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Executive Leadership in Theological Education

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INTRODUCTION TO THE LEADERSHIP STUDY PROJECT

G. Douglass Lewis

One of the four purposes of the Association of Theological Schools as stated in its constitution is: "To foster the improvement of theological education in such ways as it may deem appropriate." (Article 3) For the last three decades, the ATS through various programs has pursued this purpose. This report focuses on ATS's work to improve and support management of the theological seminaries who are members of the Association. Since the 1970's its programs have ranged from an ongoing institute for development officers to middle management training to management and leadership development for senior administrators.

In the late 1970's a group of administrators from a variety of seminaries began to express serious concern about the management of seminaries in a time of growing pressure and stress on the institutional health and vitality of many of the Association's member seminaries. The group believed that a number of factors, if not appropriately addressed, would undermine seminaries and seriously handicap their ability to do quality theological education. They were further convinced that strong administrative leadership for theological education was essential to enable these seminaries to meet this growing crisis. Yet, most senior administrators had little experience and almost no educational background or preparation in administration. Because of this group's initiative and work the ATS appointed the Advisory Committee on Theological Education Management whose purpose was to assess the needs and to design programs that could respond to these particular needs. Through generous financial support from the Lilly Endowment a number of programs were developed and offered at affordable cost.

The Committee concluded that the greatest need was at the senior administrative level. In an attempt to respond to the vastly expanded demands, particularly on Presidents and senior administrative officers, the committee in cooperation with the Riverside Group of Columbia University School of Business, designed an intensive and indepth program in theological education management. It named the program The Warren Deem Institute for Theological Education Management. Its original design was a three week residential seminar for Presidents and other senior administrators. The program focused on strategic planning but covered all the major areas required in managing an educational institution. Each participant was required to do an intensive project in his/her own institutional setting and then return six months later for a follow-up seminar to share the results of the project. The Institute was offered seven times during the 1980's. In the late 1980's and early 1990's the Committee attempted to move the institute to a self paying basis and test whether it was a viable model to be continued on an every other year basis.

After a decade of intensive work, the Advisory Committee on Theological Education Management (ACTEM) thought it essential to undertake a thorough review and assessment of the seminaries' need for administrative leadership education. Funded by a grant from the Lilly Endowment, the Executive Committee of ATS asked ACTEM to undertake such a leadership study project. The first part of the study was to analyze the current issues and emerging needs of theological education leadership. The second part was to make recommendations of resources, programs, and strategies needed to support, enhance, and nurture administrative leadership in theological schools in the years ahead.

A SCOPE OF THE STUDY

Leon Pacala, as Executive Director of ATS, had been instrumental in encouraging and enabling these programs. Because he had served the Association during the 1980's and was a keen observer of senior administrators in theological schools, the Executive Committee of ATS requested that he do a study on the presidency of theological schools, focusing particularly on a comparison between 1980 when he assumed the office and 1991 when he was retiring. His own research and subsequent reflection paper became a companion piece to the study being conducted by ACTEM. At the same time, the Executive Committee asked ACTEM to include a retrospective look and evaluation of the Warren Deem Institute of Theological Education Management as a part of its study and to determine the need, role and future of programs similar to ITEM. As background for the recommendations, ACTEM commissioned several special studies and papers. They included a study on the status and special needs of women in theological educational leadership conducted by Barbara Brown Zikmund, President of Hartford Seminary; a study of the special needs of ethnic minorities conducted by J. Oscar McCloud, Director of the Fund for Theological Education, Inc.; a paper on emerging trends and shaping forces in corporate leadership development, carried out by D. Douglas McKenna of the Department of Business Economics of Seattle Pacific University; a study of alternative management/leadership training programs for CEO's in non profit institutions, conducted by the Center for Applied Social Research of DePaul University in Chicago.

At the same time, Dr. Neely McCarter, who was retiring as President of Pacific School of Religion, began a research project on the qualities of theological school leadership. Though McCarter's project was not an official part of the ACTEM leadership study project, he served as a member of the committee and shared learnings from his project. His project has at least two more years to run and the findings will be presented in several publications at the conclusions of the study.

Finally, the Committee determined to publish a special issue of *Theological Education* to present the findings, papers and recommendations that result from the study in order to share them directly with the members of the Association. This issue of the Journal includes the following papers from the project:

A RETROSPECTIVE STUDY OF ITEM

William Baumgaertner takes a careful look at a decade of work in which the Warren Deem Institute for Theological Education Management was a primary educational resource for senior administrators in theological schools. He reviews the historical context for the Association's support of programs for the administrators. He then draws on surveys of graduates of ITEM and interviews with appropriate personnel who were involved in planning, implementing and assessing ITEM. He summarizes the contributions and strengths of such a program as well as analyzing why ITEM, in its past form, finally did not become a permanent program offered by ATS for senior administrators.

THE PRESIDENTIAL EXPERIENCE IN THEOLOGICAL EDUCATION: A STUDY OF EXECUTIVE LEADERSHIP

This paper grows out of a year long study by Leon Pacala in which he interviewed approximately 70 CEO's of theological schools and an extensive questionnaire. The paper pro-

vides some very helpful data on a demographic profile of who is in presidential offices currently, their backgrounds, length of tenures and appointment arrangements. His insightful conclusions and reflections focus on the vocation of presidential leadership, Presidential searches, appointment provisions, accountability and length of tenure in the office. The paper will be helpful not only to current Presidents but Boards of Trustees as well who must select, support and, in some cases, terminate Presidents.

WALKING THE NARROW PATH: FEMALE ADMINISTRATORS IN ATS SCHOOLS

Barbara Brown Zikmund focused this research project on issues related to special needs of women in leadership positions in theological schools in the 1990's. Her focus was to ascertain how ATS has supported women in leadership positions and how the special learnings, experience and needs of women currently in leadership positions ought to inform the ATS's work for the future. At the time of the study there were twenty-one women top administrators, six serving as Chief Executives and fifteen as Academic Deans or Academic Vice Presidents in ATS Schools. She did indepth interviews with half of the group. The results revealed some significant insights into women in current leadership positions, some of their joys and concerns, what they need to be nurtured and sustained in these demanding positions, and what the future may hold for women in senior administrative positions.

THEOLOGICAL EDUCATION AND RACIAL/ETHNIC LEADERSHIP: A PROLOGUE

This paper by J. Oscar McCloud is an important beginning look and discussion of the issue of racial/ethnics as administrators in theological schools. Its primary focus is on African American and Hispanics with most of the data and examples coming from African Americans because they are the largest racial ethnic group involved in theological education today. The paper explores some of the barriers which racial ethnic persons face, the challenge and opportunities theological schools offer them and purposed where initiatives might be taken to nurture and produce more racial ethnic persons for executive leadership in theological education. He ends with some solid reasons for hope and some concrete suggestions about approaches for the future.

PRINCIPLES FOR DEVELOPING EXECUTIVE LEADERS

Douglas McKenna and Jeffrey McHenry had the task of summarizing insights from the selection process and education programs that might be helpful to the ATS in designing developmental programs for administrators in theological schools. They focus their quest around the strategic question: "What kinds of experiences (education or otherwise) have the most potential developmental effects on executive-track people?" They first summarize leader development practices from some of the best management companies. Second, they presented ten principals of executive development. Third, they concluded by proposing recommendations on how seminaries and the ATS can apply these principles to the task of developing seminary leaders for the future.

NONPROFIT EXECUTIVE LEADERSHIP EDUCATION PROJECT

This project undertaken by the Center for Applied Social Research at DePaul University reviews existing management training programs for CEO's in the area of theology/religion,

educational management and philanthropy. The report includes information on methods used by each of the programs, it durations, cost curriculum and marketing. The article lists a large number of these programs, with a summary of the information about each. The article also helpfully assesses the major areas addressed in such programs together with the trends in these programs over the past ten years and projects future needs. The directors of the Center provide a helpful summary of Peter Drucker's recent work on not-for-profit leadership and its needs and a provocative section on characteristics of outstanding not-for-profit organizations and what characterizes the leadership of their chief executive officers.

SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The Advisory Committee on Theological Education Management held three extended sessions to analyze the papers, summarize the findings, and develop a set of recommendations for the executive committee of the Association of Theological Schools. The following is a summary of the results of the Committee's work.

Needs

The following specific needs surfaced in the several studies commissioned for the project.

1. Special attention should be given to the needs of women and racial/ethnic groups for nurture and support of leaders in theological education.

2. The priority focus for ATS programs and administrative development should be for senior administrators, those at a policy level, especially Presidents and academic Deans.

3. Future programs should encourage a team approach to management. Future programs should include opportunities to bring together Presidents, other senior officers and trustee leaders.

4. There is a need for an information clearing house on programs and opportunities for continuing education for seminary administrators.

5. There is a continuing need for training in organizational development, implementing change and competency in management skills.

6. More focus should be on the qualities necessary for executive leadership, especially the qualities of excellence in leadership.

7. There needs to be a vast improvement in the search process for identifying, contracting and supporting persons in executive leadership positions, including the emphasis on the vocation of Presidential leadership.

Current Trends

The Committee also discerned certain trends in administrative leadership in theological education that have emerged in the last few years. They include:

1. A trend towards greater faculty involvement in various levels of administrative responsibilities, particularly in free standing schools.

2. A trend towards increasing professional management in seminaries.

3.Growing complexity of administrative tasks and administrative demands in theological schools.

4.A growing number of women on faculties and in administrative positions.

5.In educational programs for administrators there is a desire for shorter and less costly programs, partly determined by an increasing constraint on financial resources in many schools.

6.A trend towards more participatory learning rather than a didactic approach, including more collegial learning environments, teams of people and team learning.

Recommendations

The Committee will make a series of recommendations to the Executive Committee of the Association including some of the following:

1.   That the Association support research on the qualities of superior administrative leadership as distinct from the threshold competencies for management.

2.   Develop programs that will nurture and strengthen existing leadership, particularly Presidents and Deans.

3.   Develop means whereby the Association can encourage and support schools and denominations to identify and recruit good leadership for the future, including a new emphasis on an adequate search process.

4.   Discontinue ITEM as it has been in the last decade. Explore ways of offering shorter units of education experience that could cover the same basis areas.

5.   The Association convene a group of women and a group of racial/ethnic persons to identify and propose ways that the Association can support and encourage the development of women and racial ethnics for administrative leadership in theological education.

6.   That the Association continue an Advisory Committee on Theological Education Leadership to assist the Association in all of these above areas.

