

PATHWAYS TO THE AMERICAN COLLEGE PRESIDENCY:
A QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS OF CAREER PATHS AND PREPARATION OF
FIRST-TIME COLLEGE PRESIDENTS AT FOUR-YEAR INDEPENDENT
INSTITUTIONS

by

MICHAEL THOMAS WEST

(Under the Direction of Dr. Charles B. Knapp)

ABSTRACT

The college presidency in the United States is expected to undergo significant turnover in the next five to ten years across all institutional types due to aging of presidents and shorter terms served in office. Presidential vacancies are expected at 25 percent of all institutions, and at 48 percent of all independent institutions, making this issue a significant concern to higher education stakeholders and a research priority.

Compounding the issue of potential presidential vacancies is that the United States does not have enough qualified, interested, and prepared individuals from the traditional pipeline to assume the number of presidential positions that will open once the current generation of college and university presidents retire.

Presidential searches and appointments that seek a high degree of alignment between the needs of the institution and the qualifications and experience of the candidate will result in searches that extend beyond traditional search patterns. Although the college presidency is one of the most widely researched areas of higher education, extant

literature on preparation and career paths that lead to college presidencies is limited.

Researchers have suggested a possible correlation between preparation for the presidency and job satisfaction, which may influence tenure in office and institutional stability.

The present study examined the pre- and post-appointment experiences of 472 first-time college presidents to understand the relationship between career paths, preparation, job satisfaction, and the number of years that college presidents spend in office. Research findings have significant implications for practice and future research, as colleges and universities consider who will fill the impending vacancies in the American college presidency.

INDEX WORDS: College presidents, Pathways to the American college presidency, Presidential pathways, Career patterns of college presidents, Presidential turnover, Preparation of college presidents, Aging of college presidents, Presidential searches, Trends in the college presidency

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MICHAEL THOMAS WEST

A.A., University of Alaska, 2003

B.A., Ottawa University, 2005

M.B.A., Loyola University Chicago, 2008

MS.Ed., University of Pennsylvania, 2011

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by

MICHAEL THOMAS WEST

Major Professor: Charles Knapp

Committee: Libby Morris

Robert Toutkoushian

Electronic Version Approved:

Suzanne Barbour
Dean of the Graduate School
The University of Georgia
December 2015

DEDICATION

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Background

Since the installation of Henry Dunster as the de facto president of Harvard College nearly 400 years ago in 1640 (Wessel & Keim, 1994), the college presidency has become one of the most prestigious roles in American society (Birnbaum & Umbach, 2001). Ascension to such a significant leadership position has historically favored candidates with advanced specialized degrees and administrative experience within higher education. Similar career paths are also preferred for leadership roles in other professions, such as military, clergy, law, and other types of organizations in which advanced training and experience are considered essential for satisfactory job performance (Birnbaum & Umbach, 2001).

As colleges and universities have become more complex, so has the role of president (Birnbaum & Umbach, 2001; Moore, Salimbene, Marlier & Bragg, 1983; Skinner, 2010; Song & Hartley, 2012). Beginning in the 1940s, and continuing through the 1960s, colleges and universities began to shift to a more corporate or business-style operational model to address the complexities, external pressures, and resource management issues facing higher education, all of which have influenced the type of experience, qualifications, and leadership requisite for a college president (Birnbaum & Umbach, 2001; Moore et al., 1983; Skinner, 2010; Travis & Price, 2013).

In the 1940s Haydn (1945) noted that colleges and universities were “...witnessing the end of an era of ‘elder statesmen’” (p. 455) as presidents started to serve shorter terms and retire in greater numbers. Nearly seventy years later, higher education continues to be challenged by decreasing presidential tenure, aging of its presidents, impending retirements, and anticipation of a new generation of presidents (American Council on Education (ACE), 2012; Hartley & Godin, 2009; King & Gomez, 2008; Skinner, 2010; Song & Hartley, 2012; Travis & Price, 2013).

Problem Statement

As contemporary higher education grapples with myriad issues, both internally and externally, a new challenge has emerged. The college presidency in the United States is expected to undergo significant turnover in the next five to ten years across all institutional types due to aging of presidents and shorter terms served in office (ACE, 2012; King & Gomez, 2008; Song & Hartley, 2012). With presidential vacancies expected at 25 percent of all institutions, and at 48 percent of all independent institutions in the next five years, this issue is of significant concern to higher education stakeholders and researchers (ACE, 2012; Hartley & Godin, 2009; King & Gomez, 2008; Perrakis, Galloway, Hayes, & Robinson-Galdo, 2011; Skinner, 2010; Smerek, 2013; Song & Hartley, 2012; Travis & Price, 2013).

Compounding the issue of potential presidential vacancies is that the United States does not have “enough qualified, interested, and prepared individuals to assume the number of presidential positions that will open once the current generation of college and university presidents retire” (ACE, 2012; American Governing Board (AGB), 2012; Perrakis et al., 2011). Less than one in five current presidents came from a prior

presidency (ACE, 2012), and less than one in four current independent college presidents planned on pursuing a subsequent presidency at a different institution (Song & Hartley, 2012), which, in combination, suggested that institutions are less likely to rely on the pipeline of current and former presidents to fill the projected number of vacancies in the next five to ten years.

Significance of the Study

Understanding the various pathways to a college presidency is necessary for higher education stakeholders so that when undertaking time-intensive, costly presidential searches, the broadest possible pool of candidates is considered. Additional knowledge regarding various pathways will also ensure that the professional experience of the candidates and the needs and culture of the institution are aligned at the time of appointment (Baldrige, Curtis, Ecker, & Riley, 1977; Birnbaum & Umbach, 2001; Chaffee, 1987; Masland, 1985; Moore et al., 1983; Peterson & Spencer, 1990).

Intermittent studies on career paths of college presidents over the past 40 years have produced hierarchical conceptual models for pathways to the presidency and variations of those trajectories (Birnbaum & Umbach, 2001; Cohen & March, 1974; Moore et al., 1983; Wessel & Keim, 1994). Four different studies (Birnbaum & Umbach, 2001; Cohen & March, 1974; Moore et al., 1983; Wessel & Keim, 1994) suggested that pathways to the presidency can be inventoried into two major categories: 1) traditional (normative or academic) or; 2) non-traditional (administrative). Within those major categories, most first-time presidents are appointed from one of four secondary pathways: 1) CAO or provost; 2) faculty; 3) non-academic officer, or; 4) outside higher education.

Throughout the course of history, notable figures have served as college or university presidents following careers in politics, business, military, or intercollegiate athletics. Former United States president, General Dwight D. Eisenhower, served as the president of Columbia University from 1948-1953. Woodrow Wilson served as the 13th president of Princeton University from 1902-1910. Wilson holds the distinction of being the only president in U.S. history to hold a Ph.D. Recent high profile presidential appointments from outside higher education include Janet Napolitano (University of California), Mitch Daniels (Purdue University), and Margaret Spellings (University of North Carolina System). These three university presidents each held political positions immediately prior to their respective appointments: Napolitano served as the Secretary for Homeland Security; Daniels served as the Governor of Indiana; Spellings served as the Secretary of Education and House Domestic Policy Adviser. Bruce Harreld was recently appointed as the president of the University of Iowa. Mr. Harreld earned an MBA from Harvard, and has held senior executive positions with Kraft Foods, Boston Market, and IBM. Former Ohio State head football coach, Jim Tressel, is currently serving as the president of Youngstown State University.

While career paths do not ensure job satisfaction, researchers have suggested a possible correlation between preparation for the presidency and job satisfaction, which may influence tenure in office and institutional stability (Travis & Price, 2013). Understanding the traditional and non-traditional career patterns of candidates will increase the likelihood that search firms, committees, and trustees will consider the skills and experiences of those from outside of academic pathways, as well as those from the traditional pathways. Presidential searches and appointments that seek a high degree of

alignment between the needs of the institution and the qualifications and experience of the candidate will result in searches that extend beyond the traditional (i.e., academic) search patterns (ACE, 2012; Baldrige et al., 1977; Birnbaum & Umbach, 2001; Chaffee, 1987; Fleming, 2010; Hartley & Godin, 2009; Masland, 1985; Moore et al., 1983; Peterson & Spencer, 1990; Skinner, 2010; Song & Hartley, 2012; Travis & Price, 2013).

Given the number of presidential vacancies projected over the next five to ten years, and declining interest in the position from the traditional (academic) pipeline, the present study is a research priority, with potential for significant implications for practice as colleges and universities consider who will fill these vacancies.

The college presidency does not have a formal succession planning process that can be tracked and studied (Moore et al., 1983), so limited research exists on career paths leading to a presidency. First-time presidents (FTP) are well positioned to provide data on career paths, preparation for the position, insight into their overall job satisfaction, and why they will stay in office or leave the position. FTPs at four-year independent institutions were selected as the population for the current study based on the significance of the projected turnover at 48 percent of these institutions over the next five years.

Purpose of the Study

According to Travis and Price (2013), no study has been conducted on the relationship between career paths, preparation for the presidency, and job satisfaction to understand the degree to which a career path and preparation are correlated with job satisfaction of presidents. Additionally, researchers have suggested that a higher level of job satisfaction will lead to longer tenure in office, increasing institutional stability (Dennison, 2001; Moore, 1983; Travis & Price, 2013). The proposed study will endeavor

to fill this gap in extant research through an examination of the relationship between career paths, preparation, job satisfaction, and the number of years spent in office by FTPs at independent institutions.

Given the stated purpose of this study, the researcher conducted a two phase study to understand: 1) the degree to which career paths (X_1) and preparation (X_2) are correlated with job satisfaction (Y_1) and; 2) the degree to which these three variables are correlated with years spent in office (Y_2).

<u>Phase I</u>	<u>Phase II</u>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Y_1: Overall job satisfaction ▪ X_1: Career path ▪ X_2: Preparation ▪ Moderating variables 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Y_2: Years in current position ▪ X_1: Career path ▪ X_2: Preparation ▪ Y_1: Overall job satisfaction ▪ Moderating variables

Phase I Hypothesis: Overall Job Satisfaction (Y_1)

Inference: While it seems reasonable to infer that the higher the level of preparation for a position, the higher the level of job satisfaction. Presidents at independent institutions, however, reported being less prepared for the presidency, yet indicated a higher level of job satisfaction than their counterparts at other institutional types (Hartley & Godin, 2009). The hypothesis and null hypothesis for Phase I of the present study are stated below:

Hypothesis (H_A): Job satisfaction of FTPs will vary significantly based on the reported levels of preparation from FTPs in each of the four pathways to the college presidency at four-year independent institutions.

Null Hypothesis (H₀): Job satisfaction of FTPs will not vary significantly based on the reported levels of preparation from FTPs in each of the four pathways to the college presidency at four-year independent institutions.

The present study represents a research priority for higher education stakeholders to further understand the relationship between career paths (X₁), preparation (X₂), and job satisfaction (Y₁) of FTPs at independent institutions. To test the author's inference/hypothesis the present study will be guided by four research questions: 1) To what degree do career paths affect the likelihood of FTPs being satisfied with their role?; 2) To what degree does preparation affect the likelihood of FTPs being satisfied with their role?; 3) To what degree do career paths and preparation affect the likelihood of FTPs being satisfied with their role?; 4) What additional factors affect the likelihood of FTPs being satisfied with their role?

Phase II Hypothesis: Years in Current Position (Y₂)

Inference: It is reasonable to infer that a higher level of job satisfaction may lead to longer tenure in office, providing increased institutional stability (Dennison, 2001; Moore, 1983; Travis & Price, 2013). The hypothesis and null hypothesis for Phase II of the present study are stated below:

Hypothesis (H_A): The number of years that FTPs will spend in office will vary significantly based on the reported levels of job satisfaction and preparation from each of the four career pathways to the college presidency at four-year independent institutions.

Null Hypothesis (H₀): The number of years that FTPs will spend in office will not vary significantly based on the reported levels of job satisfaction and preparation from each of the four career pathways to the college presidency at four-year independent institutions.

The present study represents a research priority for higher education stakeholders to further understand the relationship between career paths (X_1), preparation (X_2), job satisfaction (Y_1), and years spent in office by FTPs at independent institutions (Y_2). To test the author's inference/hypothesis the present study will be guided by five research questions:

1) To what degree do career paths affect the number of years FTPs spend in office?; 2) To what degree does preparation affect the number of years FTPs spend in office?; 3) To what degree does overall job satisfaction affect the number of years FTPs spend in office?; 4) To what degree do X_1 , X_2 , and Y_1 , in combination, affect the number of years FTPs spend in office?; 5) What additional factors affect the number of years that FTPs spend in office?

Of the variables discussed here, and throughout the literature review, career paths, job satisfaction, and years in current position are fairly self-explanatory, and will receive additional attention in the literature review. The third major independent variable, preparation, is a more nebulous term. For the purpose of this study, "preparation" considered twenty functional areas of presidential job responsibilities for which American College President Survey (ACPS) respondents indicated they were not prepared prior to assuming their current position (see Table 1, below):

TABLE 1.

Areas in Which FTPs Felt Underprepared

Upon Assuming Current Position

1. technology planning	11. campus internationalization
2. athletics	12. assessment of student learning
3. risk management/legal issues	13. crisis management
4. fundraising	14. academic issues
5. government relations	15. media/public relations
6. capital improvement projects	16. student life/conduct issues
7. entrepreneurial ventures	17. faculty issues
8. budget/financial management	18. community relations
9. governing board relations	19. personnel issues
10. enrollment management	20. strategic planning

(p. 15)

The following review of extant literature on career paths leading to college and university presidencies, the preparation of candidates for this position, job satisfaction, and years spent in office will provide a conceptual framework for this study, which will inform the research design.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Methodology

Literature in the present review was collected through a comprehensive search of research databases, such as ERIC, Academic Search, Academic Search Premier, and Jstor to identify all available literature on preparation and career paths leading to college and university presidencies. Data were primarily drawn from peer-reviewed articles found in professional journals, such as *FOCUS on Colleges, Universities & Schools*, *International Journal of Doctoral Studies*, *Journal of Higher Education*, and *Journal of Higher Education Policy & Management*. Search words and phrases used to identify peer-reviewed literature on pathways to the American college presidency included: *college presidents*, *pathways to the (American) college presidency*, *presidential pathways*, *career patterns of college presidents*, *presidential turnover*, *aging of the president*, *presidential searches*.

Given the limited number of peer-reviewed studies on pathways to the presidency, supplementary data were collected from reports published by nationally recognized agencies, such as ACE, Association for Study of Higher Education (ASHE), and Council of Independent Colleges (CIC).

Overview of the Literature

The college presidency, according to Perrakis et al. (2011), is one of the most widely researched administrative roles in the United States. The majority of higher

education research on the college presidency has primarily focused on incumbent, established, and former presidents through studies on leadership, cognition, challenges, and job satisfaction. The bulk of this research is derived from two sources: 1) presidential memoirs and; 2) prior longitudinal studies on the topic by Birnbaum and associates (Smerek, 2013). Birnbaum noted that “much of the literature on the presidential role comes from presidents themselves” (as cited in Risacher, 2004). Limited research exists on the entry process and transition into the presidency, with virtually no consideration for the uniqueness of the culture and climate at each institution (Dennison, 2001; Smerek, 2013).

Of the extant literature on college presidents, relatively little research examines the career pathways leading to the presidency (Birnbaum & Umbach, 2001; Moore et al., 1983; Travis & Price, 2013). Moore et al. (1983) suggested that the lack of research on pathways to the presidency is, in part, because the presidency is an “after-the-fact” occurrence, meaning that there is little to no advanced succession planning that would result in an internal candidate being prepared for a presidential vacancy at that institution. Moore et al. (1983) noted that, without evidence of clearly defined succession planning at the institutional level, the comprehensive analysis of presidential career paths is difficult due to the mobility of college administrators as they tend to build “occupational careers” through a series of positions at multiple institutions with increasing responsibilities within an occupation (i.e., higher education). Alternately, “organizational career” succession among corporate executives is easier to analyze, as upward mobility is more likely to occur within a single organization (Moore, 1983).

Intermittent studies on career paths of college presidents over the past 40 years have produced hierarchical conceptual models for pathways to the presidency and variations of those trajectories (Birnbaum & Umbach, 2001; Cohen & March, 1974; Moore et al., 1983; Wessel & Keim, 1994). To date, these hierarchical conceptual models represent the limited extant body of research on pathways to the college presidency. In each case, these models were developed based on inventories of the types of professional positions found to be most commonly identified as part of traditional or non-traditional pathways to a college presidency.

In addition to depicting the historical evolution of the limited number of studies on this topic, these models also informed the conceptual framework for the research design for the present study with respect to the major and secondary pathways to a college presidency. More recent data on presidential career paths have been collected every five or six years through the ACPS, which has been conducted by ACE since 1986. The most recent ACE report, *The American College President*, was published in 2012. In combination, the conceptual models and these ACE data provided the basis for the conceptual framework of the present study.

The following section presents thematic findings based on the review of literature, which is divided into three separate sub-sections related to the challenge of filling presidential vacancies in the next five years with candidates who are prepared to assume the role of president: 1) trends in the American college presidency; 2) pathways to the presidency, and; 3) preparation for the presidency. Following the literature review a discussion will be presented to synthesize themes found within the literature, implications

for practice, implications for further study, and conceptual perspectives, which informed the research design.

Trends in the Presidency

The demographics and career patterns of the American college presidency have changed considerably over the past quarter century as documented through studies published by ACE between 1988 and 2012. Of particular concern to higher education stakeholders and researchers were the age and projected rate of turnover among current presidents, which suggested that a significant number of vacancies will need to be filled within the next five years (ACE, 2012; Hartley & Godin, 2009; King & Gomez, 2008; Skinner, 2010; Song & Hartley, 2012; Travis & Price, 2013).

Aging of presidents. ACE (2012) data showed that approximately 5 percent of all presidents are seventy-one years of age, or older. Overall, the average age of current presidents has increased slightly from sixty in 2006 to sixty-one in 2011. The most significant finding in these figures was that the proportion of presidents sixty-one, or older, has increased in the past five years from 49 percent to 58 percent. According to ACE (2012), this shift in age suggested that there will be “significant turnover in presidential leadership in the near term” (p. 49).

A secondary issue associated with realization of large-scale retirements is that many of the presidents who step down will be replaced with senior administrators who are of similar age, which may result in additional short-term turnover and a continued shortage of qualified individuals available to assume presidential vacancies in the next decade (ACE, 2012; Hartley & Godin, 2009; King & Gomez, 2008; Perrakis et al., 2011; Skinner, 2010; Smerek, 2013; Song & Hartley, 2012; Travis & Price, 2013).

