, multiple members from the same governing board wished to complete the questionnaire and they were allowed to do so. This decision was based on the information taken from the interviews and from news articles indicating that sometimes there are factions among boards, which lessened concern about redundant responses. When two individuals from the same governing board were interviewed, their responses, as well as their demographics, were markedly different. Additionally, because board members serve voluntarily in addition to perhaps holding other full-time jobs, their schedules are extremely tight and it was anticipated that they would be exceedingly difficult to recruit. Therefore, any board member who was willing to complete a survey was accepted.

Although the surveys were each anticipated to take between five and ten minutes to complete, several respondents mentioned that they planned to keep the survey open on their computers over a period of days and work on it a little at a time when they had a free moment. This impacted the data on overall survey duration, making it impossible to tell how long it actually took to complete the questionnaires. However, as noted earlier, these individuals are very busy, so this accommodation was necessary to ensure an adequate number of respondents. A grand total of 1,504 personal links to the surveys were distributed: 796 links (53%) were sent to presidents and 708 (47%) were sent to board members. Among presidents, 137 began the survey, 93 completed it and 73 surveys remained after cleaning for inconsistent or missing data, etc. Among board members, 125 started the survey, 89 completed it and 70 surveys remained after cleaning. To sum up, a total of 143 usable surveys were collected: 70 from board members and 73 from presidents. Response rates were 18% for board members and 17% for presidents. Completion rates were 68% for presidents and 71% for board members. Of all links sent, 9% led to useable surveys from presidents and 10% led to useable surveys from board members. Table 7 demonstrates how these numbers were calculated.

Table 7

Response	Rates	for	Surveys

	Board Members	Presidents	Total
Survey Links Distributed	708	796	1,504
Surveys Begun	125	137	262
Response Rate (Surveys Begun/ Survey Links Distributed)	18%	17%	17 %
Surveys Completed	89	93	182
Completion Rate (Surveys Completed/ Surveys Begun	71%	68%	70%
Useable Interviews	70	73	143
Useable Interviews/Links Distributed	10%	9%	10%

Assuring confidentiality and being transparent about how the data will be used are also keys to access, according to the AGB (2016). Framing the study as a vehicle for assessing their critical communication competencies may have enticed presidents and others to participate. Similarly, keeping interviews and questionnaires short may have removed a barrier to participation.

Quantitative Analysis Method for Surveys

The researcher performed data analysis using the SPSS and Stat Graphics statistical packages. Analysis primarily focused on descriptive statistics, including frequencies and means. Cross-tabulations of nominal level data for the individual competencies and behaviors by gender and respondents' institutional roles were created. In addition, cluster analysis was performed on the competencies and behaviors and the clusters were cross-tabulated with gender and respondents' institutional roles. Evaluation of the model was accomplished through correlations, canonical correlations and linear regressions. Linear and binary logistic regressions were employed to assess the predictive ability of the model. Binary logistic regressions were again utilized to assess the cultural alignment aspect of the model.

Chapter 5: Results

Introduction

This chapter is divided into two sections. The first section contains the findings of the qualitative phase of the main study. It includes an explanation of the recruiting and fielding along with demographic background of the board members and presidents who participated in the study. It also includes information about recurring patterns and themes found in the data. The second section recounts the results of the quantitative phase of the main study. It explores associations between behaviors and competencies and the respondent's role as either president or board member and the respondent's gender.

To clarify, all results that involve perceptions of effectiveness or cultural alignment reflect the skills that individuals demonstrate during their tenures as presidents. All other results relate to perceptions of the hiring process.

Demographics

Participant demographics. Three additional presidents and three additional board members were recruited and interviewed and their data were added to the interviews from the pilot test to produce a total of eight interviews. Although the small number of interviews did provide rich data, it was not sufficient for responses to be broken out by other variables, such as the type of institution or the manner in which board members were selected. The participants were primarily in their mid-fifties, Caucasian, had leadership experience in both academic and non-academic sectors and five of the eight participants had doctorates. Participants' demographic characteristics are displayed in Table 8, below.

Table 8

Participant	Age	Gender	Race	Education	Leadership Experience
President 1 (from pilot test)	64	Female	Caucasian	Ph.D.	Academic and non- academic
President 2	56	Female	Caucasian	Ph.D.	Academic
President 3	58	Male	Caucasian	Ph.D.	Academic and non- academic
President 4	55	Female	Caucasian	Ph.D.	Academic and non- academic
Board Member 1 (from pilot test)	56	Male	Caucasian	B.A.	Academic and non- academic
Board Member 2	56	Female	Hispanic Latino	M.A.	Academic and Non- academic
Board Member 3	81	Male	Caucasian	Ph.D.	Academic and Non- academic
Board Member 4	N/A	Male	African- American	M.A.	Academic and Non- academic

Participant Demographics (N=8)

Institutional demographics. All institutions were non-profit and co-ed. None were Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCU). Additional institutional characteristics are displayed in Table 9. In one instance, two individuals from the same institution were interviewed, and in another case, a board member was affiliated with several colleges as part of a state college system. Therefore, in Table 9, information is provided on a total of six institutions, rather than eight.

Table 9

Institutional Characteristics (N=6)

Characteristic	Categories	Number
Type of Institution	Public	2
	Private/Religious	4
Highest Degree Granted	A.A.	1
	M.A.	2
	Ph.D.	3
Total Enrollment	Under 3,000	3
	3,000-9,999	3
	10,000 or more	0
Board Selection Method	Self-elected	4
	Elected by community and campuses	1
	Appointed by state governor	1
Gender Composition of Board	Relatively equal mix of male and female	1
	Mostly male	5

Qualitative Analysis - Interviews

As a result of qualitative analysis of the eight interviews, the following results were found. To begin, the critical incident questions were analyzed. Four of the eight board members and presidents interviewed were unable to recall a critical incident that they felt helped move a woman (or in the case of sitting presidents, themselves) into the presidency. Two individuals indicated that they could not identify such an incident because numerous events were involved in judging candidates, rather than just one. Of the board members who did have a response to the question of critical incidents that helped move a woman into the presidency, two said that these incidents involved a female candidate showing passion or love for the institution, and one board member said that it involved a female candidate making eye contact and shaking hands with everyone in the room, not just those who were the most powerful or influential. One president said that the board's thorough and inclusive search procedures helped move him into the presidency.

Four of the eight interviewed were unable to recall a critical incident that they felt did not help move a woman (or themselves, in the case of sitting presidents) into the presidency. Of those who did recall a critical incident, these were their responses. One board member indicated that a female candidate over-promoted herself and did not focus on the school as much as she did on herself. Similarly, another board member indicated that a candidate's arrogant style of speaking did not help move her into the presidency. A third board member indicated that a male candidate gave a poor response to a question on diversity and appeared to be uncomfortable discussing the topic. One president could not recall an incident that helped move her, as a candidate, into the presidency. However, after she became president, a critical incident occurred in which one board member repeatedly blindsided her by acting without consulting her and that caused her to leave that presidency and take a position elsewhere. In summary, passion for the institution helped move women into the presidency and arrogance and bragging kept them from moving into the presidency.

Through further qualitative analysis of the eight interviews, additional results emerged. Data were found to suggest seven themes, six that emerged in interviews with four presidents and seven that emerged in four interviews with board members. Presidents and board members' comments were coded into six and seven themes, respectively, to be described more fully in the next section. Six of these themes were common to both presidents and board members and one theme was unique to board members. Boards and presidents both mentioned themes of Trust, Emotion, Conflict Resolution, Teamwork, Communication Skills, and Gender Differences. Only board members mentioned the theme of Analytical Competencies. Tables 10 and 11, below, display these categories and codes for board members and presidents. Differences among the codes may be seen but the overall themes that emerged are similar. Categories and etic codes in bold font reflect communication competencies also present in LCS 2.0. Some codes represent emic communication behaviors that emerged in the data and were not present in LCS 2.0. These codes appear with capital letters beneath them that represent different dimensions of the same behavior. The key to these letters is as follows: A = Agentic Communication, CN = Concise Communication, CM = Communal Communication, E= Communicating Emotion and Fact, P = Communicating Passion, T= Thorough Communication. For example, in Table 10, the codes of Honesty and Trust listed under the theme of Trust/Ethics are in bold font because they match the components of LCS 2.0's communication competency of Credibility and Trust.

Table 10 Themes Emerging from Board Members' Interviews

Themes: Board Members	Trust/ Ethics	Emotion	Conflict resolution	Teamwork/ Team building	Communication Skills	Gender Differences	Analytical Competencies
Members	Honesty 2 Sincerity 2	Emotional sensitivity/ caring/ compassion 3 (E)	Resilience/ Perseverance 6	Team work/ Team approach 7	Verbal/speech skills/ articulate/ speaking/ presentation skills 10	Women more relationship oriented 1 (CM)	Condensing/ filtering information 3 (CN)
	Open- ness 2	Self/ Emotional awareness 3 (E)	Non- confronta- tional/ avoid conflict /avoid negative communi- cation 4	Inclusive/ not autocratic 4 (CM)	Non-verbal skills including eye contact 7	Women more nonverbally oriented 1	Has a plan/vision/ future oriented 3
Codes and	No secrets/ is trans- parent 6 (T)	Emotional toughness/ ability to discipline 6 (E)	Discord/ conflict as normal/part of the job/ positive 4	Inter- personal relation- ships/ people oriented 5	Physical appearance – looks presidential 5	Men focus only on the alphas in the room 1	Consistent/ coherent/ understandable 4
Number of Mentions	Unfair 2	Emotional commit- ment/ attachment/ energy/ passion for the job 6 (E)	Discord exists between president and board (negative) 3	Connects with others/ Connects quickly 3	Adapts to different audiences 3	Gendered communica- tion 1	Intelligence/ knowledge 3
	Honor/ Honor- able intent 2	Present facts and emotions to trustees 2 (E)	Self-policing by board of trustees 4	Diversity 4	Writing/ written support 2	Academic leadership/ leadership skills are not gendered 5	Insight/ reflection/ learning 1
	Credible 2	Direct experience/ connection/ familiarity with this school (as faculty/ alumnus) 6	Talk/ communi- cation/ discussion solves problems or resolves differences 5		Use of technology /visual aids 4	Emotion/ emotional awareness as gendered 4 (E)	
	Trust 3	Guardian- ship/ parental role (maternal/ paternal instinct) 4			Communicates the mission 2		
	Discrete 2	Nurturing 3 Not arrogant/ bragging/			Agenda setter 5 Conciseness 3		
		overselling 9 Confident/ Not insecure 4			(CN) Thorough 2 (T)		
		Agentic/ Aggressive 1 (A)			Listening 3		

Table 11

Themes:	Trust/	Emotion	Conflict	Teamwork/	Communication	Gender
Presidents	Ethics	Energy	Resolution	Team Building	Skills	Differences
	Honest 1	Expresses Passion 3 (P)	Rifts/ Factions/ discord within board 4	Not autocratic/ Not top-down leadership 2	Listening 3	Board communication not gendered/no gender differences 1
	Open 1	Thick- skinned/ endure things/ resilient 4	Difference of opinion is normal 3	Teamwork/ team approach 5	Verbal skills/speaking/ public speaking 6	Women want more details/ask more questions 3 (T)
	Not hiding anything/ Transparent 6 (T)		Other internal stakeholders, i.e., non- academic trustees on the board and discomfort 2	(Stakeholder) inclusion/whole board involved in search 5 (CM)	Able to discuss issues with board 2	
Codes and Number of Mentions	Fair 4		Respect 2	Keep all informed/bring all into the tent 2 (CM)	Writing 2	Men grandstand more 1
	Structured interview process (same questions asked of all candidates) 3		Accomplish things/Get it done 2	Board member not collaborative/acts alone/ignores president/ stakeholders 8	Clear/good communication (i.e., no misunderstandings between President and Trustees 6	Non-gendered differences (Cultural/ professional differences (Academy vs. church; accountants versus other professions) 5
Bold font indicates literature- based	Equal treatment 7			Supportive board 2	Minimal communication/ Barriers to communication 4	Gendered/ nuanced gender differences exist 5
competencies.	Hiring process not gendered 8				Frequent/extensive communication with board 4	
	Objective 3				Communicate knowledge of academia 2	
	Thorough search 2 (T)				Open lines of communication/ frequent communication between president and board 8	
					Articulate mission/values/ mission-oriented 6	
					Job is to communicate well with internal stakeholders, i.e., faculty and staff 2	
					Positive communication/ attitude/Avoid negativity (Non- confrontational) 5	
					Thorough 2 (T)	

Themes Emerging from Presidents' Interviews

Several competencies from the scorecard emerged as themes in analysis of interview responses. This finding corroborates the leadership literature to a certain degree in that it supports the studies from which LCS 2.0 was developed. Table 12 below defines the various aspects of each competency. Except for the competency of Influence and Persuasion, all competencies from LCS 2.0 were found in interviews of board members and presidents.

Table 12

Mapping of Interview Codes to LCS 2.0 Competencies

LCS 2.0 Competency	Codes from Interviews with Board Members and Presidents
Credibility and Trust	Honest, open, sincere, credible, trust/trustworthy
Listening	Listening
Relationships	Interpersonal relationships, people oriented, teamwork, team approach, connects with others
Writing/Speaking	Verbal skills, speech skills, articulate, presentation skills, public speaking/speaking skills, writing, written support
Diversity	Diversity, adapts to different audiences
Facilitation	Non-confrontational, avoids conflict, sees conflict or difference of opinion as normal or part of the job and even potentially beneficial, sees communication as resolving differences and solving problems
Influence	(No mentions)

Having determined that the competencies were appropriate for the questionnaire, a few communication behaviors that were found in the interviews and could be added to the questionnaire were assessed. Behaviors will be discussed in three sections. First the behaviors of Thorough and Concise Communication will be assessed. Next, the behaviors of Communicating Emotions and Passion will be examined. Finally, the behaviors of Communal and Agentic Communication will be discussed. Illustrative examples from the interviews are included below, with italics added to highlight the most compelling phrases or sentences.

Major Themes in Interview Data – Emergence of Communication Behaviors

As noted earlier, the goal of the interviews was to inform survey development. Six communication behaviors emerged in the interviews that were not present in the LCS 2.0 list of competencies. These include: Thorough Communication, Concise Communication, Communal Communication, Agentic Communication, Communicating Emotion and Fact, and Communicating Passion. Each of these behaviors are defined below and examples from the interview data are provided for illustration.

Thoroughness and conciseness. Thorough Communication was added to the questionnaire because it included the amount of detail expected in presidents' communication with board members. Thorough communication is defined as communicating pertinent information as fully as necessary. Boards and presidents consider thorough communication to mean: including all important details, being transparent and not hiding anything or being secretive. Three presidents and two board members indicated that being thorough in communicating was important to board members.

This behavior presented an interesting dimension: Boards preferred presidents whom they perceived as transparent in their communication. By transparent, they meant that no secrets were kept, no information was withheld, and nothing was omitted that could be important. By transparency, board members mean that the communicator was thorough in delivering information to the board and that in doing this, the president acted in a fiduciary manner to protect the board from embarrassment or adverse legal consequences. Transparency was mentioned in this study's interviews more than most other characteristics by both board members and presidents (six times each). Comments illustrating this concept are:

President 2 (Female):

I think they're looking for a communications style that is straightforward, honest, basically doesn't pull any punches. I expect that the board chair expects *never to be surprised and I never blindside* the board chair. And I feel like I have to always have my antennae up for *what's appropriate communication for the board as a whole so they don't feel in the dark*. And we're in a small community ...so nothing can hit the newspapers that the board wouldn't have already known about.

Board Member 4 (Male):

...there were some board meetings where I could see, just based on the questions coming and the way the questions came from some of the board members, they were basically making clear that, ... *we should have known this*...And that's kind of a fine line, especially, ... it may be a board member that maybe feels, "Hey, *what do you mean, you're holding something back from me?*"

Two presidents also noted that this was a gendered issue, with female board members requesting more details than male board members. Examples of their comments are: **President 2 (Female):** "I would say that there are *women on the board who tend to go deeper into the weeds* in a board forum than men do."

President 4 (**Female**): "I think I've also noticed when we do presentations, *the women tend to want more details*. They would ask -- on average, *they would ask more questions* about our presentations than the men did."

In one instance, mutual transparency during the hiring process was important:

President 3 (Male):

...the thing -- that I was impressed by and that meant a lot to me was *when I was* selected, they knew everything in my head. It was thorough -- thoroughness would have been the key thing. But I knew what questions were important to them and I knew that I had expressed clearly who I was and where I was on those questions. And so when I was selected -- they knew what they were getting. *I* knew what they were -- I knew what they were -- what they considered important and they knew what they were getting. That was -- so that indeed is what I would consider the most important part.

One president and one board member pointed to transparent communication as increasing trust.

President 2 (Female):

... my strategy (was) really, being very transparent with them, and I will say that I followed a presidency that was not very transparent, so I was changing it up and the board was suddenly privy to a lot of information they never had before and I was using executive sessions to talk with them about the hard news of what I saw

at the institution and *I feel like that level of trust and communication started to build* early in my presidency.

Board Member 4 (Male):

I would think, ..., the openness, *the transparency I think that's a good skill*, and certainly in terms of communication I always view listening, so that's what; most roles and most leadership roles I think you do have to be a good listener and *have the ability to, through your communication styles and transparency, develop a trust with your various constituencies.*

In contrast to Thoroughness, Conciseness was mentioned by one board member and one president as an important skill. Concise communication is defined as being succinct and omitting irrelevant information. To them, being concise meant filtering information or boiling it down, then delivering the message in a way that was perhaps more succinct than thorough. This comment from **Board Member 1** (**Male**) illustrates the point:

...you want somebody that can *articulate what's going on*, what the real issues are, what the problems are, what the good things are *in a very concise and to-thepoint manner*. You need somebody that can *summarize difficult issues and place them in front of you... you're looking for someone who can take those difficult, complex issues, boil them down,* get you the facts, get you the information you need, help you make the decisions, help them make decisions, and communicate to you where we need to go, how we're going to get there and what the options are. If they can do that very precise and concisely, then you tend to have better success.

Knowing when to be thorough and when to be concise may involve a steep learning curve, as this comment from **Board Member 4** (Male) indicates:

I think initially, there may have been times when the president felt that they had full authority to do certain things, and then some board members may have been accustomed to a much more involved role. And so, it's a matter of, "*Well, how much should I communicate*? What do I need to communicate to the board? Who do I need to make sure they're at least involved and at least in the loop in terms of what my thinking is?" And so, I think, early on – and I think it's improved – but again, I think it was a situation where early on, there may have been an expectation on one side to say, "Well yeah, he should have told me that or this is something you need to inform the board of." And I think maybe at times on the president's side, he may have said, "Well, I mean, this is totally within my authority as president to go and do this or do that."

Because they were salient mentions, Thorough Communication and Concise Communication were added to the behaviors listed in the questionnaire.

Passion, emotions and facts. Emotions were often mentioned by both board members and presidents. This manifested in two ways: first as communicating Passion, and second as communicating Emotions and Facts. Passion is discussed first. Communicating passion is defined as conveying the emotions of love and strong affinity.

A board member saw passion as inherent in higher education leadership, in contrast to leadership in other sectors:

Board Member 1 (Male): "...what I do see in the academic world, especially in the college, higher ed., colleges and universities, is that *there's a passion and compassion, both in the male and the female leaders that rise through the ranks.*"

Three board members and two presidents talked about passion and love for their institution or its mission. The board members interviewed had a deep love for their schools and felt passionate about serving their schools in the best way possible. They sought presidents who, like themselves, had an emotional commitment to the school and a passion for the school and its mission. Examples demonstrate this:

President 3 (Male):

...one of the biggest things at X University at the beginning of our mission statement, we state we are at our core a Christian university...*the ability to articulate the heart and soul of X, why we exist, what our story is, what our values are, that was very central to the board. That was very key to the board.*

President 2 (Female):

I got on the road and I saw everybody. I felt that when I walked into the October board meeting, my first board meeting with them, they already had a start of a comfort level with me, and clarity of how I was going to be a different kind of president in terms of transparency and *what my passion was going to be for X College* and how I wanted to work with the board.

Board Member 1 (Male):

She had communicated it from *a passion and from the heart*... she convinced us that *she would love [this college]* just as much as her ... previous college that she

had raised and nurtured for all those years and so I think that was a defining moment.

Board Member 3 (Male):

I want them to be very, very articulate, make an excellent overall appearance, communicate eye-to-eye very effectively, *the passion*, the knowledge, overall intelligence, and the experience to fit the position. If they don't have that – often that person is regularly in search of employment. They appear again and again on the search lists.

In two cases, passion was linked to being an alumnus of the school, as comments from two board members illustrate:

Board Member 4 (Male):

I think the president that we ultimately selected was very passionate about the institution. And that was primarily because he was a graduate of the institution. And I think his sincerity and commitment to the college really came across, and clearly, *I think his communication around that in particular as to why he sought the position was very –I think it touched everyone that was there.* Obviously, some of the board members also have been graduates of the college, so they could relate on that level.

Board Member 3 (Male):

I think, simply saying, an undergraduate or graduate of the institution. We're seeing a number of faculty of the institution – faculty and students – just that connection with the institution. That candidate ... I think – has a real advantage,

because they can speak with familiarity, they can speak with just the kind of passion, "You know, this is <u>my</u> school."

Communicating Emotions and Facts is defined as conveying information that includes both subjective feelings and objective data. Two board members wanted their presidents to tell them about emotions along with facts. The example below describes what one of these board members sought.

Board Member 1 (Male):

Sometimes those issues, though become very emotional or very, I mean it's not all about facts. ... an example is campus security, guns on campus, campus shootings. ... and those kinds of issues require a very exceptional communication process. What's the current sentiment of our staff, what's the current sentiment of our faculty, of our students, of our community, of our... what are our laws. And it takes somebody that can roll all that up and give you a precise and objective view of what's going on and even if they have a personal opinion, they share that as well, outside of all the context and that's where you really appreciated somebody. This board member also noted a subtle difference for this by gender.