The members of the Advisory Committee on Theological Education Leadership who participated in designing and analyzing the results of this study were as follows:

Staff:
  William Baumgaertner (Coordinator)

The Committee:

G. Douglass Lewis, Chair	H. Lee Merritt
Eugene Hensell	Clarence Newsome
James Kirby	Iain Nicol
Neely McCarter	David Tiede
David McKenna	Barbara Brown Zikmund

THE PRESIDENTIAL EXPERIENCE IN THEOLOGICAL EDUCATION
A Study of Executive Leadership

Leon Pacala

INTRODUCTION

This is not a study of the administrative organization or of the presidential office of theological schools. It is a survey of those who provide the most senior administrative leadership of these schools. Focusing on those who currently occupy such offices, it attempts to identify the most prominent features of their experience, the forces and realities that shape it, and above all, their perceptions and evaluations of it.

Theological school administrators function with a diversity of titles; president, rector, principal, dean, and department chair. These designatins embrace very real differences of responsibilities, functions, and roles. Nevertheless, those who carry these titles share a common mandate. They are expected to provide initiatives that will set the course of their institution or educational unit into its future, develop and administer requisite means and resources, and direct the effective realization of its goals and purposes. It is the major conclusion of this study that effective administrative leadership of theological schools will increasingly consist of these executive functions and that institutional environments will continue to place premiums upon this form of leadership throughout the immediate future.[1] It is leadership that is characterized by sound management but even more so by the capacity to envision institutional futures and their implications.

This survey confirms the extent to which the organization of theological schools is being influenced by patterns of corporate structures. Throughout the recent past, new offices have been established to perform specialized administrative and managerial functions, and the leadership exercised by these offices has been conceived according to such corporate patterns as chief executive officer, chief financial officer, chief academic officer, etc. Despite this shift in organizational concept, lanuage, and structure, there remains throughout the theological education community considerable disparity between attitudes and practices. The changes and trends in administrative structures and functions are clear. Yet, for substantial reasons, many find corporate models and language improper or inimical to the nature of theological schools. Principals of Canadian schools and deans of university divinity schools have the strongest objections to corporate organizational models. In their settings, the shaping influence continues to be the British tradition of senior academic administrators as masters of colleges who function as *primus inter pares* among their faculty colleagues. In Roman Catholic schools, the rectorship remains a determinative leadership form of senior administration which does not lend itself readily to corporate structures. These are but two examples of the leadership predicament facing theological schools. The inexorable growth of executive and managerial responsibilities of senior administrators is rooted in the dynamics of contemporary institutional existence, a result of which is the shedding, decline, and in all cases, the reordering of the traditional academic and ecclesiastical roles of senior theological school administrators.

This survey is based on information derived from a questionnaire to all senior administrators of ATS-related theological schools and on conversations with seventy presidents, rectors, principals, deans, and department chairs in both Canada and the United States. It should be noted that throughout this report, the terms *president*, *presidential*, *presidential experience*, *executive leadership*, etc., are used collectively to designate the senior administrative leadership of theological schools regardless of the form or title by which that leadership is exercised.

There is a growing body of literature on the presidential leadership of academic communities, but little attention has been given to theological schools. It is not known, therefore, how much of the extant literature is applicable to theological schools. While these schools may not differ in their fundamental leadership needs, differences in size and scale result in organizational problems that are distinctive if not unique. There are, however, two generalizations that apply to all academic institutions. There is general agreement that of all the problems confronting higher education none is greater or more pressing than leadership, and that it is "the central question facing... higher education."[2] Secondly, there are those who argue that "unless effective leaders are found in abundance... higher education as we know it today might not survive."[3]

The importance of effective leadership requires neither argument nor documentation. Nor is there much doubt that there are serious problems and substatial issues confronting the leadership of theological schools. Whether or not these constitute a crisis may be a matter of perspective. There is, however, at least one discernable way in which the leadership of theological schools has become more problematic in recent years. Search processes appear to be less effective than in prior times. They have become inordinately complex, prolonged in duration, and in alarming numbers, ineffective to the point of requiring total reorganization and second starts. Proof of this situation is the large number of schools that are currently operating with interim arrangements in the absence of timely presidential appointments, a condition that is in sharp contrast to findings a decade ago.[4] Of the schools sampled for this report, almost a fifth were either without presidents or in the initial months of current incumbents. A number of presidents reported that they were pressed to accept appointment only after initial searches were unsuccessful. These examples are intended to illustrate a growing problem and should not be interpreted as implying in any way a judgment of current leadership. The shortage of identifiable candidates is the most often cited cause of this situation. Whatever the reason, there appears to be a growing dysfunction of the appointment process used by theological schools in their search for leadership. The growing emphasis upon the executive functions of this leadership may worsen the problem. If so, there may well be a mounting leadership crisis facing theological education.

A final introductory observation. Presidential leadership is only one of many kinds of leadership upon which theological schools depend. However, it can and often does make more of a difference than any other single form in contributing to the well being of an institution. The most important learning derived from this study, in the words of David Reisman, is that these leaders should and "could be more wisely chosen, more securely supported and hence more quietly effective."[5] If this is to occur, it will require more deliberate attention by the academic community as a whole, and especially, new search processes and appointment provisions by governing boards who have determinative responsibility for this sector of theological education.

The study will be presented in three sections. The first offers a demographic profile of presidential incumbents. The second part offers a profile of incumbents based on their experiences in office. The third part attempts to draw some concusions and to identify key issues which need to be addressed.

PRESIDENTIAL LEADERSHIP: A DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE

Few data are available regarding the personal and professional characteristics of those who are appointed to presidential offices of academic institutions. A study of college and university presidents reveals that 85 % of those in office come from faculty or administrative positions within the academy, that 80 % are appointed from outside the institutions they serve, that they remain in office an average of seven years, and that many are appointed in their latter 40s or early 50s.[6]

Theological school presidents differ in several ways.[7]

APPOINTMENT SOURCES

Theological schools are themselves the major source of their presidential leaders. In comparison with their colleagues in higher education, only 70 % are appointed from faculty or administrative positions in academic institutions. Fifty five percent are appointed from positions in theological schools. Of the latter, 53 % are appointed directly from within the institution they serve as president, and 47 % from without. This tendency to appoint persons directly from within their institutions would be even more prominently confirmed if the count included persons who previously served the institution over which they preside but who came to their present office from an outside position. Institutional identity is a very significant factor in the determination of presidential leadership of theological schools.[8]

The major sources from which theological schools recruit their executive leadership is set forth in the following table.

TABLE I. SOURCE OF EXECUTIVE LEADERSHIP		
	Age	
Source		Percent
Faculty		
Theological School	30	
College/University	5	
Total		35
Academic Administration		
Theological School	25	
College/University	10	
Total		35
Denominational/Judicatory Office	14	
Pastorate	12	
Other (Institutes, foundations, para church organizations, etc.)	5	

Present incumbents range in age from the latter thirties to over seventy. The median age is 53 and the mean is 52.6 years.

These data point to two generalizations tht are of particular significance for leadership issues. The largest number of incumbents are in the 55-59 age bracket and comprise almost a third of present theological school presidents. Although no specific data were gathered on the number of years these persons plan to remain in office, from interviews it is clear that

AGE DISTRIBUTION
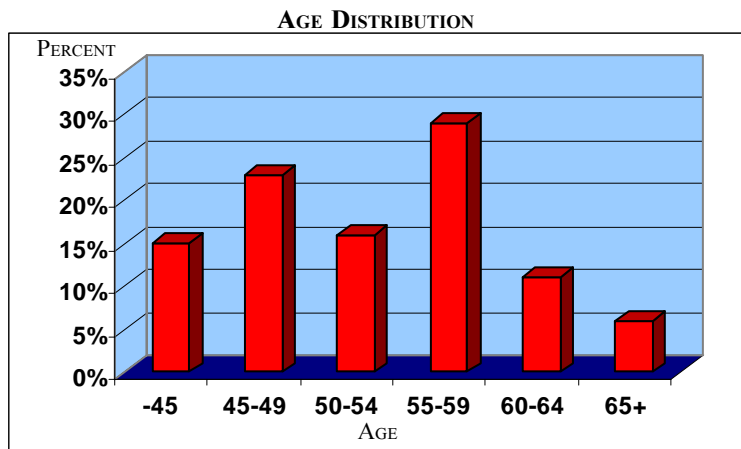
many if not most will continue until retirement. There is little indication that on the whole administrators are inclined to remain in office beyond age 65. In addition, a practice is developing of retaining presidents with long years of service in a semi-honorary position such as chancellor with modest institutional responsibilities. Should these indications prevail, they would result in providing a significant degree of stability to presidential leadership that could last throughout the present decade.

The current median age of 53 and the relatively short presidential tenures combine to pose a problem that will be increasingly significant if younger persons continue to be appointed to executive positions. Some studies of college presidents conclude that younger appointees are more effective in meeting the changing expectations of presidential agendas. If so, theological schools may seek to benefit from the advantages of younger candidates. Unfortunately, theological education has not established career patterns for post-presidential years. This situation renders younger presidents especially vulnerable in continuing their careers after leaving their offices. Few have clear options before them other than those who bring with them tenured faculty positions. The problems and issues attending this predicament will persist even if presidential tenures lengthen.

The ages of presidential leaders differ somewhat according to school size.

TABLE II. MEDIAN AGE AND SCHOOL SIZE

School Enrollment	Median Age	Mean Age	Standard Deviation
-76	52.0	52.1	7.64
76-150	51.0	51.9	6.99
151-300	55.0	53.4	5.66
301-500	53.5	52.7	5.59
501+	62.0	58.6	10.13

TABLE III. AGE GROUP ACCORDING TO SCHOOL SIZE

	School Enrollment				
AGE	-76	76-150	151-300	301-500	501+
-40	2.3%				
40-44	14.0%	21.7%	8.8%	6.3%	20.0%
45-49	27.9%	23.9%	20.6%	25.0%	
50-54	14.0%	17.4%	17.6%	18.8%	
55-59	27.9%	19.6%	38.2%	43.8%	
60-64	4.7%	10.8%	14.7%	6.3%	60.0%
65+	9.3%	6.5%			20.0%

Both tables suggest a relationship between age and size of school. However, the differences are not consistent or statistically significant. They may indicate, nevertheless, age-related leadership issues and conditions that may be substantial and different according to school size.

LENGTH OF PRESIDENTIAL TENURES

Change of presidential leadership is one of the most stressful events in the life of theological schools. Consequently, the turnover rate of this leadership is an important issue for the profession.

For higher education as a whole, the average turnover rate is 14 % based on an average presidential tenure of seven years. For theological schools, the average tenure of current incumbents is a little over six years, and this suggests a possible turnover rate of about 16 %.

