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Study of the comparative perceptions of the communication of vision by Iowa Community College presidents

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Study of the comparative perceptions of the communication of vision by Iowa Community College presidents

by

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A dissertation submitted to the graduate faculty in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Major: Education (Higher Education)
Major Professors: Dr. George Jackson and Dr. Richard Warren

Iowa State University
Ames, Iowa
1997

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has met the dissertation requirements of Iowa State University

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ABSTRACT

This study was conducted to examine the perceptions of the communication of vision by Iowa community college presidents. The perceptions of two groups with whom community college presidents interact on a regular basis, members of the boards of directors and leadership team members, are investigated and compared with the perceptions of the communication of vision the presidents have of themselves. The entire populations of these three groups, 242 individuals, were invited to participate in the study with a return rate of 73%.

The approach taken in this study begins with an historical look at leadership and the significance of vision as a vital part of leadership. Major research methods associated with the leadership are reviewed as well as the distinguishing elements of leadership and leadership effectiveness. Strategies, behaviors, and practices employed by successful and effective leaders to share, translate, or otherwise communicate vision are reviewed. Answers are sought to several questions: How do Iowa’s community college presidents perceive themselves as communication vision? To what degree do Iowa community college presidents perceive themselves as utilizing the strategies, behaviors, and practices used by successful and effective leaders? Are the
perceptions of Iowa community college presidents' communication of vision the same as the perceptions of members of their boards of directors and leadership team members?

A survey in the form of a questionnaire was developed and distributed to the entire population of presidents, board members, and leadership team members. The findings of the study reveal that board members perceive the presidents' communication of vision in much the same way as do the presidents themselves. There is a difference, however, in the perceptions of the communication of vision between presidents and leadership team members.

Conclusions are drawn from the data analysis. Among them is the possibility that Iowa community college presidents may not be utilizing the same strategies to the same degree to communicate vision with leadership team members as with members of the boards of directors. Another conclusion is that presidents may not have selected leadership team members with the training and/or experience to comprehend their vision communicating strategies, behaviors, and practices.
CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

The research conducted by business, industry, and education on leadership for the past two decades has associated vision with leadership effectiveness. Vision has been identified as an integral part of leadership. Some of that research has focused on the investigation of those characteristics held in common, demonstrated, and exercised by those perceived as possessing vision. When these individuals that possess vision share that vision by communicating it to others for a desired outcome or result, they create futures for themselves and their organizations that they are instrumental in shaping and bringing about. The quality of not only possessing the vision, but the ability to effectively articulate that vision to others is one that business, industry, and education search for in the leaders they employ as top level managers and executives.

History abounds with models of outstanding leadership in which men and women perceived to possess vision have widely shared their visions of the future. Roueche, Baker, and Rose (1989), in their study of leadership in successful community colleges, make historical reference to such
individuals as Queen Isabella of Spain, James Madison, and Thomas Jefferson as having vision. More modern-day reference is made to individuals like Harry Truman and Lee Iacocca. Deal and Kennedy (1982) refer to Mary Kay Ash, who leads one of the largest organizations in the world headed by a woman --Mary Kay Cosmetics--as a "visionary hero." Reference is made to other contemporary leaders of organizations, such as Dave Packard of Hewlett-Packard, Pierre DuPont of DuPont, and Helena Rubenstein of the company named for her, as visionary heroes. Roueche et al.'s 1989 study confirms the findings of other researchers of leadership with emphasis on contemporary and past influential leaders, and refer to these leaders as "dreamers and visionaries." "They were [are] people who looked beyond the confines of space and time to transcend the traditional boundaries of either their positions or their organizations" (p. 109). Visionaries share a unique view of the future that they help to create. They are mindful of their plans, and the resulting actions developed to achieve the ambitions set for themselves. Dedicated to their views of the future, leaders apprise and persuade others to share, or participate, in the realization of their visions.

The focus of attention on vision is a relatively recent development in the research on leadership. It has been seen as playing a key role in the success of executives and top
level management personnel. In a qualitative study of 90 successful leaders, Bennis and Nanus (1985), identified four primary themes shared by these leaders. The first two, which are important for the purposes of this study are: "attention through vision" and "meaning through communication." The first theme, "attention through vision," is demonstrated by identifying and creating a focus. Possessing vision is a prerequisite requirement to the articulation of a viable and desirable outcome or result, a plan, for an organization.

Roueche et al. (1989) translate the idea of sharing vision as a way of transcending mere self-interests to create awareness and arousal of higher-level needs and considerations for their organizations. Individual identity, many times, is lost along with the built-in human efforts to "make a difference." These leaders, which Roueche et al. (1989) refer to as "transformational" leaders, express "the reward of individual recognition through attention to vision, while helping people in the organization to know pride and satisfaction with their work." Schein (1985) contends that these leaders "form and 'transform' the culture of their organizations by consciously attending to, systematically dealing with, and attempting to control follower behavior." The transformational leaders' behaviors touch others, particularly those in their management teams, "about what they consider to be important" (Baker, 1992).
They convey values, beliefs, and assumptions by spending time on matters they consider significant, consistently addressing certain issues and responding to key organizational concerns. In addition, the more explicit and consistent their behavior, the more readily followers understand how the leaders feel about organizational issues.

Much has been written and numerous studies have been conducted on the subject of leadership. A majority of the principal approaches to the study of leadership have gone through three dominant phases: trait approach, attitudinal approach, and situational approach. Before 1945 the focus of attention in studies of leadership was on the investigation of traits common to those viewed as leaders. Researchers examining the relationship of leadership to the possession of a specific trait, or group of traits, found little that supports or substantiates that there are no traits that impede or enable leadership. The research indicates that no trait, or set of traits, can be proven to predict success or failure. Insufficient validation of the leadership-trait correlation has promoted the investigation of other aspects of leadership, such as the role of attitude.

Much of the research conducted on the role of the attitude in leadership occurred in the two decades from the mid 1940s to the mid 1960s. Many of these studies were pencil and paper instruments used to measure attitudes and
propensities toward leader behavior. Notable among such attitudinal studies of leadership are the Ohio and Michigan State Leadership Studies (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). Blake (1981) and Blake and Mouton (1964, 1982) formalized their Managerial Grid, which was used extensively in management development programs. Other studies like that of Likert (1961), and ones on styles of leadership, have added to the expanding body of knowledge on leadership.

The attention given to situational implications of leadership is an observed behavior rather than an inborn or acquired ability or potential for leadership. The focus in a situational approach to leadership is on behavior of leaders and those they lead in a variety of situations or environments. Examinations of the situational approaches to leadership have produced results that have encouraged the training of individuals to adapting behavior to specific situations. Consequently, it is thought that leadership effectiveness may be increased through education, training, and development.

The 1989 Roueche et al. study of community college presidents demonstrated that they invest considerable time and energy in three significant types of leadership activity: creating an appropriate climate for organizational success; developing an institutional vision for the future; and involving constituents in a comprehensive strategic
planning process designed to perpetuate the desired climate and bring full realization to organizational vision.

According to Bolster (1989), in a paper for the American Education Research Association, Bennis and Nanus use the phrase "'meaning through communication' to refer to the strategies and languages used in communication which create meaning." Leaders in the community college, as well as in business and industry, have to recognize their responsibilities to create meaning for others. Leadership must focus attention on symbolic and cultural activity in order to mobilize shared commitment toward a common vision. Viewing the organization from a cultural perspective can create significant insights, enabling the leader to expose and manipulate the symbolic field in the interest of all the institution’s stakeholders: leaders, members, and constituents alike (Baker, 1992).

Roueche et al. (1989), express the same idea with the following:

Meaning through communication is based upon the premise that organizations depend on the existence of shared meanings and interpretations of reality which facilitate coordinated action. Thus, an essential factor of leadership is the capacity of influence and organize meaning for members of the organization. The transformational leader accomplished this through the articulation and definition of what has previously remained implicit by inventing images, metaphors, and models that provide a focus for new attention. (p. 27)

Several other research studies have found that having a vision, and the ability to articulate it, are two important
characteristics of effective leaders. Notable among these studies are ones that focus on leaders in schools, the principals. One such study by Stevens and Marsh (1987), presented in a paper at a meeting of the American Educational Research Association, investigated the role of vision in the life of elementary school principals to find that a proactive approach is a critical component of effective principal behavior, and that one of the preconditions of proactive behavior is vision. Stevens and Marsh (1987) found that principals possessing vision can devise and implement a plan for achieving a vision. Rutherford (1985) reported on a study which focused on the characteristics of more effective and less effective principals, finding that possessing a vision was a significant feature of the former. Effective principals could describe their visions while less effective principals had "no vision for their schools; they focused on maintaining tranquility in the here and now" (p. 32).

Principals who are focused on the present have less time to plan for the future. Principals with a vision are able to set priorities so that organizational maintenance does not become their sole preoccupation (Bredeson & Kennedy, 1985; Manassee, 1986). Dwyer (1984) feels that principals with vision and initiative can accomplish necessary improvements in their schools. According to
Greenfield (1986), the vision of the principal serves as a guide as he "sets about the activities of managing and leading a school," and that principals are then able "to articulate a coherent and compelling vision to others regarding school purposes and activities."

Greenfield (1986) has argued that evolving a vision requires moral imagination and articulating a vision involves interpersonal competence, both of which he believes are not components of the training administrators receive. Moral imagination, according to Greenfield, refers to the ability to see the discrepancy between how things are and how they might be, and apply a standard of goodness that illuminates the discrepancy between the present and what is possible, and better. A standard of goodness reflects an individual's value system and in an organization where members differ in values, conflicting standards of goodness will be present. He believes, therefore, that principals must also have interpersonal competence which he defines as "the ability to elicit desired task responses from another. Interpersonal competence refers to the knowledge and skills, the competence, needed to influence teachers and others in the desired direction" (p. 18). The challenge is to develop a working consensus among teachers as to what the situation is and what needs to be done.
Sheive and Schoenheit (1987), in a study of leaders in New York, found that five themes "help to explain how educational leaders develop and articulate their visions" (p. 99). The themes are: (a) to see the vision or value it, (b) to reflect whereby leaders own the vision, (c) to articulate their vision by making the private vision public, (d) to plan or develop strategies, and (e) to mobilize people through action. Leaders who have reached this step "get things done."

Vision must be communicated to members of the organization in order to make the private vision public, or develop consensus. Newberg and Glatthorn (1982), in four ethnographic studies of instructional leadership, found slogans as one method used by principals to provide focus. In one school, they noted that the slogan was supported by explicit policies. Greenfield (1986) believes that principals rely on symbols and persuasion in addition to interpersonal competence. Metaphors and personal behavior have been cited as strategies utilized to communicate vision by other researchers (Bredeson & Kennedy, 1985; Manassee, 1986). Manassee contends that principals model their vision through their actions, and that strategic vision allows leaders to make on-the-spot decisions that are consistent so that the message from their actions supports the message in their words. She concludes that with these strategies, and
given time, teachers begin to see the underlying rationale. Dwyer (1984) advocates communicating vision to staff in small steps and with attention to the daily-ness of the improvement effort; however, he believes that it is not clear just how principals translate between a vision and daily-ness, and how activities mesh with an overall vision or plan.

Manassee (1986) identified four types of vision required by administrative leaders: organizational vision, future vision, personal vision, and strategic vision. She expressed the relationship among them in the following way:

Strategic vision involves connecting the reality of the present (organizational vision) to possibilities of the future (future vision) in a unique way (personal vision) that is appropriate for the organization and its leader. (p. 162)

She introduced a time element with the types of vision required of administrative leaders, an element alluded to in other research for those leaders responsible for forming and transforming the cultures of the organizations they lead (Baker, 1992).

Statement of the Problem

Much of the current research on developing and communicating vision has focused on principals and describes what they want to do, what they are doing, and what they say they are doing. Little, if any, attention has been dedicated
to the receivers of all this "doing." If principals say they are articulating their visions to the staff, how are recipients perceiving the communication? In other words, do the followers in organizations know or see their leaders' visions? As for leaders in community colleges, the study conducted by Roueche, Baker, and Rose (1989), and the follow-up study conducted by Baker (1992) are models for the research on the community college presidency. The first study investigates the community college presidency as sharing vision, while the second examines the community college presidency from a cultural perspective. The present research endeavor proposes to determine if specific behaviors, practices, strategies, etc., identified in the literature, such as involving vested parties in planning for the future, are evident in the communication of vision by Iowa's community college presidents. This study also proposes to determine the perceived magnitude of the utilization of any practices, strategies, or behaviors by presidents, board members, and members of the leadership or management teams in each Iowa community college district.

Questions of the Study

1. How do Iowa's community college presidents communicate their vision to members of their boards of
directors and members of their respective leadership or management teams?

2. Are there common ways in which Iowa's community college presidents communicate their vision to members of their boards of directors and members of their respective leadership teams?

3. What strategies, methods, behaviors, practices, etc., are used by Iowa's community college presidents to communicate their vision to members of their respective boards and leadership teams?

4. Are the perceptions of Iowa community college presidents' communication of their vision the same as the perceptions of members of their respective boards of directors?

5. Are the presidents' perceptions of their communication of their own vision the same as the perceptions of their leadership teams?

6. Are the perceptions of the communication of vision by Iowa community college presidents the same for their respective members of their boards and leadership teams?

Definition of Terms

Vision: A view of the future, a plan.
Communication of Vision: This concept refers to the behaviors, practices, etc., used by Iowa’s community college presidents to share, or articulate their vision.

Perceptions: This concept refers to the actual experience of, or the awareness or impressions of, acts of expression of meaning arrived at through the senses.

Leadership/Management Team: This concept refers to those individuals, in each of Iowa’s community college districts, who report to, or have primary responsibility to, the colleges’ presidents. They may also be called administrators.

Board of Directors/Trustees: This designation refers to those individuals elected or appointed to the board of directors.

Assumptions of the Study

1. The members of the boards of directors of each of Iowa’s community college districts, who ultimately are responsible for hiring the presidents of their respective community colleges, perceive their presidents as having vision.