Board Member 1 (Male):

I think the women can, the good ones, the ones who can do what I just described about consolidating down the information and getting it concise and looking at all the issues and all the angles. Where the differences might lie is *women can tie a little bit more of the emotion to a subject to it. I think men, we're a little more objective and sometimes leave out the emotional aspects.* We just kind of look at the facts and if I was going to say there's any subtlety between the two, that might be it.

To communicate emotions, one must be aware of their existence, therefore the behavior of Communicating Emotions and Facts incorporates other aspects of emotional sensitivity and awareness mentioned by presidents and board members. An example illustrates the importance one board member placed on managing one's own and others' emotions:

Board Member 2 (Female):

Well, it's always with the sense of knowing that whatever you are feeling internally, that you're able to manage that, so you have to manage your own feelings to be able to help people to communicate effectively. So, if you're feeling irritated or, ..., grouchy or whatever it is, you have to manage those in your own self because then that's going to emanate into the conversation. So being calm, focused, having a skillset that says, "I'm comfortable with conflict; I can talk with people when they're upset."

Some board members acknowledged that campus and other stakeholder emotional reactions to board decisions need to be considered. Board members wanted presidents to inform them about these emotions and apprise them of any emotional fallout that may result from the board's decisions. An example illustrates this:

President 3 (Male):

I also think of *one particular board member who would -- a female, who tends to ask the questions about, say, how students feel about things.* But just the student perception probably the way they say it. And is *more concerned with sort of some*

of the soft skills and the how students perceive or feel about the things that are going on.

Therefore, because they were often mentioned by both board members and presidents, Communicating Passion and Communicating Emotions and Facts were added to the list of behaviors to be assessed in the questionnaire.

Communal and agentic communication. Communal communication was also mentioned very often. Communal communication behaviors are defined as those that "convey a concern for the compassionate treatment of others. They include being especially affectionate, helpful, friendly, kind, and sympathetic, as well as interpersonally sensitive, gentle, and soft-spoken" (Eagly & Carli, 2007). Three presidents and three board members mentioned either inclusion, supportiveness, collaboration, and non-autocratic leadership behaviors, which are communication behaviors. This is important because the literature on gender and communication points to gendered judgments of the appropriateness of communal communication and agentic communal communication. Board members expected presidents to take a communal approach:

Board Member 2 (Female):

...people in leadership, and then certainly the president – the college president level – will be working with a variety of people. And everyone in the organization needs to know that that person values them, whether it be students, custodians, secretaries, professors, everyone needs to know that everyone's going to be valued for what they contribute, for who they are, and so the president needs to be able to demonstrate that they can make an immediate connection and a genuine connection. Examples of this concept of collaboration came from one board member who envisioned his role as a follower as well as a leader:

Board Member 3 (Male): "When the communication is really apparent, (you) see that person in the position as a director, as a trustee, *see yourself working with and following that leadership*."

Differing levels of communality were noted within the board as well:

Board Member 4 (Male):

...there was a change in the chair and the chairman of the board. I think that made a difference, too, because the two board chairs had totally different styles. *One was much more – appeared to be much more inclusive, and the other board chair didn't seem as inclusive.*

In one case, gender was related to communal behaviors:

Board member 2 (Female):

I think *women tend to make more of an effort to establish a personal relationship* at the very beginning. So, they will be the ones to come around and shake hands. They will be the ones to make eye contact. They seem to be more attuned, from my perspective, to establish a relationship. And some men are, but I feel like in general, I see more men that are less attuned to establishing that relationship. However, in another case, the communication occurred at a level of conversation

that was independent of gender:

President 2 (Female):

And I would say across the board, men and women, *there has been an* appreciation for that kind of a layer of conversation where it's really about *bringing everybody into the tent,* that we all can work as best we can from the best, from our best understanding of what it means to be a college in 2016 and how that influences the decisions we have to make.

In contrast, agentic communication is that which "conveys assertion and control...includes being especially aggressive, ambitious, dominant, self-confident, and forceful, as well as self-reliant and individualistic" (Eagly & Carli, 2007). Agentic or aggressive behavior, especially if it rejected teamwork, was undesirable in the opinion of two presidents, as seen here:

President 1 (Female): "I think they were not interested in someone who was going to be a very top-down, autocratic kind of leader."

President 3 (Male):

I've never really had a board member pick up the phone and try to steer me in -in a certain direction or try to interfere with anything on campus or...suggest that I hire somebody or that I fire somebody or any of those sorts of things. So, I should just say I'm really thankful for -- for that.

One board member considered a lack of communal communication undesirable in a presidential candidate.

Board Member 1 (Male):

You want confidence in a college president and *you want them to be aggressive when it's time but you've also got to realize it's a team effort when you're looking for leadership roles and partnership buildings* and so forth. Her (the candidate not chosen for president) approach was a lot more trying to promote herself and make her seem bigger maybe than what she was, which hurt her. Because there were several instances of communal and agentic communication behaviors mentioned, they were also added to the list of behaviors in the questionnaires.

Related to the concept of communal communication, it is interesting to note the self-policing that occurs in one board that ensures the inclusion of all its members. The accountability of the board to itself is considered one of their fiduciary duties, although it is not always practiced (Trower and Eckel, 2016b). One president's comments describe a board that self-polices for inclusion:

President 3 (Male): "And so the board can still -- they will -- they will say in meetings that and *they'll remind each other that individual board members have no authority. That they have authority as a total board.*"

Another president's comments depict the actions of a board in which self-policing was either absent or ineffective:

President 4 (Female):

But there've been instances like that where, especially him in particular, there were a couple of board members that just want to do their own thing and they don't want to collaborate and they don't want to work with the campus. ... a lot of times it feels like they want to direct us and tell us what to do, rather than working with us... I think it would start with a lack of transparency with all of us and then at some point, I would be informed as to what was going on.

Overall, these comments by board members and presidents present a clear picture of some of the major themes that could be studied. Table 13 presents each behavior and the number of times it was mentioned by a board member or a president, as discussed above.

Table 13

Behaviors	Female Presi- dents	Male Presi- dents	Total Presi- dents	Female Board Members	Male Board Members	Total Board Members	Total Presidents and Board Members
Passion/ Love	1	1	2	0	3	3	5
Emotion/Facts	0	0	0	1	1	2	2
Teamwork/Inclusive/ Not Inclusive	2	1	3	1	2	3	6
Concise	1	0	1	0	1	1	2
Thorough/Details/ Explain/Ask Questions	2	1	3	0	2	2	5
Agentic/Aggressive	0	0	0	0	1	1	1

Number of Individuals Referring to Behaviors

Summary of key qualitative results. Respondents were primarily in their fifties, Caucasian, and had both academic and non-academic leadership experience. There were three female and one male presidents along with one female and three male board members. All the presidents and one board member held doctorates. The institutions they represented were primarily private and religious with self-elected, predominantly male governing boards.

Six of the seven LCS 2.0 communication competencies were found in the interviews. Influence was the only competency from LCS 2.0 not listed. Presidents who were thorough and transparent in their communication, so that information was not omitted or hidden from the board members, were preferred over those who were less forthcoming. Transparency was especially important because it built trust. Emotions

were also discussed frequently, first in terms of expressing passion for the school and its mission. A second dimension of communicating emotion related to how well the president conveyed emotional information along with factual data. Communal behavior in communicating was valued by board members and presidents, while agentic communication was discouraged. Therefore, the major contribution of the interview results to the questionnaire construction was the addition of the following six communication behaviors:

- Thorough Communication
- Concise Communication
- Agentic Communication
- Communal Communication
- Communicating Passion
- Communicating Emotion and Facts.

Quantitative Results: Overview

This section of the chapter delineates the quantitative findings of the study. It includes an explanation of the recruiting and fielding along with demographic background of the board members and presidents who participated in the study. It also includes information about how the data is distributed. Continuous variables were analyzed using inferential statistics wherever possible and categorical variables were mainly subjected to only descriptive statistical analysis.

Quantitative Results: Questionnaire

Time of completion. Among board members, Qualtrics data indicate that completion times ranged from 4.5 minutes to sixteen days. Their mean time to

completion was 31 hours or 1.3 days, with a standard deviation of 3.3 days. Given this high degree of dispersion, the median of 18 minutes may be a more appropriate indicator of survey length, since it is the least susceptible to the effects of non-normal distributions.

Among presidents, completion times ranged from 4 minutes to 19 days. Qualtrics data indicate that it took an average of 18 hours for presidents to complete the survey, with a standard deviation of 2.8 days. Here again, the median of 10 minutes may be considered a more useful statistic.

Respondent demographics. Profiles of the respondents and the institutions of higher education that they represent are presented next. The archetypal board member was a 62-year-old man with a masters' or doctoral degree and non-academic leadership experience and the archetypal president was a 56-year-old man with a doctoral degree and academic leadership experience. These figures are somewhat comparable to a recent Gallup survey of college and university presidents and board members in which 48% of the respondents were between 60 and 69 years old and 34% were between 50 and 59 years old (Jaschik & Lederman, 2016).

Board members were typically elected to predominantly male college or university governing boards where they remained for an average of 9.4 years. They usually supervised one president at a time, although in a few cases they supervised the presidents of several schools within the same college or university system. As an artifact of the study design, the typical president in this study held office for an average of three years. A national Gallup survey indicates that presidents typically held office at their current institutions for various lengths of time: 53% for less than five years, 26% for between five and ten years and 22% for ten years or longer (Jaschik & Lederman, 2016). The president was typically the sole president reporting to a predominantly male, elected or appointed governing board.

For this dissertation, the overall sample of presidents and board members (N=140) was 67% male and 32% female. Sixty-nine percent (N=73) of presidents and 66% (N=67) of board members were male. These numbers compare favorably with those of a 2016 national Gallup survey of presidents and board members in higher education, in which 72% of respondents were male (Jaschik & Lederman, 2016). In this dissertation, women were presidents at 42% (N=33) of two year colleges and 23% (N=40) of institutions granting B.A., M.A. or Ph.D. degrees.

With respect to education, in this dissertation, nearly all presidents (96%, N=73)) held a Ph.D. or J.D. degree, while 47% of board members (N=69) had a Ph.D. or J.D., 30% had a master's degree and 20% had a bachelor's degree. In comparison, as of 2010, 80% of presidents of institutions belonging to the Council of Independent Colleges held a Ph.D. or Ed.D. (Song & Hartley, 2012). As of 1998, 85% of university and college presidents held a doctoral degree of any kind (Ph.D., Ed.D., J.D., M.D.) (Ross & Green, 2000). Presidents' leadership experience was often in academia (73%, N=73)) while board member's leadership experience was often in non-academic sectors (70% (N=69).

Quantitative Results: Profile of Institutions. There are many similarities shared by the institutions of higher education that the board members and presidents in this study represent. All of them are eleemosynary, and nearly all are co-educational. Just under half these institutions offer associate's degrees while slightly more than one-quarter offer doctoral degrees. Enrollments are evenly distributed among small, medium and large institutions; the majority of these colleges and universities are public institutions. Table

14 summarizes this.

Table 14

Comparison of Characteristics of Board Members, Presidents and Institutions

Characteristics	Presidents	Board Members	Total
Respondent	N=72	N=70	N=142
Age	Mean 56 years	Mean 62 years	Mean 59 years
U	Median 56 years	Median 63 years	Median 59 years
	Mode 55 years	Mode 57 years ¹	Mode 63 years
Respondent	N=73	N=67	N=140
Gender	Male 69%	Male 66%	Male 66%
	Female 32%	Female 34%	Female 32%
Highest Degree	N=73	N=69	N=142
Held by	Doctoral degree 96%	Doctoral degree 45%	Doctoral degree 71%
Respondent	Master's degree 3%	Master's degree 29%	Master's degree 16%
	Bachelor's degree 1%	Bachelor's degree 22%	Bachelor's degree 11%
	Associate's degree 0%	Associate's degree 4%	Associate's degree 2%
Respondent's	N=73	N=69	N=142
Leadership	Academic 73%	Academic 23%	Academic 49%
Experience:	Non-academic 14%	Non-academic 70%	Non-academic 41%
Primary Sector	Equally academic	Equally academic	Equally academic
•	and non-academic 14%	and non-academic 7%	and non-academic 11%
Number of	N=73	N=61	N=134
Years as Board	Mean 3 years	Mean 9 years	Mean 6 years
Member/	Median 2 years	Median 8 years	Median 4 years
President	Mode 1 year ¹	Mode 6 years	Mode 1 year^1
Type of	N=73	N=70	N=143
Institution	Public 67%	Public 60%	Public 64%
	Private religious 10%	Private religious 11%	Private religious 11%
	Private secular 23%	Private secular 29%	Private secular 26%
Board Gender	N=71	N=70	N=141
Composition	Mostly men 79%	Mostly men 66%	Mostly men 72%
1	Equal mix of men	Equal mix of men	Equal mix of men
	and women 18%	and women 27%	and women 23%
	Mostly women 3%	Mostly women 7%	Mostly women 5%
Board Selection	N=73	N=70	N=143
Method	All elected 43%	All elected 54%	All elected 48%
	Most elected 12%	Most elected 14%	Most elected 13%
	All appointed 8%	All appointed 9%	All appointed 8%
	Most appointed 37%	Most appointed 23%	Most appointed 30%
Number of	N=73	N=70	N=143
Presidents	One 86%	One 92%	One 89%
Reporting to this	More than one 14%	More than one 9%	More than one 11%
Board			
Gender of	n/a	N=70	n/a
President Most		Male 81%	
Recently Hired		Female 19%	
-			

Characteristics	Presidents		Board Members		Total		
Enrollment	N=73		N=70		N=143		
	Under 3,000	47%	Under 3,000	37%	Under 3,000	42%	
	3,000-9,999	23%	3,000-9,999	30%	3,000-9,999	27%	
	10,000 or more	30%	10,000 or more	33%	10,000 or more	32%	
Student Gender	N=73		N=70		N=143		
	Co-ed	97%	Co-ed	100%	Co-ed	99%	
	All female	3%	All female	0%	All female	1%	
	All male	0%	All male	0%	All male	0%	
Highest Degree	N=73		N=70		N=143		
Conferred by	Associate's degre	e 45%	Associate's degr	ee 49%	Associate's degree 47%		
Institution	Bachelor's degre	e 16%	Bachelor's degre	e 10%	Bachelor's degre	e 13%	
	Master's degree	12%	Master's degree	13%	Master's degree	13%	
	Doctoral degree	26%	Doctoral degree	29%	Doctoral degree	27%	
Profit Sector	N=73		N=70		N=143		
	For-profit	0%	For-profit	0%	For-profit	0%	
	Non-profit	100%	Non-profit	100%	Non-profit	100%	
Diversity	N=73		N=70		N=143		
	HBCU	1%	HBCU	4%	HBCU	3%	
	Not HBCU	99%	Not HBCU	96%	Not HBCU	97%	

1 Multi-modal distribution. Smallest value shown.

Quantitative Results: Research Questions and Results

The results, as they relate to each research question, are discussed here.

Research question 1. What are the key communication skills that boards seek in hiring a president? The responses to the open-end question on communication skills will be discussed first followed by a review of the closed-end questions (See Appendix E). This explores the areas board members listed, on an open-ended basis, in response to the question: "What is the top communication skill that the president demonstrates in his or her interactions with the board?" Here are the areas: Communication Competencies, Communication Behaviors, Mode of Communication, Purpose of Communication, Timing of Communication, and Message. In this list, Communication Competencies refers to the seven competencies from LCS 2.0 that were used in the closed ended, Likert scale questions and Communication Behaviors refers to the six communication behaviors used in the closed ended questions. Mode of communication refers to whether the communication was written or oral. Purpose is self-explanatory and Timing refers to the frequency and promptness of the communication. Message refers to the complexity and justification of the message. Counts for each of these categories are in Table 15.

Writing/speaking along with Listening and Facilitation were the competencies that board members stated most often. Diversity was the only one of the seven competencies not stated by board members or presidents in their free-responses.

Table 15

Top Communication Skills: Competencies

Results: LCS 2.0 Competencies	Counts			
Writing/Speaking	7			
Listening/Asking	7			
Facilitation	7			
Credibility/Trust	4			
Relations/Team Building	4			
Influence/Persuasion	1			
Diversity	0			
Total (Number of board members)	30			

Transparency/Thoroughness was the behavior stated most in the open-ended question. Transparency/Thoroughness was defined by respondents as providing, rather than holding back, information or details. Of the six behaviors, only two, Conciseness and Thoroughness, were offered by board members in the free responses. Table 16 displays these results.

Table 16

Top Communication Skills: Behaviors

Behaviors	Frequency
Transparent/Thorough	15
Direct	4
Concise	3
Total (Number of board members)	22

In the Communication Mode category, proficiency in both oral and written communication was stated most often. The main purpose of the communication was informing, either in a general sense or more specifically with respect to strategy and finances. The aspect of the message stated most was simplicity. Of the open-end responses, board members did not see the ability to deliver messages that are consistent, objective or boiled down to their essentials as their president's top communication skill. The Timing and Other categories were referred to infrequently, as shown in Table 17.

Table 17

Mode	Frequency
Oral and Written	13
Written	5
Oral/Face-to-Face/Phone	4
Total (Number of board members)	22
Purpose	
Strategic/Financial Information	7
Other/General Informing	6
Total (Nmber of board members)	13

Top Communication Skills: Communication Mode, Purpose, Message, Timing, Other

Message								
Simplify the complex	6							
Objective/Justified	1							
Total (Number of board members)								
Timing								
Constant/Frequent	2							
Timely/Early/ASAP	1							
Total (Number of board members)	3							
Other								
Personality Characteristics	2							
Other/Miscellaneous	1							
Total (Number of board members)	3							

Rating the importance of competencies. For the close-ended Likert scale questions, frequencies were computed to assess the importance of communication competencies of presidential candidates from the board members' perspective. The means were all at the high end of the scale indicating that these characteristics were all important in a presidential candidate. Credibility and Interpersonal Relations received the highest scores, followed by Listening. The high means and leptokurtic distributions for Credibility and Listening indicate a strong consensus among board members with respect to the importance of these characteristics in a candidate for the presidency. Board members rated Writing and Public Speaking as well as Facilitation, Negotiation, Conflict Resolution as more important than Diversity and Intercultural Relations or Influence and Persuasion. See Table 18.

Table 18

Board Members' Ratings of Importance of Communication Competencies:

Descriptive Statistics Arranged by Means, in Descending Order (11=most important)

Q4 Importance of:	Range	Min	Max	Mean	SE	SD	Var	Skew	SE	Kurt	SE
Credibility	3	8	11	10.72	.072	.595	.354	-2.462	.291	6.766	.574
Interpersonal relations	3	8	11	10.34	.105	.863	.744	-1.175	.293	.565	.578
Listening	8	3	11	9.87	.180	1.476	2.179	-2.122	.293	6.601	.578
Writing/Speaking	5	6	11	9.87	.159	1.301	1.694	1.274	.293	1.187	.578
Facilitation	8	3	11	9.51	.209	1.723	2.970	-1.927	.291	4.798	.574
Diversity	10	1	11	9.18	.261	2.151	4.625	-1.599	.291	2.841	.574
Influence	9	2	11	9.16	.248	2.049	4.197	-1.609	.291	2.369	.574

Note: Bold font indicates a leptokurtic distribution.

Rating presidents' effectiveness on competencies. Board members' high ratings of their presidents' effectiveness on Credibility, Interpersonal Relations, and Listening paralleled their ratings of the critical importance of these competencies.

There were some contrasts between what was important and where presidents were effective. The two competencies that board members rated as least important were Diversity and Influence, yet Presidents were considered moderately effective for Diversity. Also, although board members considered Writing/Public Speaking and Facilitation more important than Diversity and Persuasion, they rated their presidents as less effective for Writing/Public Speaking and Facilitation, as well as for Influence. See Table 19.

Table 19

Board Members' Ratings of President's Effectiveness on Communication Competencies: Descriptive Statistics Arranged by Means, in Descending Order (11=most important)

Q6 President's Effectiveness	Range	Min	Max	Mean	SE	SD	Var	Skew	SE	Kurt	SE
Credibility	8	3	11	10.47	.147	1.215	1.477	-3.966	.291	21.011	.574
Interpersonal relations	8	3	11	9.93	.164	1.353	1.830	-2.359	.291	9.117	.574
Listening	7	4	11	9.84	.164	1.344	1.806	-1.660	.293	4.146	.578
Diversity	8	3	11	9.69	.203	1.677	2.814	-1.878	.291	4.330	.574
Influence	8	3	11	9.62	.178	1.476	2.179	-1.915	.289	5.686	.570
Writing/ Speaking	4	7	11	9.62	.149	1.238	1.532	435	.289	827	.570
Facilitation	7	4	11	9.39	.187	1.555	2.418	-1.314	.289	2.019	.570

Note: Bold font indicates a leptokurtic distribution.

Ranking competencies. Candidates for the high-level position of president are often competent communicators along several dimensions and the distinctions between candidates are therefore more nuanced. When hiring, it is these subtleties that can make the difference being hiring and rejecting a candidate, according to one board member interviewed. A rank order variable was introduced to determine how board members would make these subtle distinctions among the various communication competencies pursuant to making a hiring decision.

In agreement with the earlier scaled rating question on the importance of competencies, board members ranked Credibility and Trust as the most important competency in a president. Again, in keeping with the scaled rating question, second most important were the competencies of Interpersonal Relations and Listening. Facilitation and Influence were ranked next highest. Diversity and Intercultural Relations tied for least importance with Writing and Public Speaking. This nearly matches the ratings scale question findings for Diversity and Facilitation, but not for Writing/Speaking and Influence. This is shown in Table 20.