To understand some of the implications of turnover rates, Kerr and Gade use the concept of bonus years in analyzing tenure issues.[9] Assuming that a minimum of two years is required for a new appointee to become acquainted with the presidential office and for an initial evaluation of effectiveness to occur, in the event that the appointment were an unfortunate one, another year would be required to terminate it. Thus, three years can be considered as the shortest practical tenure of presidential appointments. Starting with year four, all succeeding years can be seen as "bonus years" and serve as critical factors in assessing the effectiveness and length of presidential tenures. As can be seen from the following data, theological schools are benefiting from a small number of presidential bonus years.

The mean tenure of current presidential incumbents is 6.14 years. The largest class has been in office only two years, representing 15 % of all presidents. These statistics have not changed significantly over the past decade, with only a modest increase in the tenures of present incumbents.[10]

Years in Current Position

Percent

Years in Office
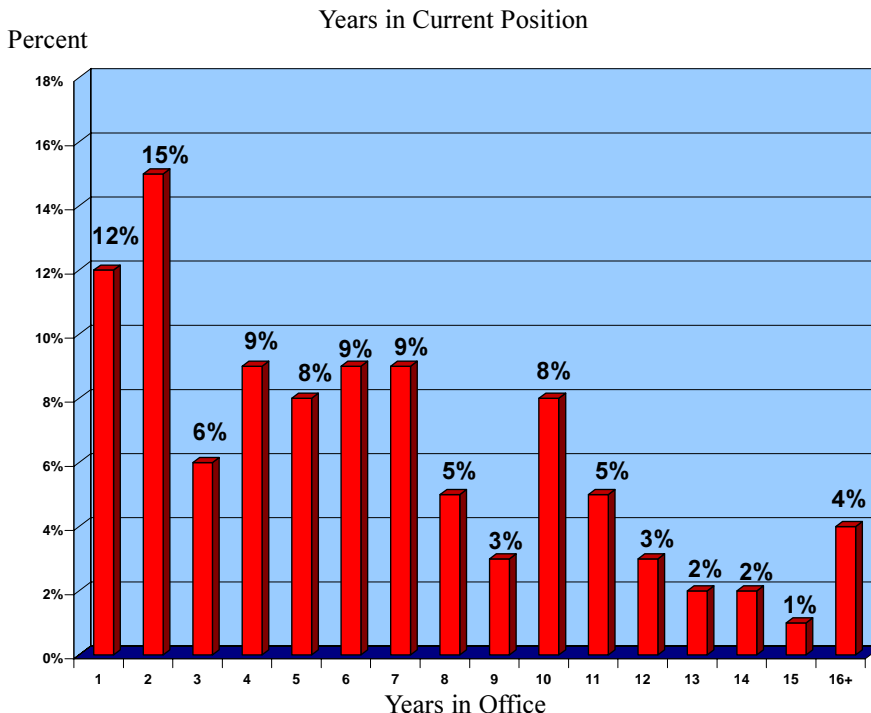
The tenure profiles of the several presidential constituencies reveal significant differences.

TABLE IV. NUMBER OF YEARS IN OFFICE		
Institutions	Mean	Standard Deviation
All Presidents	6.14	4.22
Protestant/Roman Catholic		
Protestant	6.59	4.34
Roman Catholic	5.32	3.95
National Identity		
Canada	6.00	3.82
United States	6.16	4.29
Denominational Identity		
Mainline Denomination	6.51	3.94
Mainline Independent	4.83	3.01
Evangelical Denomination	7.56	5.29
Evangelical Independent	6.68	5.00
Roman Catholic	5.32	3.95

The difference between Protestant and Roman Catholic tenures can be accounted for in part by the tradition of term appointments that is more prevalent in Roman Catholic schools. But more significantly, there is less of a vocation of executive leadership in Roman Catholic than in Protestant schools. The sources of this difference are complex and deeply rooted in the priesthood. The dynamics of the presidential office, especially the growing specialization f executive and administrative functions, do not lend themselves readily to priestly callings and the structures or stages by which these callings are carried out. In addition, the egalitarian nature of the priesthood works against endowing presidential offices with the status and advantages they may have in Protestant traditions. As a result, there is a tendency to view presidencies as a "transitional responsibility" to be rendered out of obedience to ones ordinary or as a duty to be performed as ones rightful turn. Coupled with a tradition of term appointments, usually three to five years in length, the established pattern is to "cycle out" of the presidency upon completion of ones term. These factors together with others have resulted in a much higher than average turnover of Roman Catholic presidential leadership during the past decade and a trend towards shorter rather than longer tenures.

The shorter average tenures of mainline independent schools also reflect the practice of term appointments and established traditions of limited number of reappointments to be served by incumbents. Both are prevalent in university divinity schools which comprise a significant portion of this group of schools.

In contrast, evangelical schools have the longest average tenures. They also are marked by the greatest standard deviation indicating the existence of greater diversity between incumbents with short and long tenures. It is interesting to note that these schools have some of the most senior presidents in both national communities. However, it is also a sector facing significant leadership turnover at the present time. A transition to new leadership is in process. It remains to be seen whether these schools can maintain the influences that have led to longer presidential tenures, or whether they will be affected by those that are at work throughout the profession resulting in shorter tenures.

Two systems of presidential appointments are in effect. 52 % are appointments with indefinite terms and 48 % are term appointments. Of the latter, 40 % are five-year appointments, 48 % are four or fewer years in length, and 13 % are six to nine year terms. The mean for term appointments is 4.12 years. 95 % of term appointments are renewable, and 72 % of these have no specified limits to the number of renewable terms.

Presidential tenures vary somewhat according to school size. As the following table indicates, the length of current appointment increases with school size. However, the relationship is not a very strong one, and it is significant to note that there are greatest differences in lengths of tenure for the incumbents of larger schools as shown by the standard deviations according to school size.

TABLE V. PRESIDENTIAL TENURE AND SCHOOL SIZE

School Enrollment	Mean: Numbers of Years	Standard Deviation
-76	5.90	4.10
76-150	6.16	4.16
151-300	6.18	3.81
301-500	7.64	4.70
501+	9.33	5.81

EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND

At least one study of college and university presidents cites the possession of the doctorate as being of significant value for effective leadership. The overwhelming majority of theological school presidents have earned doctorates.

TABLE VI. HIGHEST EARNED DEGREES

Degree	Percent
Ph.D., Th.D., S.T.D.	65.6
Ed.D.	1.9
D.Min.	10.8
Other, mostly at the Masters level	21.7

In the absence of previous studies, it is not possible to determine whether or not changes are underway concerning the doctoral experience of presidential leadership. The significant portion of presidents with the D.Min. may signify some change in the type of experience and credentials deemed important for presidential leadership.

In this regard, a comparison of degrees held by presidential incumbents based on school size presents the following profile.

TABLE VII. HIGHEST EARNED DEGREE AND SCHOOL SIZE

Degree	-75	76-150	151-300	301-500	500+
Ph.D./Th.D.	64.4%	60.8%	70.3%	75.0%	71.4%
Ed.D.		5.9%			
D.Min.	15.6%	7.8%	10.8%	6.3%	
Other	20.0%	25.5%	18.9%	18.8%	28.6%

Of particular interest is the possession of the M.Div. as a factor in presidential appointments. 83% of the present leadership hold the degree or its equivalent, and the majority of

the remainder possess at least one theological degree. This shared educational background, together with the number of persons appointed from theological faculties and administration, reflects the assumption that leadership of the enterprise is best provided by its products.

The possession of the M.Div. degree rather than the institutional source of the degree seems to be the important qualification. Only 29 % of the current presidents hold the M.Div. degree from the institution over which they preside.

<div align="center">PROFESSIONAL BACKGROUND</div>

Presidential appointees bring a variety of professional experiences to their offices.

1.A slight majority have pastoral experience. 53% report some pastoral experience prior to their present appointment. This result should be considered with some caution. It may have been influenced by misinterpretation of the questionnaire. There is some reason to believe that the request for professional experience may have been understood by some to refer only to previous academic experience.

2.A slight majority have theological school faculty experience. 52 % have such experience, and 48 % do not.

3.Few presidents have college or university faculty experience. Only 34 % have taught at the college or university level.

4.Academic deans tend not to be appointed to presidential offices. 76% of present incumbents have not served as theological school deans, and 94 % have not been college or university deans.

5.Most presidents have administrative experience prior to their present appointments. Though such experience is apparently of value, it is not a requisite for appointment as the following table shows.

TABLE VIII. ADMINISTRATIVE EXPERIENCE

Experience	Percent
Academic Administration, Theological School	
None	66.5
Some	33.5
Academic Administration, Other	
None	83
Some	17
Denomination/Judicatory	
None	77
Some	23
Other (Ecumenical agency, etc.)	
None	85
Some	15

The more inclusive profile of types of professional experience of presidential incumbents can be seen from the following table which merges the various responses.

TABLE IX. PROFESSIONAL PROFILES BY SCHOOL CLASSIFICATION

Experience	Classification	Percent	
		None	Some
Pastoral			
	Mainline Denom.	39	61
	Mainline Ind.	75	25
	Evangelical Denom.	40	60
	Evangelical Ind.	44	56
	Roman Catholic	58	42
Faculty			
	Mainline Denom.	41	59
	Mainline Ind.	25	75
	Evangelical Denom.	52	48
	Evangelical Ind.	25	75
	Roman Catholic	32	68
Academic: Faculty or Administrative			
	Mainline Denom.	28	72
	Mainline Ind.	8	92
	Evangelical Denom.	32	68
	Evangelical Ind.	0	100
	Roman Catholic	13	87
Administrative: Academic or Other			
	Mainline Denom.	30	70
	Mainline Ind.	8	92
	Evangelical Denom.	40	60
	Evangelical Ind.	25	75
	Roman Catholic	29	71
Denomination or Judicatory			
	Mainline Denom.	73	27
	Mainline Ind.	100	0
	Evangelical Denom.	88	12
	Evangelical Ind.	88	12
	Roman Catholic	63	37

A comparison of professional backgrounds of presidents according to school size did not indicate any significant differences with one exception. Presidents of larger schools are more likely to have experience as academic deans of non-seminary schools than their colleagues in smaller institutions. However, the total number of persons with such experience represents less than 10 % of current incumbents.

TABLE X. PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE: COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY DEANSHIP					
	School Enrollment				
	-76	76-150	151-300	301-500	501+
NONE	100%	91.8%	93.5%	78.6%	83.3%
SOME		8.2%	6.5%	21.4%	16.7%

Issues pertaining to presidential profiles involve considerably more than general professional qualifications. They are also matters of over all

fit of personal characteristics and institutional needs and interests. The above two tables highlight differences of leadership requisites that distinguish one type of school from another.

