A STUDY OF COMMUNITY COLLEGE PRESIDENTIAL QUALIFICATIONS AND CAREERPATHS

by

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B.S., United States Naval Academy, 1976
M.M.A.S., United States Army Command & General Staff College, 1991

AN ABSTRACT OF A DISSERTATION

submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Adult and Continuing Education
College of Education

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas

2009
Abstract

This ex post facto research was conducted using parametric and non-parametric analysis to determine if the mass retirement of community college presidents between 2001 and 2007 had precipitated a diminution in educational qualifications, a reduction in pre-presidential community college experience, or a change in presidential career paths of first time community college presidents by era (before and after 2001). Seven hundred eighty-five currently serving presidents of comprehensive community colleges were surveyed. The overall return rate of the survey was 53.25%; the useable return rate was 49.30%.

Parametric (independent samples t-test) and non-parametric (Mann-Whitney and chi square) tests were used to determine if there were significant differences in educational qualifications, pre-presidential community college experience, and presidential career paths of first time community college presidents by era (before and after 2001). The study found:

- A diminution of the educational qualifications after 2001 with fewer presidents holding doctorates at the time of their first presidential appointments compared to presidents appointed before 2001;
- A significant increase in pre-presidential community college experience of presidents appointed after 2001 at the time of their first presidential appointments compared to presidents appointed before 2001;
- A significant difference in presidential career paths by era. Specifically, presidents appointed after 2001 were significantly less likely to have entered the community college system from K12 or from non-educational management positions. Presidents appointed
after 2001 were also significantly less likely to have served as a community college Chief Academic Officer and significantly more likely to have served as a community college Primary Academic Officer, Chief Students Affairs Officer, or Vice President.
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after 2001 were also significantly less likely to have served as a community college Chief Academic Officer and significantly more likely to have served as a community college Primary Academic Officer, Chief Students Affairs Officer, or Vice President.
# Table of Contents

List of Figures ........................................................................................................................................... x 
List of Tables ............................................................................................................................................. xi 
Acknowledgements .................................................................................................................................... xiii

CHAPTER 1 - Introduction ............................................................................................................................ 1
  Need for Study ........................................................................................................................................... 8
  Purpose and Implications of the Study ....................................................................................................... 9
  Implications for the Study .......................................................................................................................... 9
  Research Objectives ................................................................................................................................. 10
  Statement of Hypotheses .......................................................................................................................... 11
  Assumptions of the Study ......................................................................................................................... 12
  Limitations of the Study ............................................................................................................................. 12
  Definition of Terms .................................................................................................................................. 13
  Abbreviations .......................................................................................................................................... 15

CHAPTER 2 - Review of Literature ............................................................................................................... 16
  Introduction ............................................................................................................................................... 16
  Impending Crisis: Mass Retirement of Community College Presidents ................................................... 17
  Quality Indicators in Community College Presidents ............................................................................... 20
  Career Paths of Community College Presidents ...................................................................................... 32
  Summary .................................................................................................................................................. 34

CHAPTER 3 - Methodology ........................................................................................................................... 37
  Introduction ............................................................................................................................................... 37
  Research Design ........................................................................................................................................ 38
  Population ............................................................................................................................................... 38
  Instrumentation ....................................................................................................................................... 40
  Data Collection ........................................................................................................................................ 42
  Analysis .................................................................................................................................................. 43
  Part I: Analysis of Presidential Demographics: ....................................................................................... 43
  Part II: Analysis of Presidential Educational Levels: ............................................................................... 43
List of Figures

Figure 5-1: Age Comparison of CC Presidents by Era .......................................................... 69
Figure 5-2: Gender Comparison of CC Presidents by Era ................................................. 70
Figure 5-3: Education Comparison of CC Presidents by Era ............................................. 71
Figure 5-4: % CC Presidents w/CC Pre-Presidential Experience by Era ......................... 72
Figure 5-5: CC Pre-Presidential Experience by Era .......................................................... 73
Figure 5-6: % of CC Presidents w/Experience in HEGIS Category by Era ....................... 74
Figure 5-7: Average Time of Pre-Presidential Service in HEGIS Positions by Era ............ 75
Figure 5-8: PAO, CSAO, and CAO to V by Era ............................................................... 76
Figure 5-9: K12 and OTH to FAC by Era ........................................................................ 77
Figure 5-10: Change in Distribution from PAO ............................................................... 78
Figure 5-11: Change in Distribution From CSAO ........................................................... 79
List of Tables

Table 3-1: HEGIS Categories ........................................................................................................41
Table 4-1: Survey Mail and Return Data ....................................................................................48
Table 4-2: Mean Ages of Community College Presidents as of January 2008 .........................49
Table 4-3: Mean Ages at Time of First Presidential Appointment .............................................49
Table 4-4: Cross Tabulations of Male and Female Presidents ....................................................50
Table 4-5: Presidents with Doctorates at First Presidential Appointment ...............................51
Table 4-6: Presidents w/Doctorates in Education at First Presidential Appointment ...............51
Table 4-7: Presidents w/Pre-Presidential Experience .................................................................52
Table 4-8: Years of Pre-Presidential Experience ......................................................................53
Table 4-9: Pre-Presidential Experience by HEGIS Category .....................................................54
Table 4-10: Average Time in HEGIS Category ...........................................................................55
Table 4-11: Cross Tabulations to P from Lower HEGIS Positions and Era ...............................56
Table 4-12: Cross Tabulations to V from Lower HEGIS Positions and Era ...............................57
Table 4-13: Cross Tabulations to CAO from Lower HEGIS Positions and Era .........................57
Table 4-14: Cross Tabulations to CSAO from Lower HEGIS Positions and Era .....................58
Table 4-15: Cross Tabulations to PAO from Lower HEGIS Positions and Era .........................58
Table 4-16: Cross Tabulations to CH from Lower HEGIS Positions and Era ............................59
Table 4-17: Cross Tabulations to OHE from Lower HEGIS Positions and Era .........................59
Table 4-18: Cross Tabulations to FAC from Lower HEGIS Positions by Era ............................60
Table 4-19: Cross Tabulations to K12 from HEGIS OTH and Non-OTH FAC ..........................60
Table 4-20: Cross Tabulations from OTH to HEGIS Positions by Era ....................................61
Table 4-21: Cross Tabulations from K12 to HEGIS Positions by Era .......................................62
Table 4-22: Cross Tabulations from FAC to HEGIS Positions by Era .......................................62
Table 4-23: Cross Tabulations from OHE to HEGIS Positions by Era .......................................63
Table 4-24: Cross Tabulations From CH to HEGIS Positions by Era .......................................63
Table 4-25: Cross Tabulations from PAO to HEGIS Positions by Era .......................................64
Table 4-26: Cross Tabulations from CSAO to HEGIS Positions by Era ....................................64
Table 4-27: Cross Tabulation from CAO to HEGIS Positions by Era ........................................65
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CHAPTER 1 - Introduction

The community college is a uniquely American phenomenon. (Cohen & Brawer, 1996) Although recent years have seen the development of community colleges in other nations, in no other country have community colleges had the history, prevalence, or impact that they have had in the United States. American community colleges are part technical college, part junior college, part entrepreneurial resource, and part community resource. Since the founding of the first public community college in 1901, community colleges have increased educational opportunities for a significant portion of American society, which otherwise would have been unable to attend college. Community colleges provide university bound students who could not afford, are not ready for, and/or reside too far from universities a low cost, readily accessible, local option to obtain the first two years of a college education. Community colleges provide non-university bound students vocational degree and certificate programs to help them increase their employability and earning power as they enter the work force. Community colleges assist their communities by fostering economic development; training workers in business and industry; providing life long learning opportunities; and satisfying other local community education needs.

The developmental history of the modern community college can be divided into four distinct eras: (Deegan & Tillery, 1985)

1. 1900 - 1930: The Extension of High School Era
2. 1930 - 1950: The Junior College Era
In each successive era community colleges found not only increased demand for the existing services, but also demand for new services. This increased demand for additional services created a dynamic situation in which community colleges saw their missions change from an extension of high school to that of the comprehensive community colleges of today. The evolution of the community colleges' missions precipitated organizational, governance, and administrative changes from one era to the next. These changes resulted in community colleges gradually separating themselves from their K12 roots to become independent, self-governing institutions. (Deegan & Tillery, 1985)

The 1960s and 1970s were the most eventful decades for community colleges throughout the United States. These decades saw the most significant growth in the number of community colleges. They were also the decades in which community colleges finally managed to establish their independence from their K12 roots. This separation of community colleges from their K12 roots was due to two significant factors: the emergence of the comprehensive community college and the advent of a corps of professional community college administrators. (Deegan & Tillery, 1985)

The emergence of the comprehensive community college in the 1960s was a major step in realizing the vision of establishing an entity to address societal educational needs not attended to by high schools or universities. Since the 1970s, comprehensive community colleges have emerged as an integral part of the American educational system by providing a wide array of educational and community services. Jim Adams (2002), Chairman of Texas Instruments, summarized the national and global importance of community colleges when he averred, "The community college system is an absolutely imperative part of the fabric of education in this country. It's the thing that will help us be competitive leaders in the world, and corporations like
mine have to retain a competitive leadership throughout the US, throughout the world”
(American Association of Community Colleges (AACC) fact sheet, n.d.). The following
statistics support Adams’ statement regarding the importance of community colleges in higher
education in the United States:

- There are currently over 1,100 community colleges across the nation with combined
  annual enrollments in excess of 11,000,000 students.
- Annually community colleges award nearly three quarters of a million degrees and
  certificates.
- Almost half (46%) of all undergraduates in the U.S. attend community colleges.
- Over one third (37%) of all students in U.S. higher education attend community colleges.
- Almost half (47%) of all first-time freshmen in the U.S. attend community colleges.
- A disproportionate share of underserved populations (58% of women undergraduates;
  47% of African Americans undergraduates; 56% of Hispanic undergraduates; 48% of
  Pacific Islander undergraduates; and 57% of Native American undergraduates) in the
  U.S. attends community colleges.
- Almost two thirds (62%) of the applicants taking the national exam for registered nurses
  are community college graduates.
- Almost two thirds (65%) of the nations new healthcare workers are community college

In addition to their traditional educational roles, community colleges have become hubs of
life long learning. Best selling author Tom Peters (2002) sees community colleges as the
"unsung, under funded back bone of America's all important lifelong learning network” (AACC
fact sheet, n.d.). The veracity of Peter's remark is attested to by the following data relative to the
level of service comprehensive community colleges provide their communities in the form of Continuing Education (CE):

- Historically, community colleges have provided CE with somewhere between 3 and 4 million people a year – which is somewhere between 15% and 33% of their enrollments. The exact percentages and numbers are hard to calculate because States and colleges differ in what they consider CE, but the point here is CE serves a large segment of the population.
- 82% of community colleges include CE in their mission statements.
- 66% of community colleges hold community service events on an annual basis.
- 68% of community colleges host local community summits on their campuses.
- 62% of community colleges hold health screenings.
- 76% of community colleges provide arts programs for the enrichment of their communities.
- 81% of community colleges provide diversity training to businesses, organizations, and individuals in their communities.
- 90% of community colleges share their facilities with community groups at no cost.
- 29% of community colleges conduct youth leadership programs.
- 45% of community colleges provide service learning opportunities. (Cohen & Brawer, 1996)

Concomitant with the emergence of the comprehensive community college was the emergence of a corps of professional community college administrators. Prior to the comprehensive community college era many of the community college administrators were high school administrators who simply oversaw the operations of a co-located community college as
an additional duty. Other early community college administrators were selected from the high school or community college faculty. Most of these early administrators held master degrees in academic disciplines and assumed their leadership roles in community college without any experience or training for the positions. This trend of promoting inexperienced and untrained teachers to community college leadership positions continued into the 1960s, when the initial members of what would become a corps of professional community college administrators first emerged. (Duval, 2003; Sullivan, 2001; Vaughan, 1990)

The members of this new corps of professional administrators were better educated than their predecessors – most held doctorate degrees. They also differed from their university colleagues in that most of the members of this new corps of administrators held doctorate degrees in education. (Duvall, 2003; Shults, 2001; Sullivan, 2001) The development of this professional corps of community college leaders has been cited by community college scholars as a critical step in the success of the comprehensive community college movement. Community college researchers suggest that these pioneers not only built the comprehensive community college system, but also set the standard for succeeding generations of community college presidents. This standard, according to some experts, is now threatened. (Boggs, 2003; Duvall, 2003; Cohen & Brawer, 1996; Shults, 2001; Sullivan, 2001; Vaughan, 1986; Vineyard, 1993; Weisman & Vaughan, 2001)

Scholars now contend that community colleges are moving into a new, or fifth, era. (Boggs, 2003; Cain, 1999; Duvall, 2003; Deegan & Tillery, 1985; Goff, 2002; McKenney & Cejda, 2001; Shults, 2001) They base this contention on their prediction that a multitude of external factors will force community colleges to significantly alter their organizational and
management structures. Among the external factors they cite as requiring organizational and managerial change are:

- Continued scarcity of resources: the current trend towards reductions in governmental funding is expected to continue;

- Changing demographics in the student population: more students requiring English as a Second Language (ESL) instruction and developmental education;

- Changing demographics in the community college staff population: fewer academically qualified instructors will be available to replace the aging faculty members about to retire;

- Private sector competition: an increase in the number and quality of proprietary institutions;

- Increasing technology demands on the budget: an increased need to spend larger portions of the colleges' budgets to acquire new equipment and an increase in the overall cost of the technology;

- Increasing governmental regulation: additional demands and increased administrative costs to meet state and local mandates;

- Emergence of the concept of shared governance: the recommended governance model for the new era, but one that has failed to make any significant penetration into how community colleges are managed;

- Public skepticism: concerns over the quality of community college instruction;

- Increasing availability of distance learning: traditionally secure revenues streams build on student enrollments from within regulated service areas which are threatened by the increased use of on-line and other distance education programs;
- Fewer degree-seeking and more credential-seeking students: traditionally secure revenue streams from high enrollment, required, general education classes are threatened as demand increases for certification programs which require few (if any) general education courses. (Boggs, 2003; Cain, 1999; Duvall, 2003; Deegan & Tillery, 1985; Goff, 2002; McKenney & Cejda, 2001; Shults, 2001)

Scholars suggest that any one of these factors by itself would present a significant challenge for the average community college. However, scholars predict that in the near future most community colleges will be faced with a combination of several of these factors simultaneously. (Boggs, 2003; Cain, 1999; Duvall, 2003; Deegan & Tillery, 1985; Goff, 2002; McKenney & Cejda, 2001; Shults, 2001) Scholars who specialize in community college research foresee sound, responsible presidential leadership as the key to guiding the community colleges through this turbulent period. This assertion is based on the unique niche they believe community colleges fill in America's educational structure. These scholars suggest "Community College leadership has its own set of problems, challenges, and demands." (Piland & Wolf, 2003, p. 95) They suggest that the differences in mission, function, structure, and governance between community college and university systems render it impractical and imprudent for administrators to move from one to the other. The upshot of this contention is that although there may be some nominal similarities between community college presidencies and their counterparts at universities, the two positions are in fact considerably different and as such require a different set of skills. As a result, these scholars contend that if community colleges are to find the presidential leadership they believe is necessary to guide them through the predicted turbulence, these leaders will have to emerge from within the community college system. (McKenney &
Cejda, 2001; Piland and Wolf, 2003; Shults, 2001; Vaughan, 1986; Vineyard, 1993; Watts & Hammons, 2002)

**Need for Study**

Research indicates that even as they begin to confront this litany of social, economic, and educational challenges, most community colleges will lose the experienced leadership that has led them through the Comprehensive Community College Era. Studies estimate that between the period of 2001 and 2011 approximately 79% of sitting presidents will retire. The prospect of these mass retirements has led scholars to predict a potential leadership crisis in the nation's community colleges. (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002; Boggs, 2003; Duvall, 2003; Piland & Wolf, 2003; Shults, 2001; Watts & Hammons, 2002; Weisman & Vaughan, 2001) According to Shults (2001), "There is clear evidence that the pending retirements in community college leaders and the leadership pipeline pose a critical challenge to community colleges" (p. 5).