Wessel and Keim (1994) observed that presidents at liberal arts colleges were younger in age, and also at the time of their appointment, than their counterparts at doctorate-granting and comprehensive institutions. New presidents at master's and doctorate-granting universities were the oldest group at 58.9 years (ACE, 2012). Song and Hartley (2012) noted it is rare to have presidents under the age of fifty at public doctoral (1 percent) and masters/bachelors (5 percent) institutions, which suggested that institutions seek proven executive experience as a criterion for consideration and appointment. ACE (2012) data confirmed that the average age (57.1) of recently hired presidents (between 2009 and 2011) was nearly four years below the average age (60.7) of all presidents, suggesting that different institutional types will experience different rates of turnover based on years in office and age.

Presidential tenure and turnover. According to Travis and Price (2013), time in office is a significant variable for presidential effectiveness and the ability to establish and realize agendas and goals, while also impacting the effectiveness of governance. The average presidency at a single institution has decreased across all institutional types from 8.5 years in 2006 to seven years in 2011, signifying an increase in the rate of turnover in the presidency. Travis and Price (2013) asserted that seven years in office is not enough time to allow a president to be effective in their position, suggesting that efforts to increase presidential tenure are important to institutional stability.

According to ACE (2012), 25 percent of all presidents surveyed indicated that they planned on leaving their current presidency in the next 10 years. Of this group, less than one in four respondents indicated that they planned to pursue a subsequent presidency at a different institution (Song & Hartley, 2012). Particularly important to the

present study is the fact that presidents at 48 percent of independent institutions planned on leaving office within the next five years, and nearly 75 percent of current presidents at independent institutions planned on stepping down within the next ten years (see Appendix G) (ACE, 2012; Song & Hartley, 2012).

Presidential tenure at a single institution has decreased significantly for a variety of reasons including stress, job satisfaction, retirement, university or non-academic appointment, or a subsequent presidency (Dennison, 2001; Monks, 2012; Travis & Price, 2013). Monks (2012) noted that one of the most statistically significant variables that factor into a president's likelihood to leave office is the discipline in which they earned their terminal degree. Presidents with backgrounds in the social sciences or business are more likely to leave office based on demand for expertise in these areas outside of the academy. Those presidents with education degrees may have fewer employment alternatives outside higher education. Lesser cited reasons for presidential turnover, according to Monks (2012), included forced resignation, health concerns, died while in office, or returned to the clergy.

The decline in presidential tenure is most prevalent at research-oriented and doctorate-granting universities, but is evident at all institutional types. When controlling for institutional type, presidents at public institutions served 6.7 years compared to 7.4 years of service for presidents at private institutions (ACE, 2012). Presidents at smaller colleges, according to Dennison (2001), may be in better position to introduce and implement their vision and agenda, due to fewer competing interests than their university counterparts. According to ACE (2012) 81.6 percent of presidents at independent institutions indicated that they were "very satisfied", while 16.9 percent of these

presidents reported being “somewhat satisfied” in their current position. Less than one percent of presidents reported being “not very satisfied” or “dissatisfied” in their current position, suggesting that strong alignment exists between satisfaction of these presidents and demands on their leadership. Despite high levels of reported job satisfaction, nearly one-half of all independent college presidents indicated that they will leave office in the next five years (ACE, 2012; Song & Hartley, 2012).

Pathways to the Presidency

The pathway to a college presidency, traditionally aligned with academic succession, has now broadened to also include candidates from non-traditional backgrounds (i.e., business, government, clergy, military, non-profit), providing institutions with opportunities to identify candidates with skills and experiences that provide the highest degree of fit for the institution at the time of appointment (ACE, 2012; Baldrige et al., 1977; Birnbaum & Umbach, 2001; Chaffee, 1987; Fleming, 2010; Hartley & Godin, 2009; Masland, 1985; Moore et al., 1983; Peterson & Spencer, 1990; Skinner, 2010; Socolow, 1978; Song & Hartley, 2012; Travis & Price, 2013), while also including a broader gender and ethnic demographic (ACE, 2012; Birnbaum & Umbach, 2001; King & Gomez, 2008; Song & Hartley, 2012). Career paths leading to a college presidency vary for each new appointment, and include a breadth of professional and educational experiences (ACE, 2012; King & Gomez, 2008; Moore et al., 1983; Song & Hartley, 2012).

Four different studies (Birnbaum & Umbach, 2001; Cohen & March, 1974; Moore et al., 1983; Wessel & Keim, 1994) suggested that pathways to the presidency can be classified into two major categories: 1) traditional (normative or academic) or; 2) non-

traditional (administrative). Within those major categories, first-time presidents are appointed from one of four secondary pathways: 1) CAO or provost; 2) faculty; 3) non-academic officer, or; 4) outside higher education (Birnbaum & Umbach, 2001; Cohen & March, 1974; Moore et al., 1983; Wessel & Keim, 1994). More recent survey data collected and analyzed by ACE (2012) and Song and Hartley (2012), suggested that these four secondary pathways continue to be representative of the career paths taken prior to assuming a college presidency.

The traditional or academic pathway. The traditional pathway is one that has been entirely, or almost entirely, within higher education, and suggests that long-term career ambitions remain within higher education (Birnbaum & Umbach, 2001). Although the career paths of college presidents are as varied as the institutions they serve (Travis & Price, 2013), the traditional, prescriptive career path to the college presidency typically begins with a faculty appointment, which can then be advanced through a succession of administrative roles with increasing levels of responsibility (Birnbaum & Umbach, 2001; Cohen & March, 1974; Moore et al., 1983; Travis & Price, 2013; Wessel & Keim, 1994). ACE (2012) noted that 70 percent of presidents had been faculty members at some point in their careers. Candidates from the academic pathway possessed a relatively narrow range of prior experiences that most often include progression from a faculty position followed by a succession of positions with increasing administrative responsibilities (Birnbaum & Umbach, 2001; Cohen & March, 1974; Moore et al., 1983; Travis & Price, 2013; Wessel & Keim, 1994).

Cohen and March proposed a five-rung conceptual model to depict the traditional (academic) pathway the presidency (see Appendix A) consisting of an upward

progression through academic positions with increasing responsibility: 1) faculty appointment; 2) department chair; 3) dean; 4) provost, and; 5) president (Birnbaum & Umbach, 2001; Cohen & March 1974; Moore et al., 1983). Moore et al. (1983) challenged the notion that a generalized career path to the presidency can be “delineated when no consensus exists (even within a single institution) regarding which experiences are desired” (p. 502). Moore et al. (1983) also argued that the Cohen and March model was flawed, as only 3.2 percent of presidents appointed from the traditional pathway actually held all four of the roles identified in the model prior to becoming president.

To illustrate the variations in the traditional pathway to the presidency, Birnbaum & Umbach (2001), Moore et al. (1983), and Wessel & Keim (1994) each developed expanded descriptive conceptual models depicting multi-step pathways to the presidency that exist within the constructs of the traditional and non-traditional models (see Appendices B, C, D & E). Approximately two-thirds of all presidents across all institutional types had been prior faculty members, but did not necessarily hold the positions of dean or department chair (see Appendix B) as part of their ascension to a presidency (ACE, 2012; Birnbaum & Umbach, 2001; Moore et al., 1983). The largest percentage of presidents, 32.1 percent, skipped three of the positions in the Cohen and March model. Most of these presidents had served as faculty at some point prior to assuming a presidency, but had not been a department chairperson, dean, or provost (Moore et al., 1983). Department chair and dean roles were found to be the least significant predictor of a future presidency. Of the four academic positions featured in the Cohen and March model (see Appendix A) leading to a presidency, the provost appeared to be the most powerful in predicting a subsequent role as president (Moore et al, 1983).

Chief academic officers and provosts. CAOs have traditionally represented roughly one-third of presidential appointments (ACE, 2012; Song & Hartley, 2012; Travis & Price, 2013), and the position continues to be the most common career path followed to a presidency, but moderate changes within this population have occurred in recent years; 32 percent of presidents in 2011 had been provosts in their immediate prior position compared with 37 percent of presidents in 2006 (ACE, 2012). At independent institutions, the proportion of presidents who were CAOs in their immediate prior position was lower than at other institutional types, shifting moderately between 2006 (27%) and 2011 (29%) (Song & Hartley, 2012). Time in office for CAOs tended to be low (5.2 years), relative to other senior administrative positions. King and Gomez (2008) attributed the short tenure of CAOs to a number of possible factors including retirement, interest in pursuing a presidency, returning to faculty, or appointments to presidencies at their home institutions.

While CAOs are perceived as having the highest potential to become presidents, concerns exist regarding the lack of CAO preparation for the presidency (Travis & Price, 2013). As the contemporary presidency requires more operational and administrative experience, traditional presidential candidates, such as provosts and CAOs, have expressed declining interest in pursuing the top post (Perrakis et al., 2011; Travis & Price, 2013). To further complicate the traditional pathway, CAOs are among the oldest population of senior administrators. According to King and Gomez (2008), 29 percent of CAOs are sixty-one, or older, suggesting that CAOs, like presidents in the same age range, are more likely to retire rather than pursue a presidency, signifying that institutions may need to search for their next president from one of the other three pathways.

Faculty. The traditional pathway to the presidency has historically been dependent upon a pipeline of faculty who ascend the academic administrative ladder, culminating in a senior position, such as provost or CAO prior to becoming president (Birnbaum & Umbach, 2001; Cohen & March, 1974; Moore et al., 1983; Risacher, 2004). The vast majority of all presidents have had faculty positions at some point in their career, however, the practice of hiring presidents directly from faculty began to wane in the 1940s as the position increasingly demanded candidates who had prior experience in administrative roles, such as dean or vice president (Moore et al., 1983).

Over the past forty years, colleges and universities have hired part-time and non-tenure track faculty (NTTF) to the extent that this population now represents one-half and two-thirds of all post-secondary faculty, respectively (ASHE, 2010; Birnbaum & Umbach, 2001; Kezar & Maxey, 2012; NCES, 2012; Waltman, Bergom, Hollingshead, Miller & August, 2012). In some institutions the proportion of faculty who are considered part-time is as high as 80 percent (ASHE, 2010; Birnbaum & Umbach, 2001; Kezar & Maxey, 2012). The practice of hiring NTTF has become so common across all institutional types, that this faculty population has been dubbed, “The New Faculty Majority” (ASHE, 2010; Kezar & Maxey, 2012; Waltman et al., 2012).

As the composition of the academy continues to increasingly depend on part-time faculty and NTTF, fewer post-secondary faculty may be in position to pursue presidencies through the traditional academic pathway (Risacher, 2004; Travis & Price, 2013; Waltman et al., 2012), which suggested that colleges may have to search for candidates from non-academic positions, or from outside of higher education (ACE, 2012; Hartley & Godin, 2009; Skinner, 2010; Smerek, 2013; Song & Hartley, 2012).

The non-traditional or administrative pathway. Presidents who have no prior professional higher education experience, or have alternated career paths between higher education and external roles are considered “non-traditional” (Birnbaum & Umbach, 2001) or “administrative” (Wessel & Keim, 1994). As higher education shifted from a period of unprecedented growth towards a financially constrained state in the 1940s and 1960s, Moore et al. (1983) observed that colleges and universities continued to consider presidential candidates and appoint those whose professional and administrative experiences were entirely, or almost entirely, outside higher education.

Non-academic administrators. Little research exists on those presidents who reported being a non-academic administrator (i.e., vice president, dean of students, etc.) prior to becoming president. According to King and Gomez (2008), the youngest population of non-academic administrators included senior external affairs officers, chief student affairs officers, enrollment management officers, and chief diversity officers. Of these positions, at least 44 percent of incumbents were aged fifty, or younger. Advancement patterns for at least 50 percent of senior administrators, such as CAOs, executive vice presidents, chiefs of staff, deans, and academic affairs officers were within the same institution. These patterns did not indicate that these promotions resulted in a presidency internal or external to the institution.

Birnbaum and Umbach (2001) noted that 20 percent of all college and university presidents were prior non-academic administrators, but were underrepresented as heads of doctoral institutions. At independent institutions only 13 percent of presidents reported a non-academic administrator position prior to assuming the presidency (Song & Hartley, 2012), which represented a decrease of 12 points from 2006. Of the four career

pathways reviewed here, presidents spent the longest amount of time as full-time higher education administrators prior to becoming presidents. Across all institutional types, presidents from this non-academic pathway spent 16 to 22 years as full-time administrators within higher education prior to becoming presidents. Similarly, presidents from independent institutions spent 17 years in full-time administration roles before assuming presidencies, which suggested that extensive administrative experience inside higher education was desirable (Song & Hartley, 2012).

Outside higher education. As institutions of higher education become more complex, a different skill set and level of experience is required of the president. Skinner (2010) suggested that certain qualities are requisite for leading today's institutions of higher education, such as strategic resource management, accountability, entrepreneurship, collaboration, change management, globalization, and board relations. Increasingly, accomplished executives from outside higher education are appointed to presidencies because they have proven themselves to be capable of leading complex organizations (ACE, 2012). Birnbaum and Umbach (2001) observed that these individuals often first enter higher education as college presidents from business, military, politics, or some other non-academic position without any prior experience working at a college or university.

The percentage of all presidents from outside higher education has fluctuated over the past decade from 15 percent in 2001, to 13 percent in 2006, to 20 percent in 2011 (ACE, 2012). Eleven percent of all presidents included in the 2011 ACPS survey came from immediate prior positions outside higher education (ACE, 2012) compared to 15 percent at independent institutions (Song & Hartley, 2012). Song and Hartley (2012)

observed that 89 percent of presidents at independent institutions held prior executive leadership positions outside higher education at some point in their career. Of these presidents, 10 percent had career patterns that moved in and out of higher education, and 14 percent reported that their career paths were entirely, or almost entirely, outside higher education. In 2006 and 2011, the percentage of all first-time presidents assuming office from outside higher education remained virtually unchanged at 10 and 11 percent, respectively (ACE, 2012). Twenty-eight percent of private college and university presidents appointed in 2011 came from outside higher education, compared with 14 percent of all public presidential appointments, suggesting that private institutions are more likely than their counterparts to hire presidents with executive experience outside higher education. ACE (2012) also noted that 48 percent of all presidents have some work experience outside higher education, which is comparable to recently hired presidents at 50 percent.

Presidents at independent institutions appointed from outside higher education were shown to have come from a more diverse career background than presidents at other institutional types (Song & Hartley, 2012). Although Song and Hartley (2012) noted that these presidents reported being less prepared for many of the responsibilities associated with the office, 81.6 percent reported being “very satisfied” in their role, which was highest among all presidents.

Presidential turnover has created concerns for the stability of institutions. As presidential candidates and appointments increasingly come from a broad range of career paths inside and outside higher education, additional emphasis needs to be placed on the

preparation of new presidents, particularly those who are entering presidencies from outside higher education (Smerek, 2013; Song & Hartley, 2012).

Preparation for the Presidency

Higher education researchers have raised questions and expressed concern regarding the preparation of future candidates for college and university presidencies (Perrakis et al., 2013). Travis and Price (2013) asserted that preparation for the presidency is critical to job satisfaction and longevity in the position. Unfortunately, many new presidents with prior academic administrative experience, including CAOs, are unprepared for their new role as president, suggesting that the academic pathway does not prepare faculty for administration (Dennison, 2001; Risacher, 2004; Travis & Price, 2013). Travis and Price (2013) argued that, despite experiences gained in academic administrative roles, some new presidents are “totally unprepared for the rude awakening they experience when they are thrust into the presidency” (p. 3).

In many cases, candidates have prepared for the presidency through experiences acquired in the academy, or through a doctoral program designed to prepare individuals for careers in higher education leadership (Birnbaum & Umbach, 2001; Freeman & Kochan, 2012; Travis & Price, 2013). Those candidates who have been exposed to both experiences are deemed to be better prepared for the role of president (Birnbaum & Umbach, 2001; Travis & Price, 2013).

Senior administrative careers in academe are not necessarily predicated on a career that began with, or included, a faculty appointment, but likely included equivalent graduate education and training (Freeman & Kochan, 2012; Moore et al., 1983; Wessel & Keim, 1994; Whittier, 2008). According to Wessel and Keim (1994), 91 percent of

college and university presidents have earned a doctorate as their highest degree. While no advanced degree guarantees a linear career path to a presidency, Freeman and Kochan (2012) and ACE (2012) noted that roughly 40 percent of all presidents held a doctorate in either higher education or education. When controlling for institutional type, 71.2 percent of presidents at independent institutions have earned doctorates (Ph.D. or Ed.D.); 31 percent of those doctorates were in education or higher education (Song & Hartley, 2012).

Graduate degrees, according to Freeman and Kochan (2012), are significant to individuals in their preparation and development as future academic leaders, and also provide trustees and institutions with a level of confidence that candidates for senior administrative positions, such as the presidency, understand and respect the values of academe. In the past decade, doctoral programs at the Universities of Georgia, Pennsylvania, Alabama, and Jackson State have been developed specifically to train and educate prospective senior administrators and future presidents. Although Freeman and Kochan (2012) noted that there is little research on the value of such programs in preparing one for a university presidency, those students graduating with doctorates in higher education in recent years have been appointed to upper-level administrative positions, including presidencies, more frequently than was evident in prior years. Freeman and Kochan (2012) suggested that additional studies on other institutional types, such as for-profits, community colleges, and liberal arts institutions would be relevant to find out whether graduate- and doctorate-level degree programs in higher education are adequately preparing administrators to be college presidents.

New presidents at independent institutions reported being unprepared for many job requirements, such as technology planning (45%), risk management/legal issues (37%), fundraising (30%), entrepreneurial ventures (29%), and athletics (29%) at a higher rate than their counterparts at other institutional types (Appendix F). These presidents also reported the highest degree of job satisfaction, while being younger and serving longer terms in office than their counterparts at other institutional types. As the demands placed upon college presidents continue to increase in breadth and complexity, Travis and Price (2013) and Perrakis et al. (2011) recommended that additional studies on presidential career paths, job satisfaction, and the relationship between the two may have practical implications for the preparation and selection of future college presidents. Song and Hartley (2012) recommended that independent institutions and organizations, such as ACE, AGB, and CIC develop programs to prepare aspiring leaders for the presidency, with attention to technology planning, risk management and legal issues, enrollment management, fundraising, board relations, and fiscal management. Better presidential preparation will lead to higher levels of job satisfaction, which may lead to longer tenure in office, providing increased institutional stability (Dennison, 2001; Moore, 1983; Travis & Price, 2013).