It is not surprising that the smallest number of presidents with pastoral experience are in mainline independent schools, a grouping that includes university divinity schools. On the other hand, it is difficult to understand the lesser importance apparently attached to faculty experience for the presidential leadership of denominational schools. In the light of the proportionately high percentage of presidents with pastoral experience in the two denominational groups, the data may indicate a preference for leadership with backgrounds that are considered important to sustaining church and seminary relations. They may also reflect institutional cultures strongly oriented to the practice of parish ministries.

Of significance is the Roman Catholic profile and especially the large percentage of incumbents without pastoral experience. It may be that the phrase, pastoral experience, carries significance for Roman Catholic personnel only if related to a full-time parish charge. In addition, the profile includes members of religious orders who by virtue of such membership would be considered to be without pastoral backgrounds. The relatively large number who bring to their offices experience with judicatories reflects among other things the organic relation between seminaries and the church or their orders, as well as established sources from which presidential candidates come.

APPOINTMENT ARRANGEMENTS

Faculty status is usually accorded presidential appointments. Ninety percent of current presidents have faculty status, and this arrangement differs little between the various types of schools.

TABLE XI. FACULTY STATUS		
School Classification	Percent	
	Yes	No
Mainline Denomination	94	6
Mainline Independent	92	8
Evangelical Denomination	84	16
Evangelical Independent	100	0
Roman Catholic	85	15
All Protestant Schools	92	8
All Canadian Schools	95	5
All US Schools	90	10

Despite the prevalence of faculty status, presidents do not have all the benefits usually associated with it. Only 52 % of the presidents are eligible for sabbatic leaves, and 44 % are eligible for or have tenure. Since tenure is not a provision of administrative appointments, it exists only by virtue of faculty appointments that presidents bring with them or to which they may move upon completion of their term in office. For most presidents, faculty status signifies the right to teach and to participate in faculty deliberations and determinations. In many instances it has only nominal significance and carries the designation of assistant professor.

Presidents who have faculty status and sabbatic leaves consider them to be of the greatest value and importance for leadership effectiveness. Among the appointment provisions considered most desirable but not in effect, sabbatic leaves and release time for professional development are cited most frequently.

Presidential leadership is subject to review and evaluation on a regular basis, and 80 % of the presidents are assessed in this fashion. Of these reviews, 70 % are conducted by governing boards, 5 % by denominational or judicatory agents, 4 % by joint trustee-faculty committees, and 22 % follow other patterns. Of these, most are conducted by the appropriate administrative officer in those situations in which divinity schools are parts of larger educational complexes.

The experience of presidents with reviews is a positive one. 49% consider them very valuable, 45 % moderately so, and only 6 % find them of little value.

Finally, appointments to presidential offices rarely include provisions for continuing at the institution upon completion of the incumbents appointment. Only 14 % have such provisions in their appointment agreements and without exception these provide for faculty positions. Yet 31 % believe they have the option of remaining at their institution upon completion of their terms in office, 36 % believe that continuation is probable, and only 34 % recognize that no such possibility exists. These data make clear the extent to which presidential appointments are made throughout theological education without clear and explicit identification of the provisions and conditions that sould define them. The vagueness of these important details unquestionably adds to the insecurity so frequently experienced by executive leaders and places upon them the burden of removing whatever ambiguity and uncertainties result from current appointment practices.

EXECUTIVE LEADERSHIP: AN EXPERIENTIAL PROFILE

Presidential experiences are as diverse as theological schools. They are the products of the interplay of institutional contexts and personal motivations, abilities, and leadership styles. No single pattern exists or can be taken as the norm or model for the profession as a whole. Furthermore, to speak of presidential experiences is to address subject matters that are not openly accessible to direct observation and assessment. The result is as much the product of interpretation as description, and the claim of findings requires careful qualification. Nevertheless, there are patterns that can be discerned from the reports of senior administrators that have informational value and which both invite and inform critical reflection on the current status and conditions of leadership.

Although this survey was designed to include the experience of senior administrators as a whole, university divinity school deans constitute a class unto themselves. They embody differences of roles, functions, and issues that are significant enough to require special

interpretation and analysis. Even though their responses are included in this report, a separate study is needed in order to gain a clearer understanding of the elements of the leadership that is characteristic of this group.

<div align="center">THE TRIPARTITE PRESIDENTIAL AGENDA</div>

In many respects the presidential experience in theological education is no different from that in higher education as a whole. It is in essence determined by multiple, often conflicting, expectations of diverse constituencies and the innumerable pressures and demands of modern institutional life. The situation is complicated by the size and scale of theological schools. Due to the increasing complexity of their institutional make-up, they require an infrastructure of leadership that is not unlike that of larger educational institutions. However, theological schools are too small and their resources too limited to afford it. The impact of this institutional predicament falls most heavily upon the presidential office.

Out of the experience of theological school leadership there has emerged a three-fold presidential agenda, each part of which requires different leadership roles. Administration, financial development and constituency affairs constitute the bulk of presidential responsibilities. In some fashion, all incumbents acknowledge this tripartite structure. There are, however, vast differences in the relative proportions of the executive calendar devoted to them and the manner in which leadership is exercised in each. Furthermore, presidents are called to do much that does not readily fit into these categories. Many teach and some steadfastly devote themselves to writing ad scholarly projects, even though the number and amounts of time devoted to these endeavors are decreasing. Community affairs, public relations, professional roles and responsibilities constitute additional parts of daily presidential agendas. These and all other matters requiring presidential attention are being subjugated to the three roles that increasingly define presidential leadership.

1.*Administration, Management, and Supervision.* Much has been written about the distinction between leaders and managers, often to the disparagement of the latter. This distinction has little impact on current leadership of theological schools. They are expected to manage in ways that will sustain the viability and effectiveness of their institutions in times of considerable change and uncertainties. The response to this expectation is such as to compress these two dimensions of administration. The manner in which this compression of management and leadership is carried out distinguishes one president from another. There are, however, several trends that are discernable in the administrative role of presidents.

There is a consistent pattern or sequence by which administrative leadership develops. Much of the early years in office is consumed by organizational and managerial needs. More often than not, leadership changes in theological education occur at times of institutional crises. Very few presidents come into offices that are free of pressing organizational problems. In these situations, beginning presidents have no alternative but to put their houses in order, and the beginning years of leadership are largely determined by institutional conditions that, in the words of a recent commentator, "mandated managerial roles."[11] During this period, administration is usually a direct, hands on experience.

Invariably, faculty and finances set much of the newly elected presidents agenda. Of these, faculty relations are the most complex and the cause of greatest presidential stress. This is especially the case for presidents who come to office from outside the academy. This may have always been true of academic administration. There are, however, faculty issues which are characteristic of our times and which often render academic leadership quite problematic. The perennial tensions between faculty and administrative prerogatives are joined by new forms of inter-faculty conflicts, faculty versus church constituency oppositions, and faculty agendas that differ from and not infrequently impede presidential agendas.

For the relatively new president, immediate solutions to financial problems usually involve retrenchments of some form. Such resolutions carry severe consequences for academic institutions. They are all the more difficult for theological schools in view of the fact that many if not most have already endured one or two rounds of institutional reductions of various types. In these circumstances, the options for managing institutions with financial problems are considerably reduced and leadership is confronted with increasingly complex administrative problems.

During their early years in office, a remarkable number of presidents resolve many of the most urgent institutional problems they encounter. At this point, usually occurring about the third year in office, administration assumes a different form. It becomes less direct as presidents depend upon a tier of senior administrators, often the result of initial organizational efforts, for the day to day management of the institution. Secondly, it becomes more strategic and less managerial as presidets, freed somewhat from the press of immediate institutional problems, become more intentional about their leadership agendas. The effectiveness with which this transition is carried out is critical to the leadership career of presidents. The most senior incumbents are those who are able to make the transitions from managerial to what can be called strategic forms of administration.

The key to this transition is the effectiveness with which the future of the institution is envisioned. In this regard, vision is identified as the essence of executive leadership. Many view themselves as enablers and seek to elicit from the institutional community a shared vision. At the opposite extreme are those for whom their offices impose the responsibility to be bearers of the institutional visions and for whom the
craft of the presidency is centered in the formulation, articulation and projection of new metaphors and interpretive rationales by which the future is envisioned. In general, there is a close correlation between the extent to which presidential incumbents are active, influential participants in the dialogue concerning institutional visions and the confidence with which presidential leadership is exercised.

This change carries the risk of the president becoming remote and somewhat inaccessible, but it makes possible the type of leadership that is essential to the well being of their institutions.

In this regard, the essence of executive leadership consists of clarifying institutional missions and purposes, and above all, envisioning the future towards which the institution is to be directed. This strategic role of providing the initiatives needed to set the course of the institution and to be a creative voice in that process is without question the most important responsibility of those who occupy presidential offices. It is clearly the case that presidents

who conceive of their leadership in strategic terms, who invest substantial time and energy in shaping and projecting clear and compelling visions of their institutions future, are by far the most affirmative about their experiences in office.

In this regard there is a troublesome discrepancy between perception of what is most required of presidential leadership and the actual practice and investment of presidential time and energy. Most recognize that envisioning is the most critically important leadership role required of them. Yet only a very small number devote a substantial amount of their office agendas to this role or invest themselves in acquiring the special knowledge, intellectual disciplines, and synoptic perspectives that are commensurate with it. Many complain of having insufficient time for it. With the quite general exception of the role of presidents in formulating mission statements, the "envisioning process" tends to lose practical implications as a form of leadership. For the relatively few who resolve this issue, the presidential role is endowed with a style, substance, and confidence that contributes to long term effectiveness.

2. *Financial Development*. In many respects, financial development is becoming synonymous with presidential leadership. It consumes a greater portion of the presidential agenda than ever before in the history of theological education, and it is altering the nature of these offices. One of the most senior presidents acknowledged that despite a large and efficient development staff, "I am required to be the schools chief development officer. " Why this should be the case is not readily discernible. Theological education has always been something of an exercise in institutional poverty. The major change that has occurred, however, is the shifting of greater responsibility for financial resources directly to theological schools themselves. This change profoundly impacts the leadership of theological schools.

In general, presidents of Protestant, freestanding denominational and nondenominational schools have the most clearly defined responsibilities for financial development. Roman Catholic presidents and rectors are inreasingly required to assume these roles. In both cases, these expectations have been imposed by the dramatic decrease in church support, which in many cases have declined as much as fifty percent during the past decade. In the effort to offset these losses, presidents are focusing on endowment funds, and the results of these efforts are beginning to appear in the increase percentages of total revenue that is derived at present from these sources.[12]

The most experienced presidents report that at least a third of their time is devoted to financial development. There is a general belief that this proportion will become the norm for presidential leadership. In the face of burgeoning financial needs, presidents are able to contain the pressures to invest more of their agendas in financial development by clearly defining their presidential roles. In addition to planning and general supervision, senior presidents focus their energies on the cultivation and solicitation of major gifts. Just as in general administration, presidents are assuming financial development leadership roles that are strategic in nature.