2. It is assumed that an acceptable sampling of the various groups in the study is utilized, as all current Iowa community college presidents and members of their respective
boards of directors and leadership or management teams are asked to respond to the instrument.

3. Respondents will be forthright and honest in their responses to the instrument utilized to assess their perceptions of the communication of vision.

Hypotheses to be Tested

Based on the current literature, purposes of this study, and research questions, the following hypotheses are developed to be tested.

1. There is no difference ($p < .05$) in the perceptions of the communication of vision by Iowa's community college presidents themselves and members of their respective boards of directors.

2. There is no difference ($p < .05$) in the perceptions of the communication of vision by Iowa's community college presidents themselves and members of their respective leadership/management teams.

3. There is no difference ($p < .05$) in the perceptions of the communication of vision by Iowa's community college presidents themselves and the average for respective members of the boards of directors and the respective members of the leadership/management teams.
4. There is no difference (p < .05) in the perceptions of the presidents' communication of vision between board members and leadership or management team members.

Purpose of the Study

A comparison of perceptions of the communication of vision by Iowa's community college presidents is the subject of this proposed research endeavor. The study has several purposes. The first purpose of this study was to determine how, and to what extent, Iowa's community college presidents view themselves as communicating their vision. A second purpose was to assess the perceptions of the presidents' communication of vision by the members of each college's board of directors. A third purpose was to ascertain the perceptions of the communication of vision, and magnitude of those perceptions by members of each college president's leadership or management team. Finally, it was the purpose of this study to discover if a link exists among the perceptions of the communication of vision within these three groups, and if so, the extent or degree of any linkage.

Need for the Study

The need expressed by education, business, and industry to employ and retain individuals with vision for their
leadership and management teams is evident. The possession of vision is a requirement of the leadership in organizations and institutions determined to shape the futures that they help to create. Institutions and organizations are in a state of continuous change, many in the exploration of ways to genuinely improve quality and effectiveness. These institutions and organizations aspire to employ individuals with vision to place and maintain them at the forefront of innovation, effectiveness, and quality.

The communication of vision by the leaders of an organization, like communication generally, can be a tremendous problem. So, too, is the enormity of the problem of the possession of vision without an accompanying notion of how to employ it effectively for intended purposes. The administrative and management training of future leaders in education, business, and industry could provide preparation which places more significance on the development of vision, but even more importantly, the identification of those ways found to be instrumental in communicating vision for greatest effect. In addition, training and educational institutions of all types may want to pay more attention to the development of personal skill in the utilization of the identified methods of communicating vision employed by successful leaders. It should be noted that the type of training suggested here should be conducted by placing
emphasis on the individual trainee's personal communication style and level of comfort with a specific vision-communicating strategy. The possession of vision is a good thing, it would seem, but the mere possession of vision is virtually meaningless if it is not communicated to or shared with others.

General Procedure for the Study

Based on a review of the literature on vision which indicated that possession of vision is a leadership characteristic of those leading successful enterprises, as well as the importance of communicating that vision, a questionnaire was developed and mailed to each one of the presidents of Iowa's community college districts. The same instrument, with revisions to make an assessment of the perceptions of their respective president's use of specific strategies, and at what perceived magnitude, was developed and distributed to the 121 members of the boards of directors of the community college districts. The same revised questionnaire was used with members of each president's leadership or management team, with varying numbers of individuals in this category from college to college. The questions were either adapted from one or more of those used in the Roueche et al. (1989) study, or developed utilizing strategies, behaviors, modeling, etc.,
identified numerous times in the literature. The degree or magnitude of the level of a particular strategy's perceived utility is measured using a Likert scale.

Analysis of variance procedures were used to test the difference between the means of the responses for the perceived magnitude of use of particular strategies by Iowa's community college presidents, boards of directors, and leadership or management teams.

Significance of the Study

The study is significant in that it provides answers to questions which will expand the body of knowledge on vision, specifically, the methods or strategies utilized by leaders in community colleges, as well as other institutions and organizations, to communicate vision. The possession of vision is very important, but mere possession of vision is not enough today. The identification of adequate, accurate, and appropriate vehicles to share that vision through the communication of meaningful and purposeful change presents opportunities for the transformation of training programs for future executive, administrative, and management leaders in education, business, and industry.

For leaders currently in executive, administrative, and high level management positions in all types of organizations and institutions, the discoveries of this
study may help them adapt their own personal leadership actions and behaviors to ones which may yield specific outcomes. Leadership training throughout the United States and the world is big business. Institutions of higher education and training departments of large corporations spend millions each year to train those comprising not only their own leadership and management teams, but those of countless other organizations and institutions. Numerous implications of this study offer colleges, universities, corporations, as well as consultants in private practice training, opportunities to facilitate the development of vision-communicating skills.

It is hoped that the findings of this study and the implications of those findings will contribute to a better understanding by individuals currently in leadership roles of more meaningful, worthwhile, and targeted adaptations of their communication of their vision for greater effect and impact. It is also hoped that those aspiring to leadership endeavors will gain insight into the nuances of communicating in general, but more specifically, the communication of a concept as intangible and elusive as a view of the future called vision. For those in positions reporting to top level executives, it is hoped that the results of this study will cause them to examine the successful, and even not-so-successful, strategies utilized
by those they report to, in order to internalize those strategies and behaviors that they determine would, or would not, work to their advantage.

Finally, it is hoped that the implications of this study will improve the knowledge base and the understanding of those serving as board members, top-level managers, faculty, students, and other stakeholders in the success of a community college, or other organization, when serving on search committees to fill important, even critical positions.

Study Limitations

This study is limited in the number of presidents asked to respond to the questionnaire developed. There are only 15 community college presidents in the State of Iowa. This study used the entire population of community college presidents in the state. The study is also limited to the extent that only some of the strategies identified in the literature as being used by successful leaders, including community college presidents, to communicate vision are used in the questionnaire. There are more strategies, ways of behaving, and modeling identified than used in this study. Also, the study is limited in that it is not attempting to identify strategies used by Iowa's community college presidents that may not appear in the literature.
The study is limited also by the response rate of the three groups of questionnaire respondents. Of particular concern for this limitation are the small numbers of community college presidents in the State of Iowa. The number of possible leadership or management team member respondents, the number of persons in each community college reporting directly to, or having primary responsibility to the president, varies from college to college.

The largest community college may have 10 to 15 persons comprising the leadership or management team, while smaller community colleges in Iowa may have only 2 to 4 persons reporting directly to, or having primary responsibility to, the president.

Finally, the study is limited in that there are no females or minorities serving as presidents of community colleges in the State of Iowa. This limitation may affect the extent of the perceived level of use of a specific strategy, or strategies. Women and minority individuals may operate quite differently from white males in the same set of circumstances. It may even be possible that women and minority individuals may even use strategies and behave in ways not mentioned in the literature as commonly practiced.
CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Chapter 1 introduced vision as an integral part of leadership. The chapter goes on to describe some of the research that focuses on the examination of those characteristics held in common, demonstrated, and exercised by those perceived to possess vision. Vision's significance rests not with those that only possess it, but in their ability to effectively articulate that vision to others. The value of vision is in its ability to be widely shared in such a way that the preferable and achievable outcomes imagined are realized. A successful leader not only possesses vision, but is adept and even skillful at sharing his vision with others that eventually own and work for the fulfillment of the vision.

The study's purposes were presented in the first chapter. Among those purposes was a determination of the ways, and the magnitude, that Iowa's community college presidents perceive themselves as communicating their vision. The Iowa community college presidents' perceptions of their own communication of vision is then compared to the perceptions of the presidents' communication of vision by members of their boards of directors. The same comparison is
then made between the presidents' perceptions and those of members of their leadership or management teams. An assessment may then be made of the comparative data to uncover and analyze the degree to which the presidents perceive themselves, and their board members and management team members perceive their presidents, as employing those behaviors, strategies, and practices that the research reveals are used by effective leaders of organizations.

Chapter 1 also provides a statement of the problem of the study, the relevant research questions, and conceptual definitions of terms that are meant to aid the reader in understanding the particular focus of the study. In addition, the first chapter offers the assumptions and limitations of the study, as well as the researcher's perceived need for the study and the general procedure utilized in the study.

Overview of Literature Review

The review of the literature for this study is in no way intended to be an exhaustive examination of all the research done on leadership, or even the role of vision in leadership. The review of the literature for this study is intended to address leadership historically to provide the reader with a basis from which to establish an understanding of the critical relationship of vision to leadership. The
literature review will also examine the various means by which vision is widely shared by leaders of organizations. The review of the literature explores leadership research from a theoretical perspective as it relates to organizational behavior closely or specifically associated with this study. Affirmation of the need for the study is supported by the literature review.

This chapter is divided into seven sections: an overview of the research literature on leadership; background and definitions of leadership; major research approaches; leadership effectiveness; distinguishing elements of leadership; the role of vision in leadership; and finally, the communication of vision and its relationship to the present study. It should be noted that clear distinctions are attempted to differentiate sections whenever possible, but there are instances where strong connections exist and overlap is inevitable.

Some of the sections have been further subdivided into subsections to help guide the reader through the literature review. Section one provides a purpose for the literature review, as well as a general overview of the literature. Section two examines the historical background of the term leadership and its use in the English language. This section also provides definitions that are offered for leadership and the confusion that has resulted from the numerous
definitions of leadership. Section three briefly explores the major approaches to the study of leadership to provide a theoretical base for leadership research. This section also reviews the research literature on various types of leadership and the related theory associated with each.

Section four probes into leadership effectiveness to determine those aspects of leadership that make a leader effective. Section five deals with the distinguishing elements of leadership such as the attributes, characteristics, traits, behaviors, practices, etc., that the literature suggests are essential components of leadership that contribute to the communication of vision. Section six examines the role of vision in leadership. Finally, section seven examines the communication of vision as it relates to the present study. Interwoven throughout each section is the connection, or relationship, that is or can be made of aspects of leadership to the communication of vision by Iowa community college presidents.

Leadership: Background and Definitions

A review of the literature on leadership has revealed that the word itself has a fairly recent history as a part of the English language. The word leadership has been used for only about two centuries, though the root word, leader, dates back to 1300 A.D. Understandings of the word's meaning
generally suggest that at different periods in time one or more members of a group may be singled out as a leader as a result of some perceptible distinction between the person(s) and other members, known as "followers" or "subordinates" (Stogdill, 1974). But no one definition seems to stand out as the best definition, as various researchers have each defined it from their own perspective. Each investigator has examined aspects of leadership of personal interest. It would seem, according to Roueche et al. (1989) that "there is considerable confusion surrounding its [leadership's] very definition" (p. 18). They agree with Hoy and Miskel (1987) that leadership is evasive, with as many different definitions as there are those who research the subject. Yukl (1989) claims that leadership is "a word that is taken from the common vocabulary and incorporated into the technical vocabulary of a scientific discipline without being precisely redefined" (p. 2). As a result, meanings exist that lend themselves to vagueness (Janda, 1960). Additional ambiguity exists as a result of the association of leadership with other not clearly perceived or perceptible terms such as power, authority, management, administration, control, and supervision to report the same meaning. Warren Bennis (1959) concludes:

Always, it seems, the concept of leadership eludes us or turns up in another form to taunt us again with its slipperiness and complexity. So we have invented and
endless proliferation of terms to deal with . . . and still the concept is not sufficiently defined. (p. 259)

Stodgill (1974) agrees "that there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept" (p. 259). Yukl (1989, pp. 2-3) provides a range of typical definitions that have been used over the past three to four decades:

1. Leadership is 'the behavior of an individual when he is directing the activities of a group toward a shared goal'. (Hemphill & Coons, 1957, p. 7)
2. Leadership is 'a particular type of power relationship characterized by a group member's perception that another member has the right to prescribe behavior pattern for the former regarding his activity as a group member'. (Janda, 1960, p. 358)
3. Leadership is 'the interpersonal influence, exercised in a situation, and directed, through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specified goal or goals'. (Tannenbaum, Weschler, & Massarik, 1961, p. 24)
4. Leadership is 'an interaction between persons in which one presents information of a sort and in such a manner that the other becomes convinced that his outcomes . . . will be improved if he behaves in the manner suggested or desired'. (Jacobs, 1970, p. 232)
5. Leadership is 'the initiation and maintenance of structure in expectation and interaction'. (Stogdill, 1974, p. 411)
6. Leadership is 'the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organization'. (Katz & Kahn, p. 528)
7. Leadership is 'the process of influencing the activities of an organized group toward goal achievement'. (Rauch & Behling, 1984, p. 46)

The above definitions are representative of many other definitions that exist of leadership. Yukl's (1989) research of these and numerous other definitions of leadership
indicate that the word is "defined in terms of individual traits, behavior, influence over other people, interaction patterns, role relationships, occupation of an administrative position, and perception by others regarding legitimacy of influence" (p. 2).

Many different definitions of leadership exist among the various researchers, so there seems to be no consensus, or agreement by all, or even most researchers, on one precise definition of leadership. But there seems to be agreement among researchers of the existence of what Yukl (1989) calls a "common denominator" (p. 3). The "common denominator" that Yukl refers to are those common aspects of leadership that it would seem most researchers agree upon. Leadership represents a group event in which interaction occurs between two or more persons. Leadership also represents an influence process in which willful influence is exercised by the leader over followers. Roueche et al. (1989) cite Arthur Jago (1984) as presenting an inclusive definition that includes facets of a number of researchers:

Leadership is both a process and a property of the individual. The process of leadership is the use of non-coercive influence to direct and coordinate the activities of the member of an organized group toward the accomplishment of group objectives. As a property, leadership is the set of qualities of characteristics attributed to those who are perceived to successfully employ such influence. (p. 2).