Table 20

Board Members' Rank Ordering of Communication Competencies: Descriptive Statistics Arranged by Means, in Descending Order (1=ranked highest)

Q5 Rank Order of:	Range	Min	Max	Mean	S E	S D	Var	Skew	S E	Kurt	S E
Credibility	4	1	5	1.66	.130	1.067	1.138	1.738	.293	2.220	.578
Interpersonal relations	6	1	7	3.00	.200	1.633	2.667	.603	.293	714	.578
Listening	6	1	7	3.36	.167	1.367	1.870	.124	.293	261	.578
Facilitation	5	2	7	4.84	.196	1.601	2.564	454	.293	977	.578
Influence	6	1	7	4.85	.228	1.869	3.493	451	.293	948	.578
Writing/Speaking	6	1	7	5.15	.203	1.663	2.765	632	.293	393	.578
Diversity	6	1	7	5.15	.204	1.672	2.796	504	.293	901	.578

Rating the importance of behaviors. As with the competencies, means for communication behaviors were mostly at the high end of the scale indicating that these behaviors are all important in a presidential candidate. The highest ratings were for Communicating Passion for the institution and its mission and Communicating Thoroughly. Of moderate importance were Communicating Concisely and Communal Communication. Communicating Emotion and Fact and Communicating Agentically were the least important of these behaviors, as seen in Table 21.

Table 21

Q7 Importance of:	Range	Min	Max	Mean	SE	SD	Var	Skew	SE	Kurt	SE
Passion	4	7	11	10.49	.115	.959	.920	-2.139	.287	4.336	.566
Thorough	5	6	11	10.19	.131	1.094	1.197	-2.090	.287	5.342	.556
Concise	6	5	11	9.74	.170	1.411	1.990	-1.170	.289	.815	.570
Communal	9	2	11	9.70	.186	1.554	2.416	-2.436	.287	8.682	.566
Emotion/Fact	8	3	11	8.93	.211	1.752	3.068	-1.205	.289	2.157	.570
Agentic	10	1	11	7.87	.288	2.388	5.703	982	.289	.796	.570

Board Members' Ratings of Importance of Communication Behaviors: Descriptive Statistics Arranged by Means, in Descending Order (11=most important)

Note: Bold font indicates a leptokurtic distribution.

Rating the president's effectiveness on behaviors. Board members' ratings of their presidents' effectiveness on all six behaviors mirrored their ratings of the importance of these behaviors. Essentially, presidents were best at what was most important to their boards and worst at what was least important to their boards. The leptokurtic, negatively skewed distribution for effectiveness in Communicating Passion for the institution and its mission indicates strong consensus among board members that their presidents effectively communicated their love of their college or university. Communicating Thoroughly was also rated as highly effective, although it lacked the strong consensus that Communicating Passion exhibited. Communicating Concisely was next in the ratings. Communication and Communication and Communicating Emotion/Fact were rated next in importance, while Agentic communication was rated lowest. This is shown in Table 22.

Table 22

Board Members' Ratings of President's Effectiveness on Communication Behaviors: Descriptive Statistics Arranged by Means, in Descending Order (11=most important)

Q9 President's Effectiveness:	Range	Min	Max	Mean	SE	SD	Var	Skew	SE	Kurt	SE
Passion	9	2	11	10.33	.171	1.421	2.020	-3.561	.289	17.012	.570
Thorough	4	7	11	9.91	.138	1.151	1.326	942	.287	.057	.566
Concise	8	3	11	9.46	.210	1.745	3.046	-1.775	.289	4.013	.570
Communal	9	2	11	9.37	.232	1.942	3.773	-1.998	.287	4.927	.566
Emotion/Fact	9	2	11	9.34	.190	1.587	2.518	-1.708	.287	5.455	.566
Agentic	8	3	11	8.34	.264	2.176	4.735	907	.291	.132	.574

Note: Bold font indicates a leptokurtic or highly skewed distribution.

Ranking behaviors. Board members ranked the ability to Communicate Passion for the institution and its mission and Communicating Thoroughly as the two most important communication behaviors in a president, based on mean scores. Communal Communication and Concise Communication were next, while Communicating Emotion/Fact and Agentic Communication were again ranked lowest in importance, as seen in Table 23.

Table 23

Board Members' Rank Ordering of Communication Behaviors: Descriptive Statistics Arranged by Means, in Descending Order (1=ranked highest)

Q8 Rank Order of:	Range	Min	Max	Mean	SE	SD	Var	Skew	SE	Kurt	SE
Passion	5	1	6	2.16	.178	1.490	2.221	.994	.287	195	.566
Thorough	4	1	5	2.51	144	1.201	1.442	.508	.287	657	.566
Communal	5	1	6	3.41	.166	1.388	1.927	.116	.287	855	.566
Concise	5	1	6	3.59	.187	1.565	2.449	.000	.287	-1.193	.566

Emotion/Fact	5	1	6	4.40	.150	1.256	1.577	535	.287	341	.566
Agentic	5	1	6	4.93	.186	1.554	2.415	-1.404	.287	.868	.566

Summary of key findings for research question 1. The key results of Research Question 1 are summarized here. Presidents' top communication competencies stated most frequently by board members were: Writing/Public Speaking, Listening/Asking Questions and Facilitation. Diversity was never offered as a top communication skill exhibited by presidents. Thorough Communication, which includes transparent communication, was the behavior listed by board members most often as a top skill exhibited by presidents. For presidents' competency in modes of communication, oral and written communication taken together was board members' most frequent response.

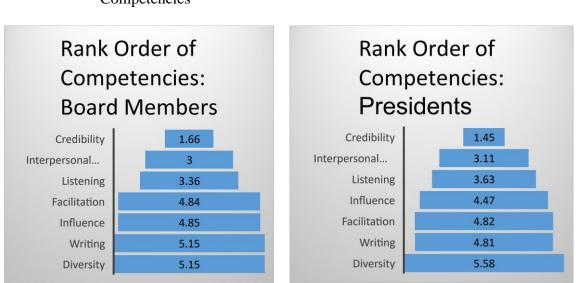
Board members rated and ranked the competencies of Credibility, Interpersonal Relations, and Listening as highest in importance, and Diversity was rated very low in importance and also ranked lowest in importance. The behaviors of Communicating Passion and Communicating Thoroughly were rated and ranked highest in importance by boards, while Agentic Communication was rated and ranked lowest in importance. Board members rated presidents' effectiveness on the competencies of Credibility, Interpersonal Relations, and Listening highest while Writing/Speaking and Facilitation were rated lowest. Presidents' effectiveness was highest for the behaviors of Communicating Passion and Agentic Communication.

Presidents excelled at the behaviors boards considered most important and did least well on what was least important to their boards. Effectiveness in Communicating Passion for the institution and its mission and Communicating Thoroughly were highly effective behaviors, while Agentic Communication was least effective. **Research questions 2 and 3.** This section addresses two related questions: a) What are the areas of agreement between board members and presidents on the key communication skills that a president should possess? and b) What are the areas of disagreement between board members and presidents on the key communication skills that a president should possess? The following discussion examines the order in which presidents and board members rated and ranked the importance of the competencies and behaviors.

Rank ordering of competencies: agreement. An inspection of the means for presidents' and board members' rank ordering of the importance of competencies showed agreement in assessments of the three most important competencies. Presidents and boards both ranked Credibility and Trust as *the* most important competency. Interpersonal Relationships and Team-building was ranked second by both boards and presidents. Listening, Attention, Question-asking, and Learning was ranked third by presidents and boards. Writing/Speaking, along with Diversity and Intercultural Relations were the least important competencies for board members and presidents.

Rank ordering of competencies: disagreement. Board members and presidents' opinions diverge somewhat with respect to three of the seven competencies. Board members placed more importance on Facilitation, Negotiation and Conflict Resolution, ranking it fourth, in contrast to presidents, who ranked it sixth. Board members placed less importance on Influence and Persuasion, ranking it fifth in comparison to presidents, who ranked it fourth. Writing and Public Speaking was less important to board members, who ranked it lowest, than it was to presidents, who ranked it fifth. The pyramid charts in Figures 5 and 6 illustrate these similarities and differences. Note that the competencies at

the tops of these pyramids reflect the most important competencies and those at the bottom reflect the least important competencies because mean rankings of 1 represent highest importance and mean rankings of 6 represent lowest importance.



Rank ordering of behaviors: agreement. Board members and presidents agreed on ranks for the importance of four of the six communication behaviors. Communicating Passion for the institution and its mission was ranked first by both boards and presidents. Conversely, Agentic Communication was ranked least important by both boards and presidents. Both board members and presidents ranked Communicating Concisely fourth in importance and ranked Communicating Emotion and Facts fifth in importance.

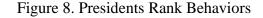
Rank ordering of behaviors: disagreement. There were slight differences in how boards and presidents ranked two of the communication behaviors. Board members ranked Communicating Thoroughly as second most important while presidents ranked this as third most important. Similarly, Communal Communication was ranked third in importance by board members, but second in importance by presidents. The pyramid

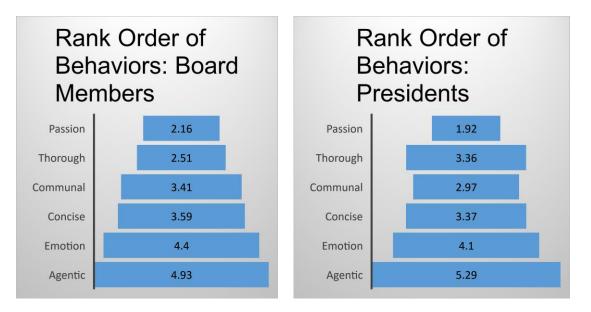
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Figure 5. Board Members Rank Competencies Figure 6. Presidents Rank Competencies

charts in Figures 7 and 8 illustrate areas of agreement and disagreement. Note that the competencies at the tops of these pyramids reflect the most important competencies and those at the bottom reflect the least important competencies because mean rankings of 1 represent highest importance and mean rankings of 6 represent lowest importance.

Figure 7. Board Members Rank Behaviors



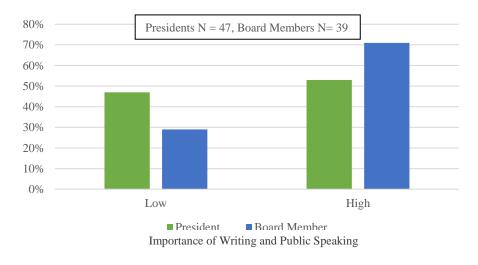


Differences and similarities for ratings of importance of competencies and

behaviors. The importance ratings of the seven communication competencies were cross-tabulated by respondent's role, i.e., Board Member or President. The importance ratings of the six behaviors were also cross-tabulated by respondents' roles. Because the distributions of these variables would result in small cell sizes in the cross-tabulation tables, the scale-level responses were recoded into binary categories. Frequencies for each variable were divided as close to the 50th percentile as possible. The result was a low and a high category for each competency and each behavior. Cross tabulations for these were run by respondent role.

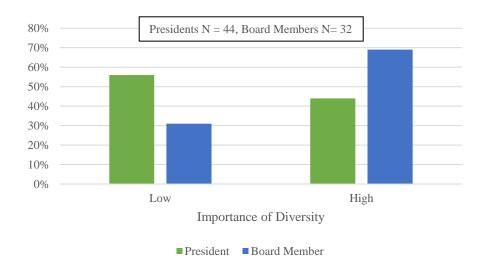
Importance of competencies ratings. Cross-tabulations revealed significant differences by role for three of the competencies. There was a statistically significant association between the importance of Writing/Speaking and role, with 71% (N=47) of board members versus 53% (N=39) of presidents considering this to be of high importance. Figure 9 illustrates this.

Figure 9. Importance of Writing and Public Speaking by Role



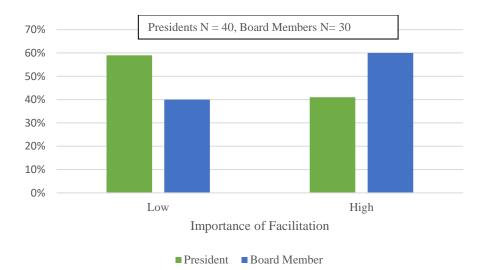
As can be seen in Figure 10, for Diversity, there was also a statistically significant association with role, with 69% (N=44) of board members and 44% (N = 32) of presidents considering Diversity to be of high importance.

Figure 10. Importance of Diversity by Role



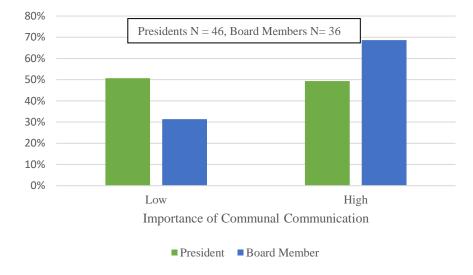
Additionally, Facilitation showed a statistically significant association with role, such that 60% (N=40) of board members and 41% (N=30) of presidents consider Facilitation to be of high importance. Figure 11 illustrates this.

Figure 11. Importance of Facilitation by Role



Importance of behavior ratings. Cross-tabulations revealed significant differences by administrative role for all but one of the six behaviors. First, there was a statistically significant association between the importance of Communal Communication and role, with 69% (N = 46) of board members versus 49% (N = 36) of presidents considering this to be of high importance. Figure 12 shows this.





For Agentic Communication, there was also a statistically significant association with role, with 64% (N = 42) of board members and 41% (N = 30) of presidents considering Agentic Communication to be of high importance. Figure 13 illustrates this.

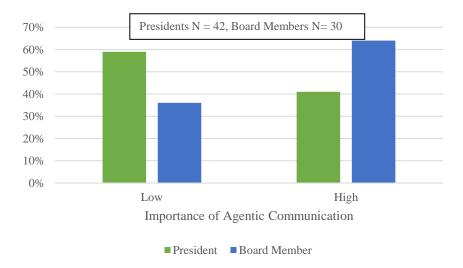
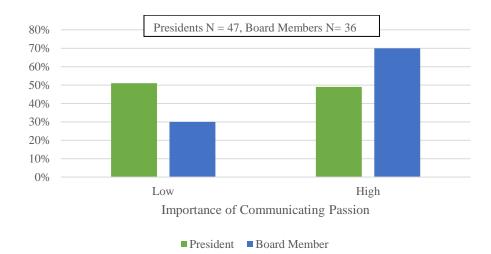


Figure 13. Importance of Agentic Communication by Role

For Communicating Passion for the institution, there was a statistically significant association with role, with 70% (N = 47) of board members and 49% (N = 36) of presidents considering Communicating Passion to be of high importance, as shown in Figure 14.

Figure 14. Importance of Communicating Passion by Role



Concise Communication showed a statistically significant association with role, such that 70% (N = 47) of board members and 43% (N = 31) of presidents considered conciseness of high importance. See Figure 15 below.

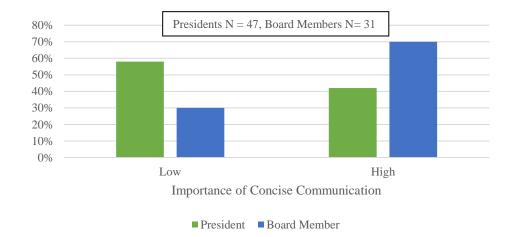
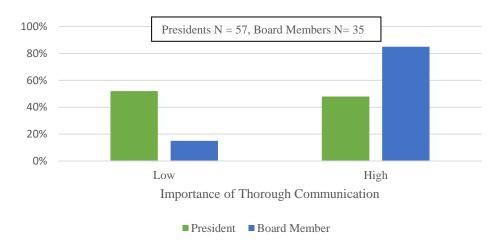


Figure 15. Importance of Concise Communication by Role

Finally, Thorough Communication showed a statistically significant association with role, such that 85% (N = 57) of board members and 48% (N = 35) of presidents considered Communicating Thoroughly to be of high importance (see Figure 16) Tables on Agreement and Disagreement are in Appendix G.

Figure 16. Importance of Thorough Communication by Role



Latent concepts. Cluster Analysis was performed to determine if any of the variables grouped together into latent concepts. The importance of the competencies and the importance of the behaviors were combined in the first cluster analysis. Coefficients indicated a two-cluster outcome, as shown in the dendrogram in Figure H1 in Appendix H. Cluster One was composed of the two competencies of Interpersonal Relationships and Listening. This cluster was called Other-Oriented Importance. Cluster Two includes the remaining five competencies and all six behaviors: Credibility, Influence, Facilitation, Diversity, Writing/Speaking, Concise, Thorough, Agentic, Passion, Emotion/Fact, and Communal. It was named Tactical and Emotional Importance.

In the second cluster analysis, the presidents' effectiveness in enacting the competencies and behaviors were combined. Coefficients and the icicle plot indicated a bimodal structure as shown in Figure H2 in Appendix H. Cluster One was composed of the two behaviors of Conciseness and Thoroughness plus the competencies of Credibility, Interpersonal Relationships, Listening, Influence, and Facilitation. This cluster was named Relationship Effectiveness. Cluster Two included Diversity, Writing/Speaking, Agentic, Passion, Emotion/Fact, and Communal. It was called Audience-Oriented/Emotional Effectiveness.

The four clusters were recoded into low, medium, and high categories based on frequencies counts, then cross-tabulated by role and gender. None of the cross-tabs for gender showed any statistically significant results. However, all the cross-tabs by role showed statistically significant results. Board members considered both clusters more important than presidents did. Board members viewed Other-Orientation as more important than presidents did. The two bar charts in Figure 17 display these results.

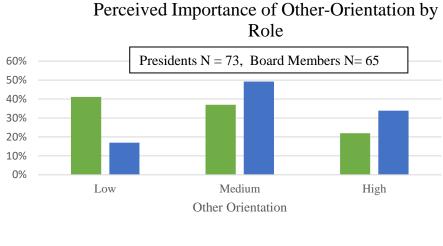
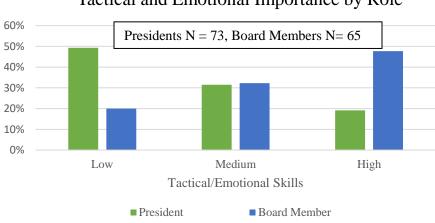


Figure 17. Perceptions of Other-Oriented Importance Cluster by Role

President Board Member

Similarly, board members perceived tactical and emotional support to be more important than presidents did (see Figure 18).

Figure 18. Perceptions of Tactical and Emotional Importance Cluster by Role



Tactical and Emotional Importance by Role

Board members also perceived presidents more favorably than presidents perceived themselves on both effectiveness clusters. The chart in Figure 19 shows that board members placed more importance on Relationship Effectiveness than presidents did.

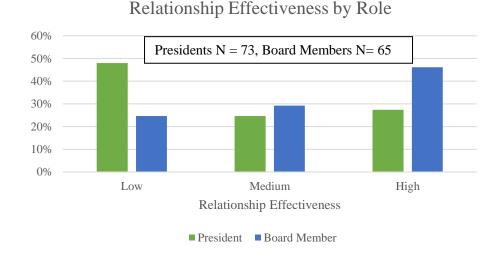
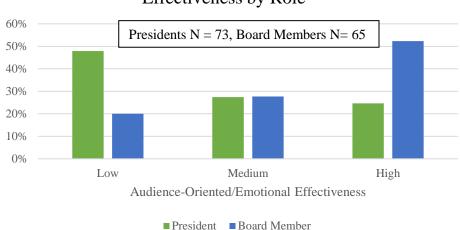


Figure 19. Perceptions of Relationship Effectiveness Cluster by Role

The bar chart in Figure 20 shows that board members perceived audience orientation and emotional effectiveness to be more important than presidents did. For additional information about these variables, see Appendix H.

Figure 20. Perceptions of Audience-Oriented/Emotional Effectiveness Cluster by Role



Perceived Audience-Oriented/Emotional Effectiveness by Role *Summary of key findings for research questions 2 and 3.* The key results of Research Questions 2 and 3 are summarized here. Rankings of the competencies and behaviors are summarized first.

Boards and presidents agreed in ranking Credibility and Trust as the most important competency and Writing/Public Speaking and Diversity as the least important competencies. Board members and presidents ranked Facilitation and Influence somewhat differently than presidents did. In terms of behaviors, board members and presidents agreed that Communicating Passion for the institution and its mission ranked paramount in importance and Agentic Communication ranked least important. There were slight differences between board members and president's rankings of Thorough Communication and Communal Communication.

Ratings of the competencies and behaviors are summarized next. Board members rated the importance of the competencies of Writing/Speaking, Diversity and Facilitation higher than presidents did. Board members also rated the importance of the behaviors of Communication, Agentic Communication, Communicating Passion, Concise Communication, and Thorough Communication higher than presidents did.

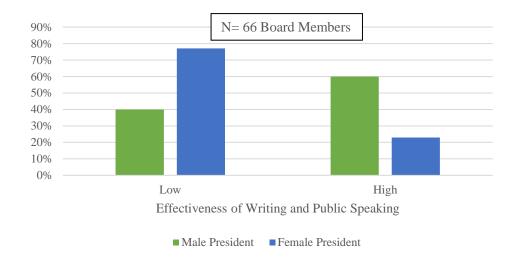
The Other-Orientation and Tactical and Emotional importance clusters underlying the combination of competencies and behaviors were both rated higher by board members than by presidents. Board members also evaluated presidents more favorably than presidents evaluated themselves on both effectiveness clusters (i.e., Relationship Effectiveness and Audience-Oriented/Emotional Effectiveness. **Research question 4.** What role, if any, do gender differences in communication skills play in perceptions of candidates that are important in decisions to hire presidents? All the ratings of the importance of communication competencies and behaviors were cross-tabulated by president's gender and board member's gender after the scale-level responses were recoded into binary categories. Frequencies for each variable were divided as close to the 50th percentile as possible. The result was a low and a high category for each competency and each behavior. There were no statistically significant differences for the importance of any of the competencies by gender.