The nature of theological school leadership is influenced by the requisites of financial development to a greater extent than any other single factor. They constitute most significant criteria for the evaluation of candidates for presidential appointments. They are equally important in assessing the effectiveness of presidential leadership. They are also the grind-

stones that constantly wear down presidential energies, morale and self confidence. As a result, there is a growing distinction between presidents who come to office with a clear recognition and acceptance of these requisites for their leadership roles and those who do not. There is little question but that this distinction will fade as presidential leadership continues to be shaped by the demands of financial development.

3. *Constituency Concerns*. Regardless of whether one distinguishes between constituencies and publics, the third major mandate of presidential leadership is to sustain and strengthen the community that comprises the immediate and wider reaches of the institution. Presidents confront no more demanding test of their leadership than the necessity of guiding their institutions on coherent courses in the face of competing and often conflicting expectations of governing boards, faculties, students, graduates, church constituencies, and other publics. This diversity of claims has both a centrifugal and centripetal effect on presidential leadership. This is the result of the dynamics at work in two major constituencies that shape the presidential agenda.

With only rare exceptions, presidential leadership is governed by the premise that the welfare of theological schools is tied to their identity with their churches. This premise was firmly entrenched in the 1970s and carefully nurtured in the following decade. In recent years, church and school relations have been made problematic by new challenges and in some instances severe conflicts. As a result, many presidents are constrained to play two distinct roles.

The first is that of mediator between a church constituency that often embraces religious orientations or ideologies that are at odds with theological school cultures and their institutions which are quite commonly viewed as being out of touch with the grass roots of the church. In these predicaments, in some form common to the majority of schools, presidents are called upon to exercise effective leadership in that area between their accountability to the church and their responsibility to maintaining the integrity and identity of their institutions.

The second role relating to church constituencies today is that of institutional advocate of a special type. Many churches are merging or undergoing various kinds of reorganization. In these cases, presidents are constrained to represent the best interests of their schools, and above all, to establish sound cases and justifications for their institutions in the new structures.

The mediational and advocacy roles of presidents reflect increasing denominational expectations and pressures upon their leadership. In the judgment of incumbents, these will not only continue but increase well into the future. They determine a very important agenda of presidential offices and the basis by which the effectiveness of leadership is judged. The constraints within which presidents must serve their constituency are very clear. As one president acknowledged, "I do not decide anything apart from the consequences these may have for our relations with the church."

The cumulative effects on presidential leadership of current responsibilities for church-school relations are hard to determine. Presidents quite universally find them to be major sources of stress, insecurity, and in their direct forms, debilitating intrusions on their otherwise overcrowded agendas. Surprising as it may be, there is little evidence that the problems of church relations even in their most severe instances have been major determinants of presidential tenures. Some of the most senior incumbents occupy offices in schools confronted by the most intense church-school conflicts, which may attest more to the commitment and reliance of these presidents than to the

current conditions of effective leadership. Unfortunately, church relations confront presidents with more problems than meaningful challenges. The greater consequence of this situation for the future of theological schools may well be the degree to which it discourages promising persons from becoming candidates for presidential appointments.

Responsibilities for church relations tend to direct presidential attention outside the institution. There is a second major constituency concern of presidents that focuses upon the school itself. The overwhelming majority of presidents view their role in pastoral terms. One of their primary responsibilities is to meld and nurture the school as a coherent community. The extent to which presidents identify this role as the first priority of their office is one of the most surprising findings of this study. On the face of it, this appears a most unusual investment of executive leadership. The reasons for it are to be found in the current conditions within theological schools and the significance of institutional formats for the fulfillment of educational purposes.

There exists a public image of theological schools as ideal communities, closely knit by shared values and shaping traditions. Their small size and common purposes reinforce this general impression. The truth is, however, that theological schools are objects of the forces of fragmentation that beset all social institutions. Growing diversity of theological school populations has brought with it complicated and competing pluralisms of perspectives, interests, expectations, ideologies, and partisan orientations. In addition, all of the conflicts to which academic institutions fall prey are part of the current make-up of theological schools.

Despite this institutional predicament, it is appropriate to ask whether so many executive resources should be invested in this pastoral role assumed by many presidents. Part of the answer is practical. Many are appointed to institutions that are seriously conflicted, and from the very beginning presidents are required to re-establish institutional coherence. As one president quite dramatically accounted for this role, it is necessary
lest chaos be loosed in the land.

There are other reasons. Educational purposes of theological schools are closely tied to the communities within which they function. The capacity of schools to model and provide maturing community experiences are essential elements in theological education. So central is this view of theological education that it serves as a shaping mandate and rationale for the pastoral role of presidents.

There is also an operational or procedural reason for presidential concern for the nature and quality of the theological school community. The consensus model o decision making and governance has become so generally instituted throughout theological education as to constitute one of its defining characteristics. Current presidents reinforce this model by their personal style of leadership, the universality of which may be the result of selective factors in the appointment process as well as deliberate choice. It is a style that requires for its effectiveness a modicum of institutional coherence. Presidents recognize that only by creating such a community is it possible for the consensus form of governance to be effectively implemented.

This play of factors and rationales provides a firm basis for the pastoral role of presidents in relation to their immediate communities. If there is a part of the current agenda of presidents not easily integrated into the otherwise growing executive portfolio, it is this role.

The concern for institutional community has led to another major form of executive leadership; namely, the organization and strengthening of governing boards. This is a relatively recent priority. A 1980 study revealed that of nine major service support themes for theological schools, board development ranked last, and of 33 proposed service programs, those relating to governing boards were evaluated 28 and 29 in importance.[13] The situation has changed. As traditional supporting networks have declined, governing boards have assumed new roles and these changes have effected presidential priorities.

It is difficult to determine precisely what part of the presidential agenda is devoted to faculty development and student recruitment. Few report substantial involvement with the latter, even though the number and quality of students are among the major concerns of presidents. However, these concerns appear to have diminished over the past decade. Among the reasons for this change are the substantial infrastructures for student recruitment recently established by many schools, the range of new educational programs and services introduced in the last decade that has enlarged the pool of potential students, and the down sizing of student recruitment goals by many schools.

Presidents maintain significant roles in the recruitment, appointment, and related decisions regarding faculty. As to more general roles of academic leadership, it is clear that the dynamics of presidential offices are moving these leaders further and further from such roles. In listing priorities of their agendas, less than ten percent identified as a priority responsibility to sustain "a climate of intellectual inquiry and a zeal for quality. " Even fewer are able to comply with Harold Dodds dictum that fifty percent of the presidents time should be devoted to educational matters.[14] It is a growing pattern for theological school executives to depend on their academic officers for the day-to-day administration and development of academic programs. As other demands consume more of their time and attention, it is inevitable that the academic leadership roles of presidents will continue to diminish. One president described his role as being "a major player" in the development of academic programs. Some play a larger role than others. In all cases, the president is but one and increasingly a diminished voice among others by which the academic life of their institutions is shaped.

LEADERSHIP STYLES

Presidential responses to the many demands and expectations of their offices take a diversity of forms and styles. No single type of leadership suffices for the complex agendas of these offices. At present, presidential leadership is a mixture of five distinguishable styles, all of which may be present together in some form.

1. *Academic*. It is not surprising that this form of leadership is most prominent in university or college divinity schools. In these settings, a major part of presidential leadership consists of scholarship that serves to undergird the authority of the office. The primary conversation partners of this form of leadership are the faculty, and the supervision and advancement of the academic program comprise much of the office agenda. This traditional style of leadership remains strongly entrenched in some theological school sectors. However, institutional realities are moving presidential leadership away from this model. Even in schools that have historically maintained this form of leadership, recent appointments have resulted in leadership with quite different styles. In general, the academic style is being shifted to academic officers who exercise roles previously held by senior administrators.

2. *Consensual*. As with all of higher education, this has become the generally accepted leadership style of theological education. Consultation is the leadership process, and presidential roles are interpreted accordingly. For the president, it is a style that maximizes responsibility but minimizes authority.[15] Its universal acceptance bears universal results. Presidents complain of the fatigue of endless consultation and negotiation required for consensus and of the snails pace by which matters are accomplished. These complaints suggest an issue if not a mounting problem posed by this style of leadership. There is general agreement that the profession must undergo substantial changes in meeting the challenges of the decade ahead. How well this style will serve the leadership needs of such a future and its mandates for change is an open question. There are increasing tensions between this style viewed as the most compatible with the nature and purposes of theological schools and the mounting expectations for decisive leadership. At present, presidents are resigned to tolerate these tensions as an inescapable dilemma of leadership given the current state of the enterprise.

3. *Pastoral.* More than any other single term, presidents describe their leadership as pastoral. It is used to designate style, process and leadership priorities. For many, the primary presidential role is to serve as a healing or integrating agent for the institutional community. It is a style that emphasizes support for individuals and restoration of relationships.

The primacy of this leadership style is rooted in a number of factors. It is in part the natural outcome of the number of persons appointed to presidential offices from the pastorate or other sectors of the church. It is a response to the severe conflicts that many theological schools are undergoing. It undoubtedly also reflects the extent to which one model of pastoral leadership has been accepted as normative for the profession. Whatever the reason, this perception of the role and style of presidential leadership is determining in significant ways the criteria by which candidates are assessed for appointment to these offices, and the manner in which leadership is exercised.

4. *Entrepreneurial.* Presidents are in considerable agreement that a widening gap exists between the current state of theological education and the emerging needs and expectations of the future. They also share frustration with the slow pace of change by which the profession is responding to the challenges before it. These attitudes are undoubtedly rooted in the concerns of presidents for the well being, viability, and in some instances survival of their institutions. The concerns have intensified as finances, student sources, and institutional reasons for exstence have become threatened. Out of such concerns is emerging a relatively new form of leadership; namely, the entrepreneurial theological school president.

Although the term is not entirely appropriate, it designates forms of leadership that are viewed as valuable and important. It is leadership that stresses growth and focuses on unrealized institutional potential. It is fed by the conviction that many traditional modes of institutional procedures and operations are either ineffective or obsolete and that innovations are needed to meet the challenges of the future. Its major goals include the expansion of institutional services, the increase of constituencies, and above all, the strengthening of institutional viability. It is leadership that takes a variety of forms, all of which are shaped by strategies of change and growth. It requires a capacity for experimentation and tolerance for new ventures. It is leadership that is informed by a theology of the great commission (Mark 16:15), and finds both impetus and justification for new ventures in unserved constituencies.