According to Roueche et al. (1989) Jago's definition suggests that "leadership is not only some quality or
characteristic that one possesses or is perceived to possess, but also something that one does" (p. 18). They feel, therefore, that leadership represents an activity as well as an individual; and is evidenced through people interactions and intimates "followership" (p. 18). Even though many differences exist in the definitions of leadership provided by various researchers of the phenomena, they all seem to indicate mutual aspects of leadership that are vital to a broader and more comprehensive meaning or understanding of the term.

Major Research Approaches

Leadership has been studied in a number of ways by numerous researchers. Each researcher examines leadership according to his/her individual perspective and the particular aspect of the phenomenon of interest to them. According to Yukl (1989), "nearly all leadership research can be classified into one of the following four approaches: (1) power-influence, (2) behavior approach, (3) trait approach, (4) situational approach" (p. 7).

Power-influence approach

The ability that enables a person to cause compliance from, or to exert influence over, others is power. Like the confusion that exists as a result of the numerous definitions of leadership, there is considerable conceptual
confusion about influence processes of leadership. Much of the power-influence research conducted seeks to offer an explanation of leadership in terms of the amount of power the leader possesses, the types of power the leader possesses, and the manner in which the power is used. While generally referring to one’s capacity to exert influence over a specific person or persons, power is often used in different ways by different researchers (Dahl, 1957; Grimes, 1978; House, 1988; Jacobs, 1970; Kotter, 1985; Mintzberg, 1983; Pfeffer, 1981). At times, power may mean one’s ability to influence a specific person’s behavior, while at other times, it may mean influence over a person’s attitudes as well as behavior. Yukl (1989) offers a definition of power which is dependent on the relative rather than absolute degree to which the leader has more influence over the follower than the follower has over the leader. A modification of this definition is the follower’s ability to influence the leader without fear of reprisal. Occasionally, power refers to the leader’s influence over a single person, but may mean the leader’s influence over a number of persons. And at times, power may mean potential influence over things as well as people. Since potential influence is difficult to measure accurately, some definitions of power refer to the amount of influence exerted by a leader. Yukl (1989) admits that none of these definitions is best in all
situations, but feels it is best to settle, for the purpose of communication clarity, with one definition: a person’s potential influence over the attitudes and behavior of one or more persons.

Power emanates from a variety of sources. It may be derived from the position one holds in a group or organization, or it may result from positive personality factors. Etzioni (1961) differentiates between personal power and position power. He claims that power is derived from either personal influence or an organizational office, or both. Persons who obtain their power from their followers have personal power, while persons who obtain their power as a result of the position they hold have position power, also called legitimate power. Personal power, also known as referent or charismatic power, is based on the personality one has and how that personality is perceive by others. Hersey and Blanchard (1988) define personal power as “the extent to which followers respect, feel good about, and are committed to their leader, and see their goals as being satisfied by the goals of the leader” (p. 205). Yukl (1989) advises that:

Power is derived in part from the opportunities in a person’s position in the organization; this ‘position power’ includes legitimate authority, control over resources, control over information, control over punishments, and ecological control. Power also depends on attributes of the interpersonal relationship between agent and target person; this ‘personal power’ includes
relative task expertise, friendship and loyalty, and a leader's charismatic qualities. (p. 15)

Various researchers have studied, and continue to study, the power aspect of leadership from various perspectives. Power obtained from a great personality and that power one commands because of the position one occupies remains a significant portion of the research conducted on power. The research done on power is varied, and has added to the body of knowledge on the subject and its obvious role in leadership. But the research has moved beyond the sources of power, the distinguishing factors of individual, and how the circumstances come together in various situations to address questions such as how much power a person commands, how power is gained or lost in interpersonal interaction, and how the circumstances of the situation and environment develop and emerge. These and numerous other related issues exist that are fertile for additional research on an individual's power, not to mention the power at higher levels of an organization (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).

Other sources of power, or power bases, have been identified by other researchers (Beene, 1943; French & Raven, 1959) or added to (Raven & Kruglanski, 1975). According to Hersey and Blanchard (1988), seven of the basis of power are:

1. Coercive power--the perceived ability to provide sanctions (p. 208)
2. Connection power—the perceived association with influential persons or organizations (p. 209)
3. Reward Power—the perceived ability to provide things that people would like to have (p. 209)
4. Legitimate power—the perception that it is appropriate for the leader to make decisions due to title or position in the organization. (p. 209)
5. Referent power—the perceived attractiveness of interacting with another person (p. 210)
6. Information power—the perceived access to—or possession of—useful information (p. 210)
7. Expert power—the perception that the leader has relevant education, experience and expertise. (p. 210)

A significant amount of research has been conducted on power to determine which base of power is to be utilized to produce the most effective results (Bachman, Bowers, & Marcus, 1968; Bachman, Smith, & Slesinger, 1966; Burke & Wilcox, 1971; Ivancevich & Donnelly, 1970; Jamieson & Thomas, 1974; Student, 1968). But the results of this research is not definitive enough to offer one power base as the best. Kipnis (1976) and Ivancevich (1970) concur that the power base considered to be most effective depends, to a large extent, on the particular circumstances of the situation.

**Behavior approach**

The behavior approach places emphasis on what leaders actually do. The research conducted that examines the behavior approach falls into two categories. The studies performed on the nature of a leader's work is primarily descriptive in that they utilized methods such as
observation, diaries, and information from interviews to focus on what leaders do and how they use their time. More and more descriptive research is being conducted, and according to Yukl (1989) a more vivid portrayal of the nature of managerial work is becoming evident for persons in formal leadership positions. Another category of research utilizing the behavior approach seeks to identify variations in patterns of behavior between effective and ineffective leaders. Numerous studies have been conducted to determine the relationship between pencil and paper measures of leadership behavior and measures of follower/subordinate satisfaction and performance. Some studies have been conducted which use field and laboratory experimentation to examine how, and to what extent, leader behavior influences follower/ subordinate satisfaction and performance.

The work of a leader is characterized by numerous short oral interactions, many of which are with individuals outside the leader’s authority. The descriptive research has revealed that the leader’s work is typically fervid, varied, disjointed, disorderly, and political. It is characterized by numerous short oral interactions, many of which are with individuals outside the leader’s supervisory authority. Decision making is very political and planning is informal and adaptive.
The identification of significant and appropriate groupings of the leader’s work has been a huge problem. One solution to this problem has been the taxonomy of the manager’s role offered by Mintzberg (1973). Job description research offers another solution to the problem. Mintzberg’s taxonomy and job description research, along with affiliated interview research proposes that managerial work encompasses four kinds of series of actions or operations: (a) creating and sustaining relationships, (b) obtaining and sharing information, (c) influencing others, and (d) making decisions (Yukl, 1989).

Yukl (1989) reports that of the research done in the past 40 years on leader behavior, most have used questionnaires to measure consideration and initiating structure. Yet, other studies have been conducted to control task and relationship behavior in laboratory and field experiments. He notes, though, that the results of this research has been inconsistent, except for finding that leaders that are considerate, more often than not, have more satisfied subordinates. And although the theories developed from the examinations of task- and relationship-oriented leadership behavior are not conclusive, the results would seem to indicate that effective leaders have at least a reasonable level of both task- and relationship-oriented behavior.
Various taxonomies have been offered to describe leader behavior in terms other than those of tasks and relationships. The differences between these classification systems are speculated to be due to variations in purpose, scope, and method of development. The taxonomies developed to translate behavior observations cannot be expected to correlate precisely to those developed to represent the responsibilities of a position, or those utilized to classify effective leader behavior.

Trait approach

The trait approach places emphasis on the personal attributes of leaders. The very early leadership studies connected leader success to the possession of rare personal qualities such as high energy, uncanny foresight, or extraordinary persuasive powers. These inherent personal qualities, such as intelligence, were considered to be transferable from one situation to another. Since all individuals did not possess these qualities, only those who had them would be considered potential leaders. Yukl (1989) notes that "hundreds of trait studies were conducted during the 1930s and 1940s to discover these elusive qualities, but this massive research effort failed to find any traits that would guarantee leadership success" (p. 9).

Yukl (1989) goes on to point out that:
The old assumption that "leaders are born" has been discredited completely, and the premise that certain leader traits are absolutely necessary for effective leadership has never been substantiated in several decades of trait research. Today there is a more balanced viewpoint about traits. It is now recognized that certain traits increase the likelihood that a leader will be effective, but they do not guarantee effectiveness, and the relative importance of different traits is dependent upon the nature of the leadership situation. (p. 70)

Later trait research continues, and has the benefit of better research design and new methodology. This later research is uncovering how leader attributes are related to leadership behavior and effectiveness. The attention of much of the more recent trait research has been on the ways leaders motivate others and the specific skills they possess, while earlier research focused more on personality traits or general intelligence. Warren Bennis (1984) completed a five-year study of 90 leaders and their subordinates. His research identified four traits, or areas of competence, that is shared by all these leaders: (a) management of attention—the ability to communicate a sense of outcome, goal, or direction that attracts followers; (b) management of meaning—the ability to create and communicate meaning with clarity and understanding; (c) management of trust—the ability to be reliable and consistent so people can count on them; and (d) management of self—the ability to know one's self and to use one's skills within the limits of strengths and weaknesses. This
would seem to imply that leaders develop or create positive environments in which people are made to feel important, where learning and competence matter, where people are made to feel a part of a community or team, or have a sense of ownership, and where work is stimulating or exciting.

The results of the research studies would seem to indicate that leadership is a dynamic process, differing from situation to situation with changes in the leader, the follower, and the situation. As a result, while there may be traits which tend to be helpful in a particular set of circumstances for a given situation, there seems to be no set of traits that ensures leadership success or effectiveness. There is no conclusive evidence from the research to validate the trait approach as clearly predicting leader success or failure.

Situational approach

In the situational approach the emphasis is on the behavior of the leader and his/her group members and various situations. Hersey and Blanchard (1988) identify three components of the leadership process as the leader, the follower, and the situation, and note that "situational approaches to leadership examine the interplay among the variables in order to find causal relationships that will lead to predictability of behavior" (p. 106). They report that a common thread exists among the situational approaches
to leadership, and that the common thread is that all situational approaches require that the leader behave in a flexible way in order to diagnose the type of leadership appropriate to the situation and apply the appropriate style.

While it is not important for the purposes of this study to detail the various models and theories of the situational approach to leadership, and there are many, it does seem important to at least list and provide a brief description of five that have received considerable attention in leadership research. These five models or theories, in addition to receiving considerable attention in leadership research, are often referred to in the study of management and organizational behavior: the Tannenbaum and Schmidt Continuum of Leader Behavior; Fiedler's Contingency Model; the House-Mitchell Path-Goal Theory; Vroom-Yetten Contingency Model; and the Hersey-Blanchard Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model.

The Tannenbaum-Schmidt Continuum of Leader Behavior presents a range, or continuum, of leader decision making styles based on the degree of authority granted to subordinates. The styles may range from absolute decision making by the leader, with no subordinate involvement—the autocratic style, to decision making with various degrees of subordinate participation (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).
Fiedler's Contingency Model establishes the effectiveness of a leader is decided by the interplay of the leader's style, task or employee, with three major situational variables: leader-member relationships, task structure, and leader position power (Plunkett & Attner, 1992). The House-Mitchell Path-Goal Theory examines how four aspects of a leader's behavior affect the satisfaction and motivation of a subordinate (Yukl, 1989). The Vroom-Yetten Contingency Model is based on the assumption that situational variables interacting with personal attributes or characteristics of the leader result in leader behavior that may affect organizational effectiveness (Vroom & Yetten, 1973). The Hersey-Blanchard Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model is based on the consideration of others, initiating structure and effectiveness.

**Leadership Effectiveness**

Peter Drucker (1964), one of the most respected writers in management describes effectiveness as "doing the right thing" (p. 5). According to Drucker, effectiveness means that a leader has the responsibility for selecting the right goal and the appropriate means for achieving that goal. The leader must select the right decision from among all the alternatives and then select the method from among many methods that may be used to implement that decision.
Hersey and Blanchard (1989), in discussing effectiveness, have focused on the evaluation of the results of individual leaders, but note that "the most important aspect of effectiveness is the relationship of a particular unity of the organization over time, not solely with the result of a particular leadership effort. They refer to Rensis Likert's (1967) identification of three variables which are significant in discussing effectiveness over time. The three variables: causal, intervening, and output or end-result are defined as follows:

Causal: those factors that influence the course of developments within an organization as its results or accomplishments

Intervening: the current condition of the internal state of the organization

Output or End-result: the dependent variables that reflect the achievements of the organization. (p. 131).

The causal variables are independent variables and may be changed by the organization and its leadership. These variables, unlike general business conditions, are not outside the control of the organization. Examples of such causal variables are: "leadership strategies, skills, and behavior; management's decisions; and the policies and structure of the organization" (p. 131). The causal variables influence the intervening variables in an organization. The intervening variables, as representations of the current conditions of the internal state of the
organization, are evidenced "in the commitment to objectives, motivation, and morale of members and their skills in leadership, communication, conflict resolution, decision making and problem solving" (p. 131).

The output or end-result variables are dependent variables and are used overwhelmingly in evaluating effectiveness. Measures such as net profits are used to evaluate the effectiveness of business and industry leaders. Discussion of effectiveness by many researchers are often characterized by an emphasis on output or end-result variables. Fred Fiedler (1967), in his work on leadership effectiveness, views "leader effectiveness in terms of group performance on the group's primary assigned task" (p. 9). According to Yukl (1989), a most commonly used measure of leader effectiveness is the degree to which the leader's followers or organization carries out the assignment and achieves its goals. In some instances, objective criteria of performance or goal achievement are used, such as profit margins, sales increases, share of marker, profit growth, cost per unit of output, etc. In other instances, more subjective measures of leader effectiveness are acquired from a leader's peers, superiors, or followers.

Like variations in the definitions of leadership, perceptions of leader effectiveness vary from researcher to researcher. Differences in the kind of result or outcome
used as the effectiveness measure is the cause of much of the discrepancy which exists between definitions of leadership effectiveness. There are a variety of factors, in addition to outcomes such as the leader’s maintenance of status with a group, that are related to the dynamics of the group. Issues such as the ability of the group to deal with crisis situations; the emotional, social, and psychological well-being and development of the individuals comprising the group; achievement of group goals; group survival and growth; follower satisfaction with the leader; and the followers’ commitment to group goals may all be used in determining a leader’s effectiveness.