Next, T-tests were conducted to again check for differences in the importance of the competencies by gender. Once again, there were no statistically significant differences between men and women in this area.

Summary of key findings for research question 4. The key findings from Research Question 4 indicate there were no statistically significant differences for the importance of any of the competencies and behaviors by gender.

Research questions 4a and 4b. Which communication skills do board members believe female presidents possess and lack? Which communication skills do board members believe male presidents possess and lack? To determine if there were any skills that boards thought one gender or the other lacked, cross-tabs were computed for the importance and the president's effectiveness on all competencies and behaviors by the gender of the current president using only responses from board members. To avoid small cell counts, all competencies were recoded into binary variables by splitting them as close to the 50th percentile as possible. The only attribute that showed any difference in board members' opinions of effectiveness by president's gender was Writing/Speaking, with

men considered better writers than women. This is based on evaluations of 53 male presidents and 13 female presidents. See Figure 21 below and the tables in Appendix I. Figure 21. Effectiveness of Writing and Public Speaking by Current President's Gender



Summary of key finding for research questions 4a and 4b. The key result of

Research Question 4 is that boards believe that men are better than women at Writing and Public Speaking.

Evaluating the Strength of the Model

To determine if there was any relationship between the competencies and behaviors in this model, correlations were computed. An additive index of the importance of all the behaviors and an additive index of the importance of all the competencies were created. As would be expected if the model was viable, there was a strong, positive correlation (r=.61, n=137, p<.01). Interestingly, the competency of Listening was highly correlated with all other competencies. The greatest correlations, in descending order, were between Listening importance and:

• Interpersonal

- Writing/Speaking
- Diversity
- Facilitation
- Credibility
- Influence.

This degree of collinearity indicates that Listening may be considered a "trigger" variable that is involved in the appearance of all the other competencies.

With respect to rating presidents' effectiveness in putting the competencies into action, Facilitation and Listening were correlated with most of the other competencies. Listening effectiveness was correlated, in descending order, with:

- Interpersonal
- Credibility
- Facilitation
- Diversity
- Writing/Speaking

Facilitation was correlated, in descending order, with:

- Interpersonal
- Diversity
- Influence
- Listening
- Credibility

It may not appear that conciseness and thoroughness are related and indeed it may seem as if they are diametrically opposed. Yet, for importance ratings, Concise Communication was associated with Communal Communication and Thorough Communication. Also, Thorough Communication was related to Communal Communication, Communicating Passion, and Concise Communication.

For ratings of their presidents' effectiveness with respect to communication behaviors, Thoroughness was associated with Conciseness, Agentic Communication, and Communicating both Emotion and Facts. See Tables in Appendix J.

Canonical correlations were performed to determine if the model was a good fit for the data, to determine if there were associations between the behaviors and the competencies, and to corroborate the results of the correlation analysis. This theoretical finding verifies the integrity of the overall model because there was an association between competencies and behaviors. The full model shows a large effect size of .65 (1-Wilke's Lambda) F (42) = 3.4, and sig. at p< .001. The next function has a medium effect size of .29, but F is not significant, therefore no additional analysis was conducted. In summary, of the six canonical roots, only the first was statistically significant. See Table 24.

Table 24Canonical Correlations Between Communication Competencies and Behaviors

Canonical Root	Correlation	Eigenvalue	Wilks Statistic	F	Num D.F	Denom D.F.	Sig.
1	.708	1.007	.358	3.408	42.000	585.064	.000
2	.399	.189	.719	1.438	30.000	502.000	.064
3	.264	.075	.855	1.014	20.000	418.845	.443
4	.237	.059	.919	.910	12.000	336.302	.537

Canonical Root	Correlation	Eigenvalue	Wilks Statistic	F	Num D.F	Denom D.F.	Sig.
5	.156	.025	.974	.575	6.000	256.000	.750
6	.046	.002	.998				<u> </u>

H0 for Wilks test is that the correlations in the current and following rows are zero

Additionally, an additive index of the importance of the six behaviors and an additive index of the importance of the seven competencies were created for use in a simple regression to determine if there was a curvilinear relationship between these two concepts. Using Stat Graphics, a correlation coefficient of .60 was produced, which indicates a moderately strong association between behaviors and competencies. It was determined that the linear model explained 37% of the variance and no alternative model improved on that, leading to the conclusion that competencies and behaviors are not related in a curvilinear fashion. Tables are in Appendix K.

Using the Model for Prediction

Prior to computing binary logistic regressions, linear regressions using the competencies as independent variables to predict role (i.e., board member or president) were run to determine if there was collinearity. The adjusted $R^2 = -.018$, therefore tolerances of less than 1.018 indicated multicollinearity. In all cases, tolerances fell below 1.018 and multicollinearity was suspected.

Additionally, high condition index values coupled with low eigenvalues appeared, indicating that collinearity may exist. More than one competency had a high variance proportion for the third, fifth and eighth dimensions, which also supports the possibility

of multicollinearity and corroborates the results of the correlation analysis. See tables in Appendix L.

Binary Logistic Regressions were computed to determine if it was possible to predict gender from competencies and behaviors, but nothing predicted gender. Binary Logistic Regressions were next computed to determine if it was possible to predict the respondent's role from competencies and behaviors. Based on results of model Chi Square tests, the overall models for the following were a good fit:

- Importance of Competencies: When the importance ratings of all competencies were taken together, the model was statistically significant (X² = 19.54, *df*=7, N=138, p < .01).
 - Additionally, binary logistic regression of importance of communication competencies in predicting the respondent's role shows that Diversity is the only competency that predicts role. The odds ratio for Diversity is statistically significant (ExpB=1.24, CI=1.01-1.53).
- President's Effectiveness in Enacting Competencies: When the effectiveness ratings of all competencies were taken together, the model was statistically significant ($X^2 = 18.04$, df = 7, N = 138, p < .05).
 - A binary logistic regression of ratings of the president's effectiveness with respect to communication competencies as predicting respondent's role again indicates that Diversity is the only competency that predicts the respondent's role. The odds ratio for Diversity is statistically significant (ExpB=1.32, CI=1.01-1.71).

- Importance of Behaviors: When the importance ratings of all behaviors were taken together, the model was statistically significant (X² = 27.20, *df*=6, *N*=140, p < .001).
 - Binary logistic regression of the respondent's role as predicting the importance of the communication behaviors indicates that Thorough Communication is the only behavior that predicts role. The odds ratio for Thorough Communication is statistically significant (ExpB=1.87, CI=1.26 2.78).
- President's Effectiveness in Enacting Behaviors: When the effectiveness ratings of all behaviors were taken together, the model was statistically significant ($X^2 = 28.53$, df=6, N=139, p < .001).
 - Binary logistic regression of the respondent's role as predicting the effectiveness of communication behaviors indicates that Thorough Communication is again the only behavior that predicts role. The odds ratio for Thorough Communication is statistically significant (ExpB=1.96, CI=1.33 2.88).
- Board-President Communication Effectiveness: When the effectiveness ratings of board-president communication were put into the model, it was statistically significant (X² = 11.53, *df*=1, *N*=142, p < .001).

Summary of findings related to regression analysis. In summary, all overall models were a good fit for the data. Only one competency, Diversity, and one behavior, Thorough Communication, predicted role. Additionally, board-president communication effectiveness also predicted role. See Tables in Appendix M.

Alternative Explanation: Cultural Alignment and Communication Effectiveness

Binary Logistic Regressions show that the overall model for board-president cultural alignment, like all the other models, was a good fit for the data and that we may predict the respondent's role from ratings of the importance of board-president cultural alignment ($X^2 = 5.66$, df=1, N=142, p < .05). See Tables in Appendix M. Frequencies showed that board members believed that it was important for the culture of the board and the president to align closely. Similarly, presidents also believed that it was important that the cultures of the board and the president align closely. However, presidents' mean ratings were lower than board members' mean ratings. T-Tests indicated a statistically significant difference between board members and presidents with respect to cultural alignment. See Tables in Appendix N.

Chapter 6: Discussion

Overview

This research was designed to learn about the ways in which board members and presidents of institutions of higher education communicate with each other. The communication of interest began during the process of hiring a new president and continued into the first three to five years of the president's tenure. Both the perspectives of board members involved in the hiring process and the presidents were considered. Qualitative measures were employed to design and enhance the quantitative research.

Analysis of questionnaire data produced several results of statistical and practical significance. In the following pages, these results will be considered with respect to the research questions presented earlier in this document.

Findings Based on Research Questions

Results are discussed in relation to research questions they address in the following section.

Research question 1. What are the key communication skills that boards seek in hiring a president? Descriptive statistics including frequencies and mean ratings and rankings were used to address this research question. Although all competencies were considered very important, there was variation among the ratings and rankings when board members were asked about skills sought in hiring the current president. Somewhat like the open-ended responses, mean rating and ranking scores indicated that Credibility and Trust, Interpersonal Relationships, Listening, Communicating Passion for the institution and its mission, Communal Communication and Communicating Thoroughly were most important. Diversity and Intercultural Relations, Writing and Public Speaking,

Communicating Emotion and Fact, and Agentic Communication were the least important competencies and behaviors, based on mean ratings and rankings. Also, Diversity and Intercultural Relations were not referred to at all in the open-end responses, probably indicating that this is a particularly low priority in hiring a president. Because diversity issues do not appear to be top-of-mind, it suggests that board members may want to devote more consideration to the broad array of stakeholders with whom the president needs to interact when assessing candidates' communication skills. In addition, thinking about diversity in terms of culture, race and gender, for example, it may be prudent for board members to also think of diversity more broadly, in terms of political, geographic, and ideological groups.

As would be expected based on LCS 2.0, results point out the importance of the leadership communication competencies of Credibility/Trust, Interpersonal Relationships and Listening. LCS 2.0 is the only one of the four models discussed in the literature review that measures credibility and trust, so this research supports LCS 2.0 better than it supports the other three models on this point.

From these results, it is evident that emotion, particularly passion, is not only involved in hiring a president but it plays a key role, which supports Etzioni's (1988) argument that decision-making proceeds along emotional lines. Board members identify with the candidate's passion for their school because they feel that same passion. This also supports Etzioni's position that logical decisions are dependent on emotional constructs. In this case, the logic is that presidents' love or passion for the college or university will guide their work so that they will perform well as president. In another respect, this supports the notion that cultural matching is important in hiring decisions because the candidate's passion may resonate with the board member's passion for their school. This indicates an alignment in perspective which may provide a basis for bonding over their shared passion for the school.

All of this is somewhat surprising given that most of the board members come from non-academic backgrounds, which would predispose them toward more unemotional, bottom-line thinking. What this may reveal is the board members' awareness that the world of higher education and the corporate world have different needs and missions, although we make no assumptions that their approach to corporate hiring is different than their approach to academic hiring. Board members somehow are able to put the corporate mindset aside and recognize the need for passion in addition to more concrete metrics when it comes to choosing the leader of their college or university.

The finding that communicating with diverse audiences is not a high priority is startling because based on LCS 2.0, this should be as important as the other communication competencies. Additionally, this does not align with the results of an earlier dissertation that employed qualitative methods to assess leadership competencies (Agnew, 2014). Because this was unexpected, additional questions about the topic were not included in the survey, so informed speculation as to why that occurred is not feasible. Possibly, this is considered a "given" for a job that requires contact with multiple and varied constituencies. Alternatively, perhaps this is not as important a quality for a president to possess as we might imagine. Most boards are not diverse, so perhaps board members are more concerned with hiring someone who will work well with them as a homophilous group than with other, more diverse constituencies. Or

with more diverse groups. It is also possible that this represents a real oversight in the identification of needed qualities by boards. Only further research may explain if these conjectures are correct.

In contrast, it was not surprising that agentic communication, that is, communicating in an assertive or aggressive manner, by a presidential candidate was not valued by board members because one of the president's main duties is fund-raising, which may require a subtler approach (Bornstein, 2003; Nason, 1984). An aggressive attitude in communicating may be perceived as overbearing by donors, as well as faculty, and other constituencies. Additionally, agentic communication to faculty, for instance, would not be expected in a loosely coupled, organized anarchy because in these kinds of organizations, the president's power is not delineated clearly and faculty expect to collaborate in decision-making. A president's assertive, as opposed to communal, communication with faculty could be interpreted as authoritarian rather than collaborative and may generate opposition or resentment. Additionally, this provides support for the notion of pluralistic governance found in the Polycentric Model of Constituencies. Autocratic or aggressive communication would not be expected to be part of the conversation when governance is shared among multiple stakeholders. In short, there is theoretical support for the overall model as well as for the section of the model specifically involving communication and information.

Research question 2. What are the areas of agreement between board members and presidents on the key communication skills that a president should possess? Reviewing the ratings of competencies, there was agreement on the most and least important skills. Based on means, board members and presidents agreed that Credibility

and Trust along with Passion for the institution and its mission were exceptionally important while Diversity and Intercultural Relations along with Agentic Communication were least important.

This supports the contentions regarding Communicating Passion that were just discussed in relation to RQ 1. It also highlights the finding that Credibility and Trust are very important. Furthermore, it supports the use of LCS 2.0 in assessing leadership at the presidential level because LCS 2.0 is the only one of the four leadership competency models including Credibility and Trust as communication competencies.

Additionally, this result provides confirmation that Diversity and Intercultural Relations and Agentic Communication are not valuable assets when deciding whom to hire as president. To reiterate, this aligns with the concepts of loose coupling and organized anarchy as well as the pluralistic governance of the Polycentric Model of Constituencies.

Research question 3. What are the areas of disagreement between board members and presidents on the key communication skills that a president should possess? Cross tabulations of importance ratings of communication competencies and behaviors by the respondent's role revealed statistically significant differences for three competencies and five behaviors. Specifically, the communication competencies considered more important by board members than by presidents are:

- Writing and Public Speaking
- Diversity and Intercultural Relations
- Facilitation

The disparity in writing and public speaking is interesting because this competency is not very important to the board members and because it has a gendered aspect which will be discussed later. The candidates need to recognize that although this is not exceedingly important, it is more important that they think it is. They may therefore want to focus on writing and public speaking a bit more during the hiring process. Differing impressions of competent communication with diverse publics and cultures is of lesser concern because it is perceived by board members to be the least important competency.

The five communication behaviors considered more important by boards than by presidents are:

- Communal Communication
- Agentic Communication
- Communicating Passion for the institution or its mission
- Concise Communication
- Thorough Communication

Clearly, presidents did not recognize one of the key aspects of loosely coupled organizations and organized anarchy – the need for inclusion of various stakeholders via communal communication practices. It was expected that presidential candidates would be aware of the need for cooperation and involvement by numerous stakeholders. This should have been the case particularly if they had previous leadership background in higher education because they would know the unique ways in which these institutions are organized. Yet, this is not what the results show. A lesser evaluation of an emotional aspect of the hiring decision is evident among presidents. Presidents may not be placing enough emphasis on communicating their love of the institution or its mission. Perhaps they envision the hiring process as more logically driven, as Carroll and Johnson (1990) proposed, than emotionally driven, as Etzioni (1998) proposed. Conversely, perhaps among board members, there is a significant component of the hiring decision that involves feeling and expressing emotion that is not revealed to candidates and could be expressed.

Presidents' de-emphasis on the amount of communication, i.e., whether to be concise or thorough, was understandable based on the personal interviews. At least one board member and one president described the president's early days in office as a learning process in which the new president needed to divine how much information to share with board members.

Overall, these results may be explained by Agency Theory (Toma, 1986), because they show a disparity between eight of the twelve competencies and behaviors valued by the board (the principal or employer) and the president (the agent or employee). Agency Theory leads to the expectation that principal and agent would have different visions of the competencies and behaviors that presidents require to be successful. There appears to be a mismatch between the perceptions of board members and presidents regarding the importance of many competencies and behaviors that are sought in presidential candidates.

Examination of underlying themes related to the importance of the behaviors and competencies via cluster analysis provided two conceptualizations: 1) Other-Oriented and 2) Tactical and Emotional. Cross-tabulations indicated that board members considered both of these underlying concepts more important than presidents did. This also leads to the conclusion that including emotions and taking a communal perspective are areas that presidential candidates need to understand and emphasize more deeply.

Research question 4. What role, if any, do gender differences in communication skills play in perceptions of candidates that are important in decisions to hire presidents? When cross-tabulations and t-tests were computed for ratings of communication behaviors and competencies by the current president's gender and the board member's gender, no statistically significant gender differences materialized.

This indicates that the gender of the evaluator does not seem to matter when judging the communication skills that a candidate needs to become president. If there are no appreciable differences in the perceptions of the competencies and behaviors that men versus women on the governing boards seek, it means that the majority of board members are operating from the same mindset and we should be able to develop a clear picture of what they are seeking in a president. In other words, anyone applying for the presidency will be evaluated on the same criteria by both male and female board members. Therefore, if gender differences appear, they are not due to men having one set of rules for judging candidates and women having another, different set of rules.

Results of this nature with respect to gender are unsurprising because discussion of the research on gender differences in leadership can be contentious. There are essentially two camps:

1) gender differences exist, even if they are small (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Eagly,

Johannesen-Schmidt, & van Engen, 2003; Rosenor, 1990; Rosser, 2003)

2) gender differences are overstated or non-existent (Dobbins & Platz, 1986; Vecchio, 2002, 2003).

Regardless of their disagreements, these two camps share some middle-ground in that they agree that detecting distinctions in leadership style by gender can, at times, be a matter of subtleties and nuances. Detecting subtle differences may be problematic with the limited sample that was possible in this dissertation.

There are two more reasons why distinctions may not have emerged in the present research study. First, attitudes and behaviors that may differ by gender are often hard to detect because they are interrelated with other characteristics of an individual and therefore separating out any outcomes that relate purely to gender is not a simple matter. Second, the sample used in this research was predominantly male, so the smaller number of women may be responsible for any lack of distinctions found. A larger sample would allow the use of more sophisticated statistics that would be more likely to detect distinctions between the genders for perceptions of candidates' communication competencies and behaviors. However, there is also a possibility that gender differences exist but that they are not perceived or reported because doing so would involve responding to the survey questions in manner that is not socially desirable.

Research questions 4a and 4b. Which communication skills do board members believe female presidents possess and lack? Which communication skills do board members believe male presidents possess and lack? Cross tabulation of board ratings of the importance of communication competencies and the presidents' effectiveness by the president's gender uncovered only one difference: male presidents were considered more effective writers and public speakers than female presidents. Interestingly, the importance

of this competency is *rated* toward the middle of all competencies but *ranked* lowest of all competencies by board members. Because the competency on which men are considered more competent is one of the least important competencies, this may only have minor ramifications for hiring decisions.

This discovery was unexpected for two reasons. First, based on Role Congruity Theory (Eagly & Carli, 2007), it seemed more likely that there would be a gendered assessment of presidents' behaviors, especially communal or agentic communication, given Rudman's (2001) work on Agentic Backlash. Second, considering the controversy over the small magnitude of gendered differences in leadership styles in the extant literature, along with the relatively small number of women in this study, few differences by gender were expected to emerge. Therefore, this result is particularly intriguing.

Viability of the Model

Analysis of correlations between communication competencies and communication behaviors signified the viability of the model via the strong, positive correlation between the competencies and the behaviors. Canonical correlations for the full model verified the results of the correlation analysis. The effect size of .65 was large and statistically significant. The discovery that thoroughness was important to board members may be something new that advances knowledge of leadership communication competencies, but it was anticipated based on the interviews done in the beginning of this study.

Model Prediction

Linear regressions indicated a possibility that multicollinearity exists. Binary Logistic Regressions (BLRs) did not predict gender from the competencies and behaviors. Only ratings of the importance of Diversity and Intercultural Relations and Thorough Communication predicted the respondent's role, i.e., board member or president. However, the BLRs did indicate that all overall models for the competencies and behaviors were a good fit for the data. This further confirms the viability of the model.

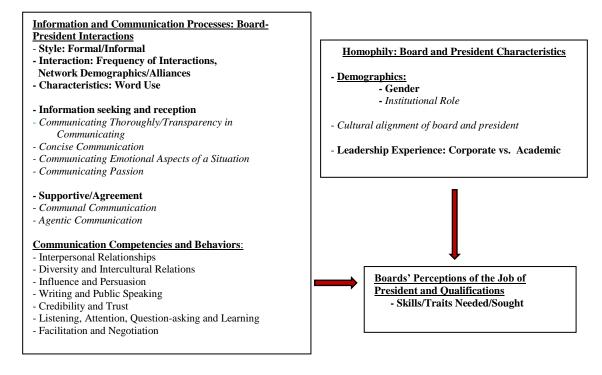
Alternative Explanation

BLRs indicate that the overall model for board-president cultural alignment is also a good fit for the data and frequencies indicate that board members and presidents agree on the importance of board-president cultural alignment. Existing research on homophily and similarity in hiring decisions supports and predicts this finding. As birds of a feather flock together, boards and presidents of a feather may also flock together.

Revised and Expanded Model

The results suggest that the model originally proposed may be expanded to include additional variables describing communication competencies and behaviors because board members and presidents considered each of these new variables important to some degree. Figure 22 shows the updated model. Additions are shown in italics.

Figure 22. Revised Model of Communication Competencies and Behaviors Involved in the Presidential Hiring Process



Theoretical Implications

This dissertation explored only a small section of the CHETT Model. Future research designed to extend our theoretical understanding could focus on the many other aspects of the system. Because the model is relatively large and detailed, the discussion of theoretical implications concentrates primarily on the Homophily Principle, Role Congruity Theory, and Agency Theory.

Homophily. This research extends knowledge in the field of homophily by finding that the notion that "birds of a feather flock together" applies to board members and presidents. Board members tend to share common attitudes or backgrounds and consider this important; they are relatively homogenous. This helps explain why the historical trend of male, white, doctorates leading universities and colleges persists. It also illustrates the comfort level that these individuals have with persons similar to themselves. That could explain their typical willingness to operate as a collective board rather than breaking up into factions with different agendas.