Discussion and Implications

The college presidency in the United States is expected to undergo significant turnover in the next five to ten years across all institutional types due to aging of presidents and shorter terms served in office (ACE, 2012; King & Gomez, 2008; Song & Hartley, 2012). Compounding the issue is the perspective that fewer individuals are “qualified, interested, or prepared” to assume a presidency (Perrakis, et al., 2011).

Candidates from the traditional pathway, such as CAOs, provosts, and faculty are less interested in pursuing presidencies and, as many researchers have argued, unprepared for the post, suggesting that presidents from traditional and non-traditional backgrounds inside and outside of higher education should be included in the search process. Such inclusion will also increase the gender and ethnic diversity of candidates considered for presidencies at institutions where, historically, they may not have been considered (ACE, 2012; Birnbaum & Umbach, 2001; King & Gomez, 2008; Song & Hartley, 2012).

Implications for practice. Presidential searches and appointments that seek a high degree of alignment between the needs of the institution and the qualification and experience of the candidate will result in searches that extend beyond the traditional search patterns (ACE, 2012; Baldrige et al., 1977; Birnbaum & Umbach, 2001; Chaffee, 1987; Fleming, 2010; Hartley & Godin, 2009; Masland, 1985; Moore et al., 1983; Peterson & Spencer, 1990; Skinner, 2010; Song & Hartley, 2012; Travis & Price, 2013). Understanding the traditional and non-traditional career patterns of candidates will increase the likelihood that search firms, committees, and trustees will also consider the skills and experiences of those from outside of traditional academic pathways to ensure preparation, satisfaction, and longer tenure in office, which may lead to greater institutional stability (Travis & Price, 2013).

Implications for future research. Although the college presidency is one of the most widely researched areas of higher education, extant literature on preparation and pathways to the presidency is limited. Birnbaum and Umbach (2001) pointed out that relatively little is known about career paths that lead to presidencies, which suggested a gap in the existing research on college presidents. The authors argued that knowing more

about career paths to the college presidency is important so that all institutional types will consider a broader range of candidates from a variety of backgrounds and career paths to give institutions an opportunity to identify candidates who are good matches for their campus at the time of the search (Birnbaum & Umbach, 2001). While career paths do not ensure job satisfaction, researchers have suggested a possible correlation between preparation for the presidency and job satisfaction (Travis & Price, 2013), which may influence tenure in office and institutional stability.

Several themes found in the present review of literature, such as career paths, preparation, job satisfaction, years spent in office, age, gender, race, highest degree earned, field of study, and institutional type provide a variety of opportunities for future research. All of these thematic elements are integrated into the experiences of independent college presidents, who reported lower levels of preparation, higher job satisfaction, longer tenure, were younger than other presidents, were most likely to be hired from outside of the institution, and were hired from outside higher education at a higher rate than at public institutions (Song & Hartley, 2012).

Moore et al. (1983) suggested that additional analysis of career patterns and pathways to the presidency using variables such as institutional type would produce more focused and detailed data regarding pathways to the presidency. Travis and Price (2013) and Perrakis et al. (2011) recommended that additional studies on presidential career paths, job satisfaction, and the relationship between the two may have practical implications for the preparation and selection of future college presidents.

As independent institutions prepare for the most significant presidential turnover among all institutional types in the next five years, the present study represents a research

priority for higher education stakeholders to further understand the relationship between career paths, preparation, job satisfaction, and the number of years spent in office by FTPs at independent institutions.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN

Conceptual Perspectives

In the previous chapters, an introduction and literature review for the proposed research topic were presented. Within the introduction, the problem statement and purpose for the research were discussed. The conceptual perspectives for the present study, below, were predicated on the review of literature, which identified two independent variables that were recommended for future research: 1) career paths and; 2) preparation for the college presidency, both of which were considered to be significant in understanding the Phase I dependent variable, job satisfaction of FTPs at four-year independent institutions (Y_1) for Phase I of this study (Travis & Price, 2013). The literature review also identified a need to further understand the relationship between three independent variables, career paths, preparation, and overall job satisfaction on an alternate dependent variable (Y_2), the number of years FTPs at four-year independent institutions spent in office.

The college presidency, according to Perrakis et al. (2011), is one of the most widely researched administrative roles in the United States (p. 57). Higher education research on the college presidency has primarily focused on incumbent, established, and former presidents through studies on leadership, cognition, challenges, and job satisfaction (Birnbaum & Umbach, 2001). Of the extant literature on college presidents,

relatively little research examines the career pathways leading to the presidency (Birnbaum & Umbach, 2001; Moore et al., 1983; Travis & Price, 2013).

Intermittent studies on career paths of college presidents over the past 40 years have produced hierarchical conceptual models for pathways to the presidency and variations of those trajectories (see Appendices A, B, C, D & E) (Birnbaum & Umbach, 2001; Cohen & March, 1974; Moore et al., 1983; Wessel & Keim, 1994). Within these models emerged two overarching pathways to the presidency: 1) academic and; 2) non-academic. Variations within each of these career pathways were also found to exist: a) CAO/provost; b) faculty; c) non-academic administrator, and; d) outside higher education. These models are hierarchical in nature and do not consider preparation and job satisfaction (Moore et al., 1983).

Data on career paths, preparation for the presidency, job satisfaction, and years spent in office have been collected by ACE since 1986 through the American College President Survey (ACPS) (see Appendix H). As noted by Travis and Price (2013), no study has been conducted on the relationship between these variables to understand the degree to which career paths and preparation are correlated with job satisfaction of presidents, and how job satisfaction is related to time in office. The proposed study will endeavor to fill this gap in extant research through an examination of the relationship between career paths, preparation, job satisfaction, and years spent in office by FTPs at four-year independent institutions.

Research Design

A quantitative research design will be used to analyze the independent and dependent variables included in this study to answer the research questions for each

phase of the study and to reject or fail to reject the null hypotheses. In this section, the research design will outline three critical steps in the overall research process: 1) data collection; 2) data analysis and interpretation, and; 3) presentation of findings (Creswell, 2008).

Data Collection

The present study relied solely on an existing cross-sectional data set collected by the 2011 ACPS on trends in the American college presidency, and reported in *The American College President* (ACE, 2012). ACE collected these data using an online survey instrument (ACPS) that was sent to 3,318 presidents across all institutional sectors. Half (1,662) of the target population responded to the ACE survey instrument. Data used in the present study included only individuals who were college presidents at the time of the 2011 ACPS. No additional data were collected from outside sources.

ACE agreed to provide the researcher with those data from the 2012 ACE report on the American college president, which informed the present study. The 2011 ACPS instrument was included in the present study with the permission of ACE. The ACPS instrument can be obtained publicly through ACE by ordering the 2012 *American College Presidency* report. Any and all data from ACPS respondents that could be considered an identifying variable, such as presidents' names, state, region, and institutional religious affiliation were scrubbed from the data set by ACE prior to those data being made available to the researcher. Those data collected by ACE included each of the variables identified in the conceptual perspectives that align with the purpose and significance of this study: career paths, preparation, job satisfaction, and years served in office by FTPs at four-year independent institutions.

Trustworthiness of the data source. The source of those data for this study, the American Council on Education (ACE), has been in existence since 1918, and is widely recognized as the most comprehensive and current source of data on demographics and trends on the American college presidency (ACE, 2012; Song & Hartley, 2012). Since 1986, ACE has collected demographic, educational, and professional background data from college and university presidents, which have been used to generate a series of reports on trends in the American college presidency. These reports are typically published every five or six years. The most recent of these reports, *The American College President*, was published in 2012 using those data collected by the ACPS in 2011. These same data have also been used by the Council of Independent Colleges (CIC) to produce a report focused exclusively on presidential trends in the 640 CIC member institutions included in the 2012 ACE report on the American college president. CIC membership is open to two- and four-year institutions, however, not all independent institutions are members. The population (n=472) for the present study is first-time presidents of four-year independent institutions, which are not necessarily CIC member institutions. Not all presidents at the 640 CIC institutions are FTPs and, therefore, were not included in this study.

Description of Population Sampling Plan

The 2012 ACE data and associated report on trends in the American college presidency included responses from 1,662 college and university presidents from across all institutional sectors who were presidents at the time of the 2011 ACPS. The sample population (n=472) for the present study, FTPs at four-year independent institutions, was selected from the population of 710 independent college presidents who responded to the

ACPS. The 2012 ACE report included data on 472 FTPs at independent four-year institutions, which was the sample population relevant to this study and understanding which variable(s) were most closely correlated with job satisfaction (Y_1) and years FTPs spent in office (Y_2). Using ACE data reported by FTPs at four-year independent institutions, the present study extracted this segment of presidents from ACPS respondents as the population for the proposed study.

Sampling method. Because of the pre-existing nature of the data set proposed for use in this study, a random sampling method was not used. The researcher did not collect new data for this study. Respondents to ACPS (see Appendix H) were asked to identify themselves within one of three position titles: 1) President/CEO/Chancellor; 2) Senior Executive/Provost/Dean, or; 3) Other (please specify). Respondents who identified in the “other” category, were asked to specify their title. Only those respondents identified in the “President/CEO/Chancellor” category were included in the sample population for this study.

Sample size. The sample size ($n=472$) for this study was determined by the total number of respondents to the 2011 ACPS who reported being first-time presidents, inclusive of CEOs and chancellors, at four-year independent institutions. It was expected that by including these 472 respondents in the present study that the data analysis would have included an appropriate number of responses in terms of FTPs, career paths, levels of preparation, job satisfaction, and time in office, which would provide enough degrees of freedom, give the study credibility, and an ability to generalize its findings to a larger population.

Limitations of data. One of the concerns with those data collected by ACE was the verification of respondents to the survey instrument and, therefore, the reliability of responses provided. In some cases, presidents may have delegated responsibility for survey response to a senior executive within the President's Office or a member of the Cabinet, such as a Chief of Staff, Provost, or Vice Chancellor. In this situation it may be unclear to researchers whether or not each president then reviewed the responses before they were submitted, which had the potential to skew the results of the survey. A second limitation of those data used in the present study was the response rate (50%) of presidents to the 2011 ACPS. ACE (2012) noted that their survey was "not a statistical sample and thus may not reflect the results achievable if all presidents had reported" (p. 2). Based on those ACPS data provided to the researcher by ACE, it was not possible to discern whether or not non-respondents had left their positions prior to the dissemination of the 2011 ACPS.

The ACE report noted that a high percentage (98.5%) of FTPs at independent institutions reported their level of overall job satisfaction as being "very satisfied" or "somewhat satisfied". This finding suggested virtually no variation in overall job satisfaction as the dependent variable, which may be explained by a reluctance of presidents to report being "not very satisfied" or "dissatisfied" in their current position. Data on these presidents may have the potential to identify and understand a population of presidents who were "not very satisfied" or "dissatisfied" in the role.

A third limitation of the ACE data was error in sampling. Errors in the statistical analysis could exist based on the unrepresentative nature of the response population in relationship to the entire population of college presidents. Errors in the statistical analysis

could also exist due to differences in respondents who did and did not respond to the ACE survey instrument.

Addressing limitations of data. ACE confirmed that all 1,662 ACPS respondents self-identified as president, CEO, or chancellor at the time of the survey. Within this population, 472 respondents reported being FTPs at four-year independent institutions, which provided the study with enough degrees of freedom to establish the number of scores from the population that are both independent and free to vary because the mean restricts sample variability (Creswell, 2008). With consideration for the lack of variation in the first dependent variable, job satisfaction (Y_1), the researcher also conducted a second quantitative analysis within the current study using “years in current position” as the alternate dependent variable (Y_2). In both cases, these dependent variables were consistent with those variables recommended for future research in the review of literature that informed the current study.

Organization of Data for Analyses

Those data collected on the American college president by ACE (2012) were provided to the researcher in various forms, including categorical, continuous, and dichotomous. The researcher organized these data based on variable type (i.e., Y, X, or Moderating), reformatted continuous and categorical data into a dichotomous format for analysis, and used a factor score to represent X_2 .

TABLE 2.

Coding of Phase I Variables

Variables	Collected As:	Analyzed As:	Dichotomous	
Dependent Variable			1 =	0 =
Y ₁ : Overall job satisfaction	Categorical	Dichotomous	Very satisfied	Other

Independent Variables	Collected As:	Analyzed As:	1 =	0 =
X ₁ : Career path	Categorical	Dichotomous	Traditional	Other
X ₂ : Preparation	Factor score	Continuous	n/a	n/a

Moderating Variables	Collected As:	Analyzed As:	1 =	0 =
Age	Continuous	Dichotomous	≥60 years	Other
Gender	Categorical	Dichotomous	Female	Other
Race	Categorical	Dichotomous	White	Other
Highest degree earned	Categorical	Dichotomous	Doctorate	Other
Major field of study	Categorical	Dichotomous	Humanities	Other
Size of current institution	Categorical	Dichotomous	<5,000 students	Other

TABLE 3.

Coding of Phase II Variables

Variables	Collected As:	Analyzed As:	Dichotomous	
Dependent Variable			1 =	0 =
Y ₂ : Years in current position	Continuous	Continuous	n/a	n/a

Independent Variables	Collected As:	Analyzed As:	1 =	0 =
X ₁ : Career path	Categorical	Dichotomous	Traditional	Other
X ₂ : Preparation	Factor score	Continuous	n/a	n/a
Y ₁ : Overall job satisfaction	Categorical	Dichotomous	Very satisfied	Other

Moderating Variables	Collected As:	Analyzed As:	1 =	0 =
Age	Continuous	Dichotomous	≥60 years	Other
Gender	Categorical	Dichotomous	Female	Other
Race	Categorical	Dichotomous	White	Other
Highest degree earned	Categorical	Dichotomous	Doctorate	Other
Major field of study	Categorical	Dichotomous	Humanities	Other
Size of current institution	Categorical	Dichotomous	<5,000 students	Other

Dependent Variables

Data on each of the two dependent variables, job satisfaction (Y_1) and years in office (Y_2), were collected by the 2011 American College President Survey (ACPS). Respondents were asked to rate their overall level of satisfaction (Y_1) in their current position as president. Four rating options were available to respondents: 1) very satisfied; 2) somewhat satisfied; 3) not very satisfied, and; 4) dissatisfied. Data on years in current position were collected by asking respondents how long they had served in their current position. Responses were reported by the actual number of years, and were also inventoried by proxy, providing ranges of the number of years served by FTPs in their current position.

Y_1 : Overall job satisfaction. The dependent variable (Y_1) for Phase I of the current study was job satisfaction of FTPs at four-year independent institutions. Overall satisfaction ratings based on 2011 ACPS responses ($n=472$) were used to categorize levels of job satisfaction. ACPS asked respondents to rate their overall level of satisfaction in their current position. The 2011 ACPS provided four categorical options from which respondents could choose to best describe their level of job satisfaction as president/CEO: 1) very satisfied; 2) somewhat satisfied; 3) not very satisfied, and; 4) dissatisfied. Overall, 98.5 percent of FTP respondents ($n=465$) reported being either “very satisfied” or “somewhat satisfied” in their position as president. Eighty (16.9%) respondents reported being “somewhat satisfied”, while 385 (81.6%) reported being “very satisfied”. Only two (<1.00%) respondents reported that they were “not very satisfied”. No respondents reported being “dissatisfied” with their position as president/CEO. Five ACPS respondents did not respond to this question.

Based on the lack of variation in this variable, ACPS responses were converted into a dichotomous numerical format (i.e., 1=very satisfied or 0=other) for analyses. The mean of the population for overall job satisfaction was 0.816, which indicated that 81.6 percent of respondents were very satisfied with their current position. The standard deviation for Y_1 was 0.388 above the mean of the population.

Y₂: Years in current position. According to Travis and Price (2013), time in office is a significant variable for presidential effectiveness and the ability to establish and realize agendas and goals, while also impacting the effectiveness of governance. The average presidency at a single institution has decreased across all institutional types from 8.5 years in 2006 to seven years in 2011, signifying an increase in the rate of turnover in the presidency. Travis and Price (2013) asserted that seven years in office is not enough time to allow a president to be effective in their position, suggesting that efforts to increase presidential tenure are important to institutional stability.

ACPS collected continuous data on the number of years respondents had spent in their current role. According to ACE (2012), the number of years that FTPs have spent in their current positions ranged from less than one year to 35 years, averaging 7.1 years. The median for Y_2 was 6.00 years in office, while the standard deviation was 6.47 above the mean of the population. Six and one-half percent of respondents had been in office for less than one year; 9.9 % for one year; 9.3% for 2 years; 6.7% for 3 years; 14.7% for 4 years; 26.6% from 6-10 years; 17.1% from 11-15 years; 2.8% from 16-20 years; 5.2% for 21-plus years; <1.00% of respondents did not report the number of years spent in their current position.

Independent Variables

The present study included three independent variables: 1) career paths (X_1); 2) preparation (X_2), and; 3) overall job satisfaction (Y_1). Phase I of this study used X_1 and X_2 , while Phase II included X_1 , X_2 , and Y_1 .

X_1 : Career paths of FTPs. Career paths leading to a presidency vary for each new presidential appointment, and include a breadth of professional and educational experiences (ACE, 2012; King & Gomez, 2008; Moore et al., 1983; Song & Hartley, 2012). Four different studies (Birnbaum & Umbach, 2001; Cohen & March, 1974; Moore et al., 1983; Wessel & Keim, 1994) suggested that pathways to the presidency can be classified into two major categories: 1) traditional (normative or academic) or; 2) non-traditional (administrative). Within these major categories, first-time presidents are appointed from one of four secondary pathways: 1) CAO or provost; 2) faculty; 3) non-academic officer, or; 4) outside higher education (Birnbaum & Umbach, 2001; Cohen & March, 1974; Moore et al., 1983; Wessel & Keim, 1994). More recent survey data collected and analyzed by ACE (2012) and Song and Hartley (2012), suggested that these four secondary pathways continue to be representative of the career paths taken prior to assuming a college presidency.

Data on career paths were collected through the 2011 ACPS to develop an inventory of career paths that FTPs at four-year independent institutions followed prior to their current appointment. To control for multiple positions and movement in and out of higher education, respondents were asked to select from categorical options that “most accurately describes (their) career progression as an administrator” (ACE, 2012, p. 54). Specifically, ACPS survey questions 14 and 16 (see Appendix H) captured data on

president's prior position and career paths, both within and outside of higher education. Options provided to respondents regarding their prior positions and career paths were aligned with the traditional and non-traditional career pathways (i.e., CAO, faculty, non-academic administrator, or outside higher education) identified in the review of literature for this study. These categorical career path data were converted to a dichotomous numerical format (i.e., 1=inside higher education or 0=other) for analyses. Career path summary statistics from the 2011 ACPS (see Table 4, below) yielded a minimum to maximum range of 0.00 to 1.00, respectively, with a mean of 0.727, which indicated that 72.7% of respondents reported career paths that were inside higher education. The median for this variable was 1.00, and the standard deviation was 0.446 above the mean of the population.