The feelings and attitudes of followers toward the leader is another frequently used indicator of leader effectiveness (Yukl, 1989). Questions such as, does the leader satisfy the followers’ needs and expectations? If so, to what extent? Do followers like, respect, and admire the leader? Do followers have a strong sense of commitment to carrying out the leader’s requests, or do they oppose, disregard, or sabotage them? Follower feeling, opinions, and attitudes are typically measured with questionnaires or interviews. But other types of objective measure of follower behavior, such as absenteeism, turnover, grievances and complaints to the leader’s superiors, transfer requests, strikes, and intentional destruction of equipment and
facilities serve as indirect indicators of follower dissatisfaction and hostility toward the leader.

Yukl (1989) asserts that sometimes a leader's effectiveness is measured in terms of the followers' or other observers' perceptions of the leader's ability or capacity to make positive contributions to group process. Does the leader contribute to the group's cohesion and cooperation, individual group members' motivation, problem solving, decision making, and the resolution of conflict among group members? How does the leader contribute to the improvement of the quality of work life, help build the self-esteem and confidence of followers, increase their skills and competence, and assist in followers' professional and psychological growth and development.

The use of pertinent criteria of leader effectiveness hinges on the purposes and values of the individual making the evaluation. Different measures will most likely be used by a leader's superiors than by his/her subordinates. With numerous and varied measures of effectiveness being possible, it may be difficult to determine which are most important. In order to adequately deal with the issues and implications of conflicting criteria in research on leadership effectiveness, it is probably best to include a variety of different criteria and to investigate the
Distinguishing Characteristics of Leadership

A number of characteristics or attributes of leadership contribute to the communication of vision. A review of the literature suggests that particular characteristics, practices, and behaviors of leadership facilitate and enhance the communication of vision. The nature of these characteristics, practices, and behaviors is such that in displaying and demonstrating them, messages are given or communicated to others. Leadership is a dynamic process, one that inherently encompasses a variety of strategies, methods, practices, etc., that promote the communication of vision. The literature reveals that leaders communicate vision in numerous ways that are a fundamental part of the dynamic phenomenon known as leadership. All of the characteristics leaders possess and the roles leaders assume are combined in how, and the extent to which, leaders communicate vision.

As a result of the demands of national, international, and global competition, organizations of all sizes, both public and private, realize the dire need of successful and effective leadership. Business, industry, and education are recognizing that the leadership of an organization is
essential and key to the creation, communication, and implementation of change strategies in the cultures of organizations if they are to improve, move forward, and reach new and higher levels of achievement, success, and effectiveness. Leadership in an organization has always been viewed as important to its success, but effective leadership is now critical. Leaders must be creative, but at the same time they must hold and promote values that are not only consistent with those of the organization, but that emphasize and maintain human respect and dignity. Leaders must be able to advance and protect the purpose of their organizations, and create a climate or culture which contributes to the implementation of change. Effective leaders must be open, honest, and sensitive, yet able and prepared to make tough decisions in difficult situations and circumstances.

All of these attributes or characteristics of effective leadership and ways leaders behave, create images, or give a message—communicate to others. As a dynamic process, leadership requires creating images and sending messages that strategically guide an organization to the future wanted for it. The ways in which a leader behaves and the ways in which that behavior manifests itself, all convey meaning. In much the same manner a leader communicates his/her vision to individuals being led in a group or
organization, the leadership attributes that leader possesses are transmitted to create perceptions of the leader's skill, competence, and overall ability to effectively lead. The leader's perceived level of effectiveness is associated with the perceived possession of particular leadership attributes, as well as with the manner in which those attributes are demonstrated and portrayed.

Not only is what the leader says important, but the manner in which it is said impresses others in one way or another. Likewise, not only what the leader does, but how he/she does it creates an image of the leader for others. Leaders send messages to others by demonstrating what it is they value and the behaviors they exhibit. Everything leaders do, to some degree, sends messages or communicates what leaders view as important and the feelings, attitudes, and opinions they hold. Leaders considered most effective are skillful at sending messages or communicating in ways that enhance his/her image of self and project and promote a desired and intended meaning.

Attributes/characteristics/qualities

Leadership attributes related to one's belief in oneself, passion for the work or the job, and love for people, are prerequisites for the leadership role on a very personal level. A leader's possession of these attributes demonstrates a genuine concern for oneself and others and an
excitement and enthusiasm for the work. This combination of attributes is generally difficult to disguise and is often easily sensed or discerned by others. According to Hesselbein, Goldsmith, and Beckhard (1996) a leader must have the confidence to step into the unknown and to persuade others to go where no one has gone before, but this has to be combined with a decent doubt, the humility to accept that one can be wrong on occasion, that others also have ideas, that listening is as important as talking. (p. 8)

They explain that a positive outlook and an excitement and enthusiasm for the work at hand models drive and focus for others in the organization; they caution that the leader has to look and think beyond self-imposed parameters. They advise that "great leaders find time to read, to meet people beyond their own circle, to go to the theater or see films, to walk in other worlds" (p. 8). A love of people is also essential if a person is to lead others effectively; otherwise, the leader may be perceived as intimidating or disrespectful. And even this love of people is balanced with a leader’s capability to be alone, because leaders many times find themselves alone in the forefront. The authors point out that:

It is not always possible to share one’s worries with anyone else. Few will thank the leader when things go right, but many will blame the leader if things go wrong. Great leaders have to walk alone from time to time. They also have to live vicariously, deriving their satisfaction from the success of others and
giving those others the recognition that they themselves are often denied. (p. 9)

Another set of attributes of leadership identified by Kouzes and Posner (1988) in their study of leaders' "personal best" at leading are: honesty, the ability to be forward-looking and inspiring, and competence. These four attributes, characteristics, or qualities are the ones on which the highest percentages of individuals in their identified as admired in leaders. Honesty, more than any other attribute, was selected more often by leaders and followers alike, as that attribute most admired. Leaders viewed as honest are perceived as trustworthy and having integrity. Kouzes and Posner (1988) suggest that:

honesty is absolutely essential to leadership. After all, if we are to willingly to follow someone, whether it be into battle or into the boardroom, we first want to assure ourselves that he or she is being truthful, ethical, and principled. We want to be fully confident in the integrity of our leaders. (p. 18)

Numerous researchers (Kouzes & Posner, 1993; Hunt, 1991; Joiner, 1987; Rosen, 1996; Hesselbein, Goldsmith, & Beckhard, 1996) point to a leader's honesty as necessary to his/her being perceived as believable and credible. The evidence of the measure used to assess a leader's honesty, Kouzes and Posner (1988) indicate, is behavior. Does the leader behave in ways that give the message or impression of honesty? Followers observe leaders' behavior to determine if they follow through, betray, and conceal, which generally
indicates dishonesty. Do leaders do what they say they will do? What values does the leader promote, and is there consistency between those values and the behaviors exhibited?

The ability of a leader to be forward-looking ranks as one of the four highest of all the characteristics admired in leaders. A sense of direction and a genuine interest in the future are traits that Kouzes and Posner (1988, 1993) advise are among the most sought after leadership attributes. Leaders are expected to be able to set direction by developing a vision of where the group or organization is headed. This idea is best stated by the following:

Constituents ask that a leader have a well-defined orientation toward the future. We want to know what the organization will look like, feel, like, be like when it arrives at its goal in six months or six years. We want to have it described to us in rich detail so that we will know when we have arrived and so that we can select the proper route for getting there. (p. 16)

Followers want their leaders to have a clarity of purpose and focus—a vision—that can be communicated to others so that they can "own" it and work toward fulfilling it.

Inspiration is another attribute seen as highly important in leadership. Leaders perceived as enthusiastic, uplifting, positive, and optimistic are inspiring, but that is not enough. According to Kouzes and Posner (1988) the leaders "must be able to communicate the vision in ways that encourage us to sign on for the duration" (p. 21). Leaders
that can inspire others, according to the Kouzes and Posner study (1993), are viewed as more valuable than leaders that are analytical, organized, and tough. Leaders who inspire others convey a sense or purpose and a personal commitment to the pursuit of what is to be achieved. A leader that has the ability to inspire others to the achievement of a possible future demonstrates a sense of passion for and confidence in the value of the goal.

Another admired leadership attribute is competence. This attribute allows followers to perceive the leader as being able to achieve. Followers feeling that the leader is competent feel that he/she knows what he/she is doing. People do not usually follow those they perceive as unable or incapable of getting positive results. If followers are to commit themselves to the cause(s) that a leader espouses, they must get the impression that the leader has the capacity to perform effectively (Kouzes & Posner, 1988).

These four attributes of leadership: honesty, competence, forward-looking, and inspiring, when possessed and exercised by a leader embody what many perceive as credibility. The investigation conducted by Kouzes and Posner (1988) of the qualities most admired in leaders identified credibility as a quality people want their leaders to have. As they so aptly put it:

Above all else, we must be able to believe in our leaders. We must believe that their word can be
trusted, that they will do what they say, that they have the knowledge and skill to lead, and that they are personally excited and enthusiastic about the direction in which we are headed. (p. 22)

Kouzes and Posner (1993) pose questions that demonstrate how followers perceive a leader’s credibility. Is the leader excited and enthusiastic enough to maintain the interest of followers to accomplish the future expressed in the leader’s vision? Are followers influenced to the extent that they commit themselves to attaining the future shared by the leader? Is the leader capable of getting followers from where they are now to where the leader’s vision will take them? Has the leader accomplished enough to make followers confident in his/her ability to lead? The answers to these questions are, in essence, responses that represent the degree to which a leader sends his/her unique message, or communicates to followers, superiors, and others both within and outside the organization.

Practices

Kouzes and Posner (1988), in their case analyses and use of questionnaires, found that leaders that realize exceptional results employed several practices that are considered fundamental leadership. When the leaders they studied were at their personal best, they "challenged the process; inspired a shared vision; enabled others to act; modeled the way and encouraged the heart" (p. 8). These
practices are employed by numerous individuals in leadership roles and are additional ways that leaders gives messages that enable them to communicate vision.

Leaders want to be challenged and go to great lengths to seek challenge. Leaders inevitably want to challenge the status quo to bring about improvements and better futures for their organizations. This challenging of the process is what is referred to by Joiner (1987) as a "bias for action" (p. 4). Little happens unless change occurs. Some leaders are amenable to change, but many of the most effective leaders welcome and embrace change as a part of their visions. These leaders are willing to take risks by stepping into the forefront when others seem to accept mere tradition and stagnation. Effective leaders cannot only develop strategies, they must act in ways that move people, ideas, and concepts from strategies to reality. Change is recognized by effective leaders as the center of efforts to improve. The most successful leaders are willing to risk their careers and reputations for the benefit and advancement of the organizations they lead. Successful and effective leaders are willing to take huge risks to realize their vision. In taking such huge risks, these leaders are not afraid to fail to institute new ideas by challenging the system or process to change things. Real leaders are not afraid to make mistakes and encourage other to risk making
mistakes, for in doing so, new ideas, products, services, etc., are found. Kouzes and Posner (1988) feel it may be more appropriate to call leaders "early adopters of innovation" (p. 8), because of their affinity for risk-taking and willingness to fail. A leader's ability to challenge the process or the status quo enables him/her to disclose to others his/her own personal feelings, ideas and opinions about change, risk, and failure and the accompanying willingness to take them on and be victimized by what may result from such bold endeavors.

Leaders utilize considerable time and energy in imagining what the future holds and what that future will be like when it is realized. It has been suggested by Kouzes and Posner (1988) that leaders, in many ways, live their lives backwards, envisioning what the results will be before starting projects that are strategically designed and undertaken to bring the results imagined to reality. But the futures envisioned by leaders are rarely realized by the leaders themselves. Leaders convince others to commit themselves to the visions they create; for commitment is not demanded, it is inspired. Leaders share their visions by helping others personalize exciting possibilities, convincing them that those possibilities have meaning and worth.
Leaders enable others to act. They invite the support and cooperation of those they work with who contribute to making a venture or endeavor work. Successful leaders become so because they encourage collaboration and participation on the part of those they work with. A sense of teamwork is built by leaders that achieve at the highest levels. Rosabeth Moss Kanter (1983) indicates from her study that many of the failures she reported in her study results from the failure of managers to successfully build coalitions of supporters and collaborators. A leader’s ability to enable others to act is to make them feel strong, capable, and committed. When leaders empower followers, they are more likely to use their energies to achieve successful results.

Leaders that are most effective model for followers. No matter what leaders do, if they are to lead others effectively, they must first be clear about their values and beliefs. If leaders’ behaviors are inconsistent with their stated values and beliefs, followers will ultimately lose respect for them. Modeling for others means that a leader focuses attention on what he/she believes is important. It means demonstrating to others with behaviors that you actually live your values.

Many times followers become tired, frustrated, and disenchanted, and are tempted to give up. A good leader has the responsibility to encourage followers to carry on. The
practice of encouraging the heart as Kouzes and Posner (1988) put it, is one that helps followers to continue to work toward the vision of the leader. An effective leader has the responsibility to show followers that they can win. Recognizing followers for not only extraordinary work, but just for doing a good job makes followers feel needed. Remembering anniversaries, birthdays, and recognizing and celebrating milestones and accomplishments of followers are ways that they are encouraged and are shown genuine demonstrations of a caring attitude on the part of the leader of a group or organization.

Role of Vision in Leadership

Neil H. Snyder and Michelle Graves (1994) cite Peter Kreeft: "to be a leader you have to lead people to a goal worth having--something that's really good and really there" (p. 1). Roueche et al. (1989), in speaking of "visionaries," the transformational leaders, advise that they share "a unique vision of the future that they help to shape" (p. 110). Vision is an integral part of leadership. Numerous leadership researchers report that vision is an essential requirement of leadership.