The pipeline Shults refers to is the pipeline leading to the community college presidency that developed during the Comprehensive Community College Era concurrently with the development of the aforementioned corps of professional community college administrators. This community college presidential pipeline has traditionally been filled with experienced, highly educated community college administrators and faculty members who comprised the pool from which first time presidents were selected. However, according to the research, the pipeline of experienced and educated administrators and faculty members is also drying up. Studies estimate that between 25% and 50% of experienced community college faculty and over 25% of currently serving community college senior administrators also planned to retire between 2001 and 2011. (Boggs, 2003; Shults, 2001) The en masse retirements at all levels of community college have led to the suggestion of a "crawling crisis" in community college leadership and
raise the question as to whether or not the administrators now in the presidential pipeline are as qualified as their predecessors. (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002; Claremont Graduate University Report 2, 2001; Duvall, 2003; Piland & Wolf, 2003; Shults, 2001; Watts & Hammons, 2002; Boggs, 2003; Weisman & Vaughan, 2001)

Community colleges are now approximately half the way through the period in which the mass presidential retirements have been predicted. It is, therefore, an appropriate time to examine the effects of the retirements to determine if there are any indications of the predicted changes in education qualifications, experience levels, or career paths.

**Purpose and Implications of the Study**

The purpose of this study was to determine if the predicted mass retirement of community college presidents has precipitated a change in the qualifications or career paths of first time community college presidents. Of major interest to this study was whether there has been a diminution in the education qualifications; reduction in years of pre-presidential community college experience, or change in career paths of first time community college presidents hired in the Current Era (2001-present) compared to those of community college presidents who assumed their first presidential positions during the Comprehensive Community College Era (1970 to 2001).

**Implications for the Study**

This study has three significant implications.

1. First, it benchmarks the educational qualifications of community college presidents from both the current and the Comprehensive Community College Eras. This will not only indicate if there has been a diminution in the educational qualifications of new presidents, but will serve as a point of reference for future studies.

2. Second, it benchmarks the experience levels inside the community college system for
community college presidents from both the current and the Comprehensive Community College Eras. This will not only indicate if there has been a diminution in the experience levels of new presidents, but will serve as a point of reference for future studies.

3. Third, it provides an analysis of the routes community college presidents took to the presidency by era. This analysis will identify if and where the path to the community college presidency has changed by era.

**Research Objectives**

The objective of this research was to investigate whether or not there is any relationship between the predicted mass retirements of community college presidents and a decrease in the educational qualifications, decrease in community college experience, or change in career paths of first time community college presidents. Specific objectives of this study were:

1. To identify the average age of currently serving community college presidents by era.

2. To identify the average age at which American community college presidents assumed their first presidencies by era.

3. To identify the relative number of male to female community college presidents by era.

4. To compare the average current age, average age at the time of the first presidential appointment, and relative number of male to female presidents appointed by era (1970 to 2001 vs. 2001 to 2008) at the time their initial presidential appointment.

5. To identify the educational qualifications (highest degree held and academic discipline of highest degree held) of American community college presidents at the time they assumed their first presidencies by era.

6. To compare the educational qualifications (highest degree held and academic discipline of highest degree held) of American community college presidents by era
(1970 to 2001 vs. 2001 to 2008) at the time their initial presidential appointment.

7. To identify the pre-presidential community college experience American community college presidents at the time they assumed their first presidencies by era.

8. To compare the pre-presidential community college experience of American community college presidents by era (1970 to 2001 vs. 2001 to 2008) at the time their initial presidential appointment.

9. To examine the career paths of American community college presidents by era.


**Statement of Hypotheses**

The null hypotheses for this study were:

**H01:** There is no difference in the current age between first time community college presidents from the Current Era (2001-Present) and Comprehensive Community College Era (1970-2001).

**H02:** There is no difference in the age at which presidents from the Current Era (2001-Present) and Comprehensive Community College Era (1970-2001) were appointed to their first community college presidencies.

**H03:** There is no difference in the relative number of males and females appointed to community college presidencies during the Current Era (2001-Present) and Comprehensive Community College Era (1970-2001).

**H04:** Community college presidents from the Comprehensive Community College Era (1970-2001) will have on average higher educational qualifications at the time of their first presidential appointments than did presidents from the Current Era (2001-Present).
HO5. There is no difference in the pre-presidential work experience between first time community college presidents from the Current Era (2001-Present) and Comprehensive Community College Era (1970-2001).

HO6. There is no difference in the career paths between presidents appointed to their first presidency during the Current Era (2001-Present) and those appointed to their first presidency during the Comprehensive Community College Era (1970-2001).

Assumptions of the Study

This study is based on the following assumptions:

1. The participants understood the intent of the survey questions.
2. The participants answered the survey questions accurately.
3. Career progression within the community college system is unidirectional; specifically, from lower position to higher position.

Limitations of the Study

1. This study was limited to currently serving community college presidents as listed by the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS).
2. This study relied on self reported data.
3. The data for this study were collected during the fall of 2007.
**Definition of Terms**

The following list of key terms is provided for clarity and to avoid misunderstandings.

1. **Community College**: “Any institution accredited to award the Associates in Arts or the Associates in Science as its highest degree.” (Cohen & Brawer, p. 5)

2. **Comprehensive Community College**: A community colleges that performs the five curricular functions: "academic transfer preparation, vocational-technical education, continuing education, remedial education, and community service." (Cohen & Brawer, p. 21)


4. **Current Community College Era**: January 1, 2001 – Present

5. **President (P)**: Chief Executive Officer of a community college. (HEGIS)

6. **Vice President (V)**: Community college administrator “Responsible for all or most functions and operations under the direction of the Chief Executive Officer [President].” (HEGIS)

7. **Chief Academic Officer (CAO)**: Community college administrator who “Directs the academic programs of the institution. Includes those individuals who are listed as both Academic and Student Affairs Officer.” (HEGIS)

8. **Chief Student Affairs Officer (CSAO)**: Community college administrator “Responsible for the direction of student life programs.” (HEGIS)

9. **Primary Academic Officer (PAO)**: Community college administrator “Responsible for a specific component of the organization [college, division] or a specific function or operation [associate provost for technology] under the direction of the Chief Academic Officer.” (HEGIS)
10. Chair or Department Head (CH): Community college administrator “Responsible for a specific course of study [department, program] under the direction of either the Primary Academic Officer or the Chief Academic Officer.” (HEGIS)

11. Faculty (FAC): Individual at a community college “Responsible for delivering the academic program.” (HEGIS)

12. Other Higher Education (OHE): “Administrative position within an institution of higher education that does not fit any of the classifications listed.” (HEGIS)

13. K12 (K12): “Positions in educational institutions serving students from kindergarten through the 12th grade.” (HEGIS)

14. Other (OTH): “Positions held outside of educational institutions.” (HEGIS)

15. Education Degree: A catch all phrase used to refer to any degree in education, including K12, a particular educational discipline (e.g.: Physical Education, Math Education, etc.), educational leadership, community college leadership, educational administration, curriculum and development, etc.
Abbreviations

P  President
V  Vice President
CAO  Chief Academic Officer
CSAO  Chief Student Affairs Officer
PAO  Primary Academic Officer
CH  Chair or Department Head
FAC  Faculty
OHE  Other Higher Education
K12  Kindergarten through 12th Grade
OTH  Other
CHAPTER 2 - Review of Literature

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine if the mass retirement of community college presidents has precipitated a diminution in qualifications or change in career paths of first time community college presidents. This study approached that goal from two perspectives. First, this study compared the qualifications at the time of first presidential appointment of community college presidents from the Current Era to those of the Comprehensive Community College Era. Second, this study compared the career paths of community college presidents from the two eras. The purpose of this chapter was to ground this study by providing a review of the scholarship relevant to this study. To that end, three themes in the literature were discovered and are reviewed in this chapter.

The first theme, and the one that served as the catalyst for the study, is that between 2001 and 2011 up to three quarters of serving community college presidents will retire. This prediction created concern within community college circles that the mass presidential retirements would adversely affect America's community colleges. This concern was based on the premise that the mass presidential retirements would occur at a time when the challenges facing community colleges were increasing and that the new generation of community college presidents would not be as prepared as their predecessors to address the new challenges.
The second theme is related to the first in that it addresses how community college scholars have defined quality in community college presidents. Since the concern scholars expressed was that the mass retirement of community college presidents would result in a diminution of presidential quality, it was therefore appropriate to examine the criteria these scholars used to determine quality. Therefore, the second theme covered in this chapter will be the criteria used to determine the quality of community college presidents.

The third theme is related to the first two in that it addresses the research on community college presidential career paths. As with the examination of quality criteria, researchers have concerns that the mass retirement of community college presidents could result in a significant deviation of presidential career paths. Their concern is that such a deviation could result in a diminution of presidential quality. It was therefore appropriate to examine the literature regarding community college presidential career paths.

**Impending Crisis: Mass Retirement of Community College Presidents**

In 2001, under the auspices of the American Association of Community Colleges, Christopher Shults issued a report entitled "The Critical Impact of Impending Retirements on Community College Leadership." This report sent a jolt through the community college community. It predicted that between 2001 and 2007 half of the currently serving community college presidents would retire. (Shults, 2001) Later research indicated that as many as 79% of currently sitting community college presidents would retire by 2012. (Boggs, 2003)

Shults's report served two purposes. First, it alerted the educational community of the potential of a leadership vacuum in its future. Second, it spawned additional research on the development and career path of community college presidents. Shults's and subsequent research have created concern that the mass exodus of so many experienced faculty members,
administrators, and presidents will result in a diminution of community college leadership. This concern is predicated on the concept that the faculty members and administrators remaining after the exodus will lack the teaching and administrative experience to fill the places of those retiring. At the presidential level in this scenario, new presidential candidates would be less qualified at this stage in their careers than the retiring presidents had been because the mass retirements opened the path to the presidency to them earlier than it did to the retiring presidents. (Boggs, 2003; Claremont Graduate University, 2001; Eddy, 2005; Evelyn, 2001; Hammons, 2002; Jensen, 2000; Weisman & Vaughan, 2001)

In an effort to determine the scope of the problem faced by community colleges, researchers examined the community college presidential pipeline. The community college presidential pipeline had primary two branches. In the first branch, faculty members moved to administrative posts below the presidential level. These former faculty members then worked their way up through the community college administrative structure to senior administrative positions where they became part of the pool from which first time presidents were selected. The majority of these former faculty members either held a doctorate before starting their climb through the administrative hierarchy or earned one during their climb. In the second branch of the community college presidential pipeline, community college administrators without faculty experience worked their way up the community college administrative structure to senior administrative positions. As with the senior administrators with faculty experience, those administrators without faculty experience became part of the pool from which first time presidents were selected. Also, similar to senior administrators with faculty experience, the majority of administrators without faculty experience either held a doctorate before starting their climb through the administrative hierarchy or earned one during their climb. (Amey &

The literature examining the community college presidential pipeline revealed three trends. The first trend was that a large portion of senior faculty members and senior administrators who have historically filled the pipeline are aging and likely to retire. This is supported by data showing that the average age of presidents increased from 51 in 1986 to 57 in 1998 and that 71% of current faculty members were over forty-five years old in 2001. The research indicates that as many as 25%, and perhaps as high as 50%, of experienced community college faculty planned to retire between 2001 and 2006. The research also indicates that 25% of currently serving community college senior administrators planned to retire in the same period. (Boggs, 2003; Shults, 2001)

The second trend was that community college administrators below the presidential level were less educated than their predecessors. This is supported by data indicating that the percentage of community college administrators with advanced degrees in community college administration decreased by 78% between 1983 and 1997. (Shults, 2001) It is also supported by data indicating that only about half of the administrators below the presidential level hold doctorates. (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002; Claremont Graduate University, 2001)

The third trend is that faculty members appear to be less willing to make the shift to administration. As a result, faculty members are spending less time in leadership positions; thus garnering less leadership experience. (Claremont Graduate University, 2001; Vaughan & Weisman, 1998)

It was this combination of an aging work force on the verge of retirement and a pool of seemingly less educated, less experienced, and less willing replacements that have prompted
concern that America's community colleges might suffer a leadership vacuum. The mass
retirements at all levels of community college have led to the suggestion of a "crawling crisis" in
community college leadership and raises the question as to whether or not the administrators now
filling the presidential pipeline are as qualified as their predecessors. (Amey & VanDerLinden,
2002; Boggs, 2003; Claremont Graduate University, 2001; Eddy, 2004; Evelyn, 2001; Shults,
2001; Watts & Hammons, 2002)

Quality Indicators in Community College Presidents

Although there is an abundance of literature on community colleges ranging from historical
narratives of the community college movement in the United States (Cohen & Brawer, 1996;
Deegan & Tillery, 1985) to visionary prescriptions for the future of American community
colleges (O'Banion, 1997), only a fragment of the entire body of community college literature
specifically addresses community college presidential quality. (Hammons & Keller, 1990;
O'Banion, 1989; Vaughan, 1986; Vaughan & Weisman, 1998; Wallin, 2002) Most of the
literature addressing community college presidential quality focuses on identifying professional,
educational, and experiential characteristics common to community college presidents.

Two studies in this genre, Fisher, Tack and Wheeler (1988) and McFarlin, Crittenden, and
Ebbers (1999), stand out because they attempted to isolate characteristics of effective community
college presidents. Whereas, most of the studies in this genre simply examined the characteristics
of all community college presidents, Fisher, Tack and Wheeler (1988) and McFarlin, Crittenden,
and Ebbers (1999) attempted to link community college president effectiveness to specific
leadership characteristics. Why researchers have shied away from attempting to quantify
community college presidential effectiveness is debatable: however, Fisher, Tack and Wheeler
(1988) suggest three possible reasons for this phenomenon:
1. There is a tendency to say that you cannot separate effective individuals from effective and, in many cases, highly visible institutions. (sic)
2. Researchers may hesitate to identify those whom they considered highly effective leaders because of the controversy it generates.
3. Perhaps people have been unwilling to tackle the problem of defining effectiveness because it resembles trying to find an answer to the age-old question "How do you identify a moral and just human being?" (pp. 5-7)

Regardless of the reasons for the lack of attention to the subject of community college presidential effectiveness, both studies used the same methodology in their research. The methodology used was a variation of the one used by Maslow in his research of self-actualization. In both studies, a group of experts identified whom they believed to be exceptional presidents. Fisher, Tack and Wheeler (1988) used a complex system for identifying exceptional presidents that consisted of qualified observers and voting associates. McFarlin, Crittenden, and Ebbers (1999) used a much simpler peer nominating system. Despite their different identification process, both systems resulted in identifying a cadre of presidents who were generally recognized as exceptionally effective. The next step in the research process of both studies was to conduct detailed analysis of the characteristics of the presidents identified as exceptionally effective.