Leadership expectations of an entrepreneurial nature are increasing in many sectors of theological education, even though it is viewed with scepticism by substantial portions of the enterprise. As a leadership style, it is constrained by a very prevalent awareness of the distinction between opportunistic endeavors and faithful ventures. There is little question but that this form of leadership will become more prevalent in the years ahead as this distinction becomes more clearly established within the profession by means of explicit criteria defining the integrity of entrepreneurial undertakings and their justifications.

5. *Pragmatic.* Presidential leaders are perennially persons in the middle, seeking to negotiate their institutions between competing and often conflicting constituent interests. It is an environment that requires flexibility, philosophical perspectives, and historical orientations. It is a leadership that is less ideological and more pragmatic in style and substance.

Presidents who are most intentional about their leadership share a common conviction that institutions endure by virtue of being recreated according to the needs and possibilities of their times. They shun overly idealized views of their institutions and yet are dissatisfied with conditions that enable schools to exist without style and substance that reflect clearly their defining traditions. With this perspective, the parameters of leadership are set by what is possible in the light of current institutional circumstances on one hand and what should be sought in service to institutional purposes on the other.

Throughout this report references have been made to the tensions that currently characterize the relations of theological schools with their church constituencies. These are not new. Educational institutions tend to be out of step with their publics, and the source of this threat is often rooted in ideological differences that shape the cultures of school and church. Presidents view the present situation as one in which these differences are in danger of escalating in intensity and partisan intransigence. Charged with the responsibility of maintaining and strengthening relations with the church, presidents are required to negotiate tensions by representing the institution with integrity to the church, and on the other hand, by being a voice of realism to their schools regarding the full implications of their church relatedness. In this predicament, leadership quite frequently follows a course of deliberate and carefully reasoned pragmatism.

This style of leadership is reinforced especially in relation to faculty concerns when it is rooted not only in the authority of the presidential office, but also in what some commentators refer to as
expert power.[16] This is authority derived from an established reputation as an in-house expert on theological education and its institutionalization. Such expert knowledge can enhance the authority of the presidentialoffice and be the source of effective rationales for presidential decisions. This competence, usually attended by a philosophical orientation to institutional life, is a significant correlate of pragmatic styles of leadership.

LEADERSHIP MOTIVATIONS, SATISFACTION, AND ANXIETIES

Despite the procedures that are used for the appointment of executive leadership, presidential succession, in the words of David Reisman, is an anomaly. In theological education, there are no established sources, structures, or traditions for the identification, preparation and advance-

ment of persons to presidential offices. Consequently, the appointment procedures and practices are largely "ad hoc" arrangements that exist to meet the immediate needs of individual schools.

This system functions largely because of the motivations that lead persons to accept presidential appointments. Only 7 % of those interviewed acknowledged seeking their position, and the majority accepted only after declining initial overtures. Why then do they serve?

The answers are varied yet share a common note. In one way or another, the office imposes itself upon the incumbent. Many serve out of obedience to their ordinary or judicatory agent. Others are moved by a sense of loyalty to the school, a significant factor in view of the large number of presidents who are appointed from within the institutions they serve. A few accept their office as a means of expanding their mission and professional roles. But by far, theological schools are lead by persons who view their appointments as a vocation with transcendent meaning. The vast majority of incumbents neither sought nor preferred their appointment. When confronted with it, they were not free to refuse. In very moving ways, the majority account for their presence in office in terms of divine intentionality.

How do presidents evaluate their experience in office? The responses to this question are clearly shaped by the motivations that govern presidential appointments. In spite of the demands, stresses, frustrations, long hours, loneliness, insecurities, and effects upon family life, 78 % of the presidents are very satisfied or satisfied in their appointment, 16 % are moderately satisfied, and only 5 % dissatisfied. Furthermore, 57% would accept again their appointment given their experience in office, 36% would do so with conditions, and only 6% would not.

Presidents are less equivocal about their experience than is generally assumed. While all acknowledge the toll their offices extract from their personal and family lives, the greater emphasis is on the value of their experience. Personal and professional growth, sense of accomplishment, and the spiritual significance of their office are the most frequently cited values of the presidential experience. Interestingly, though much of their agendas are set by institutional demands, presidents value the freedom they have to determine the manner in which the duties of their office are to be discharged. This freedom combined with the breadth of experience and tools that attends presidential offices renders remote a return to former positions for many of those in office.

Upon completion of their terms in office, most presidents are contemplating retirement. About an equal number anticipate moving into a parish or teaching appointment.

Second in importance to motivation, the presidential experience is shaped by the perspectives by which theological education as an enterprise is viewed. Whether these are the products or the source of the experience is hard to determine. owever, at least three viewpoints figure prominently in experiential profiles of presidents.

A small minority exercise their responsibilities with a sense that theological education, in the words of one of the presidents, is "in the last days of the empire." At the opposite extreme, an equally small minority are free of any illusion of a past golden age by which the present should be measured. These conduct the affairs of their offices with a conviction

that institutional forms must be recreated in every age and that the accomplishment of this end is the major goal of their leadership. These are the visionaries of the profession, and not surprisingly they are the most positive and confident of the future. Between these two are the majority of presidential leaders whose focus is on their institutions and who have steadfast confidence in their viability. While many are bound by the demands of their institutional contexts, they seek direction from revised formulations of institutional purposes and mission rather than inclusive visions of the enterprise and institutional futures.

Regardless of perspective, orientation, or institutional predicament, presidents share similar anxieties. Financial resources, student enrollments, and church relations are their greatest concerns. No doubt these have always been sources of anxiety for theological educators. However, these apprehensions are increased by a growing sense that all of these, in the final analysis, are subject to realities and forces beyond their control. In this situation, the maintenance of confidence and morale may be one of the more critical tests of leadership.

Presidents express considerable confidence in their administrative skills and abilities. They base their claims on prior experience, on-the-job training, and the support provided by administrative colleagues. How substantial these competencies really are is difficult to determine. The extent of this claim is remarkable and may reflect, in part, efforts made throughout the 1980s to strengthen management skills of theological school administrators. It may also represent a changing perception of the skills required of executive leadership. As presidents focus themselves on strategic roles and issues, the requisites for effective service may be shifting from management skills to arts of leadership. The experience of presidents provides very real support for such a change.

IV. CONCLUSIONS AND REFLECTIONS

We began with the question: Is there a crisis of presidential leadership in theological education? The evidence leads to a positive and negative answer. Presidents are a breed apart, made so either by special endowments or by experience in office. Their capacity for ambiguity, conflict, incessant and diverse demands, and hard work is extraordinary by any standard. Few seek their position, and many accept them with reluctance. Yet they invest themselves in their work with devotion, commitment and unqualified belief in the value and purpose of their institutions. Although no attempt was made to assess presidential effectiveness, there is no doubt but that theological schools are well served by this quite remarkable leadership.

But there are very substantial issues of leadership that if unresolved will threaten the well being o theological education. Some of these need to be addressed by the presidents themselves, others by the academic community, and still others by governing boards. The focus for such a shared agenda should be the question: In what ways and by what means can presidential leadership of theological schools be "more wisely chosen, more securely supported and hence more quietly effective?"

In response to this question, five sets of issues need to be addressed.

THE VOCATION OF PRESIDENTIAL LEADERSHIP

The diversity of presidential roles is less the product of intentional design than of institutional situations and the considerable ambiguities that surround the office. The profession as a whole suffers from the absence of a clear conceptualization of the defining nature and primary roles of presidential leadership.

To pose this issue is not to suggest the search for a single or normative model of presidential leadership. Effective leadership is, indeed, institutional specific, and no single form will suffice. However, throughout this study, it was evident that those who conduct their office with the greatest confidence and identifiable accomplishments possess the clearest conception of their roles and reasons for them. In most cases, this clarity came after deliberate effort and considerable experience in office. The road to this advantage should be shortened. Meeting the following needs would contribute to achieving this end.

1. *Theological education needs a more positive and firmly established conception of presidential leadership as a vocation.* The point is not primarily the ambiguity with which the academic community views administrative officers. More specifically, in many sectors of theological education, presidential leadership is not conceived as a mission with intrinsic significance, rationale or coherent structure. The profession as a whole offers few, if any, career patterns for such leadership both during and after the years in office. The absence of these conditions renders this type of leadership problematic, especially for younger candidates.

2. *Presidential leadership needs to focus on executive roles and functions.* This proposal lends itself to widespread controversy throughout the profession. Its purpose is not to suppress much needed discussion and debate but to emphasize the elements of leadership that are required of our times. On the basis of this study, it is clear that institutional predicaments require leadership marked by clear visions of future goals, the capacity to project these visions with power, and the ability to translate these visions into institutional realities. These are not the only forms of leadership needed by theological schools. They are, however, critically important for the future welfare of theological education.

3. *Presidents need to be clear about their commitment to the presidential office and its implication for their professional life.* In theological schools, the presidential office carries considerable authority. However, presidential leadership can be nhanced by the additional authority derived from expert knowledge and competence that undergirds executive functions. Presidents who master the literature and theoretical underpinnings of executive leadership and who become recognized authorities on theological education and its institutionalization find their leadership authenticated within the institution and profession as a whole.

As the data indicate, most presidents bring to their offices academic and pastoral backgrounds. Relatively few undertake the formal study of administration or systematically develop the specialized disciplines and expertise that undergird presidential leadership as a vocation. Less than five percent have advanced degrees in management or related areas. Twenty six percent of the current leadership have attended the ATS Warren Deem Institute for Theological Education Management and five percent the Harvard Institute for Education Management. Much more prevalent is the practice of attending seminars and workshops offered by business schools,

professional and private organizations and other institutions including theological schools. These are of short duration, usually directed to practical skills, and are topical in subject matter; e.g. time management, financial development management techniques, etc.

In general, theological schools have not established general provisions for the professional development of executive leadership. Only 34% of the presidents report that their institutions make budgetary provisions for their professional development, and these range from nominal sums to $2,000 a year. These are usually designated for purposes of continuing education, and the incumbents are free to determine the extent and purpose for which these allocations are used. A smaller number of schools maintain leave provisions for executive leaders, and these are only rarely used for personal or professional development directly related to presidential roles and responsibilities.

Although the practice is both partial and limited in scope, there is no little effort being made to develop the specialized leadership skills that are needed for the presidential office. However, it is important to observe that only a minority of the presidents acknowledge or perhaps accept the proposition that their office imposes expectations to acquire expert authority as theoreticians of theological educations and its institutionalization. Part of the reason for this quite prevalent demurral stems from the shortness of presidential tenures, most of which is consumed by pressing institutional needs and problems. More significant, however, is the failure to recognize that the presidential vocation includes scholarly expectations that are distinctive to the office and that the fulfillment of these can significantly enhance and strengthen executive leadership and the authority by which it is exercised.