The finding that board members believe that it is important for their cultures to be aligned also suggests that emotions may come into play in choosing presidents. One example of this is some board members' need to see that a candidate has the same passion for their school that they have. This helps explain why they may seek internal candidates who are faculty or external candidates who are alumni. This also confirms Etzioni's research on emotion as an active component in decision making and it extends that theory to presidential hiring in higher education. Therefore, this study's results support and extend both Agency Theory and emotional theories for decision making.

Role congruity theory. Research in psychology and communication, particularly Role Congruity Theory, indicates that when men and women say the same things, they are perceived differently (Rudman & Glick, 2001, Tannen, 1990). The finding that women are perceived as less competent than men at writing and public speaking suggests that Role Congruity Theory (Eagly & Carli, 2007) applies here. Women have more to consider when writing and speaking because they are caught in a double bind of appearing to be agentic and nonagentic simultaneously in order to avoid agentic backlash (Rudman & Glick, 2001). Additionally, board members may unconsciously be judging female candidate's public speaking based on antecedent conditions. Board members may envision men as more competent public speakers because, until recently, most wellknown and well-regarded public speakers were men. For these reasons, keeping role congruity in mind when evaluating candidates for the presidency of institutions of higher education seems to be important. Additionally, given these perceptions, female candidates for the presidency may want to provide very strong evidence of the quality of their writing and speaking skills during the interview process.

The lack of perceptions of other differences in communicating by gender may also have implications. For cluster analysis, future research may find similar clusters if a larger random sample could be obtained. Furthermore, institutional history can predominate in behaviors of boards. That may explain why we do not observe gender differences. They are subdued by this. Patterns due to historical, cultural or other factors that could be considered as dominant over long periods of time may explain their attitudes, as noted above.

Agency theory. Although we see agreement in many areas, clearly there are differing attitudes among presidents and board members with respect to some competencies and behaviors. This advances Agency Theory (Toma, 1986) because it applies a theoretical framework generated in the corporate sphere to a different set of leaders – those of the academic world, and it creates an awareness of the sometimes-competing motivations of board members and presidents.

A new area for theorizing. Finally, although there was little empirical research noted on the key role of transparency in evaluating presidents or presidential candidates, these results open a new area for theorizing about this communication quality. Further research, using larger samples, may help inform new theories in this area.

Practical Implications

This section suggests tactics and strategies for utilizing the results of this study to enhance the presidential selection process. These involve succession planning, training and mentoring programs, advancing women, diversity competency and strategy, and competency assessment methods.

Succession planning. Colleges and universities may find it helpful to focus increased attention on succession planning for the presidency. Unlike corporations that tend to plan for succession and groom their own employees for advancement to the presidency, colleges and universities often hire presidents from outside their institutions (Stripling, 2011). This creates a situation in which new presidents step into a high-level role having little or no familiarity with the school or how it operates. The steep learning curve they face can manifest itself in inadequate or ineffective communication and other missteps. For example, board members and presidents may have very different expectations of how communication should proceed and how they are to interact with each other simply because they are new to each other. Additionally, a new president who has no corporate experience may not understand the mindsets of board members who mainly have corporate backgrounds. Similarly, a new board member with a corporate background may not realize that he or she has a more limited understanding than the president has of how institutions of higher education function. Preparing internal candidates to become presidents may benefit both new presidents and board members.

Training and mentoring programs. One approach to succession planning involves training programs designed to assist internal candidates in advancing to leadership positions in higher education. Existing programs of this type include the Extension Administrative Leadership Program, which is specifically designed to assist internal candidates in advancing to leadership positions in higher education, and the Rutgers Leadership Academy (RLA), which is designed to teach faculty and staff the key skills that they will need as they rise through the ranks into higher level leadership positions. There are programs specifically designed to train presidents. Perhaps the most famous of these is sponsored by Harvard's Graduate School of Education (Morris, 2015). If additional programs are instituted at more schools, the pool of people specially trained to understand and face the unique challenges in higher education leadership may increase, perhaps leading to longer tenures and fewer involuntary departures for presidents.

Another way to address this is by implementing programs for mentoring and onboarding new board members and presidents. One board member interviewed in this study stated the value of a particularly well-respected board member's mentoring in assisting new board members and a new president in overcoming any initial confusion about what constitutes appropriate communication between the board and the president. One-to-one mentoring, while time-consuming, may have beneficial long-range outcomes that ultimately justify the time and effort expended.

Advancing women. The proportion of women college and university presidents does not match the proportion of women attending colleges and universities. In the US, where women earn more than half the associate's, bachelor's, master's and doctoral degrees, only about a quarter of the presidents of the colleges and universities where they earn these degrees are women (Johnson, 2016). This represents an imbalance between leadership and constituency. Because the number of women presidents is no longer increasing, as it had in the past, ways to assist women in ascending to the presidency may be worth considering, including special leadership training and mentorship programs. Through these programs, networking opportunities may emerge for women to connect with successful women presidents, giving future presidential candidates the opportunity to learn from these women's successful experiences as well as to make contacts that could help them find employment opportunities in the future. An example of one such program is the Millennium Leadership Initiative (MLI), sponsored by the American Association of State Colleges and Universities (ASCU). MLI is designed to help women and minorities reach the presidency of colleges and universities (American Association of State Colleges and Universities, n.d.).

Diversity: competency and strategy. In addition to programs like MLI, strategies for diversity and inclusion could take other forms. The unanticipated finding that board members rated diversity less important than other competencies when choosing a president indicates that it may be worthwhile to consider diversity competency in more depth when evaluating candidates for the presidency. It is possible that board members downplay the importance of diversity because they believe that presidential candidates have extensive prior experience communicating with diverse groups and will therefore be competent at working with and reaching diverse constituencies. Perhaps having more information about a candidate's experience with diverse groups would be useful to board members in making hiring decisions.

Board members may also find that holding diversity strategy sessions is helpful. US federal government hiring recommendations that focus on leaders include strategies and data-driven approaches to hiring with diversity as an objective (United States Office of Personnel Management, 2016). These strategies could be adapted and applied to hiring higher education leaders.

In relation to both gender and diversity, it is possible that unconscious biases may be entwined in the selection process. Unconscious bias occurs when societal stereotypes are internalized by an individual and may unintentionally influence their judgments in ways that are counter to their egalitarian intentions when making decisions (Wolf & Boyd, 2016). Therefore, although Board members' intentions are to treat all candidates equally, it is possible that unconscious biases may override good intentions. These kinds of biases maybe assessed by having board or search committee members take a test designed to make unconscious biases evident. The Implicit Association Test (IAT) is an online test that assesses "attitudes and beliefs that people may be unwilling or unable to report" (Harvard University, 2011). This test is part of Project Implicit, which also offers training in unconscious bias, leadership, and diversity. Using the results of the IAT may result in more informed board members who are willing to make more "blind" decisions (i.e., the candidate's name, ethnicity or gender is not disclosed) or who may try to find ways of balancing out any unconscious biased attitudes (Harvard University, 2011; Leske, 2016).

Competency assessment methods. It may be productive to use "scorecard" or "dashboard" evaluations of communication and other leadership competencies during the hiring process. Two examples of these types of competency measurement devices are the LCS 2.0 and HELC, mentioned earlier. Each of these assesses several leadership characteristics and competencies and allows easy comparisons among candidates. These evaluations could be blind-coded, which might lessen the likelihood of any personal or political biases creeping into the hiring decision. Having a set of competencies that are applied to all candidates and a tool for assessing the candidates on those competencies

may improve the chances of members of under-represented populations becoming presidents of institutions of higher education.

Limitations

One major criticism of most modern-day research is the lack of replication of exploratory or initial studies. The major limitation of this study is that it has not been replicated yet and that needs to be done, preferably by a different researcher.

There was initially some concern about respondents' memory loss over time, but this did not appear to be an issue when using a five-year timeframe, as borne out in the pilot test, as well as the main study interviews and questionnaires. Respondents had very clear recall of the events involved in the search and hiring process, probably because they took the entire experience so seriously and were so heavily invested in it.

Another potential issue was the low response rate, which although expected, has implications for generalizability. It is entirely possible that only those presidents and board members who were most successful and least busy answered the survey, and therefore it may not be representative of the full spectrum of the types of individuals from which the sample was drawn. The board members who responded were almost universally satisfied with their presidents and the presidents were mostly very pleased with their board members. Therefore, any negative side of this equation was left largely unexplored. It may have been useful to identify, interview, and survey those presidents and board members who had negative experiences. However, that could be a difficult task because they may be uncomfortable or feel that their jobs are threatened if they present any negativity publicly. This is a continuing and challenging problem with this research, and is endemic to any research on employee-employer relationships.

Similarly, there is always a risk of respondents giving socially desirable responses in surveys and interviews, and this study is no exception to that. Ratings were often at the very high end of the scales, so that may be a valid concern. However, the pilot study and Gallup Poll results cited in the Results chapter lead to the belief that positive responses were not artificially inflated and respondents were offering honest evaluations (Rivard, 2013).

Ultimately, talking to those who offered mostly positive evaluations of their experiences leads us to exactly where we wish to be. That is because we are trying to understand how *successful* communication occurs between boards and presidents so that we can recommend ways to effect successful communication in sub-optimal situations.

Another potential limitation is that only one leadership scorecard's competencies were used in this study. This was an initial small-scale exploratory study, but perhaps future research could expand on this and incorporate competencies from other scorecards and related studies in this area.

Recommendations for Future Research

Ideas that relate to general aspects of the study are presented first, followed by recommendations relating to specific competencies and behaviors. Subsequently, possibilities related to the concepts of gender and diversity are discussed. This section concludes with thoughts about the impact of corporatization on future research in presidential selection and evaluation.

Organizations such as the Association of Governing Boards or the American Association of Presidents of Independent Colleges and Universities may have better access to respondents than a single investigator did. If both organizations co-sponsor the research, that would be even more advantageous. Based on other studies that these organizations have conducted, they should be able to reach and secure the cooperation of a larger group and a greater variety of presidents and governing boards than an individual researcher could. This would be helpful in generalizing the results. Also, a follow-up study in three to five years would be beneficial in checking the veracity and timeliness of this dissertation's findings. It would also provide data for an analysis of longitudinal shifts in perceptions and attitudes.

Additionally, a study of personal interviews with a larger number of presidential candidates and search committee members is suggested. This would allow for more indepth investigation of the competencies from the extant scorecards and the newly tested behaviors which, in turn, could be helpful in designing additional survey instruments, as well as in continuing to increase our understanding of the search and hiring process. As a companion study to this, qualitative or ethnographic research on the role of search firms in the search process may be useful. Search firms are used frequently in searches for presidents of colleges of universities and may interface with search committees and board chairs (Kelderman, 2016). A 2015 study of 27 searches for presidents of four year universities found that search firms participated in these searches at two-thirds of the universities (Wilde & Finkelstein, 2016). If search firms are heavily involved in this process, it behooves us to understand the role they play in both selecting and preparing candidates for consideration by boards. An interesting direction for study would be to assess the competencies and behaviors that search firms look for in candidates, as well as the coaching they offer candidates with respect to such skills. With respect to gender and diversity, it would be interesting to examine the types of candidates that search firms

produce. If these firms have a larger network than college board members have, does that mean that using search firms results in a more diverse pool of candidates for the presidency?

It could be hypothesized that there are many behaviors to observe and that the priorities placed on each behavior and competency may change over time as the political and economic climate changes. Because the competencies and behaviors are correlated, another way of studying this would be to combine the competencies and behaviors into one scale, test the scale and then use it as part of a questionnaire to assess search committees and board members' criteria for selecting a president.

A case study specifically focusing on the communication competencies and behaviors of long-tenured presidencies versus presidencies that lasted only a short time could be useful for developing hypotheses about how communication played a role in presidential success or failure. Additionally, a case study of appointed versus elected boards may unearth some differences in their hiring practices with respect to communication.

Board members' last place ranking of Diversity and Intercultural Relations along with Writing and Public Speaking is surprising, given that the president's job involves writing and speaking to a variety of constituencies. Perhaps the most important hiring criteria relate more to the way that the president communicates with the board than with the way that the president communicates with other constituencies. This is an hypotheses that could bear further investigation.

Turning to specific concepts, an additional avenue to pursue relates to transparency and how it is portrayed in an interview situation. How can search committee members know that a candidate will be transparent based on limited contact with that person? The ways in which ability to manage conflict is assessed in the hiring process is also a specific topic worth studying further. Research might focus on how board members assess this competency during the hiring process. For these two topics, qualitative interviews would be helpful, perhaps using the critical incident technique.

In terms of gender and diversity, several avenues are available for further research. One path is to explore the ways in which writing and public speaking qualifications are appraised by presidential search committees. How thorough and unbiased are these appraisals? An experiment in which identical writing samples and speech texts labelled as fictitious male and female candidates for the presidency are sent to search committee members of both genders for evaluation would be a good starting point. These could be analyzed statistically for differences in evaluations of male and female candidates to see if there are differences according to the candidate's gender as well as according to the search committee member's gender. An examination of evidence of the public speaking qualities of ethos, logos and pathos in videos of their speeches could be another path for investigating this phenomenon.

Also, a case study comparing the process of selecting a new president in institutions having mostly male boards versus mostly female boards versus more equally mixed gender boards might provide a venue for exploring gendered perceptions of the interview and selection process with respect to communication competencies and behaviors. All of this would extend the current work on gendered communication.

Based on the finding that diversity was not offered at all in the open-ended question about the current president's qualifications nor was it one of the top responses to the question of which skills boards sought in hiring their current president, it would be interesting to conduct a content analysis of advertisements for presidents to see if diversity appears at all and if it has a place of prominence in these documents. In general, it would be useful to content analyze advertisements for presidents to see exactly which of the competencies they emphasize or even mention, but the diversity question is the one which is the most puzzling, so therefore, it is the one that would be critically important to assess. Additionally, it may be useful to investigate precisaely what diversity means to the board members and how they assess it. Could we hypothesize that it is taken as a "given" or as part of the candidate's public speaking skills in general? Do board members automatically assume that the president can reach and be comfortable with diverse audiences? Or, is diversity not as critical as other competencies and behaviors?

Finally, it may be hypothesized that any trend toward corporatization of higher education could affect the search and selection process. Investigating whether more emphasis on financial outcomes leads to board members placing more value on financial qualifications than on communication and behavioral competencies in hiring could be informative. It could also be hypothesized that if institutions of higher education follow more of a corporate-style, rather than a higher education-style organizational leadership model, more external candidates who lack academic experience and fewer minority and female presidents will be hired because the corporate world tends not to hire minorities and female presidents as often as the academic world does.

One more suggestion for future research is to compare corporate and academic search processes for the position of president or chief executive officer. It is

hypothesized that a different set of competencies will preside in the academic world than in the corporate world, but in certain areas the priorities will be identical.

These are a few ideas with respect to specific communication competencies and behaviors, gender and diversity issues, and corporatization. Considerable work remains to be done to improve our comprehension of presidential searches and evaluations in higher education.

Conclusion

This is the first quantitative study to address the functions of communication between the president and board members in institutions of higher education. While this is exploratory research, it did move knowledge forward in this area. From this research study, we learned that various competencies and behaviors play an important role in selecting and evaluating presidents of colleges and universities. We found that board members and presidents agreed on the importance of key competencies and behaviors, such as Credibility and Trust, Thorough Communication, and transparent communication. We also learned that they differed in their opinions of the importance of other competencies and behaviors, and that these differences may have the potential to create ineffective communication. We also learned that issues of gender and diversity are under-scrutinized and may be important in preventing a scarcity of presidents in the coming years. Care needs to be taken to ensure that an adequate pool of qualified and interested candidates for the presidency exist so that we may avoid a crisis-level shortage of leadership talent in higher education. One important pathway to ensuring this crisis does not occur is via preparing and promoting women and other under-represented groups so that they are in position to take on the leadership challenges inherent in the

presidencies of colleges and universities. Hopefully, additional research will lead us forward in preparing for the presidencies of the future.

Appendix A

Table 1: Female Academic Presidents: 1980-2014

- 2014 26% female college presidents (Lapovsky, 2014)
- 2011 20% female presidents at private doctoral granting institutions (Song & Hartley, 2012)
 - 24% female presidents at public doctoral granting institutions (Song & Hartley, 2012)
- 2007 23% female presidents at US colleges and universities (King & Gomez cited in Eagly & Carli, 2007)
- 2006 11% female presidents at private doctoral granting institutions (Song & Hartley, 2012)

- 2006 21% female presidents at public and private B.A., M.A., Ph.D. granting institutions combined (Song & Hartley, 2012)
- 1995 7% female presidents at private doctoral granting institutions (Song & Hartley, 2012)
 - 12% female presidents at public doctoral granting institutions (Song & Hartley, 2012)
- 1986 16% female presidents at public and private B.A., M.A., Ph.D. granting institutions combined (Song & Hartley, 2012)
- 1980 10% female presidents at US colleges and universities (Cook, 2012; Lapovsky, 2014)

^{15%} female presidents at public doctoral granting institutions (Song & Hartley, 2012)

Appendix B

Presidents Interview Script

Introduction:

My name is Maria Dwyer. Thank you for agreeing to participate in this research. This interview will explore memorable events in your experience as a university president that involve the governing board's communication. For the purposes of this study, a memorable event is an action by a presidential candidate that has clear positive or negative consequences for evaluating that individual's capacity to lead the university. There are two questions. The first focuses on effective communication and the second focuses on ineffective communication. Rest assured that everything that you tell me is confidential.

Interview Script:

Q 1. Take a moment to think about your involvement in the search for a new president of this university and try to recall a memorable event in which the governing board exhibited leadership communication that you feel was effective in helping to move a woman/you into the presidency.

- a) Please describe that incident.
- b) Why does this incident stand out in your mind?
- c) What was it about the communication that made it effective?

Q 2. Now, please think about your involvement in the search for a new president of this university and try to recall a memorable event in which the governing board exhibited leadership communication that you did not feel was effective in helping to move a woman/you into the presidency.

- a) Please describe that incident.
- b) Why does this incident stand out in your mind?
- c) What was it about the communication that made it ineffective?

Additional questions to be used only if time permits and the interviewee is willing.

Q 3. Has there ever been an instance of discord involving communication between the president and one or more board members?

a) If yes, please describe that instance. If no, skip to Q. 4.

Probes: Was the dispute resolved or did it escalate? If yes, please explain how and if no, skip to Q. 4.

Q 4. Please tell me which communication skills you think the board seeks in a president.

Q 5. Research indicates that men and women sometimes communicate in slightly different ways. Have you noticed any differences in the communication styles of male and female board members?

a. Please explain how they differ if you have, or how they are similar if you have not.

The following questions are asked for classification purposes. (Asked only if information not available via website or reference sources.)

Gender:

__ Male __ Female

What is your age? _____years

What is the highest level of education you have attained?

____Associate's Degree

Bachelor's Degree

Master's Degree

____Doctoral Degree

Aside from this presidency, do you have any academic leadership experience?

___Yes (Specify)___

___No

Do you have any non-academic leadership experience?

___Yes (Specify: military, government, non-profit, etc.) _____No

This concludes your interview. Thank you for your time and for supporting this research.

Appendix C

Board Members Interview Script

Introduction:

My name is Maria Dwyer. Thank you for agreeing to participate in this research. This interview will explore memorable events in your experience as a governing board member that involve presidential candidates' communication. For the purposes of this study, a memorable event is an action by a presidential candidate that has clear positive or negative consequences for evaluating that individual's capacity to lead the university. There are two questions. The first focuses on effective communication and the second focuses on ineffective communication. Rest assured that everything that you tell me is confidential.

Interview Script:

Q 1. Take a moment to think about the most recent search for a new president of this university and try to recall a memorable event in which a female presidential candidate exhibited communication that helped her move into the presidency.

- a) Please describe that incident.
- b) Why does this incident stand out in your mind?
- c) What was it about the communication that made it effective?

Q 2. Now, please think about the most recent search for a new president of this university and try to recall a memorable event in which a female presidential candidate exhibited communication that did not help her move into the presidency.

- a. Please describe that incident.
- b. Why does this incident stand out in your mind?
- c. What was it about the communication that made it ineffective?

Additional questions to be used only if time permits and the interviewee is willing.

- 3. Has there ever been an instance of discord involving communication between the president and one or more board members?
 - a. If yes, please describe that instance. If no, skip to Q. 4. Probes: Was the dispute resolved or did it escalate? If yes, please explain how and if no, skip to Q. 4.
- 4. Please tell me which communication skills you seek when selecting a president.
- 5. Research indicates that men and women sometimes communicate in slightly different ways. Have you noticed any differences in the communication styles of male and female academic presidents or presidential candidates?
 - a. Please explain how they differ if you have, or how they are similar if you have not.

The following questions are asked for classification purposes. (Asked only if information not available via website or reference sources.)

Gender:

___Male

___ Female

What is your age: _____years

What is the highest level of education you have attained?

Associate's Degree

Bachelor's Degree

Master's Degree

____Doctoral Degree

Aside from this board membership, do you have any academic leadership experience?

___Yes (Specify)_

___No

Do you have any non-academic leadership experience?

___Yes (Specify: military, government, non-profit, etc.) _____No

This concludes your interview. Thank you for your time and supporting this research.

Appendix D

Presidents Questionnaire

Respondent #_____

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this study. This research focuses on the communication of top-level administration of colleges and universities. There are nine questions followed by seven demographic items. The questionnaire takes approximately five minutes to complete.

To begin, please think about the communication that occurs between you and the current board members of your university.

1. What is the top communication skill that you demonstrate in your interactions with the board? Please describe this skill in a short sentence.