McFarlin, Crittenden, and Ebbers' (1999) analysis yielded four common characteristics among the presidents identified as exceptionally effective: an earned doctorate; preparation through administrative positions in the community college system; a background in the study of higher education and community college leadership; and a scholastic interest in publishing. Fisher, Tack and Wheeler (1988) created a profile comprised of the following twelve characteristics they found common and more pronounced in effective presidents.

1. Less collegial and more distant
2. Less likely to be spontaneous in speech and actions
3. Less restricted by organizational structure or by the consensus of those to be led
4. Less likely to appear to make decisions easily
5. More confident
6. More inclined on gaining respect than on being liked
7. More inclined to take calculated risks
8. More committed to an ideal or a vision than to an institution
9. More inclined to work long hours
10. More supportive of the controversial concept of merit pay
11. More interested in encouraging people to think differently and creatively
12. More likely to be concerned about higher education in general than with one institution.

(p. 111)

Unfortunately, the remainder of the literature fails to demonstrate, or even recognize, the link between effectiveness and community college presidential quality. In the rare occasion presidential effectiveness is addressed, it is addressed only obliquely and in terms that are difficult to quantify. In lieu of linking quality to effectiveness, the remainder of studies in this genre link presidential quality to the presence or absence of a set of professional, educational, and experiential characteristics. Vinegard (1993) was the most succinct in addressing presidential quality in these terms when he wrote:

As alluded to earlier, the ideal president should have credentials with a terminal degree and experience as a faculty person, preferably at a junior college. This ideal president should have experience as an academic administrator, a student personnel administrator and counselor, journalistic and/or public relations training, and a background in accounting and business management. (23)

The concept that presidential quality is associated with a doctoral degree and pre-presidential community college experience is echoed throughout the community college literature. (Amey, 2004; Boggs, 2003; Campbell & Levery, 1997; Duncan & Harlacher, 1991; Eddy, 2004; Evelyn, 2001; McFarlin & Crittenden, 1999; Romero & Purdy, 2004; Shults, 2001; Townsend and Bassoppo-Moyo, 1997; Vaughan, 1996, 1989, 1990, 1998; Vaughan & Weisman, 1998; Watts & Hammons, 2002) The tone of much of this literature is that it is unthinkable to challenge these two criteria as requisites for a community college president. However, missing from all the literature in this genre is any empirical data supporting the contention that doctorate degrees and
pre-presidential community college experience should be prerequisites for a community college presidency. Indeed, other than McFarlin, Crittenden, and Ebbers (1999), no studies were found that provided data to support this claim. Additionally no studies were found that empirically established more definitive criteria for community college presidential quality than the broad categories of a doctorate degree and pre-presidential community college experience.

Much of the research that exists relevant to the establishment of a doctorate degree and pre-presidential community college experience is of a classification or demographic nature. This body of research provides considerable information concerning the educational qualifications and administrative experience levels of current and past community college presidents, but stops short of linking any specific degree or experience to quality in a community college president. For example, the research on the educational attributes of community college presidents shows that the number of presidents with doctorates increased throughout the Comprehensive Era from 76% in 1984 to 88% in 2001. (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002; Vaughan & Weisman, 2001) It also shows that education is the primary academic discipline of community college presidents holding doctorates. As of 2002, 80% of presidents with terminal degrees held doctorates in education, which were evenly split between Ed.D.s and Ph.D.s. Finally, it also shows that a very small percentage (about 2%) of community college presidents held doctorates directly related to community college administration or leadership. (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002) However, nowhere in this research are any connections made between type of degree held (Ph. D., Ed. D., MBA, etc); academic discipline of degree (education, higher education, history, engineering, etc.); and presidential performance.

Similarly, the research on the experience of community college presidents provides interesting data of the experience of current presidents, but it too fails to link presidential
performance to any single administrative position or sequence of positions. The research on
community college administrative experience of community college presidents shows that
approximately 90% of presidents were selected from within the community college
administrative ranks. (McFarlin & Crittenden, 1999; Weisman & Vaughan, 2001) The data also
showed that the most common position held before an initial presidential appointment was chief
academic officer. (McFarlin & Crittenden, 1999; Weisman & Vaughan, 2001) However, as with
the research on community college presidential education, nowhere in this research are any
connections made between years of community college administrative experience; community
college administrative positions held below the presidential level; and presidential performance.

Rather than trying to define community college presidential quality more specifically than
the two broad categories of a terminal degree and community college administrative experience,
researchers have opted for another approach for describing community college presidential
quality. The research in this other approach is more focused on ancillary aspects of the
community college presidency. This body of literature focuses on the skills, development, and
roles of community college presidents. Unfortunately, as with the literature regarding the degree
and experience criteria, none of the research in these areas contains any empirical data linking
them to performance.

The research concerning community college presidential leadership skills is similar to skill
leadership research for other professions. It involves developing lists of skills common to a
particular group – in this case, leadership skills common to community college presidents. The
lists developed vary in degree of specificity and content. As a result of this variation, it is
difficult to summarize the lists collectively. Therefore, the following chronological summary is
provided:
Hammons and Keller's (1990) list of necessary skills for success as a community college president consisted of 62 competencies grouped into three major skill groups. The three skill groups were leadership, group relations, and personal characteristics.

Duncan and Harlacher (1991) proposed a new leadership model for community college presidents based on the "Gestalt of Leadership" perspective. The skills they saw as necessary were innate personal traits such as drive and persistence; good interpersonal skills; integrity; intelligence; and physical robustness.

Gibson-Benninger, Ratcliff, and Rhoads (1996) stressed the importance of an appreciation of diversity and multi-culturalism in decision making.

Townsend and Bassoppo-Moyo (1997) identified four skills required for community college president skills: contextual competence; communications competence; technical competence; and interpersonal competence.

Campbell and Lerverty (1997) used a panel of community college experts to determine that community college presidents needed skills in planning, motivating, assessing, coordinating, learning, developing relationships, problem solving, and decision making.

Weisman and Vaughan’s (1997) list of necessary community college presidential skills consisted of an ability to bring all segments of a college into the governing process; consensus building; a command of technology; a high tolerance for ambiguity, an appreciation for multi-culturalism, and the ability to lead change.

Shaw (1999), building on the concept of "emotional intelligence," developed a list of seven “indispensable” skills ranging from dealing with conflict to motivating others.

McFarlin, Crittenden, and Ebbers (1999) identified a study of higher education and community college leadership; frequent academic publishing; extensive peer
networking and mentorship; and a willingness to be an agent of change as characteristics common in presidents selected as "outstanding" by their peers.

- Lorenzo (in Wallin 2002 in Campbell 2001) identified the required community college presidential skills as: the ability to manage the completion of tasks; a commitment to developing human resources; the ability to lead change; a decentralized leadership style; a talent for conflict resolution; and the ability to facilitate individual and organizational learning.

- Brown, Martinez, and Daniel (2002) created a 48 item skill list.

- Wallin (2002) had sitting presidents rank the importance of eighteen skills. The respondents in Wallin's survey ranked budget management; positive relations with local politicians; positive relations with state politicians as the most important presidential skills. The respondents ranked use of administrative software; use of presentation software; and knowledge of risk management as the least important presidential skills.

- Sullivan (2004) listed motivating and managing people and political business acumen as crucial leadership skills.

In a related area, some researchers have compared the skills required of community college presidents to those of business executives. These studies suggest an overlap between some of the tasks performed by a community college president and a business executive. However, they conclude that because of the unique nature of community college presidency, community college presidents require a significantly different set of leadership skills than business executives. (Hammons & Ivery, 1998; Wilt, 2004)

This review of the skill approach to community college presidential leadership provides a sense of how diverse and disjointed the research in this area is. While there is some overlap
among some of the various skill sets, this review shows that there is hardly consensus on an accepted skill set desired in a community college president. This lack of consensus may be due to the lack of any data other than survey or anecdotal information to substantiate the proffered skill sets. As previously stated, this lack of more substantial data is a systemic problem with the research regarding community college presidential performance. Therefore, the lack of consensus shown in the literature is neither surprising nor unexpected.

The second method used to obliquely address community college presidential quality is to review the various community college educational and development programs. This method is based on the premise that "the study of higher education and community college leadership may have a positive influence on community college leadership ability." (McFarlin, Crittenden, & Ebbers, p.3) The unstated assumption of this method is that a good educational leadership program will produce a capable community college administrator. As with the skills method, there is no quantifiable data in this method linking education to presidential performance. Instead, based on the scope of the study, the literature in this genre takes one of four approaches. The first approach consists of general assessments of the effectiveness of the educational programs designed for and/or attended by community college administrators. The second approach consists of what can only be called promotional pieces on specific community college leadership programs. The third approach consists of personal memoirs of successful community college presidents. The fourth approach consists of case studies of specific community colleges.

The research into the effectiveness of the educational programs is limited, but what exists is for the most part critical of the current programs. As previously mentioned the overwhelming majority of community college presidents with doctorates (80%) hold degrees in education. Therefore, the literature examining the effectiveness of current educational programs is
concentrated on education graduate programs. These studies indicate several problems with the current educational doctoral programs relevant to future community college administrators. The Community College Leadership Development Initiative; Claremont Graduate University Report (2005) summarized the consensus of these studies when it said, "Most graduate programs do little to prepare one for a career at community colleges" (p. X).

The first discrepancy identified in these studies regarded the accessibility to graduate educational leadership programs focused on community college leadership. This discrepancy is predicated on the assumption that graduate programs focused on community college leadership were preferable to general education leadership programs. Therefore, these studies focused specifically on the accessibility to community college leadership programs, rather than on accessibility to general education leadership programs. These studies found the majority of community college leadership programs were inaccessible to most current community college administrators. One primary reason for the inaccessibility of community college leadership programs was that there are simply not enough such programs in the nation. These studies point out that, although there are community colleges in every state (over 1,100 in the United States), as late as 1994 there were community college leadership programs in only thirty-three universities. (Duvall, 2003; Keim, 1994) A second reason for their inaccessibility was that, rather than being well dispersed across the nation, the few community college leadership programs that existed were concentrated in sixteen states. (Duvall, 2003; Keim, 1994) A more recent study suggests evidence that this situation has not improved since 1994. In a 2005 survey, 49% of community college presidents said there was not a university with a community college leadership program within commuting distance of their location. (Hammons & Miller, 2006) Additionally, the fact that in 2002 only 2% of community college presidents held doctorates
directly related to community college administration or leadership would seem to indicate the access problem continues to exist. (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002)

The second discrepancy is that there is no agreement among universities regarding the curriculum of educational leadership programs. Nor is there agreement regarding curriculum among universities offering community college leadership programs. This has resulted in researchers questioning the relevance of educational leadership programs as they currently exist in the nation's universities to community college administrators. (Brown, Martinez and Daniel; 2002; Duvall, 2003; Hammons and Miller, 2006)

This combination of a lack of agreed upon outcomes and the inaccessibility of programs have led to the previously mentioned conclusion that, “Most graduate programs do little to prepare one for a career at community colleges” (The Community College Leadership Development Initiative; Claremont Graduate University Report, 2005, p. X).

The second approach to researching the educational leadership programs is to critique individual programs. This approach consists of an author explaining why a particular program was effective and was earlier referred to as promotional in perspective. The problem with the literature in this genre is that while they are long on opinion, they are short on data to support those opinions. Community college leadership programs addressed in this genre include Claremont Graduate University (Amey, 2004; Carroll and Romero, 2003; Romero and Purdy, 2004); Morgan State University (Brotherton, 2002); and University of Texas at Austin (Manzo, 1996; Getting, 2001). In this genre, the authors – usually people associated with the program being described – extol the virtues of their particular program. While it would be inaccurate to criticize the programs, the lack of empirical data regarding the results of the programs being described in these writings certainly causes concerns over their validity.
The third approach consists of personal memoirs of successful community college presidents. Although the literature in this genre is rarely researched based, it never-the-less provides insight into the experiences of successful community college presidents. From this body of work, one can also divine the linkage between research and the skills identified as necessary in a community college president. O’Connell (1968) and Vineyard (1993) are examples of this approach. At its core, this body of literature consists of experienced presidents telling readers how they ran their community college.

The fourth approach consists of case studies of specific community colleges or specific programs at a community college. Invariably presidential leadership is discussed in the course of these studies. Rouesche’s *In Pursuit of Excellence*, case study of the Community College of Denver, is an example of this genre. In this study Rouesche used the classic qualitative case study approach by identifying and explaining the combination of factors involved in the success of the Community Colleges of Denver, including presidential leadership. However, by their nature as qualitative studies, this body of literature has limited generalizability, and therefore adds little to the verifiability of quality criteria in community college presidents.

As the literature above indicates, and despite the lack of any verifiable quality criteria, a doctorate degree and community college administrative experience have emerged as the generally accepted standards for quality in community college presidents. (Amey, 2004; Boggs, 2003; Campbell & Leverty, 1997; Duncan & Harlacher, 1991; Eddy, 2004; Evelyn, 2001; McFarlin & Crittenden, 1999; Shults, 2001; Townsend and Bassoppo-Moyo, 1997; Vaughan, 1996, 1989, 1990, 1998; Vinegard, 1993; Vaughan & Weisman, 1998; Watts & Hammons, 2002; Romero & Purdy, 2004) However, these standards were not always as universally accepted as they appear to be now. (Goff, 2002; Townsend, 1996; Young, 1996) Two studies from the 1980s
took issue with the current emphasis regarding the criticality of a doctorate or community college administrative experience. Hall and Alfred (1985) viewed leadership style as more important than either a doctorate or community college administrative experience. Twombly (1986) was perhaps the most skeptical of both the importance of and the motives behind the movement to establish a doctorate or community college administrative experience as the twin pillars of community college presidential quality.

Twombly opined that it was “popular myth” that the best source of community college presidents was from within the community college system. Twombly noted the lack of data supporting the establishment of a doctorate or community college administrative experience as the prerequisites for a community college presidency and saw ulterior motive behind the claim. Specifically, Twombly (1986) wrote “It appears that one way in which the two year colleges protect their employees, and perhaps induct organizational commitment, is by holding out top-level positions for those within the two-year college” (p. 41). Based on data that showed that 86% of community college presidents came from within the community college system, Twombly (1986) concluded that “the labor market for top-level administrative positions in the two year college is closed” (p. 40).