X2: Preparation of FTPs. Higher education researchers have raised questions and expressed concern regarding the preparation of future candidates for college and university presidencies (Perrakis et al., 2013). Travis and Price (2013) asserted that preparation for the presidency is critical to job satisfaction and longevity in the position. Unfortunately, many new presidents with prior academic administrative experience, including CAOs, are unprepared for their new role as president, suggesting that the academic pathway does not prepare faculty for administration (Dennison, 2001; Risacher, 2004; Travis & Price, 2013).

To understand how well FTPs thought they were prepared for their current position, ACPS respondents were asked to rate themselves on twenty areas in which they felt insufficiently prepared upon their appointment (see Appendix F). Respondents were asked to select all options that applied. Based on the number of response options (20)

used in ACPS data collection for this variable, it was necessary to consolidate those responses based on their relationships and influence on one another to reduce the number of “components” that comprise “preparation”. To accomplish this goal, a Principle Component Analysis (PCA), or factor analysis, was used. Using Gretl software, the twenty components that comprise X_2 were converted to a factor score, which provided a single variable representative of “preparation”, which was then analyzed as a continuous variable in the Phase I and Phase II analyses. Preparation summary statistics from the 2011 ACPS (see Table 4, below) yielded a minimum to maximum range of -2.020 to 8.972, respectively, with a mean of 1.402e-017. The median for this variable was -0.579, while the standard deviation was 2.064 above the mean of the population.

Moderating Variables

Moderating variables were used to answer research question three in Phase I and research question five in Phase II. These variables were selected for inclusion in the present study based on recommendations for future research in the review of literature that informed the present study. Variables recommended for future research included in this study were gender, age, race, highest degree earned, major field of study for highest degree earned, and institutional size. These variables are individually and collectively aligned with the concept of ensuring that presidential searches consider candidates from traditional and non-traditional backgrounds to ensure the best fit for the institution at the time of appointment.

Gender. Gender data were converted by the researcher into a dichotomous numerical format (i.e., 1=female or 0=other) for analyses. Of the 472 respondents included in this study there were 356 males (75.4%) and 110 females (23.3%). Six (1.3%)

respondents did not report their gender. The mean for this variable was 0.233, while the standard deviation was 0.499 above the mean for this population.

Age. Age data were reported as continuous numerical responses. Those responses were converted to a dichotomous numerical format (i.e., 1= ≥ 60 years of age or 0=other) for analyses. The reported ages of FTPs ranged from 33 to 79 years old, with a mean age of 59.88 and a median age of 60.00. The standard deviation for this variable was 7.33 above the mean of the population. Female presidents reported ages ranging from 43 to 78. Male presidents reported ages ranging from 33 to 79. Of the 472 ACPS respondents, eight (four females and four males) did not report their age. Of those presidents who reported their ages, females were slightly older (60.16) than their male counterparts (59.62). Overall, 5.3 percent (25) of FTPs at independent institutions were categorized in the 71+ age bracket; 40.1 percent (193) were classified in the 61-70 range; 40.1 percent (192) were classified in the 51-60 range; 11.0 percent (52) were classified in the 41-50 range; and <1.00 percent (2) were in the 31-40 range. As noted above, eight (1.7%) ACPS respondents did not report their age, so these respondents could not be categorized here.

Race. Data on race were collected as categorical responses. Those responses were converted to a dichotomous numerical format (i.e., 1=white or 0=other) for analyses. The mean for this variable was 0.909, indicating that 91 percent (429) of FTPs at four-year independent institutions were white. Of the 472 ACPS respondents, thirty-seven (7.8%) self-reported as minorities, while six (1.3%) respondents' minority status was recorded as "Unknown". The thirty-seven minority presidents identified their race as one of the following: American Indian (2; <1%); Asian (6; 1.3%); African American (19;

4.0%); Hispanic (9; 1.9%); Multi-race (1; <1%). Of the 110 female respondents, ten (9.0%) self-identified as minorities and reported their race as African-American (7), Asian (1), or Hispanic (2). Out of 356 male respondents, twenty-seven (7.6%) self-identified as minorities and reported their race as one of the following: American Indian (2), Asian (5), African-American (12), Hispanic (7), or Multi-racial (1).

Highest degree earned. Preparation for career progression and for the college presidency often includes a terminal degree, which is most often a doctorate (Freeman & Kochan, 2012). Data on this variable were converted to, and analyzed, in a dichotomous numerical format (i.e., 1=doctorate or 0=other). The mean for the population that reported holding a doctorate was 0.712, which indicated that 71.2 percent of FTPs at four-year independent institutions have earned a doctorate. The median for this variable was 1.00, and the standard deviation was 0.453 above the mean of the population. Of the 472 FTPs at independent institutions, 285 (60.38%) reported a Ph.D. as their highest degree earned compared to 51 respondents (10.80%) who reported an Ed.D. as their highest degree earned.

Of those ACPS respondents who did not report having earned a doctorate, respondents reported their highest degree earned as one of the following: Doctor of Medicine (M.D.) (4; <1.00%); other health-related degree (i.e., DDS, DVM) (13; 2.75%); Law (e.g., JD, LLB, LLD, JSD) (29; 6.14%); other (i.e., theology, doctor of ministry, master of divinity) (4; <1.00%). Thirty-seven (7.84%) respondents reported “other” (i.e., theology, doctor of ministry, master of divinity) as the highest degree earned. Ten (2.11%) respondents reported having an MBA as their highest degree, while another 31 (6.57%) held masters degrees other than an MBA as their highest degree. It is important

to note that, according to ACE (2012), eight (1.7%) respondents reported a bachelor's degree as the highest degree held.

Major field of study. Monks (2012) noted that one of the most statistically significant variables that factored into a president's likelihood to leave office was the discipline in which they earned their terminal degree. Presidents with backgrounds in the social sciences or business are more likely to leave office based on demand for expertise in these areas outside of the academy. Those presidents with education degrees may have fewer employment alternatives outside higher education.

Data on FTPs' major field of study for the highest degree earned were collected as categorical responses. Those responses were converted to a dichotomous numerical format (i.e., 1=humanities or 0=other) for analyses. The mean for this variable was 0.208, which indicated that 20.8 percent of FTPs at four-year independent institutions held degrees in the humanities as their highest degree earned. The median for this variable was 0.00; the standard deviation for this variable was 0.408 above the mean of the population.

Size of institution. Presidents at smaller colleges, according to Dennison (2001), may be in better position to introduce and implement their vision and agenda, due to fewer competing interests than their university counterparts. Data on the size of the independent institutions where FTPs served at the time of data collection (2011) was collected as categorical and converted to a dichotomous numerical format (1=<5,000 students or 0=other) for analyses. The median for this variable was 1.00, with a mean of 0.873, which indicated that 87.3 percent of FTPs at four-year independent institutions had

enrollments of <5,000. The standard deviation for size of institution was 0.333 above the mean of the population.

Data Analyses

To test the null hypothesis and answer the research questions that guided each phase of this study, the researcher expected that the proposed quantitative correlational research design would accomplish three objectives: 1) display outputs/scores; 2) associations between scores, and; 3) multiple variable analyses (Creswell, 2008). Three types of analytical processes were proposed to achieve the objectives of the study and the research design: 1) statistical summaries; 2) correlation matrices, and; 3) ordinary least squares (OLS). Statistical summaries will provided a snapshot of each of the variables included in the analysis to provide the researcher with key metrics, such as mean, median, range, and standard deviation. The correlation matrices will provide associations between individual variables, inclusive of strength (i.e., R^2 , p-value, t-ratio, etc.) and directionality (i.e., \geq or \leq). The OLS models will perform multiple bivariate and multivariate regressions, which tested the influence of multiple variables on the dependent variable in each phase of the study. To reject or fail to reject the null, the results will be reported at a conventional minimum significance level of $p=0.05$, and at a conventional t-ratio of $> \pm 1.96$ standard deviations from the mean of the population. Based on the results of these analyses, the researcher expects that the statistical strength of the relationship between the independent variables, career paths (X_1), preparation (X_2), and job satisfaction (Y_1) and the dependent variables, job satisfaction (Y_1) and years spent in current position (Y_2) could be estimated, interpreted, and discussed to answer each of the research questions that guided each phase of the current study.

Those data analyzed in this study will be presented in the following chapter in a series of tables illustrating the range of those variables analyzed, the statistical strength of the relationship between the individual and dependent variables, and the directionality of those relationships. Correlation matrices and OLS models will be used to illustrate and summarize the relationships between variables. Plain language descriptive analyses will be included to explain, or interpret, the data and outputs from the statistical summaries, the correlation matrices, and the OLS models.

Correlational analyses will be displayed and interpreted for both an explanatory and a prediction design. This approach was proposed to further understand the correlation between the variables, and to incorporate a level of utility for the findings, inclusive of predicting which variables were most likely to result in job satisfaction or longer terms in office for FTPs at four-year independent institutions.

Conclusions for Research Design

The choice of a quantitative correlational research design is expected to be effective as the use of summary statistics, correlation matrices, and OLS will allow the researcher to determine the strength and correlation between the independent variables, career paths, preparation, and job satisfaction and the dependent variables, job satisfaction and years in office. Individually, and in combination, the outputs from the three quantitative analytical models used in this study are expected to produce results that will either reject or fail to reject the null hypothesis, and provide findings necessary to answer the research questions that guided each phase of this study.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSES AND INTERPRETATION

Methodology

A quantitative research methodology was used to analyze the dependent, independent, and moderating variables selected for the present study to reject or fail to reject the null hypothesis and to answer the research questions that guided each phase of this study. Gretl analytical software was used to generate three statistical outputs to accomplish these objectives: 1) summary statistics; 2) correlation matrices, and; 3) ordinary least squares (OLS). Those data included in this study were treated as cross-sectional, and not longitudinal, since the study was only interested in “point-in-time” results, and not in changes over periods of time.

The overall level of reported job satisfaction from the 2011 ACPS was used as the dependent variable (Y_1) in Phase I of the study, while career paths (X_1) and preparation (X_2) were used as the independent variables. In Phase II of the present study, years in current position (Y_2) was used as the dependent variable. In addition to X_1 and X_2 , job satisfaction (Y_1) was included as a third independent variable in Phase II. Additional moderating variables (i.e., gender, race, age, highest degree earned, major field of study, and institution size) were also used to avoid omission bias and understand the influence of variables other than the independent variables on overall job satisfaction (Y_1) and years in current position (Y_2).

Data Analyses

Summary statistics, correlation matrices, and OLS calculations presented in this section were intended to determine the statistical strength and relationship between the independent and the dependent variables included in each phase of the study. An analysis of those quantitative outputs is presented following each table. The OLS analyses were used to calculate R^2 to determine what percentage of Y_1 and Y_2 can be explained by the regressors and calculate t-ratios and p-values to reject or fail to reject the null hypothesis for this study. All dependent, independent, and moderating variables included in Phase I and Phase II of this study were selected based on their recommendation for future research in the review of literature that informed this study.

According to those ACPS data collected by ACE (2011), the average first-time president at a four-year independent institution in the United States is a white male, aged 60, married, Christian, holds a doctorate in a non-humanities field, and works at an institution with 5,000 or fewer students. FTPs, on average, have served in their current position for 7.1 years, with 43.9 percent planning on leaving their current position within the next five years. Of those planning to step down, only 20.8 percent plan on pursuing a subsequent presidency. Most ACPS respondents (72.8%) have spent their professional careers entirely inside of higher education, and 98.5 percent are either very satisfied or somewhat satisfied in their current position.

Summary Statistics

Summary statistics for all dependent, independent, and moderating variables for both Phase I and Phase II of the current study are presented in Table 4, below.

TABLE 4.

Summary Statistics: Dependent, Independent, and Moderating Variables

Variables	Summary Statistics				
Dependent Variables	S.D.	Mean	Median	Minimum	Maximum
Y ₁ : Very satisfied	0.388	0.816	1.000	0.000	1.000
*Y ₂ : Years in current position	6.467	7.110	6.000	0.000	35.000

Independent Variables	S.D.	Mean	Median	Minimum	Maximum
X ₁ : Traditional	0.446	0.727	1.000	0.000	1.000
*X ₂ : Preparation	2.064	1.402e-017	-0.579	-2.020	8.972
Y ₁ : Very satisfied	0.388	0.816	1.000	0.000	1.000

Moderating Variables	S.D.	Mean	Median	Minimum	Maximum
≥60 years	7.326	59.877	60.000	33.000	79.000
Female	0.499	0.233	0.000	0.000	1.000
White	0.288	0.909	1.000	0.000	1.000
Doctorate	0.453	0.712	1.000	0.000	1.000
Humanities	0.408	0.208	0.000	0.000	1.000
<5,000 students	0.333	0.873	1.000	0.000	1.000

*Denotes a continuous variable

Phase I: overall job satisfaction (Y₁). Phase I of this study examined the relationship between career paths (X₁) and preparation for a college presidency (X₂) on the overall job satisfaction (Y₁) of FTPs at four-year independent institutions. It is reasonable to infer that the higher the level of preparation for a position, the higher the level of job satisfaction. Counter to this inference, presidents at independent institutions reported a lower level of preparation for the presidency, yet indicated a higher level of job satisfaction than their counterparts at other institutional types (Hartley & Godin, 2009). The hypothesis and null hypothesis for Phase I of the present study are restated below:

Hypothesis (H_A): Job satisfaction of FTPs will vary significantly based on the reported levels of preparation from FTPs in each of the four pathways to the college presidency at four-year independent institutions.

Null Hypothesis (H₀): Job satisfaction of FTPs will not vary significantly based on the reported levels of preparation from FTPs in each of the four pathways to the college presidency at four-year independent institutions.

The present study represents a research priority for higher education stakeholders to further understand the relationship between career paths, preparation, and job satisfaction of FTPs at independent institutions. To test the author's inference/hypothesis the present study was guided by four research questions:

1. To what degree do career paths affect the likelihood of FTPs being satisfied with their role?
2. To what degree does preparation affect the likelihood of FTPs being satisfied with their role?
3. To what degree do traditional career paths and preparation affect the likelihood of FTPs being satisfied with their role?
4. What additional factors affect the likelihood of FTPs being satisfied with their role?

Phase I of this study used two independent variables to test the hypothesis to reject or fail to reject the null hypothesis: 1) career paths (X_1) and; 2) preparation (X_2) for a college or university presidency. Those variables included in Phase I (see Table 2) were selected for analysis based on recommendations for inclusion in future research in the review of literature that informed this study.

Correlation Matrices

The research design for the present study used correlation matrices to present correlation coefficients of the dependent, independent, and moderating variables included in each phase of the study. Correlation Matrices 1-3, below, were used to identify the directionality and the degree and strength of association between each Phase I variable.

TABLE 5.

Correlation Matrix 1

corr (Y_1 = Very Satisfied; X_1 = Traditional) = 0.003
 Under the null hypothesis of no correlation: $t(470) = 0.059$, with two-tailed p-value 0.953

Correlation Matrix 1 indicated no statistically significant correlation between X_1 and Y_1 . When this correlation coefficient was expressed as a coefficient of determination (0.000), X_1 explained <1.00 percent of Y_1 , which was statistically insignificant. The t-ratio was 0.059 standard deviations above the mean of the population, failing to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that a traditional career path was significantly correlated with Y_1 . The p-value (0.953) indicated that X_1 and Y_1 were not significantly correlated at the 0.05 level, failing to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that traditional career paths were significantly correlated with Y_1 .

TABLE 6.

Correlation Matrix 2

corr (Y_1 = Very Satisfied; X_2 = Preparation) = -0.009
 Under the null hypothesis of no correlation: $t(470) = -0.185$, with two-tailed p-value 0.853

Correlation Matrix 2 indicated no statistically significant correlation between X_2 and Y_1 . When this correlation coefficient was expressed as a coefficient of determination (0.000), X_2 explained <1.00 percent of Y_1 , which was statistically insignificant. The t-ratio was 0.185 standard deviations below the mean of the population, concluding that preparation was not significantly correlated with Y_1 . The p-value (0.853) indicated that X_2 and Y_1 were not significantly correlated at the 0.05 level, concluding that preparation was not significantly correlated with Y_1 .

TABLE 7.

Correlation Matrix 3

Correlation coefficients, using the observations 1 - 472

5% critical value (two-tailed) = 0.090 for $n = 472$

Very Satisfied (Y_1)	Traditional	Preparation	Female	≥ 60 Years	White	Doctorate	Humanities	<5,000 Students	
1.000	0.003	-0.009	-0.022	0.101	-0.033	0.072	0.070	-0.050	1
	1.000	-0.130	0.091	0.006	0.037	0.324	0.071	-0.091	2
		1.000	0.021	0.000	-0.010	-0.118	-0.064	0.046	3
			1.000	-0.058	-0.017	0.085	0.048	-0.000	4
				1.000	-0.017	0.026	0.003	-0.004	5
					1.000	0.026	0.018	-0.010	6
						1.000	0.155	-0.088	7
							1.000	-0.038	8
								1.000	9

The three correlation matrices, above, answered all four of the research questions that guided Phase I of this study. Correlation Matrix 3 validated the outputs from Matrices 1 and 2 and provided directionality and strength of association above the 5 percent critical value (0.090) for seven of the correlation values (highlighted in Table 7, above). Based on low correlation values, t-ratios, and p-values, Correlation Matrices 2 and 3 determined that preparation was not significantly correlated with Y_1 . Based on low

correlation values, t-ratios, and p-values, Correlation Matrices 1 and 3 failed to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that traditional career paths were significantly correlated with Y_1 . Although these results may be of some value in understanding associations between these variables, these scores have little value in predicting Y_1 for this population.

Ordinary Least Squares (OLS)

Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) models were produced using Gretl analytical software to further explain the relationship between Y_1 and the independent variables included in Phase I of this study. Each OLS model included in Phase I will identify the variables analyzed, the research question the researcher expected to be answered by that OLS model, and provide the equation associated with that OLS model.

OLS Model 1, below, was used to determine the statistical relationship between career paths (X_1) and overall job satisfaction (Y_1). The researcher expected that OLS Model 1 would answer Phase I research question number one: *To what degree do career paths affect the likelihood of FTPs being satisfied with their role?* To determine the R^2 , t-ratio, and p-value for this independent variable, the researcher used the following equation: $Y_1 = \alpha + \beta_1 X_1$

TABLE 8.