Undoubtedly, vision plays a significant role in discussions of leadership. Vision is that part of leadership that gives the individual possessing it the ability to see a
desired future, one in which there are infinite possibilities that are achievable. Vision for a leader means more than just looking to and thinking of the future, though it certainly involves that. Vision involves developing a view of the future and the realization of that future in a variety of ways. Vision is a powerful phenomena if the leader possessing it has the capacity to communicate it effectively enough to compel the leader himself, and others, to bring the vision to reality. Snyder and Graves (1994) advise that:

True leaders see things differently. They are guided by another belief more in keeping with the competitive world in which we live. They believe "if it ain't broke, you're not looking hard enough." Realizing that there is always room for improvement, they believe that no one has ever done anything so well that it cannot be done better. (p. 1)

Whether a leader is influencing only a few people in a group, or many individuals in a large, formal organization or institution, vision is a requirement, one demanded if the leader and those that follow him/her are to create a better future. Vision is the destination that results from a journey taken. Nanus (1992) defines vision from the perspective of leadership as:

a mental construct that we have within our power to transform into reality. In fact, a vision is the only form of mental model that people and organizations can bring into being through their commitment and actions, and therein lies its usefulness and its power. (p. 27)
Another feature of vision is its idealistic quality. Nanus suggests that vision is powerless if it is unable to inspire or energize people and no ability to attract commitment unless it offers a view of the future that is clearly and demonstrably better for the organization, for the people in the organization, and/or the society within which the organization operates. Often the vision is something entirely new—not a variation on existing activities, not a copy of what some other organization is doing—but something genuinely new, an innovative departure that clearly represents progress and is a step forward. The vision, in short, must be manifestly desirable, a bold and worthy challenge for those who accept it. (p. 27)

Vision is more than a dream as Snyder and Graves (1994) suggest, "it is a reality that has yet come into existence" (p. 1). Vision is tangible to leaders. Leaders have a strong reliance on and commitment to their visions, so much so that they dedicate entire careers to achieving, or bringing to reality the visions they translate to their groups and organizations. Vision is what forces many leaders to action. It causes a leader to see the present realistically and devise strategies to achieve a desirable future. Leaders find their visions powerful and meaningful, that force that moves them forward in spite of barriers and obstacles to change, to achieve the outcomes desired.

Nanus suggests that vision which is powerful enough to transform has special properties:

--They are appropriate for the organization and for the times. They fit in terms of the organization’s history, culture, and values, are consistent with the organization’s present situation, and provide a realistic and informed assessment of what is attainable
in the future. This is not to suggest that the organization will be changed by the vision. It almost certainly will be, perhaps quite radically. But if vision is not appropriate for the organization, the time, cost and pain of transformation may be so great as to make implementation of the vision all but impossible. In this case, a totally new organization might be a better choice, as IBM found when it decided to enter the personal computer business.

—They set standards of excellence and reflect high ideals. They depict the organization as a responsible community with a sense of integrity that strengthens and uplifts everyone in it.

—They clarify purpose and direction. They are persuasive and credible in defining what the organization wants to make happen, and therefore, what are legitimate aspirations for people in the organization. They provide agendas that create focus and hold out hope and promise of a better tomorrow.

—They inspire enthusiasm and encourage commitment. They widen the leader’s support base by reflecting the needs and aspirations of many stakeholders, transcending differences in race, age, gender and other demographic characteristics, and drawing stakeholders into a community of concerns about the future of the organization.

—They are well articulated and easily understood. They are unambiguous enough to serve as a guide to strategy and action and to be internalized by those whose efforts are needed to turn the vision into reality.

—They reflect the uniqueness of the organization, its distinctive competence, what it stands for, and what it is able to achieve.

—They are ambitious. They represent undisputed progress and expand the organization’s horizons. Often they call for sacrifice and emotional investments by followers, which are forthcoming because of the inherent attractiveness of the vision. (pp. 28-29)

These properties detail significant aspects of vision which are the very core of effective leadership. Vision is a possibility according to Kouzes and Posner (1993). It is a possibility, and as such is an ideal, what the authors call “standards of excellence” (p. 15). The possibilities of a leader’s vision improve upon the current set of
circumstances or creates a totally new set of circumstances. A leader’s vision makes something better possible and achievable through a challenge of the status quo, representing "the choice of an ideal" (p. 15).

A leader’s vision sets him apart from others, distinguishing that leader from everyone else, establishing the uniqueness of that leader. The authors make the point of uniqueness of vision with the following:

There’s no advantage in working for, buying from, or investing in an organization that does exactly the same thing as the one across the street or down the hall. Only when people understand how we’re truly distinctive, how we stand out in the crowd, will the want to sign up with us. (p. 15)

Followers want their leaders to look to the future and have a vision that leads to that future. Vision requires a leader to think about the future and develop strategies, methods, and practices to realize that desired future within a period of time. Kouzes and Posner (1993) point out that “leaders must occupy themselves with thinking about the future and become able to project themselves ahead in time” (p. 16), resulting in what the authors call vision. Vision requires the creation of images of the future or mental pictures of achievable possibilities. As leaders communicate their visions in concrete, meaningful, and purposeful ways, they become reality.

Burt Nanus (1992) suggests that a balance be maintained in the view of what vision may, or may not, be able to
attain by advising what vision is not. It is not a prophecy, though it deals with the future. And while some visions are quite powerful, so much so that those developing them seem prophetic in retrospect, their visions were powerful because they caught others's imaginations, marshalled resources, and reshaped realities. Vision is not a mission; for a mission states purpose, not direction. Vision is not factual; it does not exist now and quite possibly, may never come to fruition as initially envisioned. Vision does not deal with a current or present reality, but rather with the possibility of a desired future. Vision cannot be true or false. It may only be judged in its relationship to alternative possibilities. Vision should not be considered unchanging, only to be communicated once for all time.

The development of vision is a dynamic process, an ongoing and continuing part of leadership. Vision is not a constraint on actions, except for when those actions are inconsistent with the vision. Vision does not limit action, rather it guides the organization's energies in a common direction to create opportunities, rather than limit them, and to develop strategies for the change process that moves an organization to the achievement of the desired future described in the leader's vision.

The role of vision in leadership is inherent. All the researchers of leadership that have examined it in any
detail mention the future orientation and "forward-looking" aspects of leadership. It seems that leadership would not be the dynamic process it is if it were not for the role that vision plays in that process. Though other aspects of leadership are important, no single feature, quality, or attribute of leadership seems to receive as much attention, in recent times, as has vision. It is a primary theme of leadership and is inextricably linked to the leadership process. Vision adds meaning to a leader's role and aids in creating opportunities for followers to make commitments to the attainable futures that leaders envision for themselves and those they lead. Vision's role in leadership demands that goals are established and that the efforts and energies of all in a group or organization are directed and targeted to obtaining positive results and outcomes.

Communicating Vision

A leader's mere possession of vision without an accompanying ability to communicate it to others is no better than having no vision at all. Robert H. Rosen (1996) has expressed the same idea: "vision is only as good as its execution" (p. 30). A leader's primary responsibility is to articulate an unambiguous and compelling vision for followers. What does the organization stand for? What are the beliefs and values of the organization? Where is the
organization going? The answers to these and numerous other questions can help a leader project a message, or communicate meaning for others in the organization. The most effective and successful leaders know that a vision that is only their own rarely amounts to much. So they share the vision with others in the organization, inviting the input and involvement of all who are a part of the organization. By enlisting everyone in shaping the vision, the leader inspires people and builds commitment.

In the Kouzes and Posner (1988) study of personal best cases of successful leaders, the idea of selling the vision to others is discussed. These leaders reported that they had to get others to buy into the vision. They reported that they had to clearly communicate the purpose and somehow convince others to support the vision. Many individuals perceived to be leaders do not do a good job of verbally communicating in a way that inspires a shared vision. According to Kouzes and Posner (1988), in order for a leader to communicate vision verbally, he must: use images and word pictures, use examples that people can relate to, talk about traditional values, appeal to common beliefs, know the audience, use repetition, be positive and hopeful, shift from "I" to "we," speak with passion and emotion, and have personal conviction about the vision.
Language, which is by no means the only method of communicating vision, is a most powerful method for expressing vision. The spoken word, when used with power, is used by many leaders to create images and literally communicate with others the futures they envision. Many successful leaders use metaphors and figures or speech; they give examples, tell stories, and relate anecdotes; they quote others and use slogans.

Though language is a powerful tool when used effectively by leaders, it is by no means enough. In order to communicate vision to others, it is of the utmost importance that a leader demonstrate personal conviction. It is impossible for a leader to convince others to share in a dream is the leader is not convinced of the possibility of achieving that dream, that vision. If the leader cannot summon the energy and enthusiasm to be visibly upbeat and animated about the idea which is his/her vision, then it is not likely that others will be excited and positive. Communication that motivates people to act tends to focus on the core values and beliefs that support the vision. Accurately conveying these values and beliefs in positive ways simplifies implementation because it imparts simple images or words that make the vision easier to remember. In addition, repeating simple words and symbols communicates the message without clogging already overused communication
channels. Written communication may be used in similar ways to reinforce the vision by reporting progress for everyone to see, if only in their mind's eye, and progress toward the achievement of goals keeps people's spirits up and helps convince them they can do it.

In order for vision to become a shared vision, a leader must behave in ways that are consistent with the vision in everything he/she does. A personal example must be set, for the leader cannot afford to send mixed messages by saying one thing and doing another. A first step for the leader in communicating a vision to others is to emphasize its importance so followers will take interest in it. If followers are convinced that the vision is important, meaningful, and worthwhile, many will want to be involved with it, perhaps even if they do not understand all the details. According to John Alexander (1989) a vision does not have to be complicated and totally complete for people to buy into the concept. He feels that "most people will cooperate and follow the leader with only a vague idea of what their participation, contribution and reward might be" (p. 57).

John Kotter (1990) offers a suggestion for communicating, or sharing vision. He purports that delivering a single, clear, and credible message is important in helping followers understand the goals at hand.
To communicate clearly and reinforce the vision, it is mandatory to send frequent messages orally and in writing, messages that must be more than the typical day-to-day orders coming from the person in charge.

E. H. Schein (1985), in his work with organizational culture, contends that leaders teach others through their actions about what they consider important. In this way, leaders are teaching, or communicating to, followers what they consider to be important. In this teaching process leaders convey their values, beliefs, and assumptions by spending time on matters they consider to be of value. In the Baker (1992) study to identify and describe examples of leadership behavior associated with transmitting and embedding culture in the community college environment, successful presidents of community colleges are the focus. The presidents, while transforming the cultures of their institutions, are at the same time giving messages that allow others to view the behaviors they exhibit and the practices they demonstrate.

The community college presidents in the Baker (1992) study dedicate significant time to three types of leadership activity:

- creating a supportive, positive, and appropriate climate for organizational success;
- developing an institutional vision for the future that attends to problems of external adaptation and internal integration;
- and involving constituents in a comprehensive strategic planning process designed to
perpetuate the desired climate and bring full realization to organizational vision. (p. 51)

In the creation of the climate for organizational success, the presidents of the community colleges in this study are demonstrating behaviors that give a definite message to others in the organization. That message is one that communicates vision to individuals within and outside the institution. Such behavior on the part of the community college presidents in this study "communicate[s] their concern for creating a shared vision of what the institution is to become" (p. 52).

The ways leaders act and behave do as much, if not more, to communicate to followers the vision that the leader possesses. In a study, the communication of vision by school principals, the research found that some principals were perceived as more effective than others in communicating vision to their respective faculties. Several factors appear to explain the differences in the perceptions. These factors relate to the communication skills of the principals, their personal characteristics, the plans they developed, and the implementation of those plans.

The principals who used a variety of strategies to tell the same story had greater success in communicating their visions. And though communication strategies were not identified by most of the principals as being specific ways that teachers would perceive their visions, the teachers
listed many in their responses. One of the most often mentioned strategies mentioned was modeling. Teachers kept referring to the actions or behaviors of the principals.

The personal characteristics of the principal had a very strong impact on the perception on the communication of vision by the staff. In the absence of consistently applied strategies, personal characteristics may take on greater importance as the teacher tries to understand what the principal considers important and wants to achieve. Possibly, the teachers instinctively know that the personal characteristics of the principal provide an image of his/her values.

The principals who were communicating their visions had developed a plan in which the vision and strategies to achieve that vision were tightly linked. Principals who had a well-developed plan with strategies which were consistent with their visions were more likely to implement the plan. Principals who were less successful had a general plan and activities which were somewhat related, but which were not sequential. They had been unable to analyze the task in such a way that strategies flowed together and enhanced one another. Without a strong plan they reverted to a reactive stance of dealing with problems.

A principal may be involved in so many activities that there is no clear focus. So many things were either
initiated or supported by some principals that the teachers did not identify common strategies. The principals were trying to meet all the needs and not concentrating on activities which support their visions.

According to Bennis and Nanus (1985), "all organizations depend on the existence of shared meanings and interpretations of reality, which facilitate coordinated action. The actions and symbols of leadership frame and mobilize meaning" (p. 39).