In summarizing the literature concerning quality of community college presidents, it can be seen that even after considering the opinions of dissenters such as Twombly, a doctorate degree and community college administrative experience have emerged as the generally accepted standards for quality in community college presidents. It can also be seen that, while in a perfect world these criteria would be more precisely defined to address such areas as type of degree, years of experience, types of administrative positions, there is simply no research linking quality in a community college president any more specific criteria than a doctorate and community
college administrative experience. Finally, it can also be seen that much of the literature that addresses the community college presidency addresses the issue of presidential quality is only tangentially.

**Career Paths of Community College Presidents**

Most of the research concerning the career paths of community college presidents involves examination of the positions presidents held prior to their current presidential appointments. As described earlier in this chapter when discussing the community college presidential pipeline, there are two primary paths to the community college presidency. In the first path, faculty members work their way to a presidency through a succession of community college administrative posts below the presidential level. In the second branch community college administrators without faculty experience work their way to a presidency through a succession of community college administrative posts below the presidential level. Since the inception of Comprehensive Community College Era, the overwhelming majority (84% to 90% depending on the study) of community college presidents have followed one of these two paths. (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002; McFarlin, Crittenden, & Ebbers, 1999; Piland & Giles, 1998; Twombly, 1986; Weisman & Vaughan, 2002)

Within the community college system, the two most common pathways to a community college presidency have been transferring from one presidency to another and being promoted from within the academic (or instructional) segment of the community college system. (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002; Boggs, 2003; Kubala & Bailey, 2001; McFarlin, Crittenden, & Ebbers, 1999; McKenney & Cejda, 2001; Piland & Giles, 1998; Twombly, 1986; Vaughan, Mellander, & Blios, 1994; Weisman & Vaughan, 2002) Together these two pathways comprise approximately 75% of new presidential appointments. Approximately 66% of first time presidents (and 50% of
all presidents) held the position of Chief Academic Officer (CAO) just prior to their first presidential appointment. (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002; Barwick, 2002; Boggs, 2003; Kubala & Bailey, 2001; McFarlin, Crittenden, & Ebbers, 1999; McKenney & Cejda, 2001; Piland & Giles, 1998; Shults, 2001; Twombly, 1986; Vaughan, Mellander, & Blios, 1994; Weisman & Vaughan, 2002)

The data on remainder of first time presidents varies from study to study. Phelps, Taber, and Smith (1997) determined that 13% of first time community college presidents not following the CAO path were Chief Student Services Officers. Kubala and Bailey (2001) determined that 8.9% of first time community college presidents came from both the student services and administrative services segments of the community college system. Amey and VanDerLinden (2002) determined that 3% rose to the presidency from the continuing education segment and 2% came straight from the faculty ranks. Weisman and Vaughan (2002) determined that 7% of new presidents were promoted from vice presidency positions, 7% from student services, 6% from campus Chief Executive Officers, and 4% from Chief Business Officers.

An examination of the career paths of the 10% of the community college presidents came from outside the community college system indicated that they came from the broader area of education. Amey and VanDerLinden (2002) found that no community college presidents came straight from the private sector. They also found that approximately 2% came from public schools and the remainder came from somewhere else in higher education. In a separate study, Weisman and Vaughan (2002) presented data that conflicted with Amey and VanDerLinden’s findings. Weisman and Vaughan found that 2% of community college presidents came from outside of academia and 5% came from within academia, but from outside of the community college system.
In summarizing the career paths of community college presidents, it is apparent that despite some variation between the various studies, the overwhelming majority of community college presidents reach the presidency from within the community college system. It is also apparent that the most frequent path to the presidency is through the academic segment of the community college system.

**Summary**

This chapter consisted of a review of the scholastic literature pertaining to the community college presidency. As such it identified and reviewed three major themes in that body of literature. The three themes identified were literature addressing the impending mass retirement of community college presidents; quality indicators in community college presidents; and career paths of community college presidents.

The literature pertaining to the mass retirements of community college presidents predicted that up to 75% of community college presidents would retire between 2001 and 2011. It expressed further concern that the current community college personnel system would be unable to find suitable replacements for the retiring presidents. This second concern was based on the finding that the "pipeline" that had served to promote highly qualified faculty and staff through the administrative system to the presidency was also drying up. Together these issues raised concerns that there would be a diminution of leadership in America's community colleges. (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002; Boggs, 2003; Claremont Graduate University, 2001; Eddy, 2005; Evelyn, 2001; Jensen, 2000; Shults, 2001; Vaughan, 1996, 1989, 1990, 1998; Vineyard, 1993; Weisman & Vaughan, 2001; Hammons, 2002)

The literature pertaining to quality indicators in community college presidents was limited and inconclusive. Although the studies reviewed showed some overlap regarding the leadership
skills needed by community college presidents, there was an obvious lack of consensus among the studies. As a result of this lack of consensus, there was no evidence for establishing more definitive quality criteria for a community college president than the two commonly accepted presidential quality indicators of a doctorate degree and community college administrative experience below the presidential level. (Amey, 2004; Boggs, 2003; Brown, Martinez, & Daniel, 2002; Campbell & Leverty, 1997; Duncan & Harlacher, 1991; Eddy, 2004; Evelyn, 2001; Gibson-Benninger, Ratcliff, & Rhoads, 1996; Hammons & Keller, 1990; McFarlin, Crittenden, & Ebbers, 1999; Romero & Purdy, 2004; Shaw, 1999; Shults, 2001; Sullivan, 2004; Townsend & Bassoppo-Moyo, 1997; Townsend & Wiese, 1990; Vaughan, 1996, 1989, 1990, 1998; Vaughan & Weisman, 1998; Vinegard; 1993; Wallin, 2002; Watts & Hammons, 2002)

In addition to the literature that attempted to quantify the skills required of a community college president, there was a body of research that indirectly addressed quality in the community college presidency. This body of literature consisted of research on educational leadership programs that produced community college administrators. As with the skills based research, the research in this area was limited and inconclusive. This is not to say the information they contained was not meaningful. Indeed, some of it uncovered systemic flaws in the current community leader development system. For example, some of these studies revealed serious accessibility problems to graduate schools for community college administrators looking to move up through the ranks. However, none of the studies were successful in establishing more definitive quality criteria for a community college president than the two commonly accepted presidential quality indicators of a doctorate degree and community college administrative experience below the presidential level. (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002; Brown, Martinez &
The literature pertaining to career paths of community college presidents provided evidence that the path to the presidency ran through the community college system. It also indicated that within the community college system, the most common path to a first time community college presidency has traditionally been through the position of Chief Academic Officer. It failed however to establish any link between the career path it identified and quality in a community college president. This body of research simply concludes that an overwhelming majority of community college presidents attain their presidencies after years of service in the community college system and that most often that service is in the academic sector of the community college system. (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002; Barwick, 2002; Boggs, 2003; Kubala & Bailey, 2001; McFarlin, Crittenden, & Ebbers, 1999; McKenney & Cejda, 2001; Phelps, Taber, & Smith, 1997; Piland & Giles, 1998; Twombly, 1986; Vaughan, Mellander, & Blios, 1994; Weisman & Vaughan, 2002)
CHAPTER 3 - Methodology

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine if the mass retirement of community college presidents has precipitated a diminution in qualifications or change in career paths of first time community college presidents. A review of the pertinent literature indicated that over 70% of community college presidents retired or intended to retire between 2001 and 2011. (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002; Shults, 2001) This mass retirement, and a concomitant retirement of a large portion of experienced community college faculty and staff, precipitated a concern that the next generation of aspiring community college presidents would not be as well prepared for the position of community college president as their predecessors had been. (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002; Boggs, 2003; Duvall, 2003; Piland & Wolf, 2003; Shults, 2001; Watts & Hammons, 2002; Weisman & Vaughan, 2001) The literature indicated concern over two significant factors considered instrumental in the success of community college presidencies: educational level and community college work experience. (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002; Boggs, 2003; Duvall, 2003; Piland & Wolf, 2003; Shults, 2001; Watts & Hammons, 2002; Weisman & Vaughan, 2001)

This research examined the concerns over a possible diminution of qualifications of first time community college presidents in four ways. First, the study compared the demographic factors (age and gender) of presidents appointed to their first presidencies before 2001 to those appointed to their first presidencies after 2001. Second, the study compared the educational levels of the new generation of community college presidents to that of the prior generation.
Third, the study compared the community college work experience below the presidential level of the new generation of community college presidents to that of the prior generation. Fourth, the study compared the career paths of both generations of community college presidents.

The description of the design of this study is divided into six parts: (1) Research Design, (2) Population, (3) Instrumentation, (4) Data Collection, (5) Analysis, and (6) Protection of Participants.

**Research Design**

This study used a historical research design. (Krathwohl, 1998) The historical method was employed to collect and analyze data concerning the demographics, education, and community college experience of community college presidents at the time of their first selection as a community college president. The independent variables investigated in this study were current age; age at the time of the first presidential appointment; gender; highest degree held at the time of the first presidential appointment (Bachelors, Masters, and Doctorate); academic discipline of the highest degree held at the time of the first presidential appointment (Education vs. Non-Education); the total years of community college experience at the time of first presidential appointment; and positions held below the presidential level at the time of the first presidential appointment. The dependent variable was the first appointment to a community college presidency.

**Population**

The population of this study consisted of the currently serving presidents of public comprehensive community colleges. The criterion public refers to institutions that are funded by either state or local taxes. The criterion comprehensive refers to community colleges that performed the five curricular functions: "academic transfer preparation, vocational-technical
education, continuing education, remedial education, and community service." (Cohen & Brawer, p. 21) The criterion community college refers to "any institution accredited to award the Associates in Arts or the Associates in Science as its highest degree." (Cohen & Brawer, p. 5)

Divining the community colleges that met the above criteria was a two step process. Step 1 consisted of identifying the community colleges that met the first (public) and third (associate degree granting) criteria. This was accomplished by applying the appropriate filters in Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS). The procedure yielded 1487 associate degree granting public institutions. Because IPEDS does not filter community colleges based on the above definition of comprehensiveness, it was necessary to take a second step to separate the institutions that met the criterion of comprehensive used in this study. This was accomplished primarily by using the Higher Education Directory (Rodenhouse, 1998) to determine if the institutions in the IPEDS list met the criteria above for a comprehensive community college. In those cases where the status of an institution could not be determined using the above method, the institution was contacted by phone. Additionally, community colleges that were part of a university system, like those in Louisiana, were omitted from the study because it was believed the affiliation with the university system altered the governance of those community colleges. Through this process, the IPEDS list of 1487 associate degree granting public institutions was filtered to yield 785 intuitions meeting the definition of a public, comprehensive community college used in this study.

As a further check on whether community colleges met the definition of a “comprehensive community college” used in this study, a section of the survey asked respondents to confirm that their community colleges performed the five functions of a comprehensive community college as defined in this study. In those cases where a respondent
indicated that his/her college did not perform one of the five functions, the response was omitted from the study.

Given the relatively small size of the population, sampling was deemed inappropriate. All of the presidents of the 785 community colleges identified as meeting the definition of a comprehensive community college were surveyed.

Instrumentation

Data were collected for this study through a survey instrument. The Vaughan 1986; Fisher, Tack, & Wheeler 1988; and McKenney & Cejda 2001 surveys were used as references in the creation of this survey. Copies of the cover letter, consent authorization, and survey are provided in Appendices A - C. The survey instrument for this study was divided into four sections: demographic data; education data; comprehensiveness affirmation; and community college experience data.

Part 1 of the survey instrument collected demographic data on the participants. Information requested consisted of age and gender. Part 2 collected educational data on the highest formal degree attained from a university at the time of their first presidential appointment and the academic discipline of that degree. As mentioned above, Part 3 asked respondents to confirm that their colleges performed the five functions of a comprehensive community college. Part 4 asked respondents to list their community college experience at the time of their first presidential appointment. The survey asked respondents to list the length of time they served in community college positions below the presidency and/or outside the community college system. One challenge uncovered in preparing the survey was that community colleges do not adhere to a single system for titling their administrative positions below the presidential level. To overcome this challenge, this study followed the classification methodology used by McKenney and Cejda.
(2001) in their study of the career paths of women Chief Academic Officers (CAOs).

Specifically, data concerning the community college work experience were grouped into the nine categories of the Higher Education General Information Survey (HEGIS), which are listed in Table 3-1 below:

**Table 3-1: HEGIS Categories**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HEGIS Title</th>
<th>Position Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vice President</td>
<td>Responsible for all or most functions and operations under the direction of the Chief Executive Officer [President].</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chief Academic Officer (CAO)</td>
<td>Directs the academic programs of the institution. Includes those individuals who are listed as both Academic and Student Affairs Officer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chief Student Affairs Officer</td>
<td>Responsible for the direction of student life programs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary Academic Officer</td>
<td>Responsible for a specific component of the organization [college, division] or a specific function or operation [associate provost for technology] under the direction of the Chief Academic Officer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chair or Head</td>
<td>Responsible for a specific course of study [department, program] under the direction of either the Primary Academic Officer or the Chief Academic Officer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Higher Education</td>
<td>Administrative position within an institution of higher education that does not fit any of the classifications listed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faculty</td>
<td>Responsible for delivering the academic program.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K12</td>
<td>Positions in educational institutions serving students from kindergarten through the 12th grade.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>Positions held outside of educational institutions.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(McKenney and Cejda, 2001)

An initial draft of the survey was used in the pilot of the nineteen Kansas community college presidents to determine if it was suitable for use in the larger study. A review of the data collected from the pilot showed it was effective in collecting the data needed to test the hypotheses. Therefore, no modifications were made from the survey instrument used in the pilot and those used in the study.
Data Collection

The pilot survey instrument was distributed to the nineteen Kansas community college presidents on May 15, 2007. They were asked to complete and return it by May 31, 2007. Thirteen of the nineteen Kansas community college presidents returned the completed surveys in a timely manner. No follow up procedures were used for the pilot.

The study used a modified version of survey methodology proposed by Dillman (2000). Dillman recommends a five step process for surveys. The five steps are:

1. Notification to potential respondents that they would soon be receiving a survey in the mail.
2. Mail the cover letter, survey instrument, consent form, and postage paid return envelope to the potential respondents.
3. Mail a postcard to the potential respondents reminding them they had just received the survey.
4. Mail a letter to potential respondents reminding them they had just received the survey.
5. Mail a second cover letter, survey instrument, consent form, and postage paid return envelope to those who did not respond to the first mailing.

The only modification to the Dillman method was in the first step. Rather than notifying the population through the mail with a post card, the population was notified by e-mail. The survey instruments were sent October 1, 2007 to the presidents of the 785 presidents of community colleges in the population. The surveyed presidents were asked to complete and return the survey October 31, 2007. The postcard reminder was sent October 3, 2007. The reminder letter was sent October 10, 2007. The second mailing was sent November 10, 2007.
Analysis

This study was designed to investigate if the mass retirement from four perspectives: demographics, education, community college experience, and path analysis. To facilitate the description of the analysis of each of these perspectives, this section will be subdivided into four parts. Part I describes the analysis procedure used to compare the demographic characteristics of presidents appointed before 2001 to those appointed after 2001. Part II describes the analysis procedure used to compare the educational levels of the new generation of community college presidents to that of the prior generation. Part III describes the analysis procedure used to compare the community college work experience of the new generation of community college presidents to that of the prior generation. Part IV describes the analysis used to compare the career paths of community college presidents in both generations.