Model 1: OLS, using observations 1-472

Dependent variable: Very Satisfied (Y_1)

	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	<i>t-ratio</i>	<i>p-value</i>
Constant	0.814	0.034	23.792	<0.000 ***
Traditional	0.002	0.040	0.059	0.953
Mean dependent var	0.816	S.D. dependent var		0.388
Sum squared resid	70.963	S.E. of regression		0.389
R-squared	0.000	Adjusted R-squared		-0.002

The R^2 (0.000) from OLS Model 1, above, determined that <1.00 percent of Y_1 can be explained by a traditional career path prior to assuming the presidency, which was statistically insignificant. The p-value of X_1 was not significantly correlated with Y_1 at the 0.05 level, failing to reject the null. The t-ratio for X_1 (0.059) was not large enough (i.e., $> \pm 1.96$ S.D. from the population mean) to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that a traditional career path was significantly correlated with Y_1 . The slope coefficient for X_1 (0.002) in OLS Model 1 was not significantly correlated with Y_1 , provided weak positive directionality, and had little predictive value. The coefficient (7.107) noted for “Constant” is the intercept of Y_1 as calculated by Gretl analytical software.

OLS Model 2, below, was used to determine the statistical relationship between preparation (X_2) and overall job satisfaction (Y_1). The researcher expected that OLS Model 2 would answer Phase I research question number two: *To what degree does preparation affect the likelihood of FTPs being satisfied with their role?* To determine the R^2 , t-ratio, and p-value for these two variables, the researcher used the following equation: $Y_1 = \alpha + \beta_2 X_2$

TABLE 9.

Model 2: OLS, using observations 1-472

Dependent variable: Very Satisfied (Y_1)

	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	<i>t-ratio</i>	<i>p-value</i>
Constant	0.816	0.018	45.607	<0.000 ***
Preparation	-0.002	0.009	-0.186	0.853
Mean dependent var	0.816	S.D. dependent var		0.388
Sum squared resid	70.959	S.E. of regression		0.389
R-squared	0.000	Adjusted R-squared		-0.002

The R^2 (0.000) from OLS Model 2, above, determined that <1.00 percent of Y_1 can be explained by a first-time president's level of preparation for the position. The p-value of preparation was not significantly correlated with Y_1 at the 0.05 level. The t-ratio of preparation (-0.186) was not large enough (i.e., $> \pm 1.96$ S.D.) to conclude that preparation was significantly correlated with Y_1 . The slope coefficient for X_2 (-0.002) in OLS Model 2 was not significantly correlated with Y_1 , provided weak negative directionality, and had little predictive value. The coefficient (0.816) noted for "Constant" is the intercept of Y_1 as calculated by Gretl analytical software.

OLS Model 3, below, was used to determine the statistical relationship between career paths (X_1), preparation (X_2), and overall job satisfaction (Y_1). The researcher expected that OLS Model 3 would answer Phase I research question number three: *To what degree do career path and preparation affect the likelihood of FTPs being satisfied with their role?* To determine the R^2 , t-ratios, and p-values for these variables, the researcher used the following equation: $Y_1 = \alpha + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2$

TABLE 10.

Model 3: OLS, using observations 1-472

Dependent variable: Very Satisfied (Y_1)

	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	<i>t-ratio</i>	<i>p-value</i>
Constant	0.815	0.034	23.640	<0.000 ***
Traditional	0.001	0.041	0.035	0.972
Preparation	-0.002	0.009	-0.179	0.858
Mean dependent var	0.816	S.D. dependent var		0.388
Sum squared resid	70.959	S.E. of regression		0.389
R-squared	0.000	Adjusted R-squared		-0.004

The R^2 (0.000) from OLS Model 3, above, determined that <1.00 percent of Y_1 can be explained by a traditional career path (X_1) and preparation (X_2) for the position.

No p-value in OLS Model 3 was significantly correlated with Y_1 at the 0.05 level, which indicated that no statistically significant relationship existed between a traditional career path, preparation, and Y_1 . No t-ratio in OLS Model 3 was $> \pm 1.96$ standard deviations, which indicated that the distance from the mean for each of these variables was not large enough to conclude that a traditional career path and preparation were significantly correlated with Y_1 . The slope coefficients for X_1 (0.001) and X_2 (-0.002) in OLS Model 3 were not significantly correlated with Y_1 . These scores validated the scores from OLS Models 1 and 2, but provided weak directionality and had little predictive value. The coefficient (0.815) noted for “Constant” is the intercept of Y_1 as calculated by Gretl analytical software.

To answer the fourth Phase I research question: *What additional factors affect the likelihood of FTPs being satisfied with their role?*, a multivariate OLS model was used, inclusive of moderating variables that may stand between the dependent and independent variables, but have an influence on both. A multivariate regression was used in OLS Model 4, below, to avoid omission bias and to determine the amount of variance that these moderating variables explain in both the independent and dependent variables (Creswell, 2008). OLS Model 4, below, was used to determine what statistical relationships existed, if any, between the two independent variables, the moderating variables, and Y_1 . To accomplish this objective, the researcher used the following equation: $Y_1 = \alpha + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 \dots + \beta_8 X_8 + \varepsilon$

TABLE 11.

Model 4: OLS, using observations 1-472

Dependent variable: Very Satisfied (Y_1)

	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	<i>t-ratio</i>	<i>p-value</i>
Constant	0.840	0.087	9.651	<0.000 ***
Traditional	-0.021	0.043	-0.487	0.626
Preparation	0.000	0.009	0.050	0.960
Female	-0.022	0.043	-0.514	0.607
≥60 years	0.075	0.036	2.099	0.036 **
White	-0.051	0.062	-0.821	0.412
Doctorate	0.057	0.042	1.348	0.178
Humanities	0.059	0.044	1.327	0.185
<5,000 students	-0.052	0.054	-0.959	0.339
Mean dependent var	0.816	S.D. dependent var		0.388
Sum squared resid	69.339	S.E. of regression		0.387
R-squared	0.023	Adjusted R-squared		0.006

This OLS model produced an R^2 of 0.023, which determined that, in combination, these variables can explain 2.3 percent of overall job satisfaction of FTPs at independent institutions. One variable, age, had a p-value significantly correlated at the 0.01 level, and a t-ratio (2.099 S.D. above the mean). The slope coefficient for age (0.075) indicated that FTPs 60 years of age and older, were more 7.5 percent more likely to be very satisfied than their younger counterparts. The t-ratio (-0.487) for X_1 was not large enough (i.e. $> \pm 1.96$ S.D.) and the p-value (0.626) was not significantly correlated at the 0.05 level, failing to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that a traditional career path was significantly correlated with Y_1 . The t-ratios for the remaining variables were not large enough (i.e. $> \pm 1.96$ S.D.) to conclude that any of them were significantly correlated with Y_1 . The coefficient (0.840) noted for “Constant” is the intercept of Y_1 as calculated by Gretl analytical software.

TABLE 12.

Phase I Summary and Interpretation of OLS and Correlation Matrices

Variables	*R ²	*Slope Coefficients	**Correlation	*P-values	Interpretation
Y ₁ : Very Satisfied					Individually, and in combination, X ₁ and X ₂ explain <1.00% of Y ₁
X ₁ : Traditional	0.000	0.002	0.003	>0.05 level	Positive correlation; X ₁ explains <1.00% of Y ₁ ; Based on p-values, fail to reject null
X ₂ : Preparation	0.000	-0.002	-0.009	>0.05 level	Negative correlation; X ₂ explains <1% of Y ₁ ; Based on p-values, fail to reject null

*OLS Model 3

**Correlation Matrices

Phase I Conclusions

The choice of a quantitative research methodology was effective for Phase I of this study, as the use statistical summaries, correlation matrices, and OLS models allowed the researcher to: 1) determine the statistical significance of the regressors on the constant; 2) determine the directionality between independent and dependent variables; 3) answer all four research questions that guided Phase I of the current study, and; 4) either reject or fail to reject the Phase I null hypothesis. The outputs from each quantitative analysis validated the scores (i.e., S.D., mean, correlations, R², t-ratios, and p-values) from each of the other Phase I analyses.

Phase I of the current study failed to find any statistically significant relationship between X₁ and X₂ and Y₁. Of all variables included in Phase I, only age had a statistically significant relationship with Y₁. Based on the R², t-ratios, and p-values, Phase I of the study failed to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that a traditional

career path was statistically correlated with Y_1 . This finding may be explained, in part, due to the lack of variation in the reported levels of job satisfaction.

Phase II: Years in Current Position (Y_2)

Phase II of this study examined the relationships that existed between a traditional career path (X_1), preparation for a college presidency (X_2), and overall job satisfaction (Y_1) on the number of years FTPs have spent in their current position (Y_2). Those variables included in Phase II (see Table 3) were selected for analysis based on recommendations for their inclusion in future research from the review of literature that informed this study. It is reasonable to infer that a higher level of job satisfaction may lead to longer terms in office, providing increased institutional stability (Dennison, 2001; Moore, 1983; Travis & Price, 2013). The hypothesis and null hypothesis for Phase II of the current study are restated below:

Hypothesis (H_A): The number of years that FTPs will spend in office will vary significantly based on the reported levels of job satisfaction and preparation from each of the four career pathways to the college presidency at four-year independent institutions.

Null Hypothesis (H_0): The number of years that FTPs will spend in office will not vary significantly based on the reported levels of job satisfaction and preparation from each of the four career pathways to the college presidency at four-year independent institutions.

The present study represents a research priority for higher education stakeholders to further understand the relationship between career paths, preparation, job satisfaction, and tenure of FTPs at independent institutions. To test the author's inference/hypothesis Phase II of the present study was guided by five research questions:

1. To what degree do career paths (X_1) affect the number of years FTPs spend in office?
2. To what degree does preparation (X_2) affect the number of years FTPs spend in office?
3. To what degree does being very satisfied (Y_1) affect the number of years FTPs spend in office?
4. To what degree do X_1 , X_2 , and Y_1 , in combination, affect the number of years FTPs spend in office?
5. What additional factors affect the number of years that FTPs spend in office?

Phase II of the present study used three independent variables to test the hypothesis to either reject or fail to reject the null hypothesis: 1) career path (X_1); 2) preparation (X_2), and; 3) being very satisfied (Y_1). Those variables included in Phase II were selected for analyses based on recommendations for inclusion in future research in the review of literature that informed this study.

Correlation Matrices

Correlation matrices were used to present the correlation coefficients for the variables central to the current study. These coefficients provided two associations between these scores: 1) directionality and; 2) degree and strength of association.

TABLE 13.

Correlation Matrix 4

corr (Y_2 = Years; X_1 = Traditional) = -0.066
 Under the null hypothesis of no correlation: $t(470) = -1.443$, with two-tailed p-value 0.150

Correlation Matrix 4 indicated a weak statistical correlation (-0.066) between X_1 and Y_2 . When this correlation coefficient was expressed as a coefficient of determination (0.004), X_1 explained <1.00 percent of Y_2 , which was statistically insignificant. The t-ratio was 1.443 standard deviations below the mean of the population, failing to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that traditional career paths were significantly correlated with Y_2 . The p-value (0.150) indicated that X_1 and Y_2 were not significantly correlated at the 0.05 level, failing to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that a traditional career path was significantly correlated with Y_2 .

TABLE 14.

Correlation Matrix 5

corr (Y_2 = Years; X_2 = Preparation) = 0.161
 Under the null hypothesis of no correlation: $t(470) = 3.530$, with two-tailed p-value 0.001

Correlation Matrix 5 indicated a positive correlation (0.161) between X_2 and Y_2 . When this correlation coefficient was expressed as a coefficient of determination (0.026), X_2 explained 2.6 percent of Y_2 . The t-ratio for X_2 was 3.530 standard deviations above the mean of the population, concluding that preparation was significantly correlated with Y_2 . The p-value indicated that X_2 and Y_2 were significantly correlated at the 0.001 level.

TABLE 15.

Correlation Matrix 6

corr (Y_2 = Years; Y_1 = Very Satisfied) = 0.097
 Under the null hypothesis of no correlation: $t(470) = 2.120$, with two-tailed p-value 0.034

Correlation Matrix 6 indicated a positive correlation (0.097) between Y_1 and Y_2 . When this correlation coefficient was expressed as a coefficient of determination (0.009), Y_1 explained <1.00 percent of Y_2 , which was statistically insignificant. The t-ratio was 2.120 standard deviations above the mean of the population, concluding that Y_1 was significantly correlated with Y_2 . The p-value (0.034) indicated that Y_1 and Y_2 were significantly correlated at the 0.05 level.

TABLE 16.

Correlation Matrix 7

Correlation coefficients, using the observations 1 - 472

5% critical value (two-tailed) = 0.090 for $n = 472$

Years (Y_2)	Traditional	Preparation	Very Satisfied	Female	≥ 60 Years	White	Doctorate	Humanities	<5,000 Students	
1.000	-0.066	0.161	0.097	0.030	0.406	-0.052	0.009	-0.067	0.015	1
	1.000	-0.130	0.003	0.091	0.006	0.037	0.324	0.071	-0.091	2
		1.000	-0.009	0.021	0.000	-0.010	-0.118	-0.064	0.046	3
			1.000	-0.022	0.101	-0.037	0.072	0.070	-0.050	4
				1.000	-0.058	-0.017	0.085	0.048	-0.000	5
					1.000	-0.017	0.026	0.003	-0.004	6
						1.000	0.026	0.018	-0.010	7
							1.000	0.155	-0.088	8
								1.000	-0.038	9
									1.000	10

The four correlation matrices presented above answered all five of the research questions that guided Phase II of this study. Based on correlation values, t-ratios, and p-values, Correlation Matrices 4 and 7 failed to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that traditional career paths were significantly correlated with Y_2 . Alternately, Correlation Matrices 5 and 7 concluded that X_2 and Y_1 were significantly correlated with the number of years FTPs have spent in office. Correlation Matrix 7 validated the outputs from Matrices 4-6, and provided some measure of directionality and strength of association for

nine of the correlation values above the 5 percent critical value of 0.090 (highlighted in Table 16, above). Of these correlation values, the score for age (0.406) was the most significant, but still had limited predictive value. The only other correlation value above 0.300 from Correlation Matrix 7 existed between a doctorate and career paths (0.324), which indicated a positive correlation with little value for predictive analysis. Although these results may be of some value in understanding associations between these variables, these low correlational scores have limited value in predicting the number of years that an FTP will spend in office.

Ordinary Least Squares (OLS)

Ordinary Least Squares (OLS), calculated using Gretl analytical software, were used to determine the R^2 , t-ratios, and p-values of the Phase II dependent variable, years in current position (Y_2), and three independent variables, career path (X_1), preparation (X_2), and overall job satisfaction (Y_1), along with moderating variables. Each OLS model included in Phase II will identify the variables analyzed, the research question the researcher expected to be answered by that OLS model, and the equation associated with that OLS model.

The Phase II dependent variable, years in current position, was treated as a continuous variable for analysis, which was expected to provide a higher degree of variation and predictive value than Y_1 (overall job satisfaction) did in Phase I. OLS Model 5, below, was used to determine the statistical relationship between career path (X_1) and years in current position (Y_2). The researcher expected that OLS Model 5 would answer Phase II research question number one: *To what degree do career paths (X_1) affect the number of years FTPs spend in office?* To determine the R^2 , t-ratio, and p-

value for this independent variable, the researcher used the following equation: $Y_2 = \alpha + \beta_1 X_1$

TABLE 17.

Model 5: OLS, using observations 1-472

Dependent variable: Years in Current Position (Y_2)

	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	<i>t-ratio</i>	<i>p-value</i>
Constant	7.807	0.569	13.728	<0.000 ***
Traditional	-0.963	0.667	-1.443	0.150
Mean dependent var	7.107	S.D. dependent var		6.467
Sum squared resid	19609.75	S.E. of regression		6.459
R-squared	0.004	Adjusted R-squared		0.002

The R^2 (0.004) from OLS Model 5, above, determined that <1.00 percent of years spent in office (Y_2) can be explained by a traditional career path prior to assuming the presidency, which was statistically insignificant. The p-value of career path, was not significantly correlated with Y_2 at the 0.05 level, failing to reject the null. The t-ratio of career path was 1.443 standard deviations below the population mean, which was not large enough (i.e., $> \pm 1.96$ S.D.) to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that career paths were significantly correlated with years in office. The slope coefficient of X_1 was (-0.963), which indicated a negative correlation between this variable and Y_2 . The coefficient (7.807) noted for “Constant” is the intercept of Y_2 as calculated by Gretl analytical software.

OLS Model 6, below, was used to determine the statistical relationship between preparation (X_2) and years in current position (Y_2). The researcher expected that OLS Model 6 would answer Phase II research question number two: *To what degree does preparation (X_2) affect the number of years FTPs spend in office?* To determine the R^2 ,

t-ratio, and p-value for this variable, the researcher used the following equation: $Y_2 = \alpha + \beta_2 X_2$

TABLE 18.

Model 6: OLS, using observations 1-472

Dependent variable: Years in Current Position (Y_2)

	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	<i>t-ratio</i>	<i>p-value</i>
Constant	7.107	0.294	24.167	<0.000 ***
Preparation	0.504	0.143	3.530	0.000 ***
Mean dependent var	7.107	S.D. dependent var		6.467
Sum squared resid	19187.87	S.E. of regression		6.389
R-squared	0.026	Adjusted R-squared		0.0238

The R^2 (0.026) calculated in OLS Model 6, above, indicated that preparation can explain 2.6 percent of Y_2 . The p-value of preparation was significantly correlated with Y_2 at the 0.001 level, rejecting the null. The t-ratio for preparation was 3.530 standard deviations above the mean, which indicated that the distance from the mean was large enough (i.e., $> \pm 1.96$ S.D.) to conclude that preparation was significantly correlated with Y_2 . The slope coefficient of X_2 was 0.504, which indicated a positive correlation between this variable and Y_2 . The coefficient (7.107) noted for “Constant” is the intercept of Y_2 as calculated by Gretl analytical software.

OLS Model 7, below, was used to determine the statistical relationship between Y_1 and years in current position (Y_2). The researcher expected that OLS Model 7 would answer Phase II research question number three: *To what degree does being job satisfaction (Y_1) affect the number of years FTPs spend in office?* To determine the R^2 , t-ratio, and p-value for Y_1 , the researcher used the following equation: $Y_2 = \alpha + \beta_3 Y_1$

TABLE 19.