Having a vision for a school or an organization may be common among administrators but how many times have we watched good intentions, ideas, or programs fail because the administrator was unable to communicate that vision to staff. There was communication but no meaning. There were languages but no common one. When organizations experience difficulty, how often do we attribute it to a misunderstanding or breakdown in communication?
CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

The research method for this study is the survey. Borg and Gall (1989) consider the survey an effective design for the purposes of assessing public opinion and examining many other aspects of a system. The results of such explorations are useful in that they produce data that may be used to make predictions about the future. Survey research examines relationships in populations and samples based on a distribution identified from those populations and samples. The data collected in a survey may be used to provide a description of the population or sample which distributed itself on the response alternatives for a single variable. The intent of this research endeavor is to gather data, using the survey method, that will provide information to make comparisons of and determine relationships between the variables identified for this project. The results of the completed survey are used to compile meaningful data for exploration and analysis.
Population

This research project uses an entire population of nearly 250 individuals in Iowa's community colleges. Three groups comprise the populations used in the study: presidents of each of the 15 community college districts in the State of Iowa, administrative personnel in each district that report directly to the president of that respective community college district, and members of the board of directors for each of the community college districts. Each of the 15 community college districts had full-time presidents at the time the survey was distributed. One community college district had an acting president who had been a vice president of academic affairs for the institution during the most recent president's tenure. A total of one 106 individuals serve as administrators that report directly to the presidents of the 15 institutions and 121 individuals serve as members of the board of directors for the 15 community college districts. The total of the three groups is 242 individuals. More detailed representations of the data on the population used in the study with pertinent statistical analysis are presented in a section of Chapter 4 of this study.
Instrumentation

The survey used in this study was developed based on the body of knowledge on vision presented in the review of literature chapter, the criteria for procedures and instrument developed, and on appropriate methods and procedures. The survey used in this study was developed based on the criteria from the appropriate literature. Thirty items form the bulk of the survey instrument for the purpose of collecting data on the degree to which members of each the three groups comprising the population perceive the president of the institution as sharing or communicating vision. The survey instrument's items were developed in one of three ways. The Roueche, Baker, and Rose (1989) study of transformational leadership in the community college from the perspective of the behavioral attributes of outstanding community college chief executive officers serves as a focal point for the present study. Statements made by community college leaders from that study were used, and modified in some instances, as survey items for the present study. Selected items from the community college version of the multifactor college leadership questionnaire used in the Roueche et al. (1989) study, particularly ones describing practices and behaviors mentioned in other research literature, are used as survey items for this study. In addition, survey items were drafted from other leadership
research citing techniques, practices, and behaviors from
the literature review for this project. All statements used
as survey items on questionnaire for this study are ones for
which the effective or successful leader's behavior is
perceived as present and demonstrated to varying degrees.

Copies of the instrument were used in a pilot to test
its reliability. Ten copies of the instrument were
distributed to individuals holding middle level management
positions at Des Moines Area Community College. Pilot
participants were randomly selected from the population of
middle level managers throughout the institution. Based on
the pilot, the instrument, with minor modifications and
revisions, was judged satisfactory for the study.

The survey instrument is comprised of 40 questions. The
first 30 items deal with the perceptions of members of each
of the three groups of the degree to which presidents
possess, practice, and/or demonstrate the behaviors to share
or communicate their vision. Information regarding gender
and ages is sought in item 31. Items 32 through 33 seek to
collect data on educational attainment and income,
respectively. Items 34 through 36 gather data on the
institution, such as student enrollment, faculty size, and
number of programs. Items 37 through 40 garner information
on the respondent's background and experience, years in
present position, first administrative position held, and
age at acquiring that position. Instructions are included to aid the respondent in completing the instrument. A five-point scale ranging from "Frequently, if not always," with a numerical designation of "1", to "Never" with a numerical designation of "5" was applied.

Validity of the Test Instrument

The question of validity is one which is concerned with the extent to which an instrument measures what one thinks it is measuring. According to Borg and Gall (1989) validity is defined as "the degree to which a test measures what it purports to measure" (p. 250). Two types of validity are applied to this research, namely content validity and construct validity. Both types of validity have been demonstrated in the study first conducted by Bass (1985) with the multifactor college leadership questionnaire, which was adapted and used in the version of the Roueche, Baker, and Rose (1989) study of transformational leaders in the community college.

Reliability of the Test Instrument

The reliability of the instrument is the level of internal consistency or stability of the measuring device over time. Since the instrument used was an adaptation of one developed by other researchers, and was used in a single
administration of a single form of test, the coefficient of internal consistency, Cronbach Alpha, was applied. Cronbach’s coefficient alpha is a general form of the K-R 20 formula that may be used when items are not scored dichotomously. Alpha in most situations provides a conservative estimate of a measure’s reliability. Specifically, the covariance matrix method was employed in the analysis, using the SAS package. This method enabled the researcher to control for other differences that may exist in samples surveyed. A reliability coefficient alpha of .97 and a standardized item alpha of .97 was recorded. These coefficients indicate a very high correlation among the test items.

The reliability analysis and Cronbach Alpha value indicate that a composite of 30 questions can be used, in the case of this study the average of question 1 through question 30. The value of .974 is quite high. With such a high value, and high correlations with the total and very small changes in alpha if an item is dropped, the one analysis using the average of question 1 to question 30 is appropriate.

Data Gathering

Data collection was performed by mailing the questionnaire developed for this study to the population of
presidents of Iowa's 15 community college districts; those administrative personnel in each community college district reporting directly to the president and the members of the boards of directors for each of the community college districts. Each of Iowa's 15 community college districts was contacted to accurately determine, at the time the survey was to be sent, those individuals serving as presidents, administrators, and board members in each of the state's 15 community college districts. All individuals currently serving in each group was sent a questionnaire and requested to respond. Survey participants were given two weeks from the mailing date to return the completed questionnaire. Those not returning the instrument by the specified deadline were sent a follow-up letter of appeal with an additional questionnaire. If there was no response from the follow-up letter, a phone call was made, another follow-up letter and third questionnaire was mailed. The follow-up appeals increased the total return rate to 73%.

Data Analysis

The first statistical analysis was a descriptive analysis of the data gathered by the questionnaire. Following the descriptive analysis, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was applied. The ANOVAs may include one or more independent variables. If one independent variable is
included, the ANOVA is a one-way ANOVA. If a study is conducted in which there are four treatments, there would be four levels of the independent variable. In such a case there is a sample mean for each of the four treatments that is tested. If two independent variables are included simultaneously in an ANOVA, the analysis is called a two-way ANOVA. In this case there would be a null hypothesis for each of the independent variables, and an F-ratio is computed for each of the groups of sample means from the two independent variables. It may also be possible to compute a statistical test for the interaction between the two independent variables. If this is done, the null hypothesis of no interaction is tested. As many F-ratios are computed as there are null hypotheses tested. In a two-way ANOVA, there are at most three null hypotheses, one for each independent variable and one for the interaction.

For the present study, the one-way ANOVA was run, assuming independent observations. Subsequently, a two-way ANOVA was performed as it could be argued that the observations are not independent, but are somewhat correlated within a community college, i.e., the scores for the president, leadership/management team member, and board member of a given college would have some relationship. The preferred analysis would be to do a means test for the groups. In the present study, the number of schools is 15.
The current study had 3 X 15 or 45 data values to be analyzed by ANOVA using a randomized block design, or repeated measures as it is sometimes called in education research. With the three categories at each community college as the unit of analysis, 45 means, a two-way balanced analysis of variance was analyzed using SAS. The categories of presidents, administrators, and board members were considered "treatments" and community colleges as blocks. Means were calculated for each category within each community college. Thus the number of observations is 45. Using the community colleges across categories (presidents, administrators, and board members) may be influenced by the community college which they represent. The randomized block ANOVA analysis was then followed by four contrasts with both F and Scheffe tests.

Since the decision on unit of analysis determines the number of observations available for statistical testing, the results of the statistical testing can be influenced by the different degrees of freedom available for tests of significance. With individuals as the units of analysis, SAS was used to analyze a two-way unbalanced analysis of variance with factor A representing groups and factor B representing community colleges. The General Linear Model was used to complete this analysis of unequal number of
observations. In this case, the number of observations is 176.

In educational research, the unit of analysis is an important decision: individual students versus classroom group, principals versus individual teachers, schools versus classrooms, etc. Some researchers recommend that group means be used in the analysis and others that levels be used with individual observations and represented by factor A and factor B. Also, certain researchers have suggested that in situations where the decision is difficult, or whether individuals are acting alone or influenced by group membership that both approaches, group means and individual observations, be used in the statistical analysis and the results compared and reported. In this particular case the difficult question is that in responding, were the administrators responding as individuals or were their responses influenced by being a member of a group of administrators at a given community college? The same questions apply to board members. Also, did being a member of a given community college influence responses?

General Characteristics of the Population

Of the 176 returned questionnaires, or 73% return rate, all participants provided information to the gender portion of the survey, item 31. The gender composition of the
population is shown in Table 1. Table 1 indicates that the overwhelming majority of the three groups comprising the population is male, with less than one quarter of the respondents being female.

Table 1. Distribution of respondents by gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>77.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>22.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the 176 respondents to the questionnaire, all except one provided information in response to the item 31, which deals with age. The results of the portion of item 31 is represented in Table 2.

All 176 survey participants responded to item 32, concerning the highest degree earned in one's educational attainment. Table 3 provides a distribution of educational attainment.

Item 33 of the survey, the item dealing with income, had 172 of the 176 respondents provide information. The distribution of respondents by income range is listed in Table 4.
Table 2. Distribution of respondents by age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>35 to 40</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41 to 46</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47 to 52</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>28.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53 to 58</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>25.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59 to 64</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65 and over</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>175</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Educational attainment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Doctorate</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>43.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specialist</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>24.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelors</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>17.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>less than Bachelors</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>176</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4. Distribution of respondents by income

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Income</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$45,000 to 60,000</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>19.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$60,001 to 75,000</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>32.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$75,001 to 90,000</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>21.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$90,001 to 105,000</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>11.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$105,001 to 120,000</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$120,001 and over</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>172</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One hundred seventy-four of the 176 surveys returned had responses to item 34. This item deals with the college enrollment. The distribution of the college enrollment information is detailed in Table 5 below.

Item 35 had responses from 175 of the 176 surveys returned. Item 35 deals with the faculty size of each of the state's 15 community colleges. This information is detailed in Table 6.

Item 36 was responded to by 174 of the 176 respondents returning their questionnaires. This item deals with the number of degree and certificate programs offered by the community colleges. This information is detailed in Table 7.
Table 5. Distribution of enrollment information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FTEE</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1,001 to 3,000</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>31.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3,001 to 5,000</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>40.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5,001 to 7,000</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7,001 to 9,000</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9,001 to 11,000</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11,001 to 13,000</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>174</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6. Distribution of data on faculty size

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Faculty</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>50 or less</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51 to 100</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>32.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101 to 150</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>20.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>151 to 200</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>19.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>201 to 250</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>251 and over</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>13.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>175</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 7. Distribution of data on program offerings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Programs</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20 or less</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 to 40</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>27.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41 to 60</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>23.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61 to 80</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>25.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>81 to 100</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100 and over</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>174</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Item number 37, which will be detailed in a later chapter, seems to indicate that a majority of the presidents and a significant number of the administrative staff completing the survey had prior experience in the classroom. Most of that classroom experience was as the secondary and post-secondary level, primarily in the community college setting.
In this research study, four hypotheses were developed. These four hypotheses are summarized below.

**Hypothesis 1**
There is no difference ($p < 0.05$) in the perceptions of the communication of vision by Iowa's community college presidents the members of their respective leadership/management teams (i.e., 1 vs 2).

**Hypothesis 2**
There is no difference ($p < 0.05$) in the perceptions of the communication of vision by Iowa's community college presidents and members of their respective boards of directors (i.e., 1 vs 3).

**Hypothesis 3**
There is no difference ($p < 0.05$) in the perceptions of the communication of vision by Iowa's community college presidents and the average for the respective members of the boards of directors and the respective leadership/management team members (i.e., 1 vs avg. of 2 and 3).
Hypothesis 4

There is no difference (p < 0.05) in the perceptions of the communication of vision between the board members and the leadership/management team members (i.e., 2 vs 3).

The testing of these hypotheses involves the use of a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). There are usually three null hypotheses tested in a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). The first two hypotheses are concerned with the differential treatment effect of the two independent variables considered individually, namely: the row population means, in the present study college, are simultaneously equal, as are also the column population means, in the present study class, i.e., presidents, leadership/management team members (administrators). These two hypotheses are usually referred to as tests of the main effects of the investigation. These hypotheses are tested against the alternative that at least one pair or combination of means differ.

The first analysis performed was a one-way analysis on variance (ANOVA) in which the dependent variable is the average of questions 1 through question 30 (AVEQ1Q30) and the independent (class) variable is group where 1 = presidents, 2 = leadership or management team members (administrators), and 3 = members of the board of directors.
This analysis does not control for community college. As seen in the analysis of variance (ANOVA) table below, the F-ratio was significant. Following this significant F-ratio, four contrast statements addressing the four hypotheses was performed. As shown in Tables 8, 9 and 10, the main differences are between the leadership/management team members (administrators) and members of the boards of directors. The result of the contrast is shown in Table 10.

Table 8. One-way ANOVA using class as independent variable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F-value</th>
<th>Pr&gt;F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.4259</td>
<td>1.7129</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>0.0198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>73.8592</td>
<td>0.4269</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>77.2852</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9. Mean and standard deviation for the three groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1.5521</td>
<td>0.4716</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>1.8579</td>
<td>0.7261</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>1.5834</td>
<td>0.6012</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 10. Contrasts for the different hypotheses (unit of analysis is individual assuming independent observation)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Contrast</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F-value</th>
<th>Pr &gt; F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 vs 2</td>
<td>1.1836</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.1836</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>0.0977</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 vs 3</td>
<td>0.1241</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0124</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.8648</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 vs avg (2,3)</td>
<td>0.3899</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.3899</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.3405</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 vs 3</td>
<td>3.0320</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.0320</td>
<td>7.10</td>
<td>0.0084</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Scheffe test was performed for the dependent variable which is the average of questions 1 through 30 (AVEQ1Q30). The alpha level was set at 0.05, confidence = 0.95, degrees of freedom = 173, mean square for error (MSE) = 0.4269, critical value of F = 3.0482. The results of the test are shown in Table 11.

With the three categories at each community college as the unit of analysis (45 means), a two-way balanced analysis of variance (ANOVA) was analyzed using SAS. The categories of presidents, leadership/management team members (administrators), and board members were considered "treatments" and community college as "blocks." Means were calculated for each category within each community college. Thus, the number of observations is 45. Using the community colleges as blocks takes into account responses across categories (presidents, leadership/management team members,
and board members) which may be influenced by the community college which they represent. The mean score for each college and group was computed, giving 45 observations (i.e. 15 college means for each of the three groups).