Part I: Analysis of Presidential Demographics: This part of the study investigated possible differences between presidents appointed to their first presidencies before 2001 to those appointed after 2001 by examining three demographic factors: current age, age at the time of the first presidential appointment, and gender. The current average age of presidents appointed before 2001 was compared to the current average age of presidents appointed after 2001 using an independent samples t-test. The average age of presidents appointed before 2001 at the time of their first presidential appointment was compared to the average age of presidents appointed after 2001 at the time of their first presidential appointment, also using an independent samples t-test. Finally, the relative number of male and female presidents for the two year groups was compared using the chi-square test.

Part II: Analysis of Presidential Educational Levels: The literature indicated that from the educational perspective the best indicator of a quality community college presidential applicant
was a doctorate degree. (Townsend & Wiese, 1990; Duncan & Harlacher, 1991; Vineyard, 1993; Vaughan, 1996, 1989, 1990, 1998; Campbell & Leverty, 1997; Townsend & Bassoppo-Moyo, 1997; Vaughan & Weisman, 1998; McFarlin & Crittenden, 1999; Shults, 2001; Evelyn, 2001; Watts & Hammons, 2002; Boggs, 2003; Amey, 2004; Eddy, 2004; Romero & Purdy, 2004) Part II of the analysis compared the educational levels of community college presidents from the Comprehensive and Current Eras at the same time in their careers. Levels of education were compared by highest degree (bachelors, masters, doctorate) held at the time of selection for a first presidency by era using the chi-square test.

There is no suggestion in the literature that either the type of the degree (e.g.: Ph.D., Ed.D. etc.) or the academic discipline of the degree (Education vs. Non-Education) are considered indicators of quality community college presidential applicant. (Townsend & Wiese, 1990; Duncan & Harlacher, 1991; Vaughan, 1996, 1989, 1990, 1998; Campbell & Leverty, 1997; Townsend & Bassoppo-Moyo, 1997; Vaughan & Weisman, 1998; McFarlin & Crittenden, 1999; Shults, 2001; Evelyn, 2001; Watts & Hammons, 2002; Boggs, 2003; Amey, 2004; Eddy, 2004; Romero & Purdy, 2004) However, data on the type and academic discipline of the presidents’ degrees were collected in an effort to present a more complete view of the community college presidency from an educational perspective. It is further hoped that these data will serve as a baseline for further studies.

The chi square test was used to determine if there were significant differences in the highest degree held and the academic discipline of first time community college presidents appointed in the Comprehensive Community College Era and the Current Era. (Huck, 2000)

**Part III: Analysis of Community College Leadership Experience Levels:** The literature indicated that a second indicator of a quality community college presidential applicant was
community college experience below the presidential level. (Townsend & Wiese, 1990; Duncan & Harlacher, 1991; Vineyard, 1993; Vaughan, 1996, 1989, 1990, 1998; Campbell & Leverty, 1997; Townsend & Bassoppo-Moyo, 1997; Vaughan & Weisman, 1998; McFarlin & Crittenden, 1999; Shults, 2001; Evelyn, 2001; Watts & Hammons, 2002; Boggs, 2003; Amey, 2004; Eddy, 2004; Romero & Purdy, 2004) This portion of the study compared the community college experience of community college presidents from the Comprehensive and Current Eras at the time of their first presidential appointment. This was accomplished through the following four comparisons:

1. The relative number of presidents with community college work experience below the presidential level appointed before 2001 to those appointed after 2001. The significance of this comparison was assessed using the non-parametric Mann-Whitney Test.

2. The average number of years of community college work experience below the presidential level at the time of the first presidential appointment of presidents appointed before 2001 to those of presidents appointed after 2001. The significance of this comparison was assessed using an independent samples t-test.

3. The number of presidents appointed before 2001 with experience in each HEGIS category to the number of those appointed after 2001 with service in the same HEGIS category. The significance of these comparisons was assessed using the non-parametric Mann-Whitney Test.

4. The average years of experience presidents appointed before 2001 who served in a particular HEGIS spent in that position to the average years of experience presidents appointed after 2001 spent in those positions. The significance of these comparisons was assessed using an independent samples t-test.
Part IV: Path Analysis: The third part of the analysis consisted of comparing the paths presidents from the Comprehensive and Current Eras followed to the presidency in order to determine if there had been any change between the two eras. This was accomplished through two sets of comparisons. The first set of comparisons examined the path that led to the presidency and each HEGIS position along the path by comparing the frequency distribution into the HEGIS positions. The second set of comparisons examined the path to the presidency and each HEGIS position along the path by comparing the frequency distribution from the HEGIS positions. The significance of both sets of comparisons was assessed using chi-square tests.

Protection of Participants

Throughout the conduct of this study, extensive care was exercised to protect the rights and privacy of the participants. The design and conduct of this study was approved by the research committee, the College of Education, and Kansas State University's Committee on Research Involving Human subjects. Potential participants were advised that their participation was voluntary. They were also advised that all personal data they submitted would remain confidential and that the study would only report aggregate data. Although the individual response sheets were coded, the coding was a management tool designed to help increase the survey return rate by facilitating the follow-up mailings to non-respondents described in the Data Collection section above.
CHAPTER 4 - Presentation and Analysis of DATA

Introduction

This chapter will present and analyze the data collected from the survey. The data are presented in five sections. Section 1 presents data relevant to the collection instrument, including number of surveys mailed; times of the mailings; and number of surveys returned. Section 2 presents demographic data: specifically age and gender data. Section 3 presents data relevant to whether or not there have been any significant changes in educational qualifications by presidential era (before and after 2001). Section 4 presents data pertinent to whether or not there have been any significant changes in pre-presidential work experience within the community college system by era (before and after 2001). Section 5 presents data regarding whether or not there have been any significant changes in the career paths of currently sitting presidents by era (before and after 2001).

Section 1: Survey Data

The data used in this study were collected between October 2007 and January 2008. The initial survey was mailed on October 1, 2007. A second, duplicate survey was sent to those who had not responded on November 10, 2007. The last survey used in the data was returned on January 12, 2008. Table 4-1 below provides details regarding surveys mailed and returned.
Table 4-1: Survey Mail and Return Data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mailing</th>
<th>Number of Surveys Mailed</th>
<th>Number of Surveys Returned</th>
<th>Percent of Surveys Returned</th>
<th>Number of Useable Surveys</th>
<th>Percent of Useable Surveys</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 October</td>
<td>785</td>
<td>231</td>
<td>29.55%</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>27.52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 November</td>
<td>557</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>33.57%</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>30.70%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In total, 418 surveys were returned from the 785 presidents who received them, for an overall return rate of 53.25%. Of the 418 returned, thirty-one were not used in the survey. Of the thirty-one not used, twenty were omitted because the respondents indicated on the survey form that their community college did not provide one or more of the services used in this study to differentiate comprehensive community colleges from other two year institutions. Three other surveys were not used because the respondents returned the survey uncompleted and indicated in writing they did not want to participate. Seven surveys were omitted because although the survey was completed, the respondent did not return the consent form with the survey. The final returned survey not used was omitted because it was simply illegible. This left 387 useable returns, which equates to a useable return rate of 49.3%.

Section 2: Demographic Data

Null Hypothesis 1: There is no difference in the current age between first time community college presidents from the Current Era (2001-Present) and Comprehensive Community College Era (1970-2001).

In this null hypothesis, the current ages of currently serving community college presidents were examined. An independent samples t-test was conducted comparing the average ages of currently serving presidents by era (before 2001 vs. after 2001). The results of the independent samples t-test were significant (p = .000), suggesting that on average presidents
appointed before 2001 were 5.54 years older at the time of this study than were presidents appointed after 2001. The data are presented in Table 4-2.

**Table 4-2: Mean Ages of Community College Presidents as of January 2008**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Difference</th>
<th>Significance Level (two-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.54</td>
<td>.000 (sig. &lt; .05)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Null Hypothesis 2:** There is no difference in the age at which presidents from the Current Era (2001-Present) and Comprehensive Community College Era (1970-2001) were appointed to their first community college presidencies.

While the current average age of sitting presidents presents one perspective, the average ages of presidents at the time of their first presidential appointments presents a second. An independent samples t-test was conducted comparing the average ages at which currently serving presidents were appointed to their first community college presidencies by era (before 2001 vs. after 2001). The results of the independent samples t-test were significant (p = .000), suggesting that on average presidents appointed after 2001 were older (6.27 years) at the time of their first presidential appointment than were presidents appointed before 2001. The data are presented in Table 4-3.

**Table 4-3: Mean Ages at Time of First Presidential Appointment**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Difference</th>
<th>Significance Level (two-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6.27</td>
<td>.000 (sig. &lt; .05)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Null Hypothesis 3: There is no difference in the relative number of males and females appointed to community college presidencies during the Current Era (2001-Present) and Comprehensive Community College Era (1970-2001).

After age, the second major demographic figure examined in this study was gender. The strategy employed in this hypothesis was to compare relative numbers of males and females appointed to their first presidencies by era (before 2001 vs. after 2001). The result of the chi-square was not significant $x^2 (2) = 2.61, p = .106$, suggesting that there was no difference in the relative numbers of males and females appointed to community college presidencies by era. Cross tabulations are presented in Table 4-4.

Table 4-4: Cross Tabulations of Male and Female Presidents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Before 2001</th>
<th>After 2001</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>132</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. $x^2 (2) = 2.61, p = .106.$

(sig. < .05)

Section 3: Education

Null Hypothesis 4: Community college presidents from the Comprehensive Community College Era (1970-2001) will have higher educational qualifications at the time of their first presidential appointments than did presidents from the Current Era (2001-Present).

In this hypothesis, the educational qualifications of currently serving community presidents were examined. The strategy employed in this hypothesis was to compare the number of presidents with earned doctorates and the academic discipline of their degrees by era (before 2001 vs. after 2001). The result of the one-tailed chi-square test examining presidents with earned doctorates by era was significant $x^2 (2) = 7.27, p = .006$, suggesting that more presidents appointed before 2001 (n=190, 94.52%) held doctorates at the time of their first presidential
appointments than did presidents appointed after 2001 (n=161, 86.56%). Cross tabulations are presented in Table 4-5.

### Table 4-5: Presidents with Doctorates at First Presidential Appointment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Presidents Appointed Before 2001</th>
<th>Presidents Appointed After 2001</th>
<th>Difference</th>
<th>Significance Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of Respondents</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number with Doctorates</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent with Doctorates</td>
<td>94.52%</td>
<td>86.56%</td>
<td>7.96%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. $\chi^2 (2) = 7.27, p = .006$.

(sig. <.05)

The results of the one-tailed chi-square test examining academic discipline of degree (Education vs. Non-Education) by era (before 2001 vs. after 2001) was not significant $\chi^2 (2) = 0.976, p = .323$, suggesting no difference in the relative number of presidents with education degrees by era. Cross tabulations are presented in Table 4-6.

### Table 4-6: Presidents w/Doctorates in Education at First Presidential Appointment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Presidents Appointed Before 2001</th>
<th>Presidents Appointed After 2001</th>
<th>Difference</th>
<th>Significance Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of Respondents</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number Doctorates in Education</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>.324</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent Doctorates in Education</td>
<td>67.66%</td>
<td>62.37%</td>
<td>5.29%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. $\chi^2 (2) = 0.976, p = .323$.

(sig. <.05)

### Section 4: Community College Work Experience

**Null Hypothesis 5:** There is no difference in the pre-presidential work experience between first time community college presidents from the Current Era (2001-Present) and Comprehensive Community College Era (1970-2001).
In this hypothesis, the pre-presidential work experience of currently serving community presidents was examined. The strategy employed in this hypothesis was to compare the pre-presidential work experience in four ways:

1. Compare the relative number of presidents with community college work experience below the presidential level by era (before 2001 vs. after 2001).
2. Compare the average number of years of community college work experience below the presidential level by era (before 2001 vs. after 2001).
3. Compare the relative number of presidents with experience in each of the nine HEGIS categories by era (before 2001 vs. after 2001).
4. Compare the average years of experience in each HEGIS position by era (before 2001 vs. after 2001).

A Mann-Whitney Test was used to assess the relative number of presidents with community college work experience below the presidential level by era (before 2001 vs. after 2001). The results of the Mann-Whitney were not significant ($p = .683$), suggesting there was no difference in the relative number of presidents with community college work experience below the presidential level by era. The data are presented in Table 4-7.

**Table 4-7: Presidents w/Pre-Presidential Experience**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Presidents Appointed Before 2001</th>
<th>Presidents Appointed After 2001</th>
<th>Difference</th>
<th>Significance Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of Respondents</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number w/ CC Work Experience below the Presidential Level</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>.683</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*(sig. < .05)*
An independent samples t-test was used to assess the average number of years of community college work experience below the presidential level by era (before 2001 vs. after 2001). The results of the independent samples t-test were significant \( (p = .000) \). The results suggest that presidents appointed after 2001 had significantly more pre-presidential community college experience (6.084 years) than did presidents appointed before 2001. The data are presented in Table 4-8.

**Table 4-8: Years of Pre-Presidential Experience**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Respondents</th>
<th>Presidents Appointed Before 2001</th>
<th>Presidents Appointed After 2001</th>
<th>Difference</th>
<th>Significance Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>201</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Number of Years of CC Work Experience below the Presidential Level</td>
<td>16.096</td>
<td>22.180</td>
<td>6.084</td>
<td>.017</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( (\text{sig.} < .05) \)

A Mann-Whitney Test was used to assess the relative number of presidents with experience in each of the nine HEGIS categories by era (before 2001 vs. after 2001). The results of the Mann-Whitney suggest that significantly fewer presidents appointed after 2001 had pre-presidential experience working as CAO \( (n=119; 59.20\%) \), K12 \( (n=78; 38.81\%) \), and OTH \( (n=43; 21.39\%) \) than those appointed before 2001 as CAO \( (n=89; 47.85\%) \), K12 \( (n=30; 16.13\%) \), and OTH \( (n=29; 15.59\%) \). The results of the Mann-Whitney suggest no significant differences in the relative number of presidents with experience working as a V, CSAO, PAO, CH, FAC, or in OHE by era. The data are presented in Table 4-9.
Table 4-9: Pre-Presidential Experience by HEGIS Category

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Presidents Appointed Before 2001</th>
<th>Presidents Appointed After 2001</th>
<th>Difference</th>
<th>Significance Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of Respondents</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number w/ V Work Experience</td>
<td>123 (61.19%)</td>
<td>128 (68.82%)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.592</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number w/ CAO Work Experience</td>
<td>119 (59.20%)</td>
<td>89 (47.85%)</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>.019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number w/ CSAO Work Experience</td>
<td>33 (16.42%)</td>
<td>47 (25.27%)</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>.368</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number w/ PAO Work Experience</td>
<td>74 (36.82%)</td>
<td>72 (38.71%)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.701</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number w/ CH Work Experience</td>
<td>67 (33.33%)</td>
<td>52 (27.96%)</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>.689</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number w/ FAC Work Experience</td>
<td>118 (58.71%)</td>
<td>107 (57.63%)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>.206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number w/OHE Work Experience</td>
<td>68 (33.83%)</td>
<td>54 (29.03%)</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>.248</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number W/ K12 Work Experience</td>
<td>78 (38.81%)</td>
<td>30 (16.13%)</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number w/OTH Work Experience</td>
<td>43 (21.39%)</td>
<td>29 (15.59%)</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(sig. < .05)

An independent samples t-test was used to compare the average number of years presidents spent in each of the HEGIS below the presidential level by era (before 2001 vs. after 2001). The results of the independent samples t-test suggest that on average presidents appointed after 2001 had significantly more FAC experience (2.54 years) at the time of their initial presidential appointment than did presidents appointed before 2001. The data further suggest no
significant differences in the average time presidents who served as V, CAO, CSAO, PAO, CH, OHE, K12, or OTH by era. The data are presented in Table 4-10.