Presidential Searches

The conceptual ambiguity of the vocation of presidential leadership has direct consequences for presidential searches. In the absence of clarity of executive roles, searches are all too readily shaped by the interests of search committees rather than institutional needs. This distinction is important especially in the light of the prevalent practice of organizing search committees according to constituency interests. If, as this study has concluded, te executive functions of presidential leadership are increasingly critical, then the search process should be organized and conducted accordingly as "executive searches."[17]

Appointment Provisions

One of the most startling discoveries of this study is the extent to which presidential appointments are made without job descriptions or clearly stated appointment provisions or conditions. Letters of appointment are widely used, but appointment contracts are rare. In more cases than not, these instruments of appointment fail to state explicitly such important provisions as vacations, faculty status, study/leave provisions, expense budgets, or availability of tenure. Even rarer in the appointment process are references to exit procedures or provisions for termination or conclusion of presidential appointments. Yet 90% of those queried strongly affirm the potential value of such provisions. They are of very special significance to younger presidential appointees who are most vulnerable regarding career opportunities for post presidential years. The inclusion of even the most general references to termination arrangements would extend to presidents a much needed degree of security and even more importantly

provide much needed means by which presidential appointments could be planned, ordered and integrated into more coherent patterns of personal and institutional contexts. It would contribute in substantial ways to smoother leadership transitions. In the absence of such provisions, terminations are usually worked out in times of considerable institutional stress, conditions that often heighten disagreement and conflict. Although much of this may be unavoidable given the all too human nature of educational institutions, it can be ameliorated by addressing at the time of appointment the most obvious issues related to exit processes and provisions. It may be that governing boards would be well served to use third party counsel in formulating those elements of appointment arrangements. Beyond this, it is imperative that the use of appointment instruments become standard for the profession, and that these set forth explicitly and in detail all of the conditions of appointment. In the absence of these, theological schools fail seriously in conducting one of the most important business matters of institutional life. In addition, it deprives governing boards of otherwise very effective means of enhancing, supporting, and encouraging presidential leadership.

Presidential compensation does not appear to be a problem. However, there are salary issues that merit the attention of governing boards. By a margin of four to one, presidents are satisfied with their salaries. However, this response is qualified by the judgment that their compensation is appropriate in the light of institutional conditions. When asked whether their office is adequately compensated, 66% believe it to be inadequate. This finding may have greater significance for future appointments than for present incumbents.

PRESIDENTIAL ACCOUNTABILITY

In keeping with trends throughout higher education, regular formal presidential reviws are generally practiced by theological schools. As indicated above, half of the presidents (49%) consider these reviews very valuable, 46% as moderately valuable, and 6% as being of little value. The reasons for this positive assessment are not clear. A plausible account would be that the reviews serve as important means of clarifying and communicating leadership expectations of governing bodies that otherwise may be obscure and uncertain.

Judging from the experience of presidents, there are two sets of specific problems regarding leadership accountability that are quite prevalent in theological education. First of all, there are those instances in which expectations of presidential leadership do not adequately reflect institutional situations. There is no question but that leadership effectiveness is situational. Institutions provide the setting and to a major extent define the limits within which effective leadership is possible. In many cases, governing boards and candidates for appointment fail to acknowledge and understand the implications of institutional situations for leadership effectiveness. It is far from unusual for presidents to discover severe institutional problems only after beginning their tenures in office, for which they may or may not be prepared.[18] Since institutional needs consume much of the early years of presidential leadership and impose agendas beyond the determination of incumbents, it is essential that these institutional conditions be fully addressed and duly considered in the appointment process.

Another quite common example of the tension between institutional settings and leadership expectations stems from the consensus form of governance that has become normative for theological education. Within this context, leadership is an exercise in consensus and is

carefully circumscribed by the limits of negotiation and adjudication. As indicated above, it is a setting within which the authority of presidents is substantially qualified and which must be exercised within an intricate, horizonal pattern of authority. Yet, presidents are often held accountable as though they are able to govern unilaterally as is possible within hierarchical structures of authority.

Every discrepancy between institutional situations and leadership expectations poses substantial problems of accountability and adversely effects the presidential experience. If the foregoing analysis implies an excess of expectations, the opposite situation also threatens effective leadership. There are ways in which presidential leadership is not sufficiently monitored. The clearest examples are those in which presidents are permitted to operate for extended periods of time with serious budget deficits. This situation can be encouraged by the existence of substantial endowments that may work to insulate boards from timely and difficult decisions that carefully ensure the balancing of current and future institutional needs. These are times beset by the temptation to too easily invade endowment principle as the means of resolving pressing or immediately impending financial difficulties. In other instances, there is unjustifiable tolerance for the absence of sound planning and strategic objectives. Still others are permitted to expand institutional programs and ventures with but modest justification and rationale. In all too many cases, the criteria by which the quality of leadership is evaluated and enhanced are rarely explicit, operationally clear, or rigorously implemented.

Presidential accountability touches on many issues of appointment and the criteria by which candidates are selected. But even more so, it involves ways whereby governing boards can monitor, support, and reinforce the effectiveness of executive leadership. Both sets of issues are significant. Of the two, there is clear evidence that theological education is in greatest need of new provisions for enhancing presidential leadership in ways that will nurture and sustain the clarity of board-presidential directives for their institutions.

LENGTH OF PRESIDENTIAL TENURES

As the study has concluded, there are growing needs and expectations of executive leadership throughout the community of theological schools. If this is indeed the case, then it follows that longer rather than shorter tenures of executive leadership will better serve the well being of theological schools.

There are several arguments that can be made in support of longer presidential tenures. The search for permanent assets as distinguished from operating and annual funds, the strategic roles of presidents in planning institutional futures, the long range need for consolidation of recent changes in theological education, the task of building a new consensus concerning the nature, purpose and presuppositions of theological education are but a few of the reasons supporting longer leadership tenures.

It is important to understand the forces and conditions that affect the length of presidential terms. Some stem from search processes and the types of persons appointed, and others are rooted in the adequacy of the provisions that are made to support incumbents in office. Equally important are the dynamics by which tenures are determined.

There are three tenure scenarios that are currently in effect.

1. Term appointments are generally operative in university settings and Roman Catholic seminaries. In the former, two five-year terms are the norm, the length of which is determined more by tradition than statute. Term appointments are standard for Roman Catholic schools, but neither practice nor legislation has established the number of terms that are served normally.

2. A second system in operation is that of indefinite term appointments, the length of which is incumbent determined. This arrangement is most characteristic of theological schools. Presidents serve at the pleasure of their governing boards and generally do so with the confidence that they are free to determine the length of their presidency. It is not known whether this confidence is rooted in effectiveness of leadership or an attitude that is often considered appropriate to seminaries. In this setting, the length of presidential tenures is determined by personal or professional considerations that are individual specific. Health, executive burn out, and retirement are among the major determinants of presidential terms.

3. The third scenario consists of indefinite appointments, the length of which are board determined. Although the structure of this system does not differ from the foregoing, in this instance the determination of length in office is initiated by the governing board. The manner in which this initiative is exercised and the conditions that influence it have profound implications for presidential tenures. Boards that undergo changes of composition or orientation, especially when precipitated by theological or ideological conflicts within church constituencies, are unable to provide the stable basis that is needed for long-range leadership. At the opposite extreme, well-established boards may become reluctant to act in timely fashion when confronted by mounting evidence of the need for leadership changes.

In Roman Catholic settings, in addition to the relative absence of established patterns of executive leadership vocations, tenures tend to be shortened by another set of dynamics. Decisions by ordinaries and provincials regarding presidents and rectors approaching the end of their terms tend to be made or disclosed late in the appointment process. Among other consequences, this practice has the effect of further shortening otherwise relatively short careers of executive leaders by lengthening the lame duck period. Without the authorization and confidence of reappointment, incumbents are reluctant to project and undertake new initiatives and long-range plans that may set institutional programs beyond their tenures.

The lengthening of presidential tenures will require new and different arrangements and provisions for each of the three institutional settings and tenure scenarios. These will come about only if the problem receives the focused attention of incumbents, governing boards and the academic community as a whole. This study found little evidence that such an examination is underway. There are, however, compelling reasons for recommending that the profession commit itself to doing so. These are times when all parties engaged in the governance of theological education are called to consider and advance the effectiveness of presidential leadership. The outcome of this challenge will affect in no small measure the length of presidential tenures and their consequences for the future of theological schools.

ENDNOTES

1. Peter Drucker distinguishes between effectiveness as doing the right thing and efficiency as doing things right. Others distinguish between effectiveness as functions of vision and judgment and efficiency as activities of mastering routines. Both are required of todays administrator. James L. Fisher, Martha W. Tack, and Karen J. Wheeler, *The Effective College President* (New York: American Council on Education; MacMillan Publishing Company, 1988), 4.

2. James L. Fisher, *The Power of the Presidency* (New York: American Council on Education; MacMillan Publishing Company, 1984), 15-16.

3. Fisher, Tack and Wheeler, 99-100.

4. Leon Pacala, "Reflection on the State of Theological Education, *"Theological Education XVIII,* no 1 (Autumn, 1981), 10-13.

5. David Reisman, "Observations." in *The Many Lives of Academic Presidents*, ed. Clark Kerr and Marian L. Gade (Association of Governing Boards, 1986), xvii.

6. See Chapter II, Kerr and Gade.

7. Data are based on a questionnaire sent in September 991 to 209 chief executive officers of ATS-related schools. One hundred and sixty-one responses were received and 158 validated replies were used, representing a 75% response rate and sample. I am indebted to Dr. David Roozen of Hartford Seminary for the tabulation and analysis of the data.

8. One can only speculate about the roots of this tendency. The nature and limits of candidate pools, presidential roles as integrators of seminary communities, and defining institutional cultures are, no doubt, significant factors. More important is the role that faculty interests play in presidential appointments. Theological schools may not differ essentially in the extent to which faculty concerns are major determinants of these appointments.

9. See Chapter II, Kerr and Gade.

10. Pacala, 11.

11. Benezet, Katz, Magnusson, *Style and Substance*, (American Council on Education, 1981), 42. Quoted by Kerr and Gade, 70.

12. *Fact Book on Theological Education*, 1990-91, ATS, 86.

13. Jackson W. Carroll, "Project Transition: An Assessment of ATS Programs and Services," *Theological Education XVIII*, no 1 (Autumn 1981), 112-114.