Table 11: Scheffe test for the four hypotheses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group Comparison</th>
<th>Simultaneous lower confidence limit</th>
<th>Difference between means</th>
<th>Simultaneous upper confidence limit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2 - 3</td>
<td>0.0202</td>
<td>0.2745</td>
<td>0.5288 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 - 1</td>
<td>-0.1477</td>
<td>0.3058</td>
<td>0.7593</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 - 2</td>
<td>-0.5288</td>
<td>-0.2745</td>
<td>-0.0202 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 - 1</td>
<td>-0.4226</td>
<td>-0.0313</td>
<td>0.4853</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 - 2</td>
<td>-0.7593</td>
<td>-0.3058</td>
<td>0.1477</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 - 3</td>
<td>-0.4853</td>
<td>-0.0313</td>
<td>0.4226</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*** Comparisons significant as the 0.05 level.

This analysis was followed by a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), using college and group as the two factors. The result obtained is shown in Table 12.

A multiple comparison test on the last square means (LSMEANS) for the three groups was done using the Scheffe method. The variable here is the average of question 1 through question 30. This test controls the type I experiment-wise error rate but generally has a higher
type II error rate for all pair-wise comparisons. The means are presented in Table 13. Both college and group were significant at the .05 level. The tests for the contrasts for the different hypotheses are presented in Table 14.

Table 12: Two-way ANOVA with group and college as factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Pr&gt;F**</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>6.2928</td>
<td>0.3933</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>0.0119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>4.1752</td>
<td>0.1491</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrected</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>10.4681</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Type I (SS)</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Pr&gt;F**</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.0318</td>
<td>0.5159</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>0.0454</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>5.2609</td>
<td>0.3757</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>0.0181</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Type III (SS)</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Pr&gt;F**</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.0318</td>
<td>0.5159</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>0.0454</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>5.2609</td>
<td>0.3757</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>0.0181</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** pr > F = 0.0001 (F value is significant as alpha level of 0.05).
Table 13: Mean and standard deviation from the two-way ANOVA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1.5521</td>
<td>0.4716</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1.9056</td>
<td>0.4993</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1.6316</td>
<td>0.4497</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 14. Contrasts for the hypotheses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Contrast</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Contrast SS</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F Value</th>
<th>Pr&gt;F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 vs 2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.9374</td>
<td>0.9374</td>
<td>6.29</td>
<td>.0182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 vs 3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.0474</td>
<td>0.0474</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>.5772</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 vs avg (2,3)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.4689</td>
<td>0.4789</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>.0871</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 vs 3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5630</td>
<td>0.5630</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>.0621</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the Scheffe test the alpha level of 0.05 and 28 degrees of freedom, the mean square for error (MSE) was equal to 0.1491. The critical value of $F = 3.3404$. The minimum significant difference = .364. These results also show no significant difference in means. It is noted that the difference between 2 and 3 is .3535.

A two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was then applied using group and college as factors for means of the dependent variable which is question 1 through question 30.
(AVEQ1Q30). This represented three groups and 15 colleges. The result of the analysis is shown below.

Using individuals as the unit of analysis, SAS was used to analyze a two-way unbalanced analysis of variance (ANOVA) with "factor A" representing group and "factor B" representing community colleges. The General Linear Model was used to complete this analysis of the unequal number of observations. In this case the number of observations is 176. Using group and college as factors in the two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), the result shown in Table 15 was obtained.

Table 15: ANOVA (using individuals as unit of analysis)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Pr&gt;F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>23.2336</td>
<td>1.4521</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>54.0515</td>
<td>0.3399</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Total</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>77.2852</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Type I SS</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Pr&gt;F**</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.4259</td>
<td>1.7129</td>
<td>5.04</td>
<td>0.0076</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>19.8077</td>
<td>1.4148</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Type III SS</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Pr&gt;F**</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.8663</td>
<td>1.9332</td>
<td>5.69</td>
<td>0.0041</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>19.8077</td>
<td>1.4148</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The analysis here shows some significant difference in the means, hence a post-hoc multiple comparison test using the Scheffe method was applied. The Scheffe test for the two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was significant for 2 vs 3 at the 0.05 level.

Contrasts were completed using the average of question 1 through question 30 as the dependent variable. The results of the analysis are shown in Table 16.

Table 16: Means (using individuals as unit of analysis)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1.5521</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>1.9037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>1.6131</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 17: Contrasts on the four hypothesis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Contrast</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Pr&gt;F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 vs 2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.5484</td>
<td>1.5484</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>0.0344</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 vs 3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.0468</td>
<td>0.0468</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.7110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 vs avg (2,3)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5808</td>
<td>0.5808</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>0.1931</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 vs 3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.2940</td>
<td>3.2940</td>
<td>9.69</td>
<td>0.0022</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Based on the results of the two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), using college and group as factors, the first hypothesis that there is no difference in the perception of communication of vision by Iowa's community college presidents and members of their respective boards of directors is not rejected. The implication here being that these community college presidents perceive their communication of vision in a similar manner as average board members. Numerous reasons may exist for this implication. Perhaps because board members work closely with college presidents may be one reason, while board members may provide direction for a president may be another. One can only speculate why board members and community college presidents have a similar view of the presidents' communication of vision.

The fourth hypothesis, that there is no difference in the perception of the communication of vision by Iowa's community college board members and members of the leadership/management team is rejected. This implies that these administrators perceive their presidents' communication of vision in a different way than the board of directors do. This implication supports the second hypothesis that was rejected.

In general, perceptions of the communication of vision differ among the three groups identified and investigated in
this research endeavor. The difference is particularly the case between presidents and members of the president's leadership/management team, as well as between leadership team members and members of the boards of directors. It should be noted that the differences which do exist are not major differences. This study's results only show that a difference exists between the three groups, and where such difference exists. But the study is not intended to uncover or speculate about the reasons for such differences. Another important point to be made here, based on the analysis performed, is that the difference which does exist is not an overwhelming difference, which may mean that minor adjustments on the part of the groups showing a difference may be made to bring the groups to narrow the magnitude of the difference, or eliminate it altogether. The implications unveil innumerable possibilities for continued examination and additional research.
CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

Chapters 1 through 4 have outlined a conceptual view of the problem, the relevant literature pertinent to the problem, the research design utilized to study questions posed in the study, and the results of the data collection and interpretation. This study has explored the behaviors employed by presidents of Iowa's 15 community college districts to communicate vision. An assessment of their perceptions of themselves in communicating vision was performed. The same assessment, with appropriate changes in the language of the assessment, was carried out with members of each community college's board of directors, as well as members of each college's administrative personnel group, those making up the leadership or management team for each college district, and having primary reporting responsibility to the president of each institution. The strategies and behaviors identified from the literature review, and viewed as helpful, useful, and even demanded in communicating vision comprised a major part of the instrument for this study. The Iowa community college presidents' perceptions of degree or extent of their use of the strategies are also collected and assessed. That
magnitude of use of a particular strategy or behavior, as perceived by each president, is then compared with the perceived degree or extent of use of that same strategy or behavior by members of the leadership/management team. The same type of comparison is then made between perceptions of the presidents and the members of each college district's board of directors.

Chapter 1 introduces vision as a vital part of the leadership research conducted in the past 20 years in business, industry, and education. Historical reference is made of exemplary models of leadership. It goes on to share how these exceptional leaders went on to accomplish great things by sharing their visions with others in compelling and convincing ways. The first chapter leads the reader to inquire about more than just the mere possession of vision, which is not now enough; rather, how a leader may increase his/her effectiveness in sharing the vision with others in the organization. Assumptions were made about the possible outcomes of such an investigation, and procedures formulated based on the type of questions under investigation.

The second chapter dealt with a review of relevant literature regarding vision and how leaders, the best and most successful ones, communicate vision. Chapter 2, consisting of seven sections, provides a general overview of the literature review on leadership research by delving into
the background and definitions of leadership. It also supplies information regarding the major research approach that have been employed in leadership research. Distinguishing aspect, elements, and dimensions of leadership are presented as well as information on leadership effectiveness. The importance of the role of vision in leadership is detailed. Finally, the communication of vision and its relationship to the present study is reported. Based on the review of the literature, several hypotheses were offered for testing.

Chapter 3 dealt with a description of the methods and procedures used in gathering the data. A copy of the instrument sent to members of each group under study for this research exercise is included in Appendices A, B, and C. Statistical and analytical techniques were proposed to analyze the data gathered for the study. Validity and reliability checks and estimates were included in the third chapter.

The fourth chapter focused on the presentation of the descriptive statistics in appropriate tabular format with explanations of key distinguishing points. This chapter also presented the results obtained from analysis of the data.

The fifth and present chapter summarizes the results of the hypotheses tested, drawing conclusions based on those results. This chapter also discusses the conclusions drawn,
and makes recommendations based on the results of the research hypotheses, as well as other information uncovered from the analysis of the data.

In order to re-direct attention to the central issue of this research, the questions of the study are again stated below to assist the reader in following, and even in seeing additional possibilities for further examination.

1. How do Iowa’s community college presidents perceive themselves as communicating their vision to members of their respective boards of directors and leadership/management teams?

2. What strategies, practices, behaviors, etc., do Iowa’s community college presidents perceive themselves using to communicate their vision to members of their respective boards of directors and leadership/management teams?

3. How do members of the boards of directors of Iowa’s community colleges perceive their presidents as communicating vision?

4. How do members of the leadership/management teams of Iowa’s community colleges perceive their presidents as communicating vision?

5. Are the perceptions of Iowa community college presidents’ communication of vision the same as the
perceptions of members of their respective boards of directors?

6. Are the perceptions of Iowa community college presidents communication of vision the same as the perceptions of members of their respective leadership/management teams?

7. Are the perceptions of members of Iowa’s community college boards of directors the same as the perceptions of members of leadership/management team members in their presidents’ communication of vision.

Based on the questions above, the results of the hypotheses tested are provided and conclusions are drawn from the results indicated. It is appropriate and very important at this juncture, and before divulging the results and conclusions, to mention a problem presented in the selection of the appropriate unit(s) of analysis in the present study. Borg and Gall (1989), suggest that choosing "an appropriate unit or units of analysis is indeed complex" (p. 374). Critical deliberation should be exercised in determining if the members of the sample under study is the research act alone, or if they are acting in ways that are influenced by a larger group of which they are apart.

In educational research the unit of analysis is a critical decision. For example, will the unit of analysis be made up of the individual student or a classroom group, or
principals versus individual teachers, or schools versus classrooms, etc.? Some researchers suggest that group means be used in the analysis, and others that levels be used with individual observations and represented by factor A and factor B. Also, certain researchers have suggested that in situations where the decision is difficult, that both approaches, group means and individual observations, be used in the statistical analysis, then the results compared and reported.

Conclusions

The conclusion of this study are presented in two parts, namely: (a) results related to the questions of the study and the hypotheses tested, and (b) information generated from the pertinent data collected that advances the communication of vision in a general way, but also supports what is currently known about the purpose and meaning of the present study--the specific ways to effectively share, translate, and otherwise communicate vision.

Hypothesis 1

One implication, based on the results of the analysis performed, is that the presidents of Iowa’s community college perceive themselves, in their communication of vision, much as do members of the boards of directors and in
similar ways as do members of the boards of directors. Numerous questions and assumptions may be posed because of this finding. The questions of the study, which were restated above, are answered in such a way that presidents may be considered far more effective in sharing their visions with board members. It means that the presidents are viewed as more effective by board members than by administrators. Perhaps because of a close working relationship between community college presidents and members of the boards of directors they "see eye to eye." It could be assumed or suggested that because board members are "the boss" of community college presidents, a greater effort is made by community college presidents to "share" vision with board members.

Hypothesis 2

The second hypothesis that there is no difference in the perception of the communication of vision by Iowa's community college presidents and members of their respective leadership or management teams is rejected. Administrative personnel reporting directly to the presidents do not perceive the presidents' communication the same as do the presidents. Here again, numerous conclusions may be drawn from this revelation. What can presidents do to better convey their vision to the leadership team members? Are presidents not accomplishing their goals, or are they not
doing the kinds of things they need to do to garner more support from their administrators? Or does it mean that the presidents have not selected the appropriate administrators? Have the administrators accepted the presidents’ vision for the future? Do the administrators see beyond the day-to-day realities to a future that the president creates for them and the institution? These and other questions are begging to be asked based on the finding and analysis of this finding. It is important here to mention that while a difference does, in fact, exist, the degree or magnitude of this difference based on the analysis performed is not overwhelming. As was alluded to in the previous chapter, the difference that does exist is not a major one.

**Hypothesis 3**

The third hypothesis, that there is no difference in the perception of the communication of vision by Iowa’s community college presidents and the average for respective member of their respective leadership/management teams is not rejected. The implication here is that the community college presidents in Iowa perceive themselves as communicating vision in a similar way as to the average board member and leadership/management team member.
Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4, that there is no difference in the perception of the communication of vision by Iowa’s community college board members and leadership/management team members is rejected. The implication from the analysis performed on this hypothesis is that these administrators perceive their presidents’ communication of vision in a different manner or way than do board members.

Recommendations

Based on the conclusions drawn from the finding resulting from the analysis performed on the data collected, a variety of recommendations may be made. Just a few involve the active development of training to assist those with vision to find ways to effectively communicate it to those normally charged with the responsibility to help that vision come to fruition. Leadership and management courses may was to dedicate considerable attention to helping potential leaders find effective ways, in addition to more adequately using those practices and behaviors currently used for effectiveness and success in leadership capacities.
Dear Community College Administrator:

Your assistance is requested in completing this questionnaire which is part of a doctoral research study entitled "A Study of the Comparative Perceptions of the Communication of Vision by Iowa Community College Presidents." Completion of the questionnaire should take fifteen (15) minutes or less. In a review of the literature on successful leaders, a variety of strategies are used and behaviors exhibited to communicate vision. The intent of this instrument is to obtain your perceptions of the extent to which your president utilizes the strategies and/or demonstrates the behaviors identified as being used by successful leaders in communicating vision.