Table 4-10: Average Time in HEGIS Category

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Respondents</th>
<th>Presidents Appointed Before 2001</th>
<th>Presidents Appointed After 2001</th>
<th>Difference</th>
<th>Significance Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ave Time: V</td>
<td>6.07</td>
<td>6.34</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>.670</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ave Time: CAO</td>
<td>5.35</td>
<td>5.72</td>
<td>.37</td>
<td>.477</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ave Time: CSAO</td>
<td>5.51</td>
<td>6.67</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>.359</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ave Time: PAO</td>
<td>5.30</td>
<td>5.90</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>.265</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ave Time: CH</td>
<td>5.10</td>
<td>6.31</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>.115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ave Time: OHE</td>
<td>6.26</td>
<td>7.95</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>.063</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ave Time: FAC</td>
<td>6.75</td>
<td>9.29</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ave Time: K12</td>
<td>4.97</td>
<td>6.66</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>.161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ave Time: OTH</td>
<td>6.75</td>
<td>7.90</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>.180</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Section 5: Path Analysis

Null Hypothesis 6: There is no difference in the career paths between presidents appointed to their first presidency during the Current Era (2001-Present) and those appointed to their first presidency during the Comprehensive Community College Era (1970-2001).

In this hypothesis, the career paths to presidential appointments before and after 2001 were examined. The strategy to examine this hypothesis was to evaluate the frequency distribution to and from HEGIS positions (P, V, CAO, CSAO, PAO, CH, FAC, OHE, K12, and OTH). This section is, therefore, divided into two parts. The first part compared the frequency distribution patterns feeding into HEGIS positions. The second part compared the frequency distribution out of lower HEGIS positions.

Part I: The first set of analyses assessed if a relationship existed between era and the career path feeding into the HEGIS position being examined. For example, the analysis of the
career path to the office of President (P) was conducted using a chi-square test to determine if frequency distribution among the HEGIS positions feeding directly into the presidency (OTH, K12, FAC, OHE, CH, PAO, CSAO, CAO, V) had changed by era (before 2001 vs. after 2001). The results of the chi-square were not significant $\chi^2 (9) = 15.27, p = .054$, suggesting that there was no difference in career paths to P by era. Cross tabulations are presented in Table 4-11.

**Table 4-11: Cross Tabulations to P from Lower HEGIS Positions and Era**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Career</th>
<th>Before 2001</th>
<th>After 2001</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OTH</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAC</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OHE</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CH</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAO</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSAO</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAO</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>186</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Note. $\chi^2 (9) = 15.27, p = .054$.  
- (sig. <.05)

A chi-square was conducted of the HEGIS positions feeding directly into V (OTH, K12, FAC, OHE, CH, PAO, CSAO, CAO) to assess if career paths to V differed by era (before 2001 vs. after 2001). The results of the chi-square were significant $\chi^2 (8) = 14.45, p = .044$, suggesting that the career paths differed by era. Specifically, the results indicate differences in the proportions of participants moving to V from the HEGIS categories PAO, CSAO, and CAO before and after 2001. Larger proportions of participants moved to V from PAO (n=21, 18.8%) and CSAO (n=17, 15.2%) after 2001 compared to before 2001 (PAO: n=10, 8.6%; CSAO: n=6, 5.2%). Also, a smaller proportion of participants moved to V from CAO (n=46, 41.1%) after 2001 compared to before 2001 (n=69, 59.5%). Cross tabulations are presented in Table 4-12.
Table 4-12: Cross Tabulations to CAO from Lower HEGIS Positions and Era

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Career</th>
<th>Before 2001</th>
<th>Era</th>
<th>After 2001</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OTH</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAC</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OHE</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CH</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAO</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSAO</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAO</td>
<td>69</td>
<td></td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>120</td>
<td></td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- *Note.* $x^2 (8) = 14.45, p = .044.$
- *(sig. < .05)*

A chi-square was conducted of the HEGIS positions feeding directly into CAO (OTH, K12, FAC, OHE, CH, PAO, CSAO) to assess if career paths to CAO differed by era (before 2001 vs. after 2001). The results of the chi-square were not significant $x^2 (7) = 1.73, p = .885$, suggesting that there was no difference in career paths to CAO by era. Cross tabulations are presented in Table 4-13.

Table 4-13: Cross Tabulations to CSAO from Lower HEGIS Positions and Era

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Career</th>
<th>Before 2001</th>
<th>Era</th>
<th>After 2001</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OTH</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K12</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAC</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OHE</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CH</td>
<td>23</td>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAO</td>
<td>42</td>
<td></td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSAO</td>
<td>29</td>
<td></td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>113</td>
<td></td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- *Note.* $x^2 (7) = 1.731, p = .885.$
- *(sig. < .05)*

A chi-square was conducted of the HEGIS positions feeding directly into CSAO (OTH, K12, FAC, OHE, CH, PAO) to assess if career paths to CSAO differed by era (before 2001 vs. after 2001). The results of the chi-square were not significant $x^2 (6) = 2.41, p = .790$, suggesting that
there was no difference in career paths to CSAO by era. Cross tabulations are presented in Table 4-14.

**Table 4-14: Cross Tabulations to CSAO from Lower HEGIS Positions and Era**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Career</th>
<th>Before 2001</th>
<th>After 2001</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OTH</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K12</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAC</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OHE</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CH</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAO</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. $x^2 (6) = 2.41, p = .790.$

* (sig. <.05)

A chi-square was conducted of the HEGIS positions feeding directly into PAO (OTH, K12, FAC, OHE, CH) to assess if career paths to PAO differed by era (before 2001 vs. after 2001). The results of the chi-square were not significant $x^2 (5) = 1.62, p = .806$, suggesting that there was no difference in career paths to PAO by era. Cross tabulations are presented in Table 4-15.

**Table 4-15: Cross Tabulations to PAO from Lower HEGIS Positions and Era**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Career</th>
<th>Before 2001</th>
<th>After 2001</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OTH</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K12</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAC</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OHE</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CH</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. $x^2 (5) = 1.62, p = .806.$

* (sig. <.05)

A chi-square was conducted of the HEGIS positions feeding directly into CH (OTH vs. K12 vs. FAC vs. OHE vs. CH) to assess if career paths to CH differed by era (before 2001 vs. after 2001). The results of the chi-square were not significant $x^2 (4) = 4.08, p = .253$, suggesting that
there was no difference in career paths to CH by era. Cross tabulations are presented in Table 4-16.

Table 4-16: Cross Tabulations to CH from Lower HEGIS Positions and Era

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Career</th>
<th>Before 2001</th>
<th>After 2001</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OTH</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K12</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAC</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OHE</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Note. $x^2 (4) = 4.08, p = .253.$
  - (sig. < .05)

A chi-square was conducted of the HEGIS positions feeding directly into OHE (OTH, K12, FAC) to assess if career paths to OHE differed by era (before 2001 vs. after 2001). The results of the chi-square were not significant $x^2 (3) = 1.90, p = .386$, suggesting that there was no difference in career paths to OHE by era. Cross tabulations are presented in Table 4-17.

Table 4-17: Cross Tabulations to OHE from Lower HEGIS Positions and Era

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Career</th>
<th>Before 2001</th>
<th>After 2001</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OTH</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K12</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAC</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>163</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Note. $x^2 (3) = 1.90, p = .386.$
  - (sig. < .05)

A chi-square was conducted of the HEGIS positions feeding directly into FAC (OTH, K12) to assess if career paths to FAC differed by era (before 2001 vs. after 2001). The results of the chi-square were significant $x^2 (2) = 13.11, p < .000$, suggesting that a difference in career paths to FAC by era. The results further suggest that a smaller proportion of FAC after 2001 were K12 (n=21, 45.7%) compared to prior to 2001 (n=42, 80.8%), and that a larger proportion FAC were
OTH after 2001 (n=25, 54.3%) compared to prior to 2001 (n=10, 19.2%). Cross tabulations are presented in Table 4-18.

**Table 4-18: Cross Tabulations to FAC from Lower HEGIS Positions and Era**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Career</th>
<th>Before 2001</th>
<th>Era</th>
<th>After 2001</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OTH</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K12</td>
<td>42</td>
<td></td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>52</td>
<td></td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Note. $x^2 (2) = 13.11, p < .000.$
- (sig. <.05)

A chi-square was conducted of the HEGIS and non-HEGIS positions feeding directly into K12 (OTH, and Non-OTH) to assess if career paths to FAC differed by era (before 2001 vs. after 2001). The results of the chi-square were not significant $x^2 (1) = 1.49, p = .223,$ suggesting that there was no difference in career paths to K12 by era. Cross tabulations are presented in Table 4-19.

**Table 4-19: Cross Tabulations to K12 from HEGIS OTH and Non-OTH FAC**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Career</th>
<th>Before 2001</th>
<th>Era</th>
<th>After 2001</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OTH</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-OTH</td>
<td>67</td>
<td></td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Note. $x^2 (1) = 1.49, p = .223.$
- (sig. <.05)

**Part II:** The second set of analyses assessed if a relationship existed between era and the career paths from the HEGIS position under examination to the HEGIS positions above it in the HEGIS hierarchy. For example, the analysis of the career path from OTH to K12, OHE, FAC, CH, PAO, CSAO, CAO, V, and P was conducted using a chi-square test to determine if frequency distribution among the HEGIS positions from OTH had changed by era (before 2001 vs. after 2001). The analyses for the remaining HEGIS (K12, OHE, FAC, CH, PAO, CSAO,
CAO) were conducted in similar fashion. No analysis was conducted for V because all vice presidents in the study went on to president. The result of the chi-square for OTH was not significant $x^2 (9) = 6.61, p = .471$, suggesting that there was no difference in career paths from OTH by era. Cross tabulations are presented in Table 4-20.

**Table 4-20: Cross Tabulations from OTH to HEGIS Positions by Era**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Career</th>
<th>Before 2001</th>
<th>Era</th>
<th>After 2001</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>K12</td>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAC</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OHE</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CH</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAO</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSAO</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAO</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>36</td>
<td></td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Note. $x^2 (9) = 6.61, p = .471.$
- (sig. < .05)

A chi-square of the frequency distribution participants from K12 to FAC, OHE, CH, PAO, CSAO, CAO, V, and P and era (before 2001 vs. after 2001) was not significant. The results of the chi-square were $x^2 (8) = 7.18, p = .441$, suggesting no difference between the eras. Cross tabulations are presented in Table 4-21.
Table 4-21: Cross Tabulations from K12 to HEGIS Positions by Era

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Career</th>
<th>Before 2001</th>
<th>After 2001</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FAC</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OHE</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CH</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAO</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSAO</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAO</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **Note.** $x^2 (8) = 7.18, p = .441.$
- *(sig. <.05)*

A chi-square of the frequency distribution participants from FAC to OHE, CH, PAO, CSAO, CAO, V, and P and era (before 2001 vs. after 2001) was not significant. The results of the chi-square were $x^2 (7) = 1.30, p = .935$, suggesting no difference between the eras. Cross tabulations are presented in Table 4-22.

Table 4-22: Cross Tabulations from FAC to HEGIS Positions by Era

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Career</th>
<th>Before 2001</th>
<th>After 2001</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OHE</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CH</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAO</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSAO</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAO</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **Note.** $x^2 (7) = 1.30, p = .935.$
- *(sig. <.05)*

A chi-square of the frequency distribution participants from OHE to CH, PAO, CSAO, CAO, V, and P and era (before 2001 vs. after 2001) was not significant. The results of the chi-square were $x^2 (6) = 1.84, p = .871$, suggesting no difference between the eras. Cross tabulations are presented in Table 4-23.
### Table 4-23: Cross Tabulations from OHE to HEGIS Positions by Era

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Career</th>
<th>Before 2001</th>
<th>After 2001</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CH</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAO</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSAO</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAO</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. $x^2 (6) = 1.84, p = .871.$  
* (sig. <.05)*

A chi-square of the frequency distribution participants from CH to PAO, CSAO, CAO, V, and P and era (before 2001 vs. after 2001) was not significant. The results of the chi-square were $x^2 (5) = 2.59, p = .628,$ suggesting no difference between the eras. Cross tabulations are presented in Table 4-24.

### Table 4-24: Cross Tabulations From CH to HEGIS Positions by Era

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Career</th>
<th>Before 2001</th>
<th>After 2001</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PAO</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSAO</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAO</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. $x^2 (5) = 2.59, p = .628.$  
* (sig. <.05)*

A chi-square of the frequency distribution participants from PAO to CSAO, CAO, V, and P and era (before 2001 vs. after 2001) was significant. The results of the chi-square were $x^2 (4) = 11.06, p = .011,$ suggesting there was a difference between the eras. The results suggest that a smaller proportion of participants after 2001 moved from PAO to P ($n=1, 1.4\%$) compared to before 2001 ($n=9, 12.2\%$), and that a larger proportion of participants after 2001 moved from
PAO to V (n=21, 29.2%) compared to before 2001 (n=10, 13.5%). Cross tabulations are presented in Table 4-25.

### Table 4-25: Cross Tabulations from PAO to HEGIS Positions by Era

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Career</th>
<th>Before 2001</th>
<th>Era</th>
<th>After 2001</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CSAO</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAO</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>35</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>21</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>72</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. \( x^2 (4) = 11.06, p = .011. \)
* (sig. < .05)

A chi-square of the frequency distribution participants from CSAO to CAO, V, and P and era (before 2001 vs. after 2001) was significant. The results of the chi-square were \( x^2 (3) = 7.98, p = .019 \), suggesting there was a difference between the eras. The results suggest that a smaller proportion of participants after 2001 moved from CSAO to CAO (n=19, 40.4%) compared to before 2001 (n=29, 69.0%), and that a larger proportion of participants after 2001 moved from CSAO to V (n=17, 36.2%) and P (n=11, 23.4%) compared to before 2001 V (n=6, 14.3%) and P (n=7, 16.7%). Cross tabulations are presented in Table 4-26.