Skill: _____ Description: _____

2. You will now see a list of communication concepts related to leadership. Please try to recall the competencies that you believed the board sought <u>when hiring</u> you and evaluate the importance of these competencies <u>to you</u>. (LIST ORDER WILL BE ROTATED.)

		1	(lov	v) ·	•					•	•	11	l (high)
Communication	Competencies					In	npo	rta	nce	in	Hiriı	ng	
CREDIBILITY AND TRUST	Being admired, seen as magnetic, authoritative, honest, competent, and trustworthy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable
INFLUENCE AND PERSUASION	Convincing others to adopt advocated ideas, points- of-view, or behaviors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable
INTER- PERSONAL RELATIONS AND TEAM- BUILDING	Creating effective interpersonal relationships, groups, and teams	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable

LISTENING, ATTENTION, QUESTION- ASKING, AND LEARNING	Attending verbally and visually to the thoughts, behaviors, and actions of others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable
WRITING AND PUBLIC SPEAKING	Conveying information, ideas and opinions clearly through writing and oral presentations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable
DIVERSITY AND INTER- CULTURAL RELATIONS	Valuing and working effectively with both men and women, and individuals of varying cultural, racial, ethnic, political, or life-style orientations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable
FACILITATION, NEGOTIATION AND CONFLICT RESOLUTION	Encouraging discussion and the ex- pression of varying points of view, encouraging compromise, and effectively addressing tensions and conflicts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable

3. Of these seven competencies that you believe the board sought <u>when hiring you</u> as president which is the most important <u>to you and which is the least important?</u> Please place a 1 next to the most important and a 7 next to the least important.

1=Most important 7= Least important	Co	ommunication Competencies
	CREDIBILITY AND TRUST	Being admired, seen as magnetic, authoritative, honest, competent, and trustworthy
	INFLUENCE AND PERSUASION	Convincing others to adopt advocated ideas, points-of-view, or behaviors
	INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS AND TEAM- BUILDING	Creating effective interpersonal relationships, groups, and teams.
	LISTENING, ATTENTION, QUESTION- ASKING, AND LEARNING	Attending verbally and visually to the thoughts, behaviors, and actions of others
	WRITING AND PUBLIC SPEAKING	Conveying information, ideas and opinions clearly through writing and oral presentations
	DIVERSITY AND INTERCULTURAL RELATIONS	Valuing and working effectively with both men and women, and individuals of varying cultural, racial, ethnic, political, or life-style orientations
	FACILITATION, NEGOTIATION AND CONFLICT RESOLUTION	Encouraging discussion and the expression of varying points of view, encouraging compromise, and effectively addressing tensions and conflicts

4. Consider these communication competencies again. Please evaluate your effectiveness in putting each of the competencies into practice <u>during your tenure as president</u>, using a scale from 1 to 11, where 1 represents a low level of effectiveness and 11 represents a high level of effectiveness. (LIST ORDER WILL BE ROTATED.)

		1	(lov	v)	•						•	1	1 (high)
Communication	Competencies					Eff	ecti	ven	ess	in]	Prac	tice	
CREDIBILITY AND TRUST	Being admired, seen as magnetic, authoritative, honest, competent, and trustworthy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable
INFLUENCE AND PERSUASION	Convincing others to adopt advocated ideas, points- of-view, or behaviors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable
INTER- PERSONAL RELATIONS AND TEAM- BUILDING	Creating effective interpersonal relationships, groups, and teams	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable
LISTENING, ATTENTION, QUESTION- ASKING, AND LEARNING	Attending verbally and visually to the thoughts, behaviors, and actions of others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable
WRITING AND PUBLIC SPEAKING	Conveying information, ideas and opinions clearly through writing and oral presentations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable
DIVERSITY	Valuing and working	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable

AND INTER- CULTURAL RELATIONS	effectively with both men and women, and individuals of varying cultural, racial, ethnic, political, or life-style orientations												
FACILITATION, NEGOTIATION AND CONFLICT RESOLUTION	Encouraging discussion and the expression of varying points of view, encouraging compromise, and effectively addressing tensions and conflicts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable

5. Next, consider the importance of a candidate for president demonstrating the following communication behaviors <u>during the hiring process</u>. Please evaluate how important demonstrating each of these behaviors is <u>to you</u>. Use a scale from 1 to 11, where 1 reflects a low level of importance and 11 reflects a high level of importance (LIST ORDER WILL BE ROTATED.)

		1	(lov	v)	•						•	11	(high)
Communication	Behaviors					In	npo	rta	nce	in 1	Hiri	ng	
COMMUNI- CATING IN A COMMUNAL MANNER	Building consensus, being inclusive, kind, thoughtful, sensitive to	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable

	others' feelings												
COMMUNI- CATING IN AN AGENTIC MANNER	Being competitive, aggressive, decisive, self- reliant, ambitious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable
COMMUNI- CATING A PASSION FOR THE INSTITUTION, MISSION	Expressing an emotional commitment to the institution, its mission	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable
COMMUNI- CATING CONCISELY	Being precise and concise in communi- cating	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable
COMMUNI- CATING THOROUGHLY	Fully explaining expectations, asking for details, asking enough questions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable
COMMUNI- CATING EMOTION AND FACT	Presenting both emotional and factual aspects of an issue	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable

6. Of these six behaviors that that a presidential candidate may demonstrate during the hiring process, which is the most important to you and which is the least important? Please place a 1 next to the most important and a 6 next to the least important.

1=Most important 6= Least important	C	ommunication Behaviors
	COMMUNICATING IN A COMMUNAL MANNER	Building consensus, being inclusive, kind, thoughtful, sensitive to others' feelings

COMMUNICATING	Being competitive, aggressive, decisive, self-
IN AN AGENTIC	reliant, ambitious
MANNER	
COMMUNICATING	Expressing an emotional commitment to the
A PASSION FOR	institution, its mission
THE	
INSTITUTION,	
MISSION	
COMMUNICATING	Being precise and concise in communicating
CONCISELY	
COMMUNICATING	Fully explaining expectations, asking for
THOROUGHLY	details, asking enough questions
COMMUNICATING	Presenting both emotional and factual aspects
EMOTION AND	of an issue
FACT	

7. Consider the communication behaviors again. Please evaluate your effectiveness in putting each of them into practice <u>during your tenure as president</u>. Use a scale from 1 to 11, where 1 represents a low level of effectiveness and 11 represents a high level of effectiveness. (LIST ORDER WILL BE ROTATED.)

~		1	(lov	V)	•						▶ 1	1 (h	igh)
Communication B	ehaviors					Eff	ecti	ven	ess	in]	Prac	tice	
COMMUNI-	Building												
CATING IN A	consensus,												
COMMUNAL	being												
MANNER	inclusive,												Not
	kind,	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	applicable
	thoughtful,												applicable
	sensitive to												
	others'												
	feelings												
COMMUNI-	Being												
CATING IN AN	competitive,												
AGENTIC	aggressive,	1	2	3	4	5		7	8	9	10	11	Not
MANNER	decisive,	1		3	4	Э	6	/	ð	9	10	11	applicable
	self-reliant,												
	ambitious												
COMMUNI-	Expressing												
CATING A	an emotional	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not
PASSION FOR	commitment	1		3	4	5	0	/	0	9	10	11	applicable
THE	to the												

DIGUTUTON	• ,•, ,•												
INSTITUTION,	institution,												
MISSION	its mission												
COMMUNI-	Being												
CATING	precise and												Not
CONCISELY	concise in	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	applicable
	communi-												applicable
	cating												
COMMUNI-	Fully												
CATING	explaining												
THOROUGHLY	expectations,												
	asking for	1	~		4	~	~	7	0	0	10	11	Not
	details,	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	applicable
	asking												
	enough												
	questions.												
COMMUNI-	Presenting												
CATING	both												Not
EMOTION AND	emotional	1	2	2	4	~		7	0	0	10	11	Not
FACT	and factual	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	applicable
	aspects of an												
	issue.												

8. Consider your university's governing board as a group, without singling out any individual or individuals in particular. Think about the communication that occurs between you and the current governing board of your university. Please evaluate how effective that communication is in general, using a scale from 1 to 11, where 1 represents a low level of effectiveness and 11 represents a high level of effectiveness.

					Com	munio	cation	Effe	ctivene	SS	
1 (lo	ow)	•							→	11 (1	high)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable

9. How important was it to you, as a presidential candidate, to be aligned with the culture of the board? In this case, culture is defined as a group of features, such as: experience, age, education, gender, extracurricular activities, and ethnicity. Use a scale from 1 to 11 where 1 represents a low level of importance and 11 represents a high level of importance.

Importance of cultural alignment between the board and the president

1	(low)		•						►	11 (ł	nigh)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable

Before concluding this survey, please answer the following demographic and institutional questions, which will only be analyzed as part of an aggregate and never linked to you or your institution directly.

Demographic questions:

10. What is the most advanced degree that you currently hold?

___Associate's ___Bachelor's ___Master's ___Doctorate ___Other (Please specify) _____

11. How many years have you been the president of this institution? ______years

12. Aside from this presidency, where have you held most of your leadership positions? Was it ...

____In the academic sector

____In a non-academic sector or sectors

____Approximately equally in the academic and the non-academic-sectors

___Other (Specify)_____

13. How many of the board members of this institution are elected, appointed or join the board in another way?

Elected
Appointed
Joined the board in another way (Please specify how)

14. Does more than one president report to this board?

___Yes ___No 15. What is your age? _____

16. Your input is appreciated. Do you have any additional comments that you would like to share? Please use this space to express them.

This concludes the survey. Thank you for participating in this research.

The following questions are for the researcher's use only. Participants will not be asked these questions. Answers will be culled from websites and other research sources.

17.Respondent's gender?

___Male ___Female

18.Gender of the full board

____Mostly men

- ____A relatively equal mix of men and women
- ____Mostly women

19. Type of institution (multiple responses accepted)

____Public

- ____Private, not religiously affiliated
- ____Private, religiously affiliated
- ___Non-Profit
- ___For profit

___Co-ed

- ____Single sex all male
- ____Single sex- all female

____HBCU

___Other (Please specify) _____

20. Highest level degree this institution confers

- ____Associate's degree
- ___Bachelor's degree
- ____Master's degree
- ____Doctoral degree

___Other (Please specify) _____

21. This year's total enrollment at this institution

___Fewer than 3,000 students enrolled

____3,000 to 9,999 students enrolled

____10,000 or more students enrolled

Appendix E

Board Members Questionnaire

Board Questionnaire

Respondent #_____

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this study. This research focuses on the communication of top-level administration of colleges and universities. There are nine questions followed by seven demographic items. The questionnaire takes approximately five minutes to complete.

To begin, please think about the communication that occurs between the current board members and the current president of your university.

1. What is the top communication skill that the president demonstrates in his or her interactions with the board? Please describe this skill in a short sentence.

Skill: _____ Description: _____

2. You will now see a list of seven communication concepts related to leadership. Please try to recall the competencies that the board sought <u>when hiring</u> your college or university's current president and evaluate the importance of these competencies <u>to the</u> <u>board</u>. Use a scale from 1 to 11, where 1 represents a low level of importance and 11 represents a high level of importance. (LIST ORDER WILL BE ROTATED.)

		1	(lov	v)	•	•						11	l (high)
Communication (Competencies					In	npo	rta	nce	in	Hiriı	ng	
CREDIBILITY AND TRUST	Being admired, seen as magnetic, authoritative, honest, competent, and trustworthy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable
INFLUENCE AND PERSUASION	Convincing others to adopt advocated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable

	ideas, points- of-view, or behaviors												
INTER- PERSONAL RELATIONS AND TEAM- BUILDING	Creating effective interpersonal relationships, groups, and teams.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable
LISTENING, ATTENTION, QUESTION- ASKING, AND LEARNING	Attending verbally and visually to the thoughts, behaviors, and actions of others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable
WRITING AND PUBLIC SPEAKING	Conveying information, ideas and opinions clearly through writing and oral presentations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable
DIVERSITY AND INTER- CULTURAL RELATIONS	Valuing and working effectively with both men and women, and individuals of varying cultural, racial, ethnic, political, or life-style orientations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable
FACILITATION, NEGOTIATION AND CONFLICT RESOLUTION	Encouraging discussion and the expression of varying points of view,	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable

encouraging compromise, and effectively addressing tensions and						
conflicts						

3. Of these seven competencies that the board sought <u>when hiring the current president</u>, which is the most important <u>to the board and which is the least important</u>? Please place a 1 next to the most important and a 7 next to the least important.

1=Most important 7= Least important	Co	ommunication Competencies
	CREDIBILITY	Being admired, seen as magnetic, authoritative,
	AND TRUST	honest, competent, and trustworthy
	INFLUENCE AND	Convincing others to adopt advocated ideas,
	PERSUASION	points-of-view, or behaviors
	INTER- PERSONAL	Creating effective interpersonal relationships,
	RELATIONS AND	groups, and teams.
	TEAM BUILDING	
	LISTENING, ATTENTION,	Attending verbally and visually to the thoughts,
	QUESTION-	behaviors, and actions of others
	ASKING, AND LEARNING	
	WRITING AND	Conveying information, ideas and opinions
	PUBLIC	clearly through writing and oral presentations
	SPEAKING	
	DIVERSITY	Valuing and working effectively with both men
	AND INTERCULTURAL	and women, and individuals of varying cultural, racial, ethnic, political, or life-style orientations
	RELATIONS	racial, ethnic, political, or me-style orientations
	FACILITATION,	Encouraging discussion and the expression of
	NEGOTIATION	varying points of view, encouraging
	AND CONFLICT	compromise, and effectively addressing tensions
	RESOLUTION	and conflicts

4. Now consider your college or university's current president. Please evaluate his or her effectiveness in putting each of the competencies into practice <u>during his or her</u> tenure, using a scale from 1 to 11, where 1 represents a low level of effectiveness and 11 represents a high level of effectiveness. (LIST ORDER WILL BE ROTATED)

		1	(lov	v)		•						1	1 (high)
Communication	Competencies				•	Eff	ecti	ven	ess	in l	Prac	tice	
CREDIBILITY AND TRUST	Being admired, seen as magnetic, authoritative, honest, competent, and trustworthy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable
INFLUENCE AND PERSUASION	Convincing others to adopt advocated ideas, points- of-view, or behaviors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable
INTER- PERSONAL RELATIONS AND TEAM- BUILDING	Creating effective interpersonal relationships, groups, and teams	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable
LISTENING, ATTENTION, QUESTION- ASKING, AND LEARNING	Attending verbally and visually to the thoughts, behaviors, and actions of others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable
WRITING AND PUBLIC SPEAKING	Conveying information, ideas and opinions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable

DIVERSITY AND INTER- CULTURAL RELATIONS	clearly through writing and oral presentations Valuing and working effectively with both men and women, and individuals of varying cultural, racial, ethnic, political, or life-style orientations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable
FACILITA- TION, NEGOTIATION AND CONFLICT RESOLUTION	Encouraging discussion and the expression of varying points of view, encouraging compromise, and effectively addressing tensions and conflicts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable

5. Next, evaluate the importance to the board that a candidate for the presidency demonstrates the following communication behaviors <u>during the hiring process</u>. Use a scale from 1 to 11, where 1 reflects low importance and 11 reflects high importance. (LIST ORDER WILL BE ROTATED.)

		1	(lov	v)	•						•	11	(high)
Communication B	ehaviors					In	npo	rta	nce	in 1	Hiriı	ng	
COMMUNI- CATING IN A COMMUNAL MANNER	Building consensus, being inclusive, kind, thoughtful, sensitive to others' feelings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable
COMMUNI- CATING IN AN AGENTIC MANNER	Being competitive, aggressive, decisive, self-reliant, ambitious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable
COMMUNI- CATING A PASSION FOR THE INSTITUTION, MISSION	Expressing an emotional commitment to the institution, its mission	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable
COMMUNI- CATING CONCISELY	Being precise and concise in communi- cating	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable
COMMUNI- CATING THOROUGHLY	Fully explaining expectations, asking for details, asking enough questions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable
COMMUNI- CATING EMOTION AND FACT	Presenting both emotional and factual aspects of an issue.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable

6. Of these six behaviors that that a presidential candidate may demonstrate during the hiring process, which is the most important to the board and which is the least important? Please place a 1 next to the most important and a 6 next to the least important.

1=Most important 6= Least important	C	ommunication Behaviors
	COMMUNICATING IN A COMMUNAL MANNER	Building consensus, being inclusive, kind, thoughtful, sensitive to others' feelings
	COMMUNICATING IN AN AGENTIC MANNER	Being competitive, aggressive, decisive, self- reliant, ambitious
	COMMUNICATING A PASSION FOR THE INSTITUTION, MISSION	Expressing an emotional commitment to the institution, its mission
	COMMUNICATING CONCISELY	Being precise and concise in communicating
	COMMUNICATING THOROUGHLY	Fully explaining expectations, asking for details, asking enough questions
	COMMUNICATING EMOTION AND FACT	Presenting both emotional and factual aspects of an issue

7. Consider your college or university's current president. Please evaluate his or her effectiveness in putting each of the communication behaviors into practice <u>during his or her tenure as president</u>. Use a scale from 1 to 11, where 1 represents a low level of effectiveness and 11 represents a high level of effectiveness. (LIST ORDER WILL BE ROTATED.)

		1	(lov	v)	•						▶ 1	1 (h	igh)
Communication 1	Behaviors					Eff	ecti	ven	ess	in]	Prac	tice	
COMMUNI-	Building												
CATING IN A	consensus,												
COMMUNAL	being												
MANNER	inclusive,												Not
	kind,	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
	thoughtful,												applicable
	sensitive to												
	others'												
	feelings												
COMMUNI-	Being	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not
CATING IN	competitive,	1	2	3	4	3	0	/	0	9	10	11	applicable

AN AGENTIC MANNER COMMUNI- CATING A PASSION FOR THE	aggressive, decisive, self- reliant, ambitious Expressing an emotional commitment to the	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable
INSTITUTION, MISSION	institution, its mission												
COMMUNI- CATING CONCISELY	Being precise and concise in communi- cating	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable
COMMUNI- CATING THOROGHLY	Fully explaining expectations, asking for details, asking enough questions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable
COMMUNICA- TING EMOTION AND FACT	Presenting both emotional and factual aspects of an issue	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable

8. Consider your university's governing board as a group, without singling out any individual or individuals in particular. Now think about the communication that occurs between that group and the current president of your university. Please evaluate how effective the president's communication with the board is in general. Use a scale from 1 to 11, where 1 represents a low level of effectiveness and 11 represents a high level of effectiveness

	Communication Effectiveness													
1 (lo	1 (low) 11 (high)													
1	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 Not applicable													

9. How important was it to the governing board, in hiring a president for this institution, that he or she was aligned with the culture of the board? In this case, culture is defined as a group of features, such as: experience, age, education, gender, extracurricular activities,

and ethnicity. Please evaluate the importance of cultural alignment using a scale from 1 to 11, where 1 represents a low level of importance and 11 represents a high level of importance.

Importance of cultural alignment between the board and the president											
1	1 (low) + 11 (high)										
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Not applicable

Before concluding this survey, please answer the following demographic and institutional questions, which will only be analyzed as part of an aggregate and never linked to you or your institution directly.

Demographic questions:

10. What is the most advanced degree that you currently hold?

Associate's Degree Bachelor's Degree Master's Degrees Doctoral Degree Other (Please specify)

11. How many years have you been a member of the governing board of this institution? ______years

12. Aside from your membership on this board, where have you held most of your leadership positions? Was it ...

____In the academic sector

____In a non-academic sector or sectors

- ____Approximately equally in the academic and non-academic sectors
- ___Other (Please Specify) _____

13. How many of the board members of this institution are elected, appointed, or join the board in another way?

___Elected

____Appointed

____Join the board in another way (Please specify how) ______

14. Does more than one president report to this board?

___Yes ___No - Skip Q.15 and proceed to Q. 16.

15. What is the gender of the president that this board hired most recently?

___Male Female

16. What is your age? _____

17. Your input is appreciated. Do you have any additional comments that you would like to share?

____Yes. Please use this space to express them.

____No – Skip to concluding remarks.

This concludes the survey. Thank you for participating in this research.

The following questions are for the researcher's use only. Participants will not be asked these questions. Answers will be culled from websites and other reference sources.

18. Gender of respondent:

___Male ___Female

19. Gender of the full board

___Mostly men
___A relatively equal mix of men and women
___Mostly women

20. Type of institution (Multiple responses accepted)

Public
Private, not religiously affiliated
Private, religiously affiliated
Non-profit
For profit
Co-ed
Single sex - all male
Single sex- all female
HBCU
Other (Please specify)

21. Highest level degree this institution confers

- ____Associate's degree
- Bachelor's degree
- ____Master's degree
- ____Doctoral degree
- ___Other (Please specify) _____
- 22. This year's total enrollment at this institution
 - ___ Fewer than 3,000 students enrolled
 - ____ 3,000 to 9,999 students enrolled
 - ____10,000 or more students enrolled

Appendix F

Rank Order Comparisons

This table shows the means and standard deviations for rank ordering of communication competencies by presidents and board members. It illustrates their strong agreement on most of the competencies.

Rank-Order Comparisons: Competencies and Behaviors

Table F1

Comparative Rank Order of the Importance of Communication Competencies: Presidents and Board Members (1 signifies highest importance)

Competencies	Board Me	mbers	Presidents	
Competeneres	Dourd 1010		1 residents	
Credibility and Trust	Rank = 1	M = 1.66 SD = 1.067	Rank = 1	M = 1.45 SD = .913
Interpersonal Relations and Team-building	Rank = 2	M = 3.00 SD = .863	Rank = 2	M = 3.11 SD = 1.487
Listening, Attention, Question- asking, Learning	Rank = 3	M = 3.36 SD = 1.367	Rank = 3	M = 3.63 SD = 1.671
Facilitation, Negotiation and Conflict Resolution	Rank = 4	M = 4.84 SD = 1.601	Rank = 6	M = 4.82 SD = 1.694
Influence and Persuasion	Rank = 5	M = 4.85 SD = 1.869	Rank = 4	M = 4.47 SD = 1.849
Writing and Public Speaking	Rank = 6	M = 5.15 SD =1.663	Rank = 5	M = 4.81 SD = 1.497
Diversity and Intercultural Relations	Rank = 7	M = 5.15 SD = 1.672	Rank = 7	M = 5.58 SD = 1.554

This next table shows the means and standard deviations for rank ordering of communication behaviors by presidents and board members. It illustrates their strong agreement on most of the behaviors.