Model 7: OLS, using observations 1-472

Dependent variable: Years in Current Position (Y₂)

	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	<i>t-ratio</i>	<i>p-value</i>	
Constant	5.784	0.691	8.373	<0.000	***
Very satisfied	1.623	0.761	2.122	0.034	**
Mean dependent var	7.107	S.D. dependent var		6.467	
Sum squared resid	19509.79	S.E. of regression		6.443	
R-squared	0.009	Adjusted R-squared		0.007	

The R² (0.009) calculated in OLS Model 7 indicated that Y₁ can explain less than 1.00 percent of the constant, years in current position. The p-value of Y₁ was significantly correlated with Y₂ at the 0.01 level, rejecting the null. The t-ratio for Y₁ was 2.122 standard deviation above the mean of the population, which indicated the distance from the mean was large enough (i.e., < ±1.96 S.D.) to conclude that Y₁ was significantly correlated with Y₂. The slope coefficient of Y₁ was 1.623, which indicated a positive correlation between this variable and Y₂. The coefficient (5.784) noted for “Constant” is the intercept of Y₂ as calculated by Gretl analytical software.

OLS Model 8, below, was used to determine the statistical relationship between X₁, X₂, Y₁, and Y₂. The researcher expected that OLS Model 8 would answer Phase II research question number four: *To what degree do X₁, X₂, and Y₁, in combination, affect the number of years FTPs spend in office?* To determine the R², t-ratios, and p-values for these variables, the researcher used the following equation: $Y_2 = \alpha + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 Y_1$

TABLE 20.

Model 8: OLS, using observations 1-472

Dependent variable: Years in Current Position (Y_2)

	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	<i>t-ratio</i>	<i>p-value</i>
Constant	6.254	0.835	7.493	<0.000 ***
Traditional	-0.674	0.663	-1.016	0.310
Preparation	0.487	0.143	3.401	0.001 ***
Very satisfied	1.647	0.755	2.180	0.030 **
Mean dependent var	7.107	S.D. dependent var		6.467
Sum squared resid	18953.86	S.E. of regression		6.364
R-squared	0.038	Adjusted R-squared		0.032

The R^2 (0.038) in OLS Model 8, above, indicated that these regressors, in combination, can explain 3.8 percent of Y_2 . The p-values of both X_2 and Y_1 were significantly correlated with Y_2 at the 0.001 and 0.01 levels, respectively. The t-ratios for X_2 (3.401) and Y_1 (2.180) were both $> \pm 1.96$ standard deviations above the mean of the population, which indicated that the distance from the mean was large enough to conclude that X_2 and Y_1 were significantly correlated with Y_2 . The t-ratio for the third independent variable, X_1 , was 1.016 standard deviations below the mean of the population, which was not large enough to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that a traditional career path was significantly correlated with Y_2 . The p-value for X_1 was not significantly correlated with Y_2 at the 0.05 level, also failing to reject the null. The slope coefficients of X_1 , X_2 , and Y_1 were consistent with OLS Models 5-7, which provided validation of the directionality. The coefficient (6.254) noted for “Constant” is the intercept of Y_2 as calculated by Gretl analytical software.

To answer the fifth research question guiding Phase II, *What additional factors affect the number of years that FTPs spend in office?*, a multivariate OLS model (see

Table 21, below) was used to include moderating variables that may stand between the dependent and independent variables, but have an influence on both. Multivariate regressions were used in OLS Model 9, below, to avoid omission bias and to determine the amount of variance that these moderating variables explain in both the independent and dependent variables (Creswell, 2008). OLS Model 9 was used to determine what statistical relationship existed, if any, between the three independent variables (X_1 , X_2 , Y_1), the moderating variables, and Y_2 . To accomplish this objective, the OLS calculation used the following equation: $Y_2 = \alpha + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 Y_1 \dots + \beta_9 X_9 + \varepsilon$

TABLE 21.

Model 9: OLS, using observations 1-472

Dependent variable: Years in Current Position (Y_2)

	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	<i>t-ratio</i>	<i>p-value</i>
Constant	4.783	1.434	3.337	0.001 ***
Traditional	-0.868	0.642	-1.353	0.177
Preparation	0.476	0.132	3.610	0.000 ***
Very satisfied	1.009	0.699	1.443	0.150
Female	0.857	0.640	1.339	0.181
≥60 years	5.206	0.541	9.622	<0.000 ***
White	-0.853	0.933	-0.915	0.361
Doctorate	0.550	0.637	0.863	0.389
Humanities	-1.042	0.669	-1.558	0.120
<5,000 students	0.150	0.810	0.185	0.854
Mean dependent var	7.107	S.D. dependent var		6.467
Sum squared resid	15643.42	S.E. of regression		5.819
R-squared	0.206	Adjusted R-squared		0.190

The R^2 (0.206) from OLS Model 9 indicated that 20.6 percent of Y_2 can be explained by X_1 , X_2 , Y_1 , and the moderating variables. With the exception of X_2 (t-ratio=3.610; $p=0.001$) and age (t-ratio=9.622; $p=0.001$) none of the variables in OLS Model 9 were significantly correlated with Y_2 . The slope coefficients for X_2 (0.476) and

age (5.206) both indicated a positive correlation between each variable and Y_2 . The coefficient (4.783) noted for “Constant” is the intercept of Y_2 as calculated by Gretl analytical software.

TABLE 22.

Phase II Summary and Interpretation of OLS and Correlation Matrices

Variables	*R ²	*Slope Coefficients	**Correlation	*P-values	Interpretation
Y_2 : Years in current position					In combination, X_1 , X_2 , Y_1 explain 3.8% of Y_2
X_1 : Traditional	0.004	-0.963	-0.066	>0.05 level	Negative correlation; X_1 explains <1.00% of Y_2 ; Based on p-value, fail to reject null
X_2 : Preparation	0.026	0.504	0.161	0.001 level	Positive correlation; X_2 explains 2.6% of Y_2 ; Based on p-value, reject null
Y_1 : Very satisfied	0.009	1.623	0.097	0.01 level	Positive correlation; Y_1 explains <1% of Y_2 ; Based on p-value, reject null

*OLS Model 8

**Correlation Matrices

Phase II Conclusions

The choice of a quantitative research methodology was effective for Phase II of this study, as the use statistical summaries, correlation matrices, and OLS models allowed the researcher to: 1) determine the statistical significance of the regressors on the constant; 2) determine the directionality between independent and dependent variables; 3) answer all five research questions that guided Phase II of the current study, and; 4) either reject or fail to reject the Phase II null hypothesis. The outputs from each quantitative analysis validated the scores (i.e., S.D., R^2 , mean, correlations, t-ratios, and p-values) from each of the other Phase II analyses. The use of statistical summaries, correlation matrices, and OLS models allowed the researcher to determine the statistical relationship between the independent variables (X_1 , X_2 and Y_1), moderating variables, and Y_2 .

Outputs from each of the quantitative analytical models were triangulated to validate the significance and directionality of correlation between the independent and dependent variables based on standard deviation, correlation values, R^2 , t-ratios, and p-values. The results from each of the three quantitative analytical models produced similar standard deviations, correlations, R^2 , t-ratios, and p-values between the independent and dependent variables. Quantitative outputs in Phase II of this study were able to reject or fail to reject the null hypotheses and provided those data necessary to answer the research questions that guided this phase of the study.

CHAPTER 5

FINDINGS, DISCUSSION, AND CONCLUSIONS

Findings

The three quantitative analytical models (summary statistics, correlation matrices, OLS), used in both Phase I and Phase II of the study for the purposes of answering the research questions and to reject or fail to reject the null hypotheses, successfully accomplished both objectives. Outputs from each of the quantitative analytical models were triangulated to determine and validate the significance and directionality of correlation between the independent and dependent variables based on standard deviation, mean, correlation values, R^2 , t-ratios, and p-values. The results from each of the three quantitative analytical models were validated based on consistent standard deviations, correlations, R^2 , t-ratios, and p-values between the independent and dependent variables. Quantitative outputs in both phases of this study were able to reject or fail to reject the null hypotheses and provided those data necessary to answer the research questions that guided Phase I and Phase II of this study.

Phase I findings. Phase I analyses were intended to determine and validate the strength and directionality of correlation between the dependent and independent variables based on quantitative analyses. The soundness of the research design and method of analysis was strong and credible based on the researcher's ability to validate consistency of outputs (i.e., S.D., mean, correlations, R^2 , t-ratios, and p-values) from the summary statistics, correlation matrices, and OLS models. Traditional career paths were

not significantly correlated with Y_1 , failing to reject the null hypothesis. All four Phase I research questions, below, were successfully answered based on the quantitative outputs and analyses.

1. To what degree do traditional career paths affect the likelihood of FTPs being “very satisfied” with their role? *Correlation Matrices 1 and 3 and OLS Models 1, 3, and 4 found that traditional career paths were not significantly correlated with Y_1 , failing to reject the null hypothesis.*
2. To what degree does preparation affect the likelihood of FTPs being “very satisfied” with their role? *Correlation Matrices 2-3 and OLS Models 2-4 found that preparation was not significantly correlated with Y_1 .*
3. To what degree do traditional career paths and preparation affect the likelihood of FTPs being “very satisfied” with their role? *Correlation Matrix 3 and OLS Models 3-4 found that, in combination, traditional career paths and preparation were not significantly correlated with Y_1 .*
4. What additional factors affect the likelihood of FTPs being “very satisfied” with their role? *Of the variables included in OLS Model 4, only age was identified as being significantly correlated with Y_1 .*

Phase I findings did not confirm the researcher’s expectations that career paths and preparation were significantly correlated with Y_1 . The quantitative outputs (i.e., S.D., correlations, mean, t- ratios, and p-values) from Correlation Matrices 1-3 were validated by outputs from OLS Models 1-4, concluding that traditional career paths and preparation were not significantly correlated with Y_1 . Moderating demographic variables, such as race and gender were not significantly correlated with Y_1 . Similarly,

variables identified in the literature review, such as an advanced degree (i.e., doctorate), and major field of study (i.e., humanities) for that degree, were not significantly correlated with Y_1 . Of all variables analyzed in Phase I, only age was significantly correlated (t -ratio=2.099; $p=0.01$) with Y_1 . The correlation value (0.101) for age also had a weak positive correlation with Y_1 , and little predictive value.

Phase I correlation matrices found that career paths ($\text{corr}=0.003$) were slightly more correlated with the overall job satisfaction (Y_1) than preparation ($\text{corr}=-0.009$), although neither value was significantly correlated with Y_1 . Career paths and preparation, individually and in combination, explained less than 1.00 percent of overall job satisfaction. All four Phase I OLS models produced R^2 values of less than 0.023, t -ratios less than ± 1.96 standard deviations from the population mean, and no p -values significantly correlated at the $p=0.05$ level, which all indicated that X_1 and X_2 were not significantly correlated with overall job satisfaction.

The lack of significant correlation between X_1 , X_2 , moderating variables, and Y_1 can, in part, be attributed to the lack of variation in the dependent variable, overall job satisfaction.

Phase II findings. Phase II analyses were intended to determine and validate the strength and directionality of correlation between the dependent and independent variables based on quantitative analyses. The soundness of the research design and method of analysis was strong and credible based on the researcher's ability to validate consistency of outputs (i.e., S.D., means, correlations, R^2 , t -ratios, and p -values) from the summary statistics, correlation matrices, and OLS models. Career paths were not significantly correlated with Y_1 , failing to reject the null hypothesis. All five Phase II

research questions, below, were successfully answered based on the quantitative outputs and analyses.

1. To what degree do traditional career paths (X_1) affect the number of years FTPs spend in office? *Correlation Matrices 4 and 7 and OLS Models 5, 8, and 9 found that traditional career paths were not significantly correlated with Y_2 , failing to reject the null hypothesis.*
2. To what degree does preparation (X_2) affect the number of years FTPs spend in office? *Correlation Matrices 6 and 7 and OLS Models 6, 8, and 9 found that preparation was significantly correlated with Y_2 .*
3. To what degree does job satisfaction (Y_1) affect the number of years FTPs spend in office? *Correlation Matrices 7-8 and OLS Models 7-9 found that Y_1 was significantly correlated with Y_2 .*
4. To what degree do X_1 , X_2 , and Y_1 , in combination, affect the number of years FTPs spend in office? *Correlation Matrix 8 and OLS Model 8 found that X_2 and overall job satisfaction Y_1 were significantly correlated with Y_2 , but found that traditional career paths (X_1) were not significantly correlated with Y_2 .*
5. What additional factors affect the number of years that FTPs spend in office? *Correlation Matrix 8 and OLS Model 9 found that preparation (X_2) and age were both significantly correlated with Y_2 .*

Phase II findings did not confirm the researcher's expectations that career paths, preparation, and overall job satisfaction had a significant degree of influence on job satisfaction of FTPs at independent institutions. The soundness of the research design and method of analysis was strong and credible based on the researcher's ability to validate

consistency of outputs (i.e., S.D., means, correlation, R^2 , t-ratios, p-values) from the summary statistics, correlation matrices, and OLS models. The quantitative outputs from Correlation Matrices 5-8 were validated by consistent t-ratio and p-value outputs from OLS Models 5-9. The results from each of the quantitative analytical models produced similar positive or negative correlations, coefficients of determination/ R^2 , t-ratios, and p-values between the independent variables and the constant.

With the exception of OLS Model 9 ($R^2=0.206$), all five Phase II OLS models produced R^2 values of 0.038 or less, t-ratios less than ± 1.96 standard deviations from the population mean, and p-values not significantly correlated with Y_2 at the $p=0.05$ level. Phase II correlation matrices found that overall job satisfaction ($\text{corr}=0.097$) was slightly more correlated with Y_2 than either preparation ($\text{corr}=0.061$) or career paths ($\text{corr}=-0.066$), although none of these values were significantly correlated with Y_2 . Individually, career paths and overall job satisfaction explained less than 1.00 percent of the number of years that FTPs have spent in their current positions. Preparation explained 2.6 percent of Y_2 . In combination X_1 , X_2 , and Y_1 , explained 3.8 percent of Y_2 .

Phase II findings in OLS Model 8, which included only X_1 , X_2 , and Y_1 as independent variables, confirmed the researcher's expectations that preparation (X_2) and overall job satisfaction (Y_1) had a significant degree of influence on Y_2 . Alternately, OLS Model 8 did not confirm the researcher's expectation that career paths (X_1) had a significant degree of influence on the number of years FTPs at independent institutions have spent in their current positions. Based on a t-ratio of 1.016 standard deviations below the mean and a p-value not significantly correlated with Y_2 at the $p=0.05$ level,

OLS Model 8 failed to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that traditional career paths were significantly correlated with Y_2 .

OLS Model 9 found that moderating variables, such as race, gender, highest degree earned, field of study, and institutional size were not significantly correlated with Y_2 . These variables had a mitigating effect on the significance of the statistical relationship between career paths and job satisfaction on Y_2 when compared to the OLS Model 8 outputs. Of the three independent variables used in OLS Models 8 and 9, only preparation (X_2) retained a significant correlation with Y_2 once the moderating variables were factored. Of all variables analyzed in OLS Model 9, only preparation (t-ratio=3.610; $p=0.001$) and age (t-ratio=9.622; $p=0.001$) had statistically significant relationships with Y_2 . Correlation Matrix 8 found that preparation (corr=0.161) and age (corr=0.406) were positively correlated with Y_2 , but only the correlation value for age had predictive value. Moderating variables identified in the literature review, such as highest degree earned (i.e., doctorate), major field of study, and institutional size were not significantly correlated with Y_2 .

The research design and methodology for both Phase I and Phase II were strong and produced consistent outputs across quantitative analyses within each phase. Phase I and Phase II both failed to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that traditional career paths (X_1) were significantly correlated with either Y_1 or Y_2 . Phase I analyses concluded that only age was significantly correlated with Y_1 . Alternately, Phase II analyses concluded that preparation, job satisfaction, and age were significantly correlated with Y_2 .

Implications for Practice

Presidential turnover has created concerns for the stability of institutions. As presidential candidates and appointments increasingly come from a broad range of career paths inside and outside higher education, additional emphasis needs to be placed on the preparation of new presidents, particularly those who are entering presidencies from outside higher education (Smerek, 2013; Song & Hartley, 2012). Understanding the various pathways to a college presidency is necessary for higher education stakeholders so that when undertaking time-intensive, costly presidential searches, the broadest possible pool of candidates is considered, regardless of prior career path, gender, or ethnicity to ensure that the preparation and professional experience of the candidates are aligned with the needs of the institution at the time of appointment (Baldrige, et al., 1977; Birnbaum & Umbach, 2001; Chaffee, 1987; Masland, 1985; Moore et al., 1983; Peterson & Spencer, 1990).

The review of literature that informed the present study suggested that understanding the relationships between career paths, preparation, job satisfaction, and the number of years presidents have spent in office would broaden presidential searches to consider candidates from a more diverse range of professional experiences, educational attainment, and demographic backgrounds to ensure the best fit between candidates and the needs of the institution at the time of appointment. Given the number of presidential vacancies projected over the next five to ten years, and declining interest in the position from the traditional (academic) pipeline, the present study is a research priority, with potential for significant implications for practice as colleges and universities consider who will fill these vacancies.

Phase I implications for practice. Phase I findings indicated that neither a traditional career path ($\text{corr}=0.003$; $t\text{-ratio}=-0.487$; $p=>0.05$) nor preparation ($\text{corr}=-0.009$; $t\text{-ratio}=0.000$; $p=>0.05$) were significantly correlated with overall job satisfaction of FTPs at four-year independent institutions. This finding suggested that, as independent colleges and universities begin their respective presidential searches over the next five to ten years, candidates from the non-traditional pathway are just as likely to be “very satisfied” as those candidates from the traditional academic pathway. Similarly, candidates with varying levels of preparation for a presidency are statistically just as likely to be “very satisfied” in the role. In isolation, these findings suggested that presidential searches will result in FTPs who will be very satisfied, regardless of their prior career path and preparation.

Although gender ($\text{corr}=-0.022$; $t\text{-ratio}=-0.514$; $p=>0.05$) and race ($\text{corr}=-0.033$; $t\text{-ratio}=-0.821$; $p=>0.05$) were not shown to be significantly correlated with, or predictors of, overall job satisfaction, they remain important variables in a presidential search to achieve the goal of developing a broad, diverse pool of candidates to align the needs of the college and the candidate at the time of appointment. Additionally, Phase I did not identify a significant correlation between having a doctorate ($\text{corr}=0.072$; $t\text{-ratio}=1.348$; $p=>0.05$), the major field of study ($\text{corr}=0.070$; $t\text{-ratio}=1.327$; $p=>0.05$), or size of the institution ($\text{corr}=-0.050$; $t\text{-ratio}=-0.959$; $p=>0.05$) and Y_1 . This finding suggested that presidential candidates without doctorates or a degree in the humanities are just as likely to be “very satisfied” as their counterparts who have earned doctorate degrees in the humanities. Similarly, these findings suggested that FTPs at four-year independent

institutions are just as likely to be “very satisfied” leading an institution of 5,000 or fewer students as they are to lead an institution with more than 5,000 students.