### Table 4-26: Cross Tabulations from CSAO to HEGIS Positions by Era

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Career</th>
<th>Before 2001</th>
<th>Era</th>
<th>After 2001</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CAO</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>19</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>47</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. \( x^2 (3) = 7.98, p = .019. \)
* (sig. < .05)

A chi-square of the frequency distribution participants from CAO to V and P and era (before 2001 vs. after 2001) was not significant. The results of the chi-square were \( x^2 (2) = 6.68, p = .414 \), suggesting no difference between the eras. Cross tabulations are presented in Table 4-27.
Table 4-27: Cross Tabulation from CAO to HEGIS Positions by Era

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Career</th>
<th>Before 2001</th>
<th>Era</th>
<th>After 2001</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>69</td>
<td></td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>119</td>
<td></td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- *Note.* $x^2 (2) = 6.68, p = .414.$
- *(sig. < .05)*
CHAPTER 5 - Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

This chapter is divided into four sections. The first section summarizes the research objectives, methodology, and findings. The second section presents the conclusions and relates them to prior studies. The third section posits implications of the conclusions. The fourth section presents recommendations for further study.

Summary of the Study

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine if the predicted mass retirement of community college presidents has precipitated a change in the qualifications or career paths of first time community college presidents. Of major interest to this study was whether there has been a diminution in the education qualifications; reduction in years of pre-presidential community college experience, or change in career paths of first time community college presidents hired in the Current Era (2001-present) compared to those of community college presidents who assumed their first presidential positions during the Comprehensive Community College Era (1970 to 2001).

Research Objectives

The objective of this research was to investigate whether or not there is any relationship between the predicted mass retirements of community college presidents and a decrease in the educational qualifications, change pre-presidential community college experience, or change in
career paths of first time community college presidents by era (before and After 2001). Specific objectives of this study were:

1. To identify the average age of currently serving community college presidents by era.
2. To identify the average age at which American community college presidents assumed their first presidencies by era.
3. To identify the relative number of male to female community college presidents by era.
4. To compare the average current age, average age at the time of the first presidential appointment, and relative number of male to female presidents appointed by era (1970 to 2001 vs. 2001 to 2008) at the time of their initial presidential appointment.
5. To identify the educational qualifications (highest degree held and academic discipline of highest degree held) of American community college presidents at the time they assumed their first presidencies by era.
6. To compare the educational qualifications (highest degree held and academic discipline of highest degree held) of American community college presidents by era (1970 to 2001 vs. 2001 to 2008) at the time their initial presidential appointment.
7. To identify the pre-presidential community college experience of American community college presidents at the time they assumed their first presidencies by era.
8. To compare the pre-presidential community college experience of American community college presidents by era (1970 to 2001 vs. 2001 to 2008) at the time their initial presidential appointment.
9. To examine the career paths of American community college presidents by era.
**Methodology**

This study used a historical research design. (Krathwohl, 1998) The historical method was employed to collect and analyze data concerning the demographics, education, and pre-presidential community college experience of community college presidents at the time of their first selection as a community college president. The population of this study consisted of the currently serving presidents of public comprehensive community colleges in the United States. Through a rigorous review process of the 1487 associate degree granting public institutions listed in IPEDS, 785 two year institutions were identified as meeting the definition of public comprehensive community colleges used in this study. The presidents of those 785 institutions were surveyed to collect the necessary data. The survey used in this study was based on surveys used in previous similar studies. (Vaughan 1986; Fisher, Tack, & Wheeler 1988; and McKenney & Cejda 2001) The survey was piloted on the presidents of Kansas’s nineteen community colleges. The initial survey was mailed on October 1, 2007. A second mailing was conducted on November 10, 2007. The study attained an overall retain rate of 53.25% and a useable return rate of 49.30%.

**Major Findings**

The study’s findings are discussed in the following order: Age, Gender, Educational Qualifications, Pre-Presidential Community College Work Experience, and Presidential Career Paths.

**Age**

- Presidents appointed before 2001 (n=201; ave: 61.94 years) are significantly older (5.54 years) than presidents appointed after 2001 (n=186; ave: 56.40 years). (Independent Samples T-test: \( p < .000 \))
- Presidents appointed after 2001 (n=186; ave: 52.92 years) were significantly older (6.27 years) at the time of their first presidential appointments than presidents appointed before 2001 (n=201; ave: 46.65 years). (Independent Samples T-test: p<.000) See Figure 5-1.

**Figure 5-1: Age Comparison of CC Presidents by Era**

These findings resulted in rejecting the null hypotheses of no differences by era (before and after 2001) between presidents’ current ages or between their ages at the time of first presidential appointment.
**Gender**

- There was no significant difference in the relative number of men (157 Pre-2001: 132 Post 2001) and women (44 Pre-2001: 54 Post 2001) presidents in the two eras. (Chi square: $x^2 (2) = 2.61$, $p=.106$) See Figure 5-2.

**Figure 5-2: Gender Comparison of CC Presidents by Era**

This finding resulted in retaining the null hypothesis of no difference in the relative numbers of males and females appointed to their first presidencies by era (before 2001 vs. after 2001).

**Educational Qualifications**

- At the time of their first presidential appointments, significantly more presidents appointed before 2001 (n=190, 94.52%) held doctorates than presidents appointed after 2001(n=161, 86.56%). (Chi square: $x^2 (2) = 7.27$, $p=.006$)

- There was no significant difference in the relative number of presidents with education
degrees between those appointed before (n=136, 67.66%) or after 2001 (n=116, 62.37%).

(Chi square: $x^2 (2) = 0.976, p=.323$) See Figure 5-3.

**Figure 5-3: Education Comparison of CC Presidents by Era**

The first finding resulted in retaining the null hypothesis that more presidents appointed before 2001 held doctorates at the time of their first presidential appointments. The second finding resulted in retaining the null hypothesis of no difference by era in the relative number of presidents with education degrees.
**Pre-Presidential Community College Work Experience**

- There was no difference in the relative number of presidents with community college work experience before (n=192, 95.5%) and after 2001 (n=176, 94.6%). (Mann-Whitney Test: \( p=683 \)) See Figure 5-4.

**Figure 5-4: % CC Presidents w/CC Pre-Presidential Experience by Era**
- Presidents appointed after 2001 had significantly more community college work experience (6.084 years) at the time of their initial presidential appointment than presidents appointed before 2001. (Independent Samples T-test: p<.017) See Figure 5-5.

Figure 5-5: CC Pre-Presidential Experience by Era
significantly fewer presidents appointed after 2001 had pre-presidential experience as CAO (Pre: n=119 (59.20%); Post: n=89 (47.85%); p=0.019), K12 (Pre: n=78 (38.81%); Post: n=30 (16.13%); p=0.009), and OTH (Pre: n=43 (21.39%); Post: 29 (15.59%); p=0.004). There was no significant difference by era in relative number of presidents with pre-presidential experiences as V (p=0.592), CSAO (p=0.368), PAO (p=0.701), CH (p=0.689), FAC (p=0.206), or OHE (p=0.248). Figure 5-6 shows the percent of presidents who served in each of the HEGIS categories by era.

**Figure 5-6: % of CC Presidents w/Experience in HEGIS Category by Era**
Presidents appointed after 2001 have on average significantly more years of FAC experience (2.54 years) than presidents appointed before 2001. (Independent Samples T-test: $p=.001$) There were no significant differences by era in the average time presidents spent as V ($p=.670$), CAO ($p=.447$), CSAO ($p=.359$), PAO ($p=.265$), CH ($p=.115$), OHE ($p=.063$), K12 ($p=.161$), or OTH ($p=.180$). Figure 5-7 shows the average amount of time the presidents from the two eras who served in particular HEGIS positions spent in those positions.

Figure 5-7: Average Time of Pre-Presidential Service in HEGIS Positions by Era

Together, these findings resulted in rejecting the null hypothesis of no difference in pre-presidential work experience by era.
Presidential Career Paths

The data concerning service in HEGIS positions feeding into higher HEGIS position suggest there was a significant change in the distribution of HEGIS positions going to V by era. As Figure 5-8 shows:

- Significantly more PAOs after 2001 (n=21, 18.8%) served as V compared to before 2001 (n=10, 8.6%).
- Significantly more CSAOs after 2001 (n=17, 15.2%) served as V compared to before 2001 (n=6, 5.2%).
- Significantly fewer CAOs after 2001 (n=46, 41.1%) served as V compared to before 2001 (n=69, 59.5%).

Figure 5-8: PAO, CSAO, and CAO to V by Era
The data concerning service in HEGIS positions feeding into higher HEGIS position also suggest there was a significant change in the distribution of HEGIS positions going to FAC by era. As Figure 5-9 shows:

- Significantly fewer participants with K12 experience (n=21, 45.7%) served as FAC after 2001 compared to before 2001 (n=42, 80.8%).
- Significantly more participants with OTH experience (n=25, 54.3%) served as FAC after 2001 compared to before 2001 (n=10, 19.2%).

**Figure 5-9: K12 and OTH to FAC by Era**
The data concerning movement from a HEGIS position into higher HEGIS positions suggest significant change in the path PAOs followed to the P. As figure 5-10 shows:

- Significantly fewer PAOs after 2001 moved to P (n=1, 1.4%) compared to before 2001 (n=9, 12.2%).
- Significantly more PAOs after 2001 moved to V (n=21, 29.2%) compared to before 2001 (n=10, 13.5%).

**Figure 5-10: Change in Distribution from PAO**
The data concerning movement from a HEGIS position into higher HEGIS positions also suggest significant change in the path CSAOs followed to the P. As figure 5-11 shows:

- Significantly fewer CSAOs after 2001 moved to CAO (n=19, 40.4%) compared to before 2001 (n=29, 69.0%).
- Significantly more CSAOs after 2001 moved to V (n=17, 36.2%) compared to before 2001 V (n=6, 14.3%).
- Significantly more CSAOs after 2001 moved to P (n=11, 23.4%) compared to before 2001 P (n=7, 16.7%).

**Figure 5-11: Change in Distribution From CSAO**

These findings resulted in rejecting the hypothesis that there was no difference in presidential careers paths by era.
Conclusions

Since 2001, there have been significant changes in the demographic composition, qualifications, and career paths of American community college presidents. Whether these changes represent a diminution of quality among presidents, as foretold by some pundits (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002; Boggs, 2003; Duvall, 2003; Piland & Wolf, 2003; Shults, 2001; Watts & Hammons, 2002; Weisman & Vaughan, 2001), or whether they are the next evolutionary step of the community college system remains undetermined. Drawing such a conclusion is made more difficult by the lack of any empirical data linking community college presidential quality to education, experience, or career paths (as discussed in Chapter 2). What is documented in this study is that the characteristics of presidents appointed after 2001 differ from those of their predecessors appointed before 2001 in four ways: age, educational qualifications, pre-presidential community college experience; and career paths. This study also documented that there was no significant difference based on gender between the two eras.

Age

Presidents appointed to their first presidencies before 2001 were, on average, older (5.54 years, p<.000) at the time of this study than were presidents appointed to their first presidencies after 2001. Presidents appointed after 2001 were, however, significantly older (6.27 years, p<.000) at the time of their first community college presidential appointments than were presidents appointed before 2001. These data suggest that after 2001, boards began selecting older candidates to fill presidential vacancies.
**Gender**

There was no significant difference (chi-square \(x^2 (2) = 2.61, p = .106\)) in the relative number of men and women presidents in the two eras.

**Educational Qualifications**

The findings concerning presidential educational qualifications were mixed. At the time of their first presidential appointments, significantly more presidents appointed before 2001 (\(n=190, 94.52\%\)) held doctorates than presidents appointed after 2001 (\(n=161, 86.56\%\)). (Chi square: \(x^2 (2) = 7.27, p=.006\)) This finding supports the concept that presidents appointed before 2001 held higher education qualifications than those appointed after 2001. There was, however, no significant difference in the relative number of presidents with education degrees between those appointed before or after 2001. (Chi square: \(x^2 (2) = 0.976, p=.323\)) Together, these findings suggest although the proportion of those with doctorates in education had not changed, there has been a diminution of the educational qualifications after 2001 with fewer presidents holding doctorates at the time of their first presidential appointments.

**Pre-Presidential Community College Work Experience**

The findings concerning pre-presidential community college work experience are also mixed. The data suggested no difference in the relative number of presidents with community college work experience below the presidential level by era. At the time of their first presidential appointments, however, presidents appointed after 2001 had significantly more experience (6.084 years; \(p<.017\)) working below the presidential level in the community college system than did presidents appointed before 2001.
Additionally, presidents appointed after 2001 had less experience in CAO (-11.35%, \( p=.019 \)), K12 (-22.68%, \( p=.009 \)), and OTH (-5.80%, \( p=.019 \)), while significantly more FAC experience (2.54 years; \( p=.001 \)). If, as the literature suggested, community college work experience is an asset, then the increase in pre-presidential community college experience of presidents appointed after 2001 indicates an increase in presidential qualifications from an experience perspective after 2001.

**Presidential Career Paths**

Significant variation in the career paths of presidents from the two eras occurred in five of the nine HEGIS categories: OTH, K12, PAO, CSAO, and CAO. The variation in these categories significantly affected two other categories: FAC and V. Analysis of the variation between eras yielded two patterns.

The first pattern affected the lower end of the HEGIS hierarchy: OTH, K12, and FAC. This pattern suggests a significant decrease in the percent of presidents with FAC experience from K12 and an increase in the number of presidents with FAC experience from OTH after 2001. The percent of presidents who followed the K12-FAC path dropped from 80.8% before 2001 to 45.7% after 2001. During the same period the percent of presidents who followed the OTH-FAC path increased from 19.2% to 54.3%.

The second pattern affected the higher end of the HEGIS hierarchy: PAO, CSAO, and CAO. The second pattern suggests a significant decrease in the percent of presidents following the CAO-V-P and significant increases in the PAO-V-P, CSAO-V-P, and CSAO-P paths. The percent of presidents who followed the CAO-V-P path dropped from 59.5% before 2001 to 41.1% after 2001. This drop was offset by increases in the other three paths. Specifically, presidents who followed the PAO-V-P path increased from 8.6% before 2001 to 18.8% after
2001. Presidents who followed the CSAO-V-P path increased from 5.2% before 2001 to 15.2% after 2001. Presidents who followed the CSAO-P path increased from 16.7% before 2001 to 23.4% after 2001.

Implications

One of the two major objectives of this study was to determine if there has been a diminution of presidential qualifications since 2001 as predicted in the literature. (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002; Boggs, 2003; Duvall, 2003; Piland & Wolf, 2003; Shults, 2001; Watts & Hammons, 2002; Weisman & Vaughan, 2001) In this context, presidential qualifications were defined by two criteria: a doctoral degree and pre-presidential community college experience. (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002; Barwick, 2002; Boggs, 2003; Kubala & Bailey, 2001; McFarlin, Crittenden, & Ebbers, 1999; McKenney & Cejda, 2001; Phelps, Taber, & Smith, 1997; Piland & Giles, 1998; Twombly, 1986; Vaughan, Mellander, & Blios, 1994; Weisman & Vaughan, 2002) This study found opposite trends in the two criteria; to wit: a statistically significant decrease in the number of presidents appointed after 2001 with doctoral degrees and a statistically significant increase in pre-presidential community college work experience for presidents appointed after 2001. One explanation of these two phenomena may be that the boards that selected presidents after 2001 valued experience over education. A second explanation is that the pool of qualified candidates may indeed be drying up as Shults (2001) suggested. Both explanations are supported by the demographic data, which indicate that presidents appointed after 2001 were, on average, significantly older (6.27 years) at the time of their first presidential appointments. Together these data imply that for which ever reason, boards prefer to appoint presidents from the same pool of applicants from which the pre-2001 presidents were appointed by dipping deeper into that pool,
rather than shifting to a pool comprised of a new generation of community college administrators.