As an administrator of your community college, your appraisal of your president's use of the strategies identified and demonstration of particular behaviors are of the utmost importance in determining the extent of his communication, or sharing, of vision to you as a member of the leadership team and to members of the board of directors. Please complete the questionnaire by circling the number of the response that best represents your perception or belief of the degree to which your president uses the strategies or exhibits the behaviors.

Please return your complete questionnaire by September 16, 1996 to the researcher in the enclosed self-addressed, postage-paid envelope. The questionnaire and accompanying return envelope are coded in order to track responses for each respective community college group of respondents. If you have questions, please contact the researcher at (515) 283-8652.

Your responses will be kept confidential. All original questionnaire forms will be destroyed after responses have been analyzed. Your responses will be grouped, tabulated and presented as normed data. No one will see your questionnaire except the researcher.

If you are interested in the results of the study, please advise. The researcher would be pleased to share the results with you. Thank you for your assistance and cooperation.

Respectfully,

George A. Jackson
Dean for Recruitment
Office of the Graduate College
Major Professor

Winston Black
Graduate Student Researcher

GAJ:rsb
Questionnaire

Instructions: Please rate your president by circling the number of the response that best represents your perception or belief of the degree to which he/she uses the strategies or exhibit the behaviors.

1. He/she focuses his/her attention, and that of his/her leadership team, on reviewing national, regional, and local trends that have implications for the institution.

2. He/she directs the development of strategies for the improvement of the college’s programs to better serve students.

3. He/she establishes expectations that the college will have future goals.

4. He/she creates opportunities for his/her leadership team to participate in designing the blueprint regarding the institution’s future direction.

5. He/she exhibits the ability to translate the future educational needs of the institution and its communities into concrete plans.

6. He/she communicates to staff and faculty the college’s mission in attempting to maintain a broad base of understanding and acceptance of where the college is headed.

7. He/she enables internal and external constituents within the college community to not only understand more fully the role of the institution, but to be positively engaged in the continuing challenge that underlies the responsive mission of the institution.

8. He/she is adept at knowing the needs of the institution’s community and stays apprised of changing community needs.

9. He/she is sensitive to change in the institution and to those individuals involved and the concerns they may have surrounding new directions.

10. He/she uses community members, as well as internal group representatives of faculty, staff and students to accomplish the institution’s strategic plan.
11. He/she initiates joint ventures designed to shape the environment to meet the future economic needs of the college and the community. ................................. 1 2 3 4 5

12. He/she maintains an external perspective to not only keep the community focused on the institution, but more importantly, to ensure the institution keeps focused on the community. ................................................................. 1 ... 2 3 4 5

13. He/she facilitates superior performance through awareness and understanding rather than by command. ................................................................. 1 ... 2 3 4 5

14. He/she continually educates the college’s external constituents - individuals in education, business and industry. ................................................................. 1 ... 2 3 4 5

15. He/she solicits the opinion of people about to be affected by significant change. ................................................................. 1 ... 2 3 4 5

16. He/she creates a supportive, positive and appropriate climate for organizational success. ................................................................. 1 ... 2 3 4 5

17. He/she acknowledges the importance of considering human issues during lay-offs. ................................................................. 1 ... 2 3 4 5

18. He/she believes that he/she can shape the future as it applies to the college/district. ................................................................. 1 ... 2 3 4 5

19. He/she explains what the institutional priorities are for the year ahead in order to take steps that have been decided are important to the college. ................................................................. 1 ... 2 3 4 5

20. He/she evaluates and deploys people based solely on strength, performance and potential. ................................................................. 1 ... 2 3 4 5

21. He/she thinks positively, never gives up, and seeks out the opportunity that lurks in every challenge, realizing that things are never as bad as they seem. ................................................................. 1 ... 2 3 4 5

22. He/she is detail-oriented enough to know whether the objectives are being met or the course is correct, but not so detail-oriented that he/she "misses the forest for the trees." ................................................................. 1 ... 2 3 4 5

23. He/she communicates constantly - influencing, encouraging, critiquing, and listening. ................................................................. 1 ... 2 3 4 5
Directions: Answer the questions listed below to the best of your knowledge. Please circle the appropriate answer to each question as it applies to you or your institution. In addition, please supply information where blanks are provided and specific information is requested.

31. Biographical
   Gender: 1. Male  2. Female
   Age: 1. less than 35
         2. 35 to 40
         3. 41 to 46
         4. 47 to 52
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         6. 59 to 64

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32. Educational Attainment - Highest degree earned
   1. Doctorate
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33. Income Range
   1. $45,001-60,000
   2. $60,001-75,000
   3. $75,001-90,000
   4. $90,001-105,000
   5. $105,001-120,000
   6. $Over $120,000

34. Community College Enrollment
   1. 1,001 to 3,000 FTEE
   2. 3,001 to 5,000 FTEE
   3. 5,001 to 7,000 FTEE
   4. 7,001 to 9,000 FTEE
   5. 9,001 to 11,000 FTEE
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35. Information about your college

   Faculty Size
   1. 50 or less
   2. 51 to 100
   3. 101 to 150
   4. 151 to 200
   5. 201 to 250
   6. 251 and over
36. **Number of Programs at your college**

1. less than 20
2. 20 to 40
3. 40 to 60
4. 60-80
5. 80-100
6. over 100

37. **Background and Experience**

What educational positions did you hold prior to your present appointment and for how long? (check all that apply).

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<td>8. administration - college/university</td>
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<td>9. occupation other than above</td>
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(please identify: ____________________________________________)

38. **Years you have worked at your present position**

1. less than 4
2. 4 - 8
3. 8 - 12
4. 12 - 16
5. 16 - 20
6. 20 - 24
7. over 24

39. **What was your first administrative position?** ________________________________

40. **At what age did you first become an educational administrator?** __________
Dear Community College Board Member:

Your assistance is requested in completing this questionnaire which is part of a doctoral research study entitled "A Study of the Comparative Perceptions of the Communication of Vision by Iowa Community College Presidents." Completion of the questionnaire should take fifteen (15) minutes or less. In a review of the literature on successful leaders, a variety of strategies are used and behaviors exhibited to communicate vision. The intent of this instrument is to obtain your perceptions of the extent to which your president utilizes the strategies and/or demonstrates the behaviors identified as being used by successful leaders in communicating vision.

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Respectfully,

George A. Jackson
Dean for Recruitment
Office of the Graduate College
Major Professor

Graduate College
Office of the Dean
207 Beardshear Hall
Ames, Iowa 50011-1024
515 294-531
FAX 515 294-6100

Winston Black
Graduate Student Researcher
Dean for Recruitment
Office of the Graduate College
Major Professor

GAJ:reb
### Questionnaire

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38. Years you have worked at your present position

1. less than 4
2. 4 - 8
3. 8 - 12
4. 12 - 16
5. 16 - 20
6. 20 - 24
7. over 24

39. What was your first administrative position? ______________________

40. At what age did you first become an educational administrator? ____________
Dear Community College President:

Your assistance is requested in completing this questionnaire which is part of a doctoral research study entitled "A Study of the Comparative Perceptions of the Communication of Vision by Iowa Community College Presidents." Completion of the questionnaire should take fifteen (15) minutes or less. In a review of the literature on successful leaders, a variety of strategies are used and behaviors exhibited to communicate vision. The intent of this instrument is to obtain your perception of the extent to which you utilize the strategies and/or demonstrate the behaviors identified as being used by successful leaders in communicating vision.

As the Chief Executive Officer of your community college, your self-appraisal of the use of the strategies identified and the demonstration of the behaviors are of the utmost importance in determining the perceptions of your articulation, or sharing, of vision to two specific groups that you interact with on a regular basis: members of your leadership team and members of your board of directors. Please complete the questionnaire by circling the number of the response that best represents your perception or belief of the degree to which you use the strategies or exhibit the behaviors.

Please return your completed questionnaire by September 16, 1996 to the researcher in the enclosed self-addressed, postage-paid envelope. The questionnaire and accompanying return envelope are coded in order to track responses for each respective community college group of respondents. If you have questions, please contact the researcher at (515) 283-8652.

Your responses will be kept confidential. All original questionnaire forms will be destroyed after responses have been analyzed. Your responses will be grouped, tabulated and presented as normed data. No one will see your questionnaire except the researcher.

If you are interested in the results of the study, please advise. The researcher would be pleased to share the results with you. Thank you for your assistance and cooperation.

Respectfully,

George A. Jackson
Dean for Recruitment
Office of the Graduate College
Major Professor

Winston Black
Graduate Student Researcher
**Presidential Questionnaire**

Instructions: Please rate yourself by circling the number of the response that best represents your perception or belief of the degree to which you use the strategies or exhibit the behaviors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Frequently, if not always</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Fairly Often</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. I focus my attention, and that of my leadership team, on reviewing national, regional, and local trends that have implications for my institution. ............................ 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5

2. I direct the development of strategies for the improvement of my college's programs to better serve students. ............................ 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5

3. I establish expectations that my college will have future goals. ............................ 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5

4. I create opportunities for my leadership team to participate in designing the blueprint regarding my institution's future direction. ............................ 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5

5. I exhibit the ability to translate the future educational needs of my institution and its communities into concrete plans. ............................ 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5

6. I communicate to staff and faculty the college's mission in attempting to maintain a broad base of understanding and acceptance of where the college is heading. ............................ 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5

7. I enable internal and external constituents within the college community to not only understand more fully the role of the institution, but to be positively engaged in the continuing challenge that underlies the responsive mission of the institution. ............................ 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5

8. I am adept at knowing the needs of my institution's community and stay apprised of changing community needs. ............................ 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5

9. I am sensitive to change in my institution and to those individuals involved and the concerns they may have surrounding new directions. ............................ 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5

10. I use community members, as well as internal group representatives of faculty, staff and students to accomplish the institution's strategic plan. ............................ 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequently, if not always</th>
<th>Fairly Often</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Once in a while</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>I initiate joint ventures designed to shape the environment to meet the future economic needs of the college and the community more effectively.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>I maintain an external perspective to not only keep the community focused on the institution, but more importantly, to ensure the institution keeps focused on the community.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>I facilitate superior performance through awareness and understanding rather than by command.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>I continually educate the college's external constituents - individuals in education, business and industry.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>I solicit the opinion of people about to be affected by significant change.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>I create a supportive, positive and appropriate climate for organizational success.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>I acknowledge the importance of considering human issues during lay-offs.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>I believe that I can shape the future as it applies to the college/district.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>I explain what the institutional priorities are for the year ahead in order to take steps that have been decided are important to the college.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>I evaluate and deploy people based solely on strength, performance and potential.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>I think positively, never give up, and seek out the opportunity that lurks in every challenge, realizing that things are never as bad as they seem.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>I am detail-oriented enough to know whether the objectives are being met or the course is correct, but not so detail-oriented that I &quot;miss the forest for the trees.&quot;</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>I communicate constantly - influencing, encouraging, critiquing, and listening.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
24. I seek consensus without being paralyzed by the thought of making a mistake or intolerant of those who make them. ......... 1 2 3 4 5
25. I create and shape change, rather than passively accepting it, and challenge the status quo, refusing to accept the response, "we've never done that before." ............... 1 2 3 4 5
26. I empower others in my organization, particularly those in my leadership team, by delegating appropriate authority and responsibility. ........................................ 1 2 3 4 5
27. I seek and value the opinions of others in the organization, particularly those of my leadership team. ...................................... 1 2 3 4 5
28. I develop trust in followers, particularly those in my leadership team, by standing behind their beliefs. ........................................ 1 2 3 4 5
29. I convene task forces, commissions and committees of well informed persons inside and outside the organization to resolve problems. ........................................ 1 2 3 4 5
30. I spend time thinking about outcomes and results and help others in the organization imagine the doable and create results. ........ 1 2 3 4 5

Directions: Answer the questions listed below to the best of your knowledge. Please circle the appropriate answer to each question as it applies to you or your institution. In addition, please supply information where blanks are provided and specific information is requested.

31. Biographical
   Gender: 1. Male  2. Female
   Age: 1. less than 35
   2. 35 to 40
   3. 41 to 46
   4. 47 to 52
   5. 53 to 58
   6. 59 to 64
32. Educational Attainment - Highest degree earned
   1. Doctorate
   2. Specialist
   3. Masters
   4. Bachelor's
   5. Less than bachelor's

33. Income Range
   1. $45,001-60,000
   2. $60,001-75,000
   3. $75,001-90,000
   4. $90,001-105,000
   5. $105,001-120,000
   6. $Over $120,000

34. Community College Enrollment
   1. 1,001 to 3,000 FTEE
   2. 3,001 to 5,000 FTEE
   3. 5,001 to 7,000 FTEE
   4. 7,001 to 9,000 FTEE
   5. 9,001 to 11,000 FTEE
   6. 11,001 to 13,000 FTEE

35. Information about your college
    Faculty Size
    1. 50 or less
    2. 51 to 100
    3. 101 to 150
    4. 151 to 200
    5. 201 to 250
    6. 251 and over
36. Number of Programs at your college
   1. less than 20
   2. 20 to 40
   3. 40 to 60
   4. 60-80
   5. 80-100
   6. over 100

37. Background and Experience
   What educational positions did you hold prior to your present appointment and for how long?
   (check only one).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. teaching - elementary A___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. teaching - secondary B___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. teaching - community college C___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. teaching - college/university D___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. administration - elementary E___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. administration - secondary F___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. administration - community college G___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. administration - college/university H___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. occupation other than above I___</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
   (please identify: __________________________________________) |

38. Years you have worked at your present position
   1. less than 4
   2. 4 - 8
   3. 8 - 12
   4. 12 - 16
   5. 16 - 20
   6. 20 - 24
   7. over 24

39. What was your first administrative position? ____________________________

40. At what age did you first become an educational administrator? ________________
REFERENCES