Only one Phase I variable, age, was found to have a significant statistical relationship ($t\text{-ratio}=2.099$; $p<0.001$) with Y_1 , which suggested that those presidents who were age 60, or older, were more likely to be “very satisfied” in their role as a FTP at a four-year independent institution than their counterparts under the age of 60. According to outputs from Correlation Matrix 3, the correlation value of age ($\text{corr}=0.101$) had little predictive value for overall job satisfaction. The statistical correlation between age and Y_2 , suggested that appointees with more years of experience may be more likely to report being “very satisfied” than those with fewer years of experience.

As previously noted, the dependent variable, overall job satisfaction, for Phase I of this study had very little variation, which explained in part why, with one exception (age), the independent and moderating variables in this phase of the study were not significantly correlated with overall job satisfaction.

In summary, Phase I findings suggested that institutional leaders, search committees, and search firms seeking a candidate who will be very satisfied in his or her appointment may benefit from expanding their presidential searches to include candidates from outside higher education with a range of unique professional experiences that may have prepared them for leading a complex organization. Candidates from diverse demographic backgrounds should be considered in the search process, as gender and race were not found to have a significant influence on the likelihood that these candidates would be any less satisfied than current FTPs in their appointments at four-year

independent institutions. Of all variables analyzed in Phase I, only age, a moderating variable, was found to have a statistically significant relationship with Y_1 .

Phase II implications for practice. Phase II analyses found that three variables, preparation, overall job satisfaction, and age, were significantly correlated with Y_2 . OLS Model 8, which only included X_1 , X_2 , and Y_1 as regressors, found that preparation (corr=0.161; t-ratio=3.401; $p<0.001$) and overall job satisfaction (corr=0.097; t-ratio=2.180; $p=0.01$) were statistically correlated with Y_2 when moderating variables were not considered. When including moderating variables (OLS Model 9), only preparation (corr=0.161; t-ratio=3.610; $p<0.001$) and age (corr=0.406; t-ratio=9.622; $p<0.001$) were found to be significantly correlated with Y_2 . Overall job satisfaction, and age were significantly and positively correlated with the number of years an FTP of a four-year independent institution has spent in their current position (Y_2). Alternately, traditional career paths (corr=-0.066; t-ratio=-1.353; $p>0.05$) were not significantly correlated with Y_2 .

These findings suggested that, as colleges and universities begin their respective presidential searches over the next five to ten years, candidates from the non-traditional pathway are just as likely to remain in office for the same number of years as appointees from the traditional academic pathway. Presidential appointees whose prior professional experiences and preparation are closely aligned with the needs of the institution at the time of appointment are more likely to remain in office longer than an appointee whose preparation is less aligned with institutional needs. One can infer from this finding that presidential searches that disclose existing institutional challenges, financial condition, and board expectations may increase the opportunity to attract and appoint candidates

whose professional background and experiences are more closely aligned with the needs of the institution at the time of hire. The statistical correlation between age and Y_2 , suggested that appointees with more years of experience may be more likely to serve longer terms in office than those with fewer years of experience. These findings suggested that, in combination, search committees seeking should consider those candidates who are older, which implies more years of cumulative professional experiences, and more likely to have preparation in functional areas that are most closely aligned with the needs of the institution at the time of appointment.

Gender (corr=0.030; t-ratio=1.339; $p=>0.05$) and race (corr=-0.052; t-ratio=-0.915; $p=0.361$) were not shown to be strong predictors of Y_2 . Although presidential searches can be broadened by including a demographically diverse pool of candidates in the search process, neither gender nor race were shown to have an influence the number of years that an appointee is likely to remain in office. Phase II findings did not identify a significant correlation between having a doctorate, major field of study, or size of the institution and Y_2 .

In summary, Phase II findings suggested that institutional leaders, search committees, and search firms seeking a longer-term presidential appointment, may benefit from expanding their presidential searches to include candidates from outside higher education with a range of unique professional experiences that may have prepared them for leading a complex organization, such as a college or university. Candidates from diverse demographic backgrounds should be considered in the search process, although gender and race were not found to have a significant correlation with the number of years that these candidates are likely to serve once appointed. FTPs of all ages were found to

have a high degree of overall job satisfaction, yet age alone only provides limited predictive value for how long an FTP at a four-year independent institution will remain in office. Phase II did not find a statistically significant relationship between gender, race, a doctorate, field of study, or size of institution and Y₂. These findings suggested that these variables are not likely to increase the likelihood that a FTP at a four-year independent institution will remain in office for a term that is any longer or shorter than other candidates.

In combination, Phase I and Phase II findings suggested that candidates from non-traditional career paths, with varying levels of preparation, and diverse backgrounds are just as likely to be satisfied and remain in office for the same length of time as FTPs appointed from the traditional academic pathway.

External agencies may also benefit from these findings as they continue to develop and offer seminars, workshops, and institutes for aspiring or newly-appointed presidents. A deeper understanding of how career paths and preparation are correlated with overall job satisfaction and time in office would allow institutions and agencies, such as ACE, AGB, and CIC to consider succession planning and provide focused workshops, seminars, and institutes for prospective college presidents to address these areas in an effort to improve understanding and expectations for the role of a college president

Future research on this topic will have the potential to further inform presidential searches to identify candidates from diverse backgrounds with experience and aptitude for leading complex organizations, while identifying predictors for overall job satisfaction and the number of years FTPs will serve in office to increase institutional

stability. Phase I and Phase II findings suggested that a candidate's preparation, overall job satisfaction, and age were significantly correlated with the number of years that they are likely to remain in that position. These variables, along with the moderating variables explained 20.6 percent of Y_2 , which suggests that to understand and predict how long an FTP will remain in office, additional research with consideration for a number of pre-and post-appointment variables must be undertaken.

Implications for Future Research

The present study addressed a gap identified by prior research on the American college president. The data collection and analysis process undertaken for this study identified opportunities for future research on the American college presidency. When factoring moderating variables, OLS Model 4 (Phase I) explained 2.3 percent of overall job satisfaction. In combination, the independent variables in OLS Model 8 (Phase II) explained 3.8 percent of years spent in office. R^2 for Phase II increased to 0.206 when moderating variables were included in OLS Model 9. Based on these data, not enough is known about additional variables that may further explain job satisfaction once a candidate assumes a presidency at a four-year independent institution. Although the variables used in OLS Model 9 explained 20.6 percent of Y_2 , further understanding of additional pre-and post-appointment variables that explain Y_2 could benefit the current body of research on the college presidency and have practical implications for future presidential searches.

Limitations of those data collected for the current study provide a starting point for future research, and the ability to conduct statistical and correlational or predictive studies on the pathway to a college presidency.

The “overall job satisfaction” variable used in the present study had virtually no variation, which created challenges for the researcher when studying this variable as either a dependent or independent variable. Future data collection on this variable should identify a mechanism to capture responses that have a higher degree of variation and can be analyzed as a continuous variable. Increased variation in this variable is expected to provide researchers with an opportunity to conduct correlational research with potential for producing predictive associations to determine the significance of independent variables on job satisfaction. As noted in Chapter 2 of this study, presidents may be reluctant to report being “not very satisfied” or “dissatisfied” in their current role out of concern for retaining their current position, however, other opportunities currently exist for researchers to understand satisfaction of college presidents. Data on presidents’ “satisfaction” and “frustration” with various constituencies, demands on time, and finances have been collected by the ACPS and are available through ACE.

Preparation is a variable that has potential for further study. The current study used a factor analysis approach to consolidate ACPS respondents’ reported lack of preparation in twenty different functional areas. Future data collection regarding the preparation of college presidents should include a mechanism for self-reporting of preparation on a 1-4 rating scale (i.e., 1=very prepared; 2=somewhat prepared; 3=not very prepared; 4=not prepared). This approach to data collection and analyses of preparation (X_2) in future research would provide researchers with expanded opportunities to further understand the correlation, while increasing the predictive value between this variable and Y_1 and/or Y_2 .

Future research on pre-appointment variables that could further explain job satisfaction (Y_1) and/or years spent in office (Y_2) might include more detailed understandings about each of the career paths studied here. For example, research that considers the number of years that FTPs spent in either a traditional or non-traditional career path prior to assuming a presidency may provide insight into how the number of years spent in either pathway is correlated with Y_1 and/or Y_2 . ACPS data currently include data on how long respondents spent primarily: 1) in the classroom or lab; 2) as a full-time administrator; 3) with duties split between academic and administrative responsibilities, and; 4) employed outside higher education. These data may have an effect on how much of Y_1/Y_2 can be explained by other independent and moderating variables. No research has been done to understand how preparation obtained in each of the career paths aligns with the administrative areas for which presidents have responsibility. Research in this area could have practical implications for understanding how well candidates from each career path might align with the needs of the institution.

As institutions seek to fill presidential vacancies over the next five to ten years, additional research with consideration for variables such as written contracts, terms of contracts, clear expectations for the position, and retirement benefits may serve as predictors for both overall job satisfaction and the number of years presidents will serve, which, according to Travis and Price (2013), may increase institutional stability. Research that factors a presidents' intent to leave their position could also be used as an additional independent variable in future studies. Most of these data have been collected by ACPS and are available through ACE.

The present study can be replicated or expanded to include the variables suggested above for future research. This study was cross-sectional, only examining those data on the American college president at a point in time (2011). Future research in this area could compare new ACPS data with prior ACPS data to identify longitudinal trends in those variables chosen for study.

Conclusions

The present study is unique and distinctive as it represents the first research on the American college president to examine the relationships between career paths, preparation, job satisfaction, and the number of years presidents have spent in office. By specifically addressing the relationships between these variables, a recognized gap in extant research has been addressed. Given the immediate concerns related to the projected turnover of presidents at 48 percent of independent institutions within the next five years, the current study represented a research priority to understand the relationship between career paths, preparation, job satisfaction, and years served on office by FTPs at independent four-year institutions. The significance of this study lies in its potential to inform institutions, search committees, and search firms on the trends in the American college presidency so that potential presidential candidates can be considered from a broad range of career paths, educational attainment, and demographic backgrounds.

Additional research opportunities exist through replication and expansion of the present study to include a number of pre-and post- appointment variables to further understand how career paths, preparation, and job satisfaction will influence the American college president experience. As this research agenda continues to evolve current and future research will increasingly inform how trustees, administration, faculty,

search committees, and search firms view the traditional and non-traditional pathways to the American college presidency.

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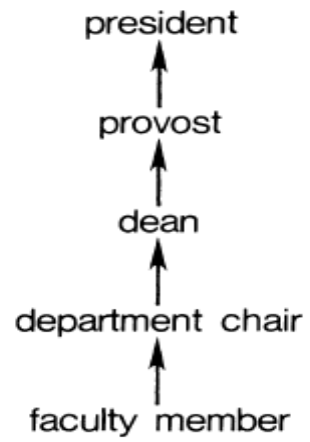
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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A.

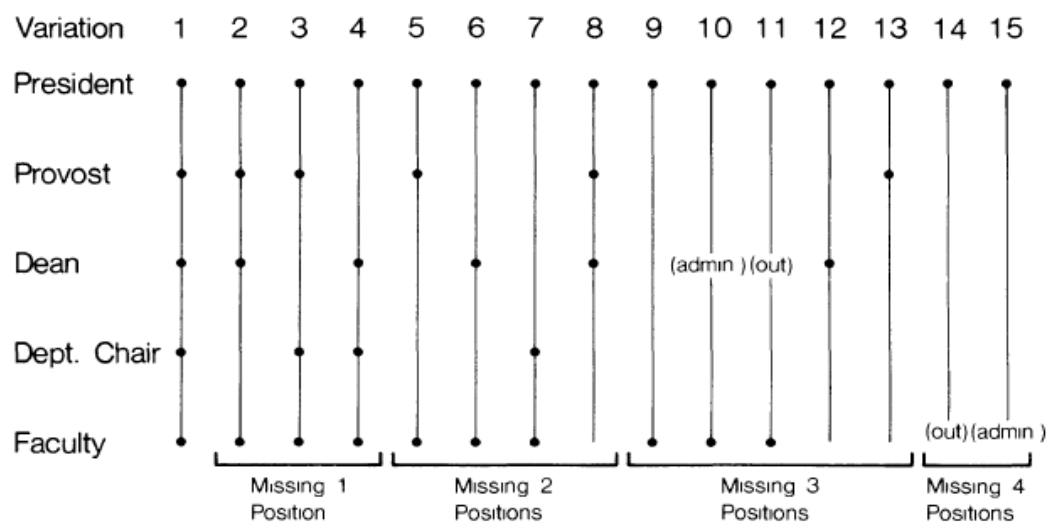
Normative Academic Career Path



Source: Cohen & March, 1974

APPENDIX B.

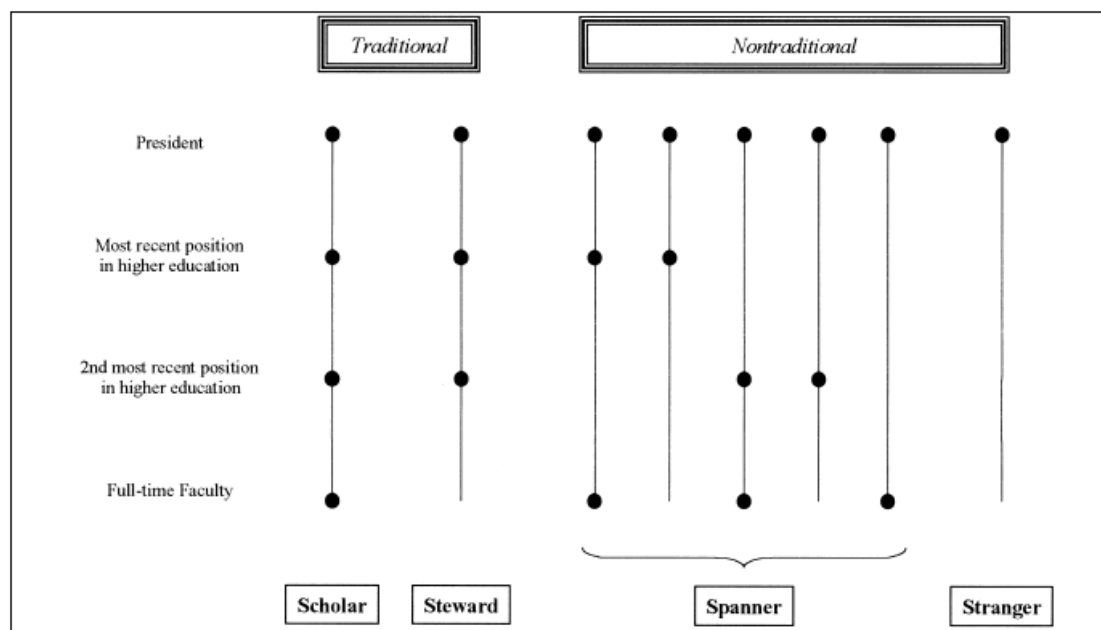
Variations on the Academic Career Path



Source: Moore et al., 1983

APPENDIX C.

Career Trajectories of College Presidents



Source: Birnbaum & Umbach, 2001

APPENDIX D.

Academic Career Pattern Variations
for Private Four-Year College and University Presidents

Variation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
President	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Academic VP	•		•	•			•	•				•		
Dean	•	•		•		•					•			out
Dept. Chair	•	•	•		•			•		•			admin	
Faculty	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•				•	•
		Missing 1 Positions				Missing 2 Positions				Missing 3 Positions				

Source: Wessel & Keim, 1994

APPENDIX E.

Administrative Career Pattern Variations
for Private Four-Year College and University Presidents

Variation	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
President	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Senior Administrative Staff	•	•	•			acad	
Entry/Middle Level Administrative Staff	•		out	•	•	•	out
		Missing 1 Position				Missing 2 Positions	

Source: Wessel & Keim, 1994

APPENDIX F.

Underprepared Areas for First-Time Presidents

by Institutional Type

Underprepared Areas	Public Two-Year (%)	Public BA/MA (%)	Public Doctoral (%)	Private Doctoral (%)	CIC (%)
Technology planning	25	37	23	32	45
Risk management/legal issues	25	29	23	16	37
Fundraising	51	35	35	32	30
Entrepreneurial ventures	26	28	35	24	29
Athletics	22	30	48	12	29
Capital improvement projects	31	25	26	20	27
Campus internationalization	28	25	15	20	24
Budget/financial management	23	17	22	16	23
Government relations	24	19	26	12	22
Accountability/assessment of student learning	16	18	12	12	22
Governing board relations	22	21	32	28	21
Enrollment management	16	20	19	16	20
Academic issues	14	17	17	20	20
Crisis management	23	19	22	0	18
Faculty issues	16	15	19	12	17
Student life/conduct issues	10	14	15	16	17
Media/public relations	16	14	32	24	15
Strategic planning	14	13	14	12	13
Community relations	11	9	17	12	13
Personnel issues (excluding faculty)	14	10	20	12	11

Source: Song & Hartley, 2012

APPENDIX G.

Years Presidents Plan to Remain in Office

Time to Step Down	Public Two-Year (%)	Public BA/MA (%)	Public Doctoral (%)	Private Doctoral (%)	CIC (%)
Within the next year or two	21	18	14	9	12
3–5 years from now	39	38	40	28	36
6–9 years from now	18	21	23	22	25
10 or more years from now	13	7	8	19	12
Don't know	9	16	14	22	14

Note: Totals may not equal 100 percent due to rounding.

Source: Song & Hartley, 2012

APPENDIX H.