Table F2

Comparative Rank Order of the Importance of Communication Behaviors: Presidents and Board Members (1 signifies highest importance)

Behaviors	Board Mer	Board Members		
Communicating a passion for the institution, mission	Rank = 1	M= 2.16 SD=1.490	Rank = 1	M = 1.92 SD = 1.402
Communicating thoroughly	Rank = 2	M = 2.51 SD = 1.201	Rank = 3	M = 3.36 SD = 1.398
Communicating in a communal manner	Rank = 3	M = 3.41 SD =1.388	Rank = 2	M = 2.97 SD = 1.354
Communicating concisely	Rank = 4	M = 3.59 SD = 1.565	Rank = 4	M = 3.37 SD = 1.399
Communicating emotion and fact	Rank = 5	M = 4.40 SD = 1.256	Rank = 5	M = 4.10 SD = 1.146
Communicating in an agentic manner	Rank = 6	M = 4.93 SD =1.554	Rank = 6	M = 5.29 SD = 1.253

Appendix G

Cross-Tabulations of Competencies and Behaviors by Role: Agreement and

Disagreement

The following three-part table shows the cross-tabulation of a dichotomous recode of the communication competency Writing and Public Speaking by the respondent's role of either president or board member. It indicates that there is a statistically significant association between these two variables.

Table G1

Writing by Role

			President	Board Member	
WritingLoHi	1.00	Count	34	19	53
		% within BoardPresident	46.6%	28.8%	38.1%
	2.00	Count	39	47	86
		% within BoardPresident	53.4%	71.2%	61.9%
Total		Count	73	66	139
		% within BoardPresident	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

		Chi-Squa	are Tests		
			Asymptotic		
			Significance (2-	Exact Sig. (2-	Exact Sig. (1-
	Value	df	sided)	sided)	sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.649 ^a	1	.031		
Continuity Correction ^b	3.925	1	.048		
Likelihood Ratio	4.696	1	.030		
Fisher's Exact Test				.037	.023
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.615	1	.032		
N of Valid Cases	139				

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 25.17.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

			Approximate
		Value	Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.183	.031
	Cramer's V	.183	.031
N of Valid Cases		139	

The following three-part table shows the cross-tabulation of a dichotomous recode of the communication competency Diversity and Intercultural Relations by the respondent's role of either president or board member. It indicates that there is a statistically significant association between these two variables.

Table G2

Diversity by Role

			President	Board Member	
DiversityLoHi	1.00	Count	41	21	62
		% within BoardPresident	56.2%	31.3%	44.3%
	2.00	Count	32	46	78
		% within BoardPresident	43.8%	68.7%	55.7%
Total		Count	73	67	140
		% within BoardPresident	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

			Asymptotic		
			Significance (2-	Exact Sig. (2-	Exact Sig. (1-
	Value	df	sided)	sided)	sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8.723 ^a	1	.003		
Continuity Correction ^b	7.746	1	.005		
Likelihood Ratio	8.838	1	.003		
Fisher's Exact Test				.004	.003
Linear-by-Linear Association	8.661	1	.003		
N of Valid Cases	140				

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 29.67.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

			Approximate
		Value	Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.250	.003
	Cramer's V	.250	.003
N of Valid Cases		140	

The following three-part table shows the cross-tabulation of a dichotomous recode of the communication competency Facilitation, Negotiation and Conflict Resolution by the respondent's role of either president or board member. It indicates that there is a statistically significant association between these two variables.

Table G3

Facilitation by Role

			President	Board Member	
FacilitationLoHi	1.00	Count	43	27	70
		% within BoardPresident	58.9%	40.3%	50.0%
	2.00	Count	30	40	70
		% within BoardPresident	41.1%	59.7%	50.0%
Total		Count	73	67	140
		% within BoardPresident	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

			Asymptotic		
			Significance (2-	Exact Sig. (2-	Exact Sig. (1-
	Value	df	sided)	sided)	sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.837 ^a	1	.028		
Continuity Correction ^b	4.122	1	.042		
Likelihood Ratio	4.866	1	.027		
Fisher's Exact Test				.042	.021
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.803	1	.028		
N of Valid Cases	140				

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 33.50.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

			Approximate
		Value	Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.186	.028
	Cramer's V	.186	.028
N of Valid Cases		140	

The following three-part table shows the cross-tabulation of a dichotomous recode of the communication behavior Communal Communication by the respondent's role of either president or board member. It indicates that there is a statistically significant association between these two variables.

Table G4

Communal by Role

			President	Board Member	
CommunalLoHi	1.00	Count	37	21	58
		% within BoardPresident	50.7%	31.3%	41.4%
	2.00	Count	36	46	82
		% within BoardPresident	49.3%	68.7%	58.6%
Total		Count	73	67	140
		% within BoardPresident	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

Chi-Square Tests						
			Asymptotic			
			Significance (2-	Exact Sig. (2-	Exact Sig. (1-	
	Value	df	sided)	sided)	sided)	
Pearson Chi-Square	5.386 ^a	1	.020			
Continuity Correction ^b	4.618	1	.032			
Likelihood Ratio	5.437	1	.020			
Fisher's Exact Test				.026	.016	
Linear-by-Linear Association	5.348	1	.021			
N of Valid Cases	140					

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 27.76.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

			Approximate
		Value	Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.196	.020
	Cramer's V	.196	.020
N of Valid Cases		140	

The following three-part table shows the cross-tabulation of a dichotomous recode of the communication behavior Agentic Communication by the respondent's role of either president or board member. It indicates that there is a statistically significant association between these two variables.

Table G5

Agentic by Role

			President	Board Member	
AgenticLoHi	1.00	Count	43	24	67
		% within BoardPresident	58.9%	36.4%	48.2%
	2.00	Count	30	42	72
		% within BoardPresident	41.1%	63.6%	51.8%
Total		Count	73	66	139
		% within BoardPresident	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

			Asymptotic		
			Significance (2-	Exact Sig. (2-	Exact Sig. (1-
	Value	df	sided)	sided)	sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7.053 ^a	1	.008		
Continuity Correction ^b	6.180	1	.013		
Likelihood Ratio	7.119	1	.008		
Fisher's Exact Test				.011	.006
Linear-by-Linear Association	7.003	1	.008		
N of Valid Cases	139				

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 31.81.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

			Approximate
		Value	Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.225	.008
	Cramer's V	.225	.008
N of Valid Cases		139	

The following three-part table shows the cross-tabulation of a dichotomous recode of the communication behavior Communicating a Passion for the Institution, Mission by the respondent's role of either president or board member. It indicates that there is a statistically significant association between these two variables.

Table G6

Passion by Role

			President	Board Member	
PassionLoHi	1.00	Count	37	20	57
		% within BoardPresident	50.7%	29.9%	40.7%
	2.00	Count	36	47	83
		% within BoardPresident	49.3%	70.1%	59.3%
Total		Count	73	67	140
		% within BoardPresident	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

			Asymptotic Significance (2-	Exact Sig. (2-	Exact Sig. (1-
	Value	df	sided)	sided)	sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6.282ª	1	.012		
Continuity Correction ^b	5.449	1	.020		
Likelihood Ratio	6.353	1	.012		
Fisher's Exact Test				.016	.010
Linear-by-Linear Association	6.238	1	.013		
N of Valid Cases	140				

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 27.28.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

			Approximate
		Value	Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.212	.012
	Cramer's V	.212	.012
N of Valid Cases		140	

The following three-part table shows the cross-tabulation of a dichotomous recode of the communication behavior Concise Communication by the respondent's role of either president or board member. It indicates that there is a statistically significant association between these two variables.

Table G7

Concise by Role

			President	Board Member	
ConciseLoHi	1.00	Count	42	20	62
		% within BoardPresident	57.5%	29.9%	44.3%
	2.00	Count	31	47	78
		% within BoardPresident	42.5%	70.1%	55.7%
Total		Count	73	67	140
		% within BoardPresident	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

			Asymptotic		
			Significance (2-	Exact Sig. (2-	Exact Sig. (1-
	Value	df	sided)	sided)	sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	10.851ª	1	.001		
Continuity Correction ^b	9.758	1	.002		
Likelihood Ratio	11.027	1	.001		
Fisher's Exact Test				.001	.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	10.774	1	.001		
N of Valid Cases	140				

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 29.67.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Symmetric Measures

			Approximate	
		Value	Significance	
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.278	.001	
	Cramer's V	.278	.001	
N of Valid Cases		140		

The following three-part table shows the cross-tabulation of a dichotomous recode of the communication behavior Thorough Communication by the respondent's role of either president or board member. It indicates that there is a statistically significant association between these two variables.

Table G8

Thorough by Role

			President	Board Member	
ThoroughLoHi	1.00	Count	38	10	48
		% within BoardPresident	52.1%	14.9%	34.3%
	2.00	Count	35	57	92
		% within BoardPresident	47.9%	85.1%	65.7%
Total		Count	73	67	140
		% within BoardPresident	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

			Asymptotic		
			Significance (2-	Exact Sig. (2-	Exact Sig. (1-
	Value	df	sided)	sided)	sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	21.376 ^a	1	.000		
Continuity Correction ^b	19.760	1	.000		
Likelihood Ratio	22.470	1	.000		
Fisher's Exact Test				.000	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	21.224	1	.000		
N of Valid Cases	140				

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 22.97.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Symmetric Measures

			Approximate
		Value	Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.391	.000
	Cramer's V	.391	.000
N of Valid Cases		140	

Appendix H

Cluster Analysis and Cross-Tabulations of Clusters by Role

The coefficients in the following table show the distance between clusters at the merging of clusters for the importance ratings of the seven communication competencies and the six communication behaviors combined. It indicates that there is one large gap, indicating maximum dissimilarity, that occurs between stages 1 and 2.

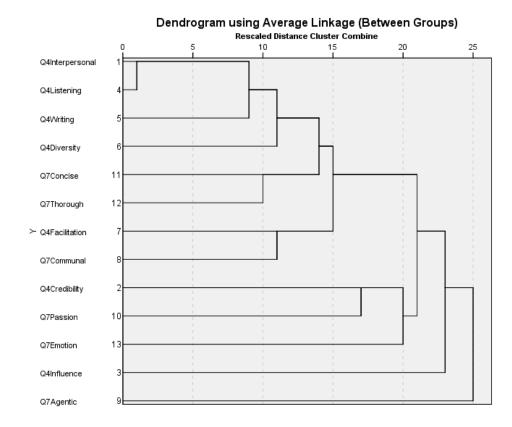
Table H1

Cluster Analysis of Importance of Behaviors and Competencies Agglomeration Schedule

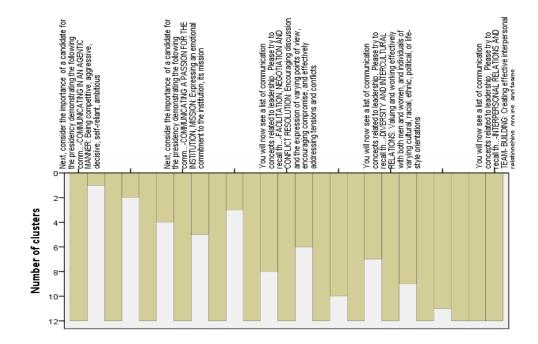
	Cluster Combined			Stage Cluster First Appears		
Stage	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Coefficients	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Next Stage
1	1	4	99.117	0	0	2
2	1	5	142.553	1	0	4
3	11	12	146.085	0	0	6
4	1	6	149.682	2	0	6
5	7	8	152.319	0	0	7
6	1	11	163.048	4	3	7
7	1	7	170.890	6	5	10
8	2	10	180.212	0	0	9
9	2	13	192.136	8	0	10
10	1	2	197.496	7	9	11
11	1	3	210.133	10	0	12
12	1	9	220.612	11	0	0

The graph below depicts the large gap between stages 1 and 2, which occurs at the merging of the Other-Oriented Importance Cluster, (consisting of the two communication competencies of Interpersonal Relations/Teambuilding and Listening, Attention, Question-Asking and Learning), with the Tactical and Emotional Importance Cluster, (consisting of the other five communication competencies and all six communication behaviors).

Figure H1. Dendrogram and Icicle Chart of Importance of Behaviors and Competencies



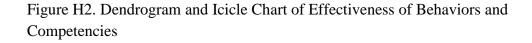
The icicle chart below depicts the structure of all the importance clusters relative to each other. Looking at it from right to left, we see the first two-item cluster (Other-Oriented Importance) on the far right and all the other items falling into a second cluster (Tactical and Emotional Importance) to its left.

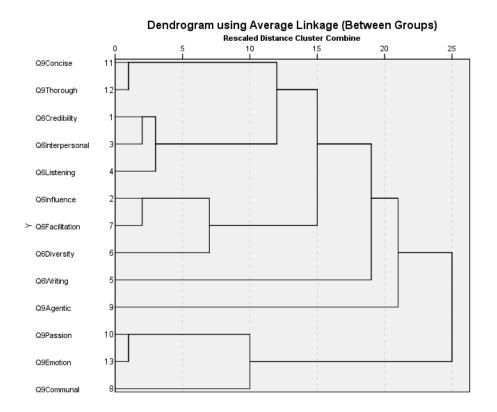


The coefficients in the table below show the distance between the clusters at the merging of clusters for the effectiveness ratings of the seven communication competencies and the six communication behaviors combined. It shows that there is a large gap, indicating maximum dissimilarity, that occurs between stages 5 and 6.

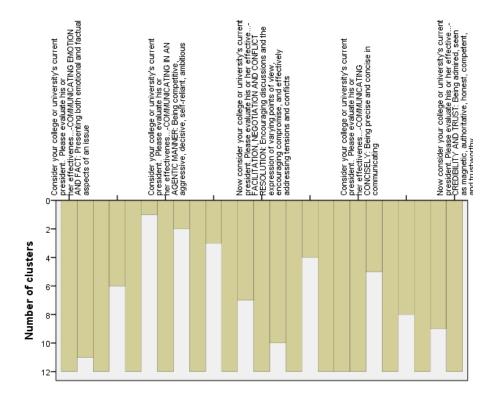
	Cluster Combined			Store Cluster	Einst Annaars	
				Stage Cluster		
Stage	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Coefficients	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Next Stage
1	11	12	123.228	0	0	8
2	10	13	125.647	0	0	7
3	2	7	128.059	0	0	6
4	1	3	128.293	0	0	5
5	1	4	130.192	4	0	8
6	2	6	143.791	3	0	9
7	8	10	153.091	0	2	12
8	1	11	159.703	5	1	9
9	1	2	168.254	8	6	10
10	1	5	182.233	9	0	11
11	1	9	190.301	10	0	12
12	1	8	203.098	11	7	0

The graph below depicts the large gap between stages 5 and 6, which occurs at the merging of the Relationship Efffectivenss Cluster, (consisting of the communication competencies of Credibility and Trust, Interpersonal Relations/ Team-building and Listening, Attention, Question-Asking and Learning, Influence and Persuasion, and Facilitation, Negotiation and Conflict Resolution along with the communication behaviors of Concisenss and Thoroughness) with the Audience-Oriented/Emotional Effectivness Cluster, (consisting of the communication competencies of Writing and Public Speaking along with Diversity and Intercultural Relations and the communication behaviors of Agentic Communication, Communication, Communicating Passion, and Communicating Emotions and Facts).





The Icicle plot below shows the bimodal structure of the effectiveness clusters. Looking at it from right to left, we see the Relationship Effectiveness Cluster on the right and the Audience-Oriented/Emotional Effectiveness Cluster on the left.



The following three-part table shows the cross-tabulation of a three category recode of the Other Oriented Importance Cluster by the respondent's role of either president or board member. It indicates that there is a statistically significant association between these two variables.

Table H2

Cross-Tabulation of Other-Oriented Cluster by Role

			President	Board Member	Total
Other-Oriented	1.00	Count	30	11	41
Importance		% within BoardPresident	41.1%	16.9%	29.7%
	2.00	Count	27	32	59
		% within BoardPresident	37.0%	49.2%	42.8%
	3.00	Count	16	22	38
		% within BoardPresident	21.9%	33.8%	27.5%
Total		Count	73	65	138
		% within BoardPresident	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

			Asymptotic
			Significance (2-
	Value	df	sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	9.745 ^a	2	.008
Likelihood Ratio	10.062	2	.007
Linear-by-Linear Association	7.778	1	.005
N of Valid Cases	138		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 17.90.

Symmetric Measures

			Approximate
		Value	Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.266	.008
	Cramer's V	.266	.008
N of Valid Cases		138	

The following three-part table shows the cross-tabulation of a three category recode of the Tactical and Emotional Cluster by the respondent's role of either president or board member. It indicates that there is a statistically significant association between these two variables.

Table H3

Cross Tabulation of Tactical and Emotional Cluster by Role

			President	Board Member	
Tactical/Emotional	1.00	Count	36	13	49
Importance		% within BoardPresident	49.3%	20.0%	35.5%
	2.00	Count	23	21	44
		% within BoardPresident	31.5%	32.3%	31.9%
	3.00	Count	14	31	45
		% within BoardPresident	19.2%	47.7%	32.6%
Total		Count	73	65	138
		% within BoardPresident	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

			Asymptotic
			Significance (2-
	Value	df	sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	16.902ª	2	.000
Likelihood Ratio	17.443	2	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	16.780	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	138		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 20.72.

Symmetric Measures

			Approximate
		Value	Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.350	.000
	Cramer's V	.350	.000
N of Valid Cases		138	

The following three-part table shows the cross-tabulation of a three category recode of the Relationship Effectiveness Cluster by the respondent's role of either president or board member. It indicates that there is a statistically significant association between these two variables.

Table H4

Cross-Tabulation of Relationship Cluster by Role

			President	Board Member	Total
Relationship	1.00	Count	35	16	51
Effectiveness		% within BoardPresident	47.9%	24.6%	37.0%
	2.00	Count	18	19	37
		% within BoardPresident	24.7%	29.2%	26.8%
	3.00	Count	20	30	50
		% within BoardPresident	27.4%	46.2%	36.2%
Total		Count	73	65	138
		% within BoardPresident	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

			Asymptotic
			Significance (2-
	Value	df	sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8.671 ^a	2	.013
Likelihood Ratio	8.829	2	.012
Linear-by-Linear Association	8.262	1	.004
N of Valid Cases	138		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 17.43.

Symmetric Measures

			Approximate
		Value	Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.251	.013
	Cramer's V	.251	.013
N of Valid Cases		138	

The following three-part table shows the cross-tabulation of a three category recode of the Audience-Oriented/Emotional Cluster by the respondent's role of either president or board member. It indicates that there is a statistically significant association between these two variables.

Table H5

Cross-Tabulation of Audience-Oriented/Emotional Cluster by Role

			President	Board Member	Total
Audience-	1.00	Count	35	13	48
Oriented/Emotional		% within BoardPresident	47.9%	20.0%	34.8%
Effectiveness	2.00	Count	20	18	38
		% within BoardPresident	27.4%	27.7%	27.5%
	3.00	Count	18	34	52
		% within BoardPresident	24.7%	52.3%	37.7%
Total		Count	73	65	138
		% within BoardPresident	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

			Asymptotic
			Significance (2-
	Value	df	sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	14.697ª	2	.001
Likelihood Ratio	15.115	2	.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	14.577	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	138		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 17.90.

Symmetric Measures

			Approximate
		Value	Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.326	.001
	Cramer's V	.326	.001
N of Valid Cases		138	

Appendix I

Gender Differences

The following three-part table shows the cross-tabulation of a dichotomous recode of the ratings of the president's effectiveness on Writing and Public Speaking by the gender of the most recent president. It indicates that there is a statistically significant association between these two variables.

Table I1

Board Members' Ratings of President's Effectiveness for Writing and Public Speaking by Gender of Most Recent President

			RecentPre	esGender	
			male	female	Total
Q6WritingHiLo	1.00	Count	21	10	31
		% within RecentPresGender	39.6%	76.9%	47.0%
	2.00	Count	32	3	35
		% within RecentPresGender	60.4%	23.1%	53.0%
Total		Count	53	13	66
		% within RecentPresGender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

	chi oquale rosts								
			Asymptotic						
			Significance (2-	Exact Sig. (2-	Exact Sig. (1-				
	Value	df	sided)	sided)	sided)				
Pearson Chi-Square	5.831ª	1	.016						
Continuity Correction ^b	4.430	1	.035						
Likelihood Ratio	6.034	1	.014						
Fisher's Exact Test				.028	.017				
Linear-by-Linear Association	5.743	1	.017						
N of Valid Cases	66								

Chi-Square Tests

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6.11.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Symmetric Measures

			Approximate
		Value	Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	297	.016
	Cramer's V	.297	.016
N of Valid Cases		66	

Appendix J

Model Strength - Correlations of Behaviors and Competencies

The following table shows the correlation coefficients for ratings of the seven communication competencies' importance. It indicates that there is a statistically significant correlation between Listening, Attention, Question Asking and Learning and the other six communication competencies.