If one assumes that presidents appointed at an older age, have less time to serve, then it would further imply that the “crawling crisis” (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002; Claremont Graduate University Report 2, 2001; Duvall, 2003; Piland & Wolf, 2003; Shults, 2001; Watts & Hammons, 2002; Boggs, 2003; Weisman & Vaughan, 2001) facing community colleges is merely being delayed, not resolved. This delay may be a pragmatic maneuver intended to forestall any negative effects until the new generation of community college leaders has time to mature, but there is insufficient data to confirm that conjecture. What is suggested from the data in this study is that between 2001 and 2008 pre-presidential community college experience has been a larger factor in presidential selection than a doctoral degree.

A second implication is that the community college system has, at least since 2001, significantly reduced its connection to K12. While a portion of the community college presidents appointed after 2001 still have links to K12, that portion has grown significantly smaller: 38.81% before 2001 compared to 16.13% after 2001. Whether this reduction will hold given the advanced age at which presidents have been appointed since 2001, or whether community colleges will return to K12 to fill presidential vacancies in the future, is beyond the scope of this study, but the fact that the community college’s link to K12 has been diminished is undeniable.

A third implication is that the monopoly on the presidency once held by CAO has also been significantly weakened. Two studies cited earlier (McFarlin & Crittenden, 1999; Weisman & Vaughan, 2001) contended that CAO was the most commonly held position before an initial presidential appointment. Although a large portion of presidents still reach the presidency from and through CAO, significantly more presidents attain the presidency without serving as a CAO.
The data in this study demonstrate that since 2001 presidents have been as likely to reach the presidency by traveling from PAO-V-P, CSAO-V-P, and CSAO-P as they have from CAO-P.

A fourth implication is that despite the path changes within the system, the path to the presidency still runs through the community college system. Studies by McFarlin and Crittenden (1999) and Weisman and Vaughan (2001) reported that approximately 90% of presidents were selected from within the community college administrative ranks. Of all the respondents in this study only 4.48% before 2001 and 5.38% after 2001 attained the presidency without any pre-presidential community college experience. This would indicate that the path to the community college presidency still runs through the community college system.

**Recommendations**

The following recommendations are made based on the findings of this study:

1. Presidential aspirants should obtain a doctorate degree. Prior studies suggested that 88% of community college presidents appointed before 2001 held doctorates at the time of their first presidential appointments. (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002; Weisman & Vaughan, 2002) This study found that 94.52% of currently sitting presidents appointed before 2001 and 86.56% presidents appointed after 2001 held doctorates at the time of their first presidential appointments. Together these findings suggest that although the percent of presidents with doctorates has dropped since 2001, an earned doctorate remains a desirable asset in a presidential candidate.

2. Presidential aspirants should gain pre-presidential community college work experience.

Prior studies suggested that between 84% and 98% of community college presidents had pre-presidential community college experience. (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002; McFarlin & Crittenden 1999; Twombly, 1986; Weisman & Vaughan, 2002) This study
found that 95.5% of currently sitting presidents appointed before 2001 and 94.6% of currently sitting presidents appointed after 2001 had worked their way to the presidency from within the community college system. The fact that the percent of presidents with pre-presidential community college experience has remained so high for so long, emphasizes the importance of pre-presidential community college experience to a potential president.

3. Universities with graduate programs in community college administration or higher education administration should include instruction on the community college promotion process. Given the diversity of administrative systems within the overall community college system, it is impossible to chart a single career path to the community college presidency. A course at a more general level, however, that addressed issues regarding career progression would benefit students considering a career in the community college administration.

4. Universities with graduate programs in community college administration or higher education administration should collaborate with community colleges to provide students experience in community college administration through the use of fellowships, internships, etc. The results of this study suggested that pre-presidential community college experience was important to those selecting community college presidents. The results also suggested that the overwhelming majority of community college presidents were promoted from within the community college system. So, a collaborative program between universities offering programs in community college administration or higher education administration and community colleges could be of benefit to both the student and the community college system.
Recommendations for Further Research

This study provided a historical view of presidential career paths and qualifications of community college presidents serving in the fall of 2007. The study provided evidence suggesting that the career paths and qualifications of presidents appointed before and after 2001 had changed in several significant ways. It also suggested that the full effect of the mass retirement of presidents, senior administrators, and faculty members from the Comprehensive Era had yet to run its course. The findings of this study, however, present a temporary, rather than a permanent, view of the career paths and qualifications of community college presidents. It is, therefore, recommended that this study be repeated at regular intervals. Repeating this study would help answer some of the questions raised in this study such as:

- Is the drop in the percent of presidents holding doctorates an aberration or trend that will hold in the future?
- Is the increase in length of pre-presidential community college experience an aberration or trend that will hold in the future?
- Have the community colleges really severed their ties with K12, or will community colleges return to their K12 roots in the future?
- Is the demise of monopoly once held by the CAO permanent, or will it re-emerge?

Together with replicating this study, it is recommended that studies be conducted on specific segments of the presidential population, such as the career paths of female or minority presidents vis-à-vis male, non-minority presidents; career path studies of presidents of urban community colleges vis-à-vis rural community colleges; and career paths of presidents without doctorates vis-à-vis presidents with doctorates.

A second area worthy of further study is community college presidential quality. As indicated in Chapter II, there is currently no consensus on how to measure community college
presidential quality beyond the broad categories of an earned doctorate and pre-presidential community college experience. At best this lack of consensus contributes to, and at worst it may be the root of, the curricular disarray among university graduate educational leadership programs that prepare future community college leaders. (Brown, Martinez and Daniel; 2002; Duvall, 2003; Hammons and Miller, 2006) It seems unreasonable to expect the problems associated with the curricular disarray identified in the literature to be overcome until the desired qualities of a community college president are more clearly defined and more widely accepted.
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Appendix A - Survey Cover Letter

Date

Address of Participant

Dear (Name & Address)

I am writing to ask your help in a study being conducted into the career paths of community college presidents. This study is part of an effort to learn if there has been any significant change in the qualifications of community college presidents since 2001.

We are contacting all sitting presidents of comprehensive community colleges to obtain information from them on their educational and administrative experience at the time of their first community college presidential appointment.

Results from the survey will be used to determine if the mass retirement of community college presidents that began in 2001 has resulted in any changes in the educational or administrative experience levels of community college presidents. The results will also be used to create a notional career path for community college presidential aspirants.

Your answers are completely confidential. Your answers will be pooled with the answers from other respondents by era (pre-2001 and post-2001), so there will be no way to track individual information back to its source. When you return the completed questionnaire, your name will be deleted from the mailing list and never connected to your answers in any way. This is a voluntary survey. However, you can help by taking a few minutes to complete the survey and the informed consent forms. The results of this study will be used in my dissertation and hopefully published in professional journals.

Thank you for your consideration. Should desire to contact me regarding this research, I can be reached at 785-XXX-XXXX or at email address.

________________
Michael D. Weltsch
Researcher

________________
Charles R. Oaklief, Professor
Educational Leadership
Major Advisor
P.S. Should you desire a copy of the findings of the study, simply add your e-mail address next to your signature on the consent form and I will e-mail you a copy of the results when the study is completed (hopefully in May 2008).


Appendix B - Survey Consent Form

PROJECT TITLE: Qualifications of Presidents of Comprehensive Community Colleges

APPROVAL DATE OF PROJECT: April 2007  EXPIRATION DATE OF PROJECT: June 2010

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR: Dr. Charles R. Oaklief

CO-INVESTIGATOR(S): Michael D. Weltsch

CONTACT NAME AND PHONE FOR ANY PROBLEMS/QUESTIONS: Mike Weltsch

IRB CHAIR CONTACT/PHONE INFORMATION:

- Rick Scheidt, Chair, Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects, 203 Fairchild Hall, Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS 66506, (785) 532-3224.
- Jerry Jaax, Associate Vice Provost for Research Compliance and University Veterinarian, 203 Fairchild Hall, Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS 66506, (785) 532-3224.

SPONSOR OF PROJECT: None

PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH: The purpose of this study was to determine if the predicted mass retirement of community college presidents has precipitated a reduction in qualifications of first time community college presidents. Of major interest to this study was whether the mass retirements had resulted in any decrease in the educational qualifications, community college administrative experience levels, or career paths of community college presidents appointed to their first presidencies during the Current Era (2001-2007) and those of community college presidents appointed to their first presidencies during the Comprehensive Community College Era (1970 to 2001).

PROCEDURES OR METHODS TO BE USED: As a participant in this study, you are asked to complete the attached survey form. The form asks for demographic data; information on your current college; information on the college you first served as president (if it is different from your current college); the highest degree you held at the time of their first presidential appointment; and your community college administrative experience using the Higher Education General Information Survey (HEGIS) system as a way to standardize responses. Once this information is collected the data will be divided into two categories: those presidents appointed to their first presidencies before 2001 and those presidents appointed to their first presidencies after 2001. The average educational levels and years of community college experience below the presidential level will be computed and compared for the two groups. The community college administrative experience will then be used to conduct a path analysis to the community college presidency for both groups. The path analyses for the two groups will then be compared to determine identify any differences between the paths the two groups followed to the community college presidency.

LENGTH OF STUDY: It is estimated that the data collection phase of this study will last from September through October 2007. The analysis portion of this study should be completed by May of 2008.

RISKS OR DISCOMFORTS ANTICIPATED: There are no foreseen risks for participants in this study.

BENEFITS ANTICIPATED: This study has three benefits for the educational community:

105
1. First, it benchmarks the educational qualifications of community college presidents from both the current and the Comprehensive Community College Eras. This will not only indicate if there has been reduction in the educational qualifications of new presidents, but will serve as a point of reference for future studies.

2. Second, it benchmarks the administrative experience levels of community college presidents from both the current and the Comprehensive Community College Eras. This will not only indicate if there has been a decrease in the administrative experience of first time presidents from the Current Era, but will serve as a point of reference for future studies.

3. Third, it provides a path analysis for community college presidents from both the current and the Comprehensive Community College Eras. This provides a road map presidential aspirants may follow.

EXTENT OF CONFIDENTIALITY: (explain how you plan to protect confidentiality)

IS COMPENSATION OR MEDICAL TREATMENT AVAILABLE IF INJURY OCCURS: Not Applicable.

PARENTAL APPROVAL FOR MINORS: Not Applicable.

TERMS OF PARTICIPATION: I understand this project is research, and that my participation is completely voluntary. I also understand that if I decide to participate in this study, I may withdraw my consent at any time, and stop participating at any time without explanation, penalty, or loss of benefits, or academic standing to which I may otherwise be entitled.

I verify that my signature below indicates that I have read and understand this consent form, and willingly agree to participate in this study under the terms described, and that my signature acknowledges that I have received a signed and dated copy of this consent form.

Participant Name: ________________________________
Participant Signature: ________________________________  Date: __________
Witness to Signature: (project staff) ________________________________  Date: __________
Appendix C - Community College Presidential Survey Form

Part 1: Current Personal Information

Date of Birth ____________________ Sex:  F ( ) M ( )
Current Highest Degree Held ____________ Academic Area ________________
Year of Presidential Appointment ________ FTE of College: ________________

Part 2: Data Concerning First Presidential Appointment (If different than Part 1)

Year of first Presidential Appointment _______________________________________
Highest Degree Held at Time of First Presidential Appointment _______________________
Academic Discipline of Degree at Time of 1st Pres. Appt: _____________________________
FTE of College of First Presidential Appointment ___________________________________

Part 3: Data Concerning College of First Presidential Appointment: Regarding the College where you served your current presidency (Your current college if you are in your first presidency), did the College provide:

General and liberal education? Yes _ No _
Vocational and technical education? Yes _ No _
Adult, continuing, and/or community education? Yes _ No _
Developmental (Remedial) education? Yes _ No _
Community service? Yes _ No _

Part 4: Administrative Experience: Please provide the number of years and months you served at the following Higher Education General Information Survey (HEGIS) positions before your first presidential appointment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HEGIS Title</th>
<th>Position Description</th>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Months</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vice President</td>
<td>Responsible for all or most functions and operations under the direction of the Chief Executive Officer [President].</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chief Academic Officer (CAO)</td>
<td>Directs the academic programs of the institution. Includes those individuals who are listed as both Academic and Student Affairs Officer.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chief Student Affairs Officer</td>
<td>Responsible for the direction of student life programs.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary Academic Officer</td>
<td>Responsible for a specific component of the organization [college, division] or a specific function or operation [associate provost for technology] under the direction of the Chief Academic Officer.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chair or Head</td>
<td>Responsible for a specific course of study [department, program] under the direction of either the Primary Academic Officer or the Chief</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Position</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Higher Education</td>
<td>Administrative position within an institution of higher education that does not fit any of the classifications listed.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faculty</td>
<td>Responsible for delivering the academic program.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K-12</td>
<td>Positions in educational institutions serving students from kindergarten through the 12\textsuperscript{th} grade.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>Managerial positions held outside of educational institutions.</td>
<td></td>
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Appendix D - Community College Presidential Progression Matrix

The two matrices below display data concerning the movement of presidents appointed before and after 2001 through the HEGIS positions used in the study. Reading horizontally, shows the HEGIS held by a respondent immediately prior to the position at the far right of the matrix. For example, reading left to right on the first line of shows that of the 201 presidents who were appointed before 2001, 1 was appointed to the presidency from the OTH category, 2 from K12, 0 from FAC, 8 from OHE, 4 from CH, 9 from PAO, 7 from CSAO, 50 from CAO, and 120 from V. Reading vertically from bottom to top shows where respondents serving the indicated position moved to next in the HEGIS taxonomy. For example, of the 36 respondents who served in the OTH category, 16 next moved to K12, 10 to FAC, 5 to OHE, 2 to CH, 1 to PAO, 0 to CSAO, 0 to CAO, 1 to V, and 1 to P.

D-1 Pre2001 Presidential Progression

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Before 2001</th>
<th>OTH</th>
<th>K12</th>
<th>FAC</th>
<th>OHE</th>
<th>CH</th>
<th>PAO</th>
<th>CSAO</th>
<th>CAO</th>
<th>V</th>
<th>P</th>
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<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>201</td>
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<td>V</td>
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<td>14</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>120</td>
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<tr>
<td>CAO</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>119</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>CSAO</td>
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<td>16</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>42</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>39</td>
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<td></td>
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D-2: Post 2001 Presidential Progression

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<th>OHE</th>
<th>CH</th>
<th>PAO</th>
<th>CSA</th>
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110