American College President Survey (ACPS)

Survey Instrument

American College President Survey 2011

Chief Executive Officer (CEO) Identifying Information

1. Your Name: _____
2. Position Title:
 - ☐ President/CEO/chancellor
 - ☐ Senior executive/provost/dean
 - ☐ Other (please specify): _____
3. Contact info (intended solely for the purpose of this research)
 - ☐ Phone (xxx-xxx-xxxx): _____
 - ☐ Email: _____

Your Current Position

4. Overall, how satisfied are you in your position as president/CEO?
 - ☐ Very satisfied
 - ☐ Somewhat satisfied
 - ☐ Not very satisfied
 - ☐ Dissatisfied
5. As president/CEO, to whom do you report?
 - ☐ System head
 - ☐ Governing board
 - ☐ State commissioner/superintendent
 - ☐ Corporate/church board or leader
 - ☐ Other (please specify): _____
6. Date appointed to current president/CEO position (m/d/yyyy) (If you don't remember the exact date, please approximate): _____
7. Is the position an interim appointment?
 - ☐ Yes
 - ☐ No
8. Do you hold a tenured faculty position at your current institution at this time?
 - ☐ Yes
 - ☐ No
9. Who is the "second in command" on campus?
 - ☐ The Chief Academic Officer (i.e., provost, vice president for academic affairs)
 - ☐ The Chief Financial Officer
 - ☐ Many/a few VPs of fairly equal status
 - ☐ Other (please specify): _____

Your Predecessor

10. Which of the following best describes the career status of your predecessor?
- ☐ Retired and holds no other position
 - ☐ Moved to another college or university presidency
 - ☐ Moved to a senior higher education campus/system position (non-president)
 - ☐ Became a CEO of a higher education-related (non-campus) organization, association, or state system
 - ☐ Honorific chancellor at current institution
 - ☐ Went to the faculty
 - ☐ Became a consultant
 - ☐ Employed outside of higher education (corporate, nonprofit, etc.)
 - ☐ Don't know
 - ☐ Other (please specify): _____
11. How many years did your predecessor serve as president/CEO?
- ☐ 1 year or less
 - ☐ 2 to 5
 - ☐ 6 to 10
 - ☐ 11 to 15
 - ☐ 16 or more
 - ☐ Don't know

Your Career

12. When do you anticipate stepping down from your current position?
- ☐ Within the next year or two
 - ☐ 3–5 years from now
 - ☐ 6–9 years from now
 - ☐ 10 or more years from now
 - ☐ Don't know
13. What next steps are you considering after you leave your current position? (Check **ALL** that apply.)
- ☐ Retire and hold no other position
 - ☐ Move to another college or university presidency
 - ☐ Move to a senior higher education campus/system position (non-president)
 - ☐ Become a CEO of a higher education-related (non-campus) organization, association, or state system
 - ☐ Go to the faculty
 - ☐ Become a consultant
 - ☐ Seek employment outside of higher education (corporate, nonprofit, etc.)
 - ☐ Become an honorific chancellor at current institution
 - ☐ Don't know
 - ☐ Other (please specify): _____

Prior Positions

14. Position held immediately prior to assuming current CEO assignment:

- ☐ President/CEO/chancellor
- ☐ Chief academic officer or provost
- ☐ Other senior executive in Academic Affairs (including deans)
- ☐ Senior executive in Student Affairs
- ☐ Senior executive in Business and/or Administration
- ☐ Chair/faculty
- ☐ K-12 administrator/educator
- ☐ Business/industry
- ☐ Religious counselor/member of religious order
- ☐ Elected or appointed government official
- ☐ Legal professional
- ☐ Military personnel
- ☐ Medical professional (e.g., doctor or hospital administrator)
- ☐ Nonprofit sector (e.g., foundation, museum, or association)
- ☐ Other (please specify): _____

15.1. Institution of position held immediately before assuming your current CEO assignment: (If “did not work at a college or university,” skip to question number 16.)

- ☐ Did not work at a college or university
- ☐ Same institution as current job
- ☐ Different institution from current job

15.2. Institutional TYPE of position held immediately prior to your current CEO position (even if it's the same institution) (as determined by the Basic Carnegie Classification):

- ☐ Doctorate-granting university
- ☐ Master's college or university
- ☐ Baccalaureate college
- ☐ Associate's college (community college)
- ☐ Special-focus institution
- ☐ Tribal college

15.3. Institutional CONTROL of position held immediately prior to your current CEO position (even if it's the same institution):

- ☐ Public
- ☐ Private, nonprofit
- ☐ Private, for-profit

Career History

16. Choose the path that most accurately describes your career progression as an administrator:
- ☐ Moved through the ranks to president while staying at one institution
 - ☐ Moved through the ranks to president by changing institutions once or twice
 - ☐ Moved through the ranks to president by changing institutions three or more times
 - ☐ Became president after moving in and out of higher education
 - ☐ Became president after spending my career mostly/completely outside higher education
- 17.1. Have you ever held a full-time position at a college or university overseas (for at least one year)? (If “no,” skip to question number 18.)
- ☐ Yes
 - ☐ No
- 17.2. Duration of your employment at a college or university overseas: ____ year(s)
- 17.3. During your employment overseas, what was your legal status?
- ☐ Was a U.S. citizen (by birth or by naturalization)
 - ☐ Was not a U.S. citizen
 - ☐ Other (please specify): _____
18. Have you ever altered your career progression to care for a dependent, spouse, or parent?
- ☐ No
 - ☐ Yes, left my position
 - ☐ Yes, worked part time/reduced schedule
 - ☐ Yes, postponed seeking tenure
 - ☐ Yes, postponed job search or promotion
 - ☐ Yes, other (please specify): _____
19. Have you ever altered your career progression for your spouse or partner's career?
- ☐ Yes
 - ☐ No
 - ☐ Not applicable
20. Has your spouse/partner altered his or her career progression for your career?
- ☐ Yes
 - ☐ No
 - ☐ Not applicable
21. Including your current one, how many presidencies have you held?
- ☐ 1
 - ☐ 2
 - ☐ 3
 - ☐ 4
 - ☐ 5 or more
22. Over the course of your career, for how many years were you (Type a number even if your response is 0 year):
- ☐ Primarily in the classroom/lab: ____ year(s)
 - ☐ Primarily a full-time administrator: ____ year(s)
 - ☐ Had duties split between academic and administrative responsibilities: ____ year(s)
 - ☐ Employed full time outside of higher education: ____ year(s)

23. Before your first presidency, in how many presidential searches were you a (Type a number even if your response is 0):

- ☐ Semi-finalist ("airport interview"): ____
- ☐ Finalist ("on-campus interview"): ____

24. How many formal, off-campus leadership development training programs did you participate in prior to first becoming a president (e.g., ACE Fellows Program, AASCU's Millennium Institute, Harvard's Institute for Educational Management (IEM), HERS Bryn Mawr Summer Institute, Kellogg Fellows Program, etc.)?

- ☐ 0
- ☐ 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3 or more

Your Education

25. Please check all the degrees you have earned: (Check **ALL** that apply.)

- ☐ Associate
- ☐ Bachelor's
- ☐ Master's (except MBA)
- ☐ MBA
- ☐ PhD
- ☐ EdD
- ☐ MD
- ☐ Other health-related degree (e.g., DDS, DVM)
- ☐ Law (e.g., JD, LLB, LLD, JSD)
- ☐ Other (e.g., theology, doctor of ministry, master of divinity)
- Please specify: _____

26. Please indicate the major field of study for your highest earned degree:

- ☐ Agriculture/natural resources
- ☐ Biological sciences
- ☐ Business
- ☐ Computer science
- ☐ Education or higher education
- ☐ Engineering
- ☐ Humanities/fine arts
- ☐ Law
- ☐ Mathematics
- ☐ Health professions
- ☐ Medicine
- ☐ Physical/natural sciences
- ☐ Religion/theology
- ☐ Social sciences

Your Background

27. Gender:

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female

28. Year of birth: 19 ____

29. Are you Hispanic or Latino(a)?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

30. What is your race? (Check **ALL** that apply.)

- ☐ White
- ☐ African American
- ☐ Asian
- ☐ Pacific Islander
- ☐ American Indian/Alaskan Native

31. Marital status:

- ☐ Never married (member of religious order)
- ☐ Never married
- ☐ Married
- ☐ Domestic partner
- ☐ Separated
- ☐ Divorced
- ☐ Widower/widow

32.1. Do you have children? (If “no,” skip to question number 33.)

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

32.2. Do you have children under the age of 18?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

33. Please indicate your religious preference:

- ☐ Buddhist
- ☐ Christian (Protestant)
- ☐ Christian (Roman Catholic)
- ☐ Jewish
- ☐ Muslim
- ☐ None
- ☐ Other (please specify): _____

The Search and Acceptance Process

34. Was a search consultant used in the search that resulted in your selection for this presidency?
- ☐ Yes
 - ☐ No
35. Before accepting the position, from whom did you seek advice in negotiating the terms of employment?
(Check **ALL** that apply.)
- ☐ Attorney
 - ☐ Colleagues in the field of higher education
 - ☐ Colleagues outside of higher education
 - ☐ Financial planner/accountant/other financial expert
 - ☐ Spouse/partner/family
 - ☐ Did not seek advice
 - ☐ Other (please specify):
- 36.1. Do you have a written contract? (If “no,” skip to question number 37.)
- ☐ Yes
 - ☐ No
- 36.2. What is the term of your current contract? (Type a number.) ____ year(s)
37. Do you feel that the disclosure in the search process provided:
- (a) A realistic assessment of the current challenges facing the institution?
 - ☐ Yes
 - ☐ No
 - (b) A full and accurate disclosure of the institution’s financial condition?
 - ☐ Yes
 - ☐ No
 - (c) A clear understanding of your spouse or domestic partner’s role, if applicable?
 - ☐ Yes
 - ☐ No
 - ☐ Not applicable
 - (d) A clear understanding of the board’s expectations?
 - ☐ Yes
 - ☐ No
 - (e) A clear understanding of the institution’s expectations?
 - ☐ Yes
 - ☐ No

38. Which of the following are parts of your agreed-upon conditions of employment? (Check **ALL** that apply.)

- ☐ Automobile (with or without a driver)
- ☐ Permission to pursue paid consulting opportunities
- ☐ Ability for paid corporate directorships
- ☐ Deferred compensation
- ☐ Pension/retirement contributions
- ☐ Performance-based bonuses
- ☐ Salary increase based on merit
- ☐ Presidential house
- ☐ Housing allowance
- ☐ Housekeeper
- ☐ Entertainment budget
- ☐ Club membership(s)
- ☐ Health and wellness
- ☐ Life insurance
- ☐ Retiree health insurance
- ☐ Long term care insurance
- ☐ Involuntary separation agreement
- ☐ Retention (time-based) bonuses
- ☐ Sabbaticals
- ☐ Professional development
- ☐ Professional retirement planning assistance

39.1. Do you have a formal annual performance evaluation? (If “no,” skip to question number 40.1.)

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

39.2. Who performs the evaluation?

- ☐ Board chair
- ☐ Board or sub-committee of board
- ☐ Independent/outside consultant
- ☐ System head
- ☐ Other (please specify): _____

40.1. Do you have periodic reviews every few years as part of your contract renewal? (If “no,” skip to question number 41.)

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

40.2. Who performs the periodic evaluation?

- ☐ Board chair
- ☐ Board or sub-committee of board
- ☐ Independent/outside consultant
- ☐ System head
- ☐ Other (please specify): _____

Your Spouse or Partner

41. Please describe the employment status of your spouse or domestic partner: (Check **ALL** that apply.)

- ☐ Compensated by institution for role as host, fund raiser, and/or spouse or domestic partner
- ☐ Employed at your institution, in capacity not related to president
- ☐ Unpaid participant in campus activities
- ☐ Employed outside of your institution
- ☐ Not applicable. No spouse or domestic partner

Your Duties and Institution

42. In which of the following areas did you feel insufficiently prepared for your first presidency? (Check **ALL** that apply.)

- ☐ Academic issues (e.g., curriculum changes)
- ☐ Accountability/assessment of student learning
- ☐ Athletics
- ☐ Budget/financial management
- ☐ Capital improvement projects
- ☐ Enrollment management
- ☐ Entrepreneurial ventures
- ☐ Faculty issues
- ☐ Personnel issues (excluding faculty)
- ☐ Fund raising
- ☐ Community relations
- ☐ Governing board relations
- ☐ Government relations
- ☐ Media/public relations
- ☐ Risk management/legal issues
- ☐ Crisis management
- ☐ Strategic planning
- ☐ Student life/conduct issues
- ☐ Technology planning
- ☐ Campus internationalization

43. Select the top **THREE** areas that you enjoy working in the most as a college president.

- ☐ Academic issues (e.g., curriculum changes)
- ☐ Accountability/assessment of student learning
- ☐ Athletics
- ☐ Budget/financial management
- ☐ Capital improvement projects
- ☐ Enrollment management
- ☐ Entrepreneurial ventures
- ☐ Faculty issues
- ☐ Personnel issues (excluding faculty)
- ☐ Fund raising
- ☐ Community relations
- ☐ Governing board relations
- ☐ Government relations
- ☐ Media/public relations

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- ☐ Risk management/legal issues
- ☐ Crisis management
- ☐ Strategic planning
- ☐ Student life/conduct issues
- ☐ Technology planning
- ☐ Campus internationalization

44. Select the top **THREE** areas that occupy most of your time.

- ☐ Academic issues (e.g., curriculum changes)
- ☐ Accountability/assessment of student learning
- ☐ Athletics
- ☐ Budget/financial management
- ☐ Capital improvement projects
- ☐ Enrollment management
- ☐ Entrepreneurial ventures
- ☐ Faculty issues
- ☐ Personnel issues (excluding faculty)
- ☐ Fund raising
- ☐ Community relations
- ☐ Governing board relations
- ☐ Government relations
- ☐ Media/public relations
- ☐ Risk management/legal issues
- ☐ Crisis management
- ☐ Strategic planning
- ☐ Student life/conduct issues
- ☐ Technology planning
- ☐ Campus internationalization

45. Select the top **THREE** constituent groups that provide the greatest reward to you as president.

- ☐ Administration and staff
- ☐ Alumni/ae
- ☐ Community residents/leaders
- ☐ Donors/benefactors
- ☐ Faculty
- ☐ Governing board
- ☐ Legislators and policy makers
- ☐ Media
- ☐ Parents
- ☐ Students
- ☐ System office or state coordinating board

46. Select the top **THREE** constituent groups that provide the greatest challenge to you as president.

- ☐ Administration and staff
- ☐ Alumni/ae
- ☐ Community residents/leaders
- ☐ Donors/benefactors
- ☐ Faculty
- ☐ Governing board

(continued on page 61)

- ☐ Legislators and policy makers
- ☐ Media
- ☐ Parents
- ☐ Students
- ☐ System office or state coordinating board

47. What **FIVE** things do you find most frustrating?

- ☐ Never enough money
- ☐ The belief by others that you are infinitely accessible (emails, meetings, etc.)
- ☐ Unclear expectations and metrics of success for you in this position
- ☐ The difficulty of cultivating leadership in others (e.g., faculty, chairs, deans, etc.)
- ☐ Unresponsive campus governance structures
- ☐ Board/board members
- ☐ Campus politics
- ☐ Cabinet dynamics
- ☐ Policy makers
- ☐ Unrealistic expectations to solve everyone's problems
- ☐ Problems inherited from the previous leadership
- ☐ Too many demands/not enough time
- ☐ Faculty resistance to change
- ☐ Athletics
- ☐ Work-life balance
- ☐ Lack of time to think/reflect
- ☐ Workforce management/recruitment, retention, and retirement

48. Since becoming president, do you perform any of the following regularly? (Check **ALL** that apply.)

- ☐ Conduct research in your academic discipline
- ☐ Teach a course by yourself
- ☐ Team teach a course
- ☐ Write for scholarly publication in your academic discipline
- ☐ Write about higher education issues

49.1. Are you a member of any external boards (e.g., board of trustees, board of governors, board of managers, executive board, etc.)? (If "no," skip to question number 50.1.)

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

49.2. On how many external board do you currently sit? (Type a number.) ____

49.3. Please indicate the TYPE of external boards on which you serve as a member at the present time:
(Check **ALL** that apply.)

- ☐ Nonprofit
- ☐ Publicly-held corporation
- ☐ Privately-held firm
- ☐ PreK or K-12 school
- ☐ Different college or university
- ☐ Economic development board
- ☐ Professional/higher education organization/association
- ☐ Other (please specify): _____

50.1. Did you begin your very first presidency prior to January 1, 2002? (If “no,” skip to the supplementary questions on the productivity of higher education institutions, which begin at question 51.)

☐ Yes

☐ No

	More	Same	Less	NA
Academic issues (e.g., curriculum changes)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Accountability/assessment of student learning	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Athletics	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Budget/financial management	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Capital improvement projects	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Enrollment management	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Entrepreneurial ventures	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Faculty issues	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Personnel issues (excluding faculty)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Fund raising	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Community relations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Governing board relations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Government relations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Media/public relations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Risk management/legal issues	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Crisis management	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Strategic planning	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Student life/conduct issues	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Technology planning	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Campus internationalization	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Long-serving Presidents

50.2. Select the top **THREE** areas that have increased in their level of importance since you first became a college president.

- ☐ Academic issues (e.g., curriculum changes)
- ☐ Accountability/assessment of student learning
- ☐ Athletics
- ☐ Budget/financial management
- ☐ Capital improvement projects
- ☐ Enrollment management
- ☐ Entrepreneurial ventures
- ☐ Faculty issues
- ☐ Personnel issues (excluding faculty)
- ☐ Fund raising
- ☐ Community relations
- ☐ Governing board relations
- ☐ Government relations
- ☐ Media/public relations
- ☐ Risk management/legal issues
- ☐ Crisis management
- ☐ Strategic planning
- ☐ Student life/conduct issues
- ☐ Technology planning
- ☐ Campus internationalization

50.3. What **FIVE** things did you find most frustrating when you first became president?

- ☐ Never enough money
- ☐ The belief by others that you are infinitely accessible (emails, meetings, etc.)
- ☐ Unclear expectations and metrics of success for you in this position
- ☐ The difficulty of cultivating leadership in others (e.g., faculty, chairs, deans, etc.)
- ☐ Unresponsive campus governance structures
- ☐ Board/board members
- ☐ Campus politics
- ☐ Cabinet dynamics
- ☐ Policy makers
- ☐ Unrealistic expectations to solve everyone's problems
- ☐ Problems inherited from the previous leadership
- ☐ Too many demands/not enough time
- ☐ Faculty resistance to change
- ☐ Athletics
- ☐ Work-life balance
- ☐ Lack of time to think/reflect
- ☐ Workforce management/recruitment, retention, and retirement

50.4. What percent of your time do you currently spend off campus or on external activities?

- ☐ 25% or less
- ☐ 26 to 50%
- ☐ 51 to 75%
- ☐ More than 75%

50.5. Compared to when you first began your presidency, which of the following best describes the distribution of your time?

- ☐ Now spend more time externally as opposed to internal, campus issues
- ☐ Now spend more time on internal campus issues than on external issues
- ☐ No change in distribution of time

50.6. Would you say you spend more time, less time, or the same amount of time on the following issues today than you did when you first became a college president? (*Please answer all items.*)

Source: American College President Survey (ACE, 2012)