Table J1

Correlations for Importance of Competencies

			Q4 Inter- personal	Q4 Credi- bility	Q4 Influence	Q4 Listening	Q4 Writing	Q4 Diversity	Q4 Facilitation
Spearman's rho	Q4Interpersonal	Correlation Coefficient	-	.372**	.151	.577**	.374**	.412**	.422**
		Sig. (2- tailed)		.000	.076	.000	.000	.000	.000
_		Ν	140	140	140	139	139	140	140
	Q4Credibility	Correlation Coefficient	.372**	1.000	.163	.360**	.336**	.215*	.171*
		Sig. (2- tailed)	.000		.054	.000	.000	.010	.042
_		Ν	140	141	141	140	140	141	141
	Q4Influence	Correlation Coefficient	.151	.163	1.000	.334**	.476**	.336**	.343**
		Sig. (2- tailed)	.076	.054		.000	.000	.000	.000
_		Ν	140	141	141	140	140	141	141
	Q4Listening	Correlation Coefficient	<mark>.577**</mark>	<mark>.360**</mark>	<mark>.334**</mark>	1.000	<mark>.503**</mark>	<mark>.568**</mark>	.524**
		Sig. (2- tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000
-		N	139	140	140	140	139	140	140

Q4Writing	Correlation	.374**	.336**	.476**	.503**	1.000	.405**	.371**
	Coefficient							
	Sig. (2-	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000
	tailed)							
	N	139	140	140	139	140	140	140
Q4Diversity	Correlation	.412**	.215*	.336**	.568**	.405**	1.000	.373**
	Coefficient							
	Sig. (2-	.000	.010	.000	.000	.000		.000
	tailed)							
	Ν	140	141	141	140	140	141	141
Q4Facilitation	Correlation	.422**	.171*	.343**	.524**	.371**	.373**	1.000
	Coefficient							
	Sig. (2-	.000	.042	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	tailed)							
	N	140	141	141	140	140	141	141

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The following table shows the correlation coefficients for ratings of the presidents' effectiveness on the seven communication competencies' importance. It indicates that there is a statistically significant correlation between Listening, Attention, Question Asking and Learning and all the other competencies, except for Influence and Persuasion. It also indicates that there is a statistically significant correlation between Facilitation, Negotiation and Conflict Resolution and every other competency, except for Writing and Public Speaking.

Table J2

			06	06	Q6 Inter	06	06	Q6 Diver-	Q6 Facilita
			Q6 Credibility	Q6 Influence	Inter- personal	Q6 Listening	Q6 Writing	sity	tion
Spearman's	Q6Credibility	Correlation	1.000	.371**	.402**	.487**	.380**	.274**	.323**
rho	Querealenny	Coefficient	11000	10 / 1			.200	, .	.020
		Sig. (2- tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.001	.000
		N	141	141	141	140	141	140	141
	Q6Influence	Correlation Coefficient	.371**	1.000	.383**	.274**	.272**	.427**	.481**
		Sig. (2- tailed)	.000		.000	.001	.001	.000	.000
		Ν	141	142	141	140	142	141	142
	Q6Interpersonal	Correlation Coefficient	.402**	.383**	1.000	.506**	.221**	.422**	.503**
		Sig. (2- tailed)	.000	.000	-	.000	.008	.000	.000
		Ν	141	141	141	140	141	140	141
	Q6Listening	Correlation Coefficient	<mark>.487**</mark>	.274**	. <mark>506**</mark>	1.000	<mark>.316**</mark>	<mark>.387**</mark>	. <mark>472**</mark>
		Sig. (2- tailed)	.000	.001	.000		.000	.000	.000
		Ν	140	140	140	140	140	139	140
	Q6Writing	Correlation Coefficient	.380**	.272**	.221**	.316**	1.000	.388**	.240**
		Sig. (2- tailed)	.000	.001	.008	.000		.000	.004
		Ν	141	142	141	140	142	141	142
	Q6Diversity	Correlation Coefficient	.274**	.427**	.422**	.387**	.388**	1.000	.499**
		Sig. (2- tailed)	.001	.000	.000	.000	.000	•	.000
		Ν	140	141	140	139	141	141	141

Correlations for Effectiveness of Competencies

Q6Facilitation	Correlation	<mark>.323**</mark>	.481**	<mark>.503**</mark>	.472**	.240**	.499**	1.000
	Coefficient							
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.004	.000	
	N	141	142	141	140	142	141	142

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The following table shows the correlation coefficients for ratings of the six communication behaviors' importance. It indicates that there is a statistically significant correlation between Conciseness and Communal Communication. It also indicates that there is a statistically significant correlation between Thoroughness and Communal Communication, Communicating Passion and Conciseness.

Table J3

Correlations for Importance of Behaviors

			Q7 Communal	Q7 Agentic	Q7 Passion	Q7 Concise	Q7 Thorough	Q7 Emotion
Spearman's rho	Q7Communal	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.158	.270**	.410**	.462**	.271**
		Sig. (2- tailed)	•	.060	.001	.000	.000	.001
		Ν	143	142	143	142	143	142
	Q7Agentic	Correlation Coefficient	.158	1.000	.288**	.290**	.249**	.252**
		Sig. (2- tailed)	.060		.001	.000	.003	.003
		Ν	142	142	142	141	142	141
	_							

Q7Passion	Correlation Coefficient	.270**	.288**	1.000	.268**	.321**	.348**
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.001	.001		.001	.000	.000
	N	143	142	143	142	143	142
Q7Concise	Correlation Coefficient	. <mark>410</mark> **	.290**	.268**	1.000	. <mark>489</mark> **	.177*
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.000	.000	.001		.000	.036
	Ν	142	141	142	142	142	141
Q7Thorough	Correlation Coefficient	. <mark>462</mark> **	.249**	. <mark>321</mark> **	. <mark>489</mark> **	1.000	.241**
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.000	.003	.000	.000		.004
	N	143	142	143	142	143	142
Q7Emotion	Correlation Coefficient	.271**	.252**	.348**	.177*	.241**	1.000
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.001	.003	.000	.036	.004	•
	Ν	142	141	142	141	142	142

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The following table shows the correlation coefficients for ratings of the president's effectiveness on the six communication behaviors. It indicates that there is a statistically significant correlation between Thoroughness and Agentic Communication, Conciseness and Communicating Emotion with Facts.

Table J4

Correlations for Effectiveness of Behaviors

			Q9	Q9	Q9	Q9	Q9	Q9
			Communal	Agentic	Passion	Concise	Thorough	Emotion
Spearman's rho	Q9Communal	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.095	.232**	.324**	.342**	.385**
		Sig. (2- tailed)	•	.260	.006	.000	.000	.000
		N	143	141	142	142	143	143
	Q9Agentic	Correlation Coefficient	.095	1.000	.225**	.354**	. <mark>434</mark> **	.283**
		Sig. (2- tailed)	.260		.008	.000	.000	.001
		N	141	141	140	140	141	141
	Q9Passion	Correlation Coefficient	.232**	.225**	1.000	.074	.302**	.388**
		Sig. (2- tailed)	.006	.008		.386	.000	.000
		Ν	142	140	142	141	142	142
	Q9Concise	Correlation Coefficient	.324**	.354**	.074	1.000	<mark>.484**</mark>	.171*
		Sig. (2- tailed)	.000	.000	.386		.000	.042
		N	142	140	141	142	142	142
	Q9Thorough	Correlation Coefficient	.342**	.434**	.302**	.484**	1.000	.423**
		Sig. (2- tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000
		N	143	141	142	142	143	143
	Q9Emotion	Correlation Coefficient		.283**	.388**	.171*	<mark>.423**</mark>	1.000
		Sig. (2- tailed)	.000	.001	.000	.042	.000	
		N	143	141	142	142	143	143

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Appendix K

Model Strength - Simple Regressions: Competencies and Behaviors Indices

The following two correlation and ANOVA tables illustrate simple regressions for communication competencies with communication behaviors. They depict a statistically significant correlation of .61 between competencies and behaviors and a model that explains 37% of the variance.

Table K1

Correlation Coefficients: Regression of Competencies Index with Behaviors Index

Parameter	Least Squares Estimate	Standard Error	T Statistic	P-Value
Intercept	<mark>22.7434</mark>	3.61221	6.29625	0.0000
Slope	.0482947	0.0542572	8.90108	0.0000

Table K2

ANOVA Table from Regression: Competencies Index with Behaviors Index

Source	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F-Ratio	P-Value					
Model	2161.75	5 1	2161.75	79.23	<mark>0.0000</mark>					
Residual	3683.44	135	27.2847							
Total (Corr.)	5845.18	136								
Correlation Coefficient = 0.60814 R-Squared = 36.9834 percent R-squared (adjusted for d.f.) = 36.5166 percent Standard Error of Estimate=5.22348 Mean absolute error=4.00172 Durbin-Watson statistic=1.8657 (P=0.2170) Lag 1 Residual autocorrelation=0.0620184										

Appendix L

Model Strength - Collinearity Tests: Linear Regressions

The table below shows the results of linear regressions between the importance ratings of the communication competencies and the respondent's role. The collinearity tolerances indicate a good possibility of multicollinearity.

Table L1

		Unstandardized		Standardized				
		Coefficients		Coefficients			Collinearity	V Statistics
Model		В	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.768	.634		1.211	.228		
	Q4Interpersonal	.049	.039	.139	1.254	.212	<mark>.553</mark>	1.807
	Q4Credibility	031	.064	046	489	.626	<mark>.779</mark>	1.284
	Q4Influence	032	.025	120	-1.287	.200	<mark>.786</mark>	1.272
	Q4Listening	016	.036	057	442	.659	<mark>.404</mark>	2.475
	Q4Writing	.039	.035	.119	1.121	.264	<mark>.606</mark>	1.650
	Q4Diversity	.045	.022	.219	2.061	.041	<mark>.601</mark>	1.663
	Q4Facilitation .025		.024	.106	1.054	.294	.671	1.491

Competencies Coefficients^a

a. Dependent Variable: Position (BoardPresident)

The table below shows the results of linear regressions between the importance ratings of the communication competencies and the respondent's role. The high condition indexes and low eigenvalues again are indicative of potential multicollinearity.

Collinearity Diagnostics^a

					Varian	ce Proporti	ons					
				Con-		Q4	Q4	Q4	Q4	Q4	Q4	Q4
Mo-	Dimen-	Eig	gen-	dition	(Con-	Inter-	Credi-	Influ-	Listen-	Writ-	Diver-	Facilita-
del	sion	val	ue	Index	stant)	personal	bility	ence	ing	ing	sity	tion
1	1	7.	840	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
	2		. <mark>054</mark>	12.047	.01	.01	.01	.01	.00	.01	. <mark>56</mark>	.03
	3		. <mark>036</mark>	14.761	.00	.02	.00	.42	.03	.00	.09	. <mark>31</mark>
	4		.032	<mark>15.724</mark>	.00	.02	.00	.28	.02	.01	.09	<mark>.53</mark>
	5		.016	<mark>22.252</mark>	.06	.01	.03	.11	. <mark>34</mark>	.08	. <mark>22</mark>	.06
	6		.012	<mark>25.405</mark>	.00	.05	.00	.14	.16	<mark>.87</mark>	.00	.07
	7		. <mark>008</mark>	<mark>31.014</mark>	.02	<mark>.89</mark>	.03	.02	.40	.00	.03	.00
	8		.002	<mark>60.822</mark>	. <mark>90</mark>	.00	. <mark>93</mark>	.02	.04	.02	.00	.01

a. Dependent Variable: Position (BoardPresident)

The table below shows the results of linear regressions for ratings of the importance of the communication behaviors and the effectiveness of board-president communication. The collinearity tolerances indicate that multicollinearity is suspected.

Table L2

Behaviors Coefficients^a

				Standardized						Collinearity	
		Coefficie	nts	Coefficients			Correla	tions		Statistics	
			Std.				Zero-				
Mo	del	В	Error	Beta	t	Sig.	order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.840	1.335		1.378	.170					
	Q7Communal	047	.089	048	530	.597	.226	046	-	<mark>.703</mark>	1.422
									.040		
	Q7Agentic	105	.055	154	-	.060	.039	163	-	.862	1.161
					1.900				.143		
	Q7Passion	.103	.128	.067	.804	.423	.251	.070	.060	.804	1.244
	Q7Concise	.143	.091	.139	1.568	.119	.292	.135	.118	.715	1.399
	Q7Thorough	.395	.112	.332	3.511	<mark>.001</mark>	.406	<mark>.292</mark>	.264	.631	1.585
	Q7Emotion	.245	.079	.254	3.094	.002	.308	<mark>.260</mark>	.233	.840	1.190

a. Dependent Variable: BoardPresCommEffective

The table below shows the results of linear regressions for ratings of the effectiveness of the communication behaviors and the effectiveness of board-president communication. The high condition indexes and low eigenvalues again are indicative of potential multicollinearity.

Collinearity Diagnostics^a

			Conditi	Variance	Variance Proportions									
Mod	Dimensi	Eigenval	on	(Consta	Q7Commu	Q7Agen	Q7Passi	Q7Conci	Q7Thorou	Q7Emoti				
el	on	ue	Index	nt)	nal	tic	on	se	gh	on				
1	1	6.830	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00				
	2	.083	9.062	.00	.01	.96	.00	.00	.00	.00				
	3	.033	<mark>14.496</mark>	.00	.02	.00	.00	.12	.03	.73				
	4	.020	<mark>18.637</mark>	.07	.76	.00	.08	.01	.01	.03				
	5	.018	<mark>19.482</mark>	.03	.10	.03	.06	.78	.02	.16				
	6	.011	<mark>25.168</mark>	.10	.10	.01	.05	.07	.93	.07				
	7	.006	<mark>34.486</mark>	.80	.00	.00	.81	.03	.01	.00				

a. Dependent Variable: BoardPresCommEffective

Appendix M

Model Fit and Prediction: Binary Logistic Regressions

This next table shows the binary logistic regression of respondent's role as predicting the importance of the communication competencies. It shows that Diversity is the only competency that predicts role and that the model is a good fit for the data.

Table M1

Importance of Competencies: Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients

		Chi-square	df	Sig.
Step 1	Step	19.537	7	.007
	Block	19.537	7	.007
	Model	19.537	7	. <mark>007</mark>

								95% C.I.fe	or EXP(B)
		В	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	Lower	Upper
Step 1 ^a	Q4Interpersonal	.251	.206	1.481	1	.224	1.285	.858	1.924
	Q4Credibility	170	.299	.321	1	.571	.844	.469	1.518
	Q4Influence	165	.118	1.965	1	.161	.848	.673	1.068
	Q4Listening	083	.171	.232	1	.630	.921	.658	1.288
	Q4Writing	.202	.174	1.352	1	.245	1.224	.871	1.720
	Q4Diversity	.218	.105	4.292	1	.038	1.244	1.012	1.530
	Q4Facilitation	.140	.120	1.365	1	.243	1.150	.910	1.454
	Constant	-3.645	3.020	1.456	1	.228	.026		

Variables in the Equation

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: Q4Interpersonal, Q4Credibility, Q4Influence, Q4Listening, Q4Writing, Q4Diversity, Q4Facilitation.

This next table shows the binary logistic regression of respondent's role as predicting the effectiveness of the communication competencies. It shows that Diversity is the only competency that predicts role and that the model is a good fit for the data.

Table M2

Effectiveness of Competencies: Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients

		Chi-square	df	Sig.
Step 1	Step	18.041	7	.012
	Block	18.041	7	.012
	Model	18.041	7	. <mark>012</mark>

Variables in the Equation

								95% C.I.f	or
								EXP(B)	
		В	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	Lower	Upper
Step 1 ^a	Q6Credibility	.011	.234	.002	1	.962	1.011	.639	1.601
	Q6Influence	.166	.162	1.057	1	.304	1.181	.860	1.622
	Q6Interpersonal	.160	.191	.698	1	.404	1.173	.807	1.706
	Q6Listening	.167	.187	.796	1	.372	1.182	.819	1.707
	Q6Writing	171	.179	.916	1	.339	.843	.593	1.197
	Q6Diversity	.275	.134	4.194	1	. <mark>041</mark>	1.317	1.012	1.714
	Q6Facilitation	.003	.148	.000	1	.985	1.003	.750	1.340
	Constant	-5.835	2.369	6.068	1	.014	.003		

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: Q6Credibility, Q6Influence, Q6Interpersonal, Q6Listening, Q6Writing, Q6Diversity, Q6Facilitation.

This next table shows the binary logistic regression of respondent's role as predicting the importance of the communication behaviors. It shows that Thoroughness is the only behavior that predicts role and that the model is a good fit for the data.

Table M3

Importance of Behaviors: BLR Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients

		Chi-square	df	Sig.
Step 1	Step	27.204	6	.000
	Block	27.204	6	.000
	Model	<mark>27.204</mark>	<mark>6</mark>	.000

Variables	in	the E	quation
, and the			quation

								95% C.I.fo	or EXP(B)
		В	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	Lower	Upper
Step 1 ^a	Q7Communal	107	.143	.556	1	.456	.899	.679	1.190
	Q7Agentic	.124	.080	2.400	1	.121	1.132	.968	1.323
	Q7Passion	.088	.201	.192	1	.661	1.092	.736	1.621
	Q7Concise	.110	.139	.620	1	.431	1.116	.849	1.466
	Q7Thorough	.625	.202	9.610	1	.002	1.869	1.259	2.776
	Q7Emotion	015	.118	.016	1	.901	.985	.781	1.243
_	Constant	-7.874	2.304	11.685	1	.001	.000		

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: Q7Communal, Q7Agentic, Q7Passion, Q7Concise, Q7Thorough, Q7Emotion.

The next table shows the binary logistic regression of respondent's role as predicting the effectiveness of the communication behaviors. It shows that Thoroughness is again the only behavior that predicts role and that the model is a good fit for the data.

Table M4

Effectiveness of Behaviors: Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients

		Chi-square	df	Sig.
Step 1	Step	28.531	6	.000
	Block	28.531	6	.000
	Model	28.531	6	.000

Variables in the Equation

								95% C.I.fo	or EXP(B)
		В	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	Lower	Upper
Step 1 ^a	Q9Communal	121	.132	.842	1	.359	.886	.684	1.148
	Q9Agentic	.131	.095	1.904	1	.168	1.140	.946	1.374
	Q9Passion	336	.219	2.356	1	.125	.715	.466	1.097
	Q9Concise	064	.136	.220	1	.639	.938	.719	1.225
	Q9Thorough	.672	.196	11.752	1	. <mark>001</mark>	1.958	1.334	2.876
	Q9Emotion	.152	.167	.824	1	.364	1.164	.839	1.615
	Constant	-3.633	2.212	2.698	1	.100	.026		

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: Q9Communal, Q9Agentic, Q9Passion, Q9Concise, Q9Thorough, Q9Emotion.

This next table shows the binary logistic regression of respondent's role as predicting ratings of board-president communication effectiveness. It shows that such prediction is possible and that the model is a good fit for the data.

Table M5

Board-President Communication Effectiveness: Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients

		Chi-square	df	Sig.
Step 1	Step	11.527	1	.001
	Block	11.527	1	.001
	Model	<mark>11.527</mark>	1	.001

Variables in the Equation

								95% C.I.for	
								EXP(B)	
		В	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	Lower	Upper
Step 1 ^a	BoardPresCommEffective	.364	.116	9.930	1	.002	1.440	1.148	1.806
	Constant	-3.343	1.066	9.826	1	.002	.035		

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: BoardPresCommEffective.

The following table shows the binary logistic regression of respondent's role as predicting ratings of the importance of board-president cultural alignment. It shows that such prediction is possible and that the model is a good fit for the data.

Table M6

Importance of Cultural Alignment: Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients

		Chi-squa	ire d	lf		Sig.						
Step 1	Step	5.661		1		.017						
	Block	5.661		1		.017						
_	Model	<mark>5.661</mark>		1		.017						
											95% C.I.fo	or EXP(B)
		В		S.E.		Wald	df	Si	g.	Exp(B)	Lower	Upper
Step 1 ^a	CultureA	ligns	.166		.072	5.325	1		.021	1.181	1.025	1.360
_	Constant		-1.418		.619	5.252	1		.022	.242		

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: CultureAligns.

Appendix N

Alternative Explanation

The next table compares descriptive statistics for presidents and board members on the question of the importance of cultural alignment between the board and the president. Mean ratings appear to be relatively similar.

Table N1

Assessments of the Importance of Cultural Alignment between Board and President (Means: 11= most important)

	Range	Min	Max	М	SE	SD	Var	Skew	SE	Kurt	SE
Board Members: Importance of Cultural Alignment	9	2	11	<mark>8.65</mark>	.272	<mark>2.261</mark>	5.113	952	.289	.538	.570
Presidents: Importance of Cultural Alignment	7	4	11	<mark>8.51</mark>	.206	<mark>1.757</mark>	3.087	644	.281	022	.555

The two tables below show the results of a T-test to determine if the mean scores for presidents and board members are statistically significantly different for the questions of cultural alignment and they are in both cases.

Table N2

T-Test of Communication Effectiveness and Cultural Alignment by Title Group Statistics

	BoardPresident	Ν	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
BoardPresCommEffective	President	73	8.51	1.757	.206
	Board Member	66	9.44	1.530	.188
CultureAligns	President	73	7.67	2.620	.307
	Board Member	67	8.61	2.276	.278

		for Equality of Variances										
		Varia	inces	t-test for Equality of Means								
									95	%		
						Sig.			Confi	dence		
						(2-			Interval of the Difference			
						tail-	Mean	Std. Error				
		F	Sig.	t	df	ed)	Difference	Difference	Lower	Upper		
BoardPres	Equal variances	1.836	.178	-3.321	137	.001	933	.281	-1.488	377		
Comm Effective	assumed											
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.344	136.820	.001	933	.279	-1.484	381		
CultureAligns	Equal variances	2.119	.148	-2.259	138	.025	941	.416	-1.764	117		
	Equal variances			-2.273	137.599	.025	941	.414	-1.759	122		
	not assumed											

Independent Samples Test

Levene's Test

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