14. Harold W. Dodds, *The Academic President: Educator or Caretaker* (New York: McGraw/Hill Book Co., 1962), 60-61.

15. Kerr and Gade, 137.

16. Fisher, 39.

17. I am indebted to Barbara Wheeler, President, Auburn Seminary, for this characterization of presidential searches.

18. A president reports: "I was personally caught off guard when two hours before my first Board meeting, the financial managers of our endowment informed me that we could anticipate a quarter million dollar shortfall this year... During the fall I talked with a number of Board members only to discover that many were not aware of the schools dire financial condition." This is an extreme but not an isolated example.

A RETROSPECTIVE STUDY OF THE INSTITUTE FOR 39 THEOLOGICAL EDUCATION MANAGEMENT

William L. Baumgaertner

The Institute for Theological Education Management (ITEM) established in 1981 by The Association of Theological Schools (ATS) principally for chief executive officers and for some others involved at the policy level of administration was named the Warren Deem Institute. It was given this title to perpetuate the memory of Warren H. Deem (1928-1978), a Presbyterian elder, who had spent a major portion of his life as a business man and as a public member of the Executive Committee of the ATS. The first management consultant to work extensively with theological seminaries, he was dedicated in a singular way to increasing the effectiveness of these institutions. This study of ITEM will attempt to set the program in the context of the long-standing commitment of ATS to offering programs in support of theological school management. It is within that historical context that the Advisory Committee on Theological Education Management (ACTEM), appointed by the ATS Executive Committee, has undertaken the current project of reviewing the seven sessions of ITEM (1982- 1990) to determine what we have learned from them and to work from that base to projections for another generation of programs. These may include the elements of ITEM in whole or in part, although with adaptations in the format as may appear fitting.

The ATS began in 1918 as a conference of theological schools meeting biennially to address problems growing out of World War I and the particular situation of the churches' needs for ministry. In 1936 it became an association, adopted standards for judging quality, and in 1938 established a list of accredited schools. In 1956 it incorporated and secured full-time staff and offices in Dayton, Ohio to promote its concerns. Although the wording has been refined from time to time, the original purposes of ATS remain as stated today in the ATS Constitution, Article III, Purposes. They include the following: "(1) To provide a continuing forum and entity for its members to confer concerning matters of common interest in the area of theological education; (2) to consider issues that may arise to the relations of such institutions to one another, to other educational institutions or associations, or to ecclesiastical or governmental authorities; (3) to establish standards of theological education and to maintain a list of institutions accredited on the basis of such standards; (4) in general without limitations as to the foregoing, to promote the improvement of theological education in such ways as it may deem appropriate." The third purpose was added in 1936 to accommodate accreditation as the means for supporting and monitoring the quality of degree programs. The range of programs sponsored, however, by the Association had begun to evolve and expand by the late 1950s with a rapid period of growth during the two succeeding decades. The opening for this evolution was the fourth purpose: "To promote the improvement of theological education." The full range of that expansion is reflected in the Long-Range Plan of the association, initiated in 1978 and updated at succeeding biennial, meetings.2 The priorities and goals as described include not only accreditation and the providing of a public forum for corporate reflection but also a broad range of service programs many of which have been generously funded by foundation grants. Of growing importance since the mid 1970s have been programs in support of theological education management. The need for them became clear to Dr. Jesse Ziegler, executive director, during his conferences with executive officers in the late 1960s and early 1970s who were "caught in the midst of criticism by churches, pressure from students, and oftentimes a reduction of power to accomplish things, contributed to by both faculty and students."3 These early programs grew out of an informal assessment of needs which led the association

to a more formal search to determine major needs, to design and seek funding to support such programs, and to evaluate their effectiveness. The sponsoring and evaluation of theological education management programs have been in the ATS Long-Range Plan since 1978.

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVES - 1960-1980

In the late 1950s an informal alliance was formed among persons who were at a middle management level, not chief executives or chief academic officers. They usually met on an "ad hoc" basis either immediately before or during the biennial meetings of the ATS. They sought to provide a professional identity for such personnel and to offer opportunities for development of skills. In the 1960s they adopted the official name of American Association of Seminary Staff Off~icers (AASSO). This group met biennially for over a decade sponsoring workshops at their three-day meetings usually in connection with the biennial meetings of the ATS for a variety of middle management officers. The seventh and last meeting was held in 1970 at which time they ceded to the Seminary Management Association (SMA) which undertook to sponsor programs on a broader base to include as well both academic officers and chief executive officers. The time had arrived to create a stronger end more formal association of management personnel. The change in name reflected growth in the understanding of the roles of these staff Off~icers and of the importance of their relationship to effective education programs. During the 1970s the SMA regularly sponsored a reception and presentation in conjunction with the ATS biennial meetings. In addition, in alternate years it sponsored workshops, seminars and institutes for a broad range of personnel. Three studies of managing, planning, and financing seminaries were conducted by SMA members in 1973-1974 with grant support from ATS. In addition, interviews with SMA personnel and selected ATS staff provided data for codifying certain concerns and needs of seminary personnel who carried administrative and management responsibilities. During 1973 SMA moved to establish closer working relationships with The Association of Theological Schools. The codification of needs of seminary personnel which resulted from the SMA surveys led to the recommendation by SMA that ATS create a Commission on Institutional Administration and Management (CIAM) to serve as an "avenue of communication, counsel, and opportunity for growth in the field of administration", while SMA continued to give primary attention to the "development of the professional identity of managers and function as a platform for the prophetic voices in the educational management field". Such a commission was established by ATS in 1974 and with the help of a grant from the Lilly Endowment, the Commission offered one or more workshops each year for a broad range of administrative officers.. SMA played an integral cooperative roll with CIAM during the late 1970s. The inability of SMA to obtain federal tax-exempt status in the mid 1970s restricted its access to outside funding and limited the scope of its offerings. The SMA continued as a more loosely constituted professional organization, giving way in the early 1980s to the ATS Advisory Committee on Theological Education Management which had received a specific mandate from the ATS member schools together with significant foundation funding for a series of new programs.

The efforts of the new Commission (CIAM) led the ATS and its director, Dr. Jesse Ziegler, to sponsor a series of four workshops in succeeding years for chief executive officers. These were held in 1976, 1977,1979 and 1981. They were attended by 104 chief executive officers

with an average of 26 at each session. The first two meetings were convened for three days and the latter for two days. Directors of the first meetings were Dr. Gustave Rath of Northwestern University, Dr. Norman Shawchuk, a professional consultant/trainer, and Dr. William R. Smith of Texas A&M University. These workshops focused on management and leadership styles, organization, and planning. Several experienced theological school presidents were invited to attend and to interact with the more recently appointed presidents. The new Commission also sponsored a series of workshops for middle management personnel in 1977, 1978, and 1980. It likewise sponsored the first workshops specifically for academic deans in 1979 entitled "The Personal and Professional Development of Deans." In 1978 the CIAM which had limited itself to shorter term programs was terminated for budgetary reasons.

This initiative for sponsoring shorter-term workshops for management personnel was continued curing the 1980s under the direction of the new director, Dr. Leon Pacala, again with the help of generous grants from Lilly Endowment. They included programs for middle-management personnel, for academic deans, for development directors, for chief executive officers, and for strategic planning. They also included programs for study and research on issues affecting management of theological institutions.

In addition to these programs, ATS with the encouragement of the president of the Andrew Mellon Foundation, initiated in 1969-70 the publication of an annual *Fact Book on Theological Education,* a compilation of statistical information on enrollment, faculty, and finances in support of short-term and long-range planning by seminary administrators.

GENESIS OF THE INSTITUTE FOR
THEOLOGICAL EDUCATION MANAGEMENT

Surveys conducted by SMA in the early 1970s brought to attention the need experienced by many seminary chief executive officers for a more extensive and comprehensive program to address their special needs. The limitations placed on SMA made it too difficult for that organization to respond to this need. Moreover, the more recently organized ATS Commission on Institutional Administration and Management (CIAM) had restricted itself to sponsoring shorter workshops.

The subject surfaced again in 1975 at an informal meeting of several seminary administrators with Robert Lynn, vice president for religion, of Lilly Endowment, in Indianapolis to discuss the most pressing needs of seminaries. Dayton Hultgren, president of United Theological Seminary of the Twin Cities (UTS) and active in SMA since 1972, noted as the principle need a program in some depth for management training of seminary administrative officers. Lynn offered to support a study of the need for such a program provided it would document the experience of administrators and their choices of current workshops or institutes together with a description of the range of program options. Hultgren expressed his willingness to staff the study and to have UTS serve as fiscal agent. With the help of Badgett Dillard (Southern Baptist Theological Seminary), Barbara Wheeler (Auburn Theological Seminary), and Tony Ruger (McCormick Theological Seminary), who constituted the Planning Committee, Hultgren proceeded with preliminary research. This culminated in an extensive survey 19801981 of all 137 institutions and individuals which had received ATS Administrative Development Grants between 1975 and 1979. The questionnaire addressed their experience in using the grants, programs they had attended, their usefulness, and their desires for future educational offerings. There was an 80% response. Especially interesting was the estimate of the number of person-days devoted to

use of the grants. Participants reported an average of 13.4 days, with the mode at six days and the median at eight days. The study indicated a willingness of administrative officers spend a longer period for programs designed specifically for them.

The above finding was further supported by two studies conducted in 1980-81 to respond to the question: "What is the current state of theological education?" These studies were part of the transition to new leadership of ATS with the appointment in 1980 of Leon Pacala as executive director. The first study was conducted by Pacala and offered an opportunity for him to discuss in personal interviews the state and the needs of theological education with 124 chief administrators of theological schools in the United States and Canada. One of the more notable conclusions was the need of reinforcing a trend toward longer tenure for chief executives after a decade of considerable administrative mobility. Longer tenure will contribute to stability of leadership and to an ability to address the long-range needs of these institutions. In 1980 the average tenure in office for U.S. theological schools was 5.8 years and for Canadian schools four years. Pacala remarked that the growing complexity of management responsibilities was becoming more determinative of the office rather than the functions of administrative leadership. He concluded that theological schools have a growing need for specialized, more professionally prepared and oriented leadership.

The second study was conducted by Jackson W. Carroll (Hartford Seminary) and was entitled "Project Transition: An Assessment of ATS Programs and Services. "I A major section of the study focused on the evaluation of past and current ATS grant programs and workshops. They were rated in the survey in terms of their helpfulness and their importance for continuation. Of all ATS programs and services, grant programs were rated highest, in particular those for faculty research, for development of curriculum and teaching methods, and for administrative staff development. It is interesting that Roman Catholic schools differed from non-Catholic schools in being less concerned with the continuation of programs primarily for administrators. Interviews with several confirmed that most Catholic administrators do not see themselves becoming professional administrators and look to a return to teaching responsibilities after a few years. A special section of the questionnaire was focused on administration and on a list of topics that might be included in training provided for senior administrators in an Institute for Theological Education Management proposed as one means of meeting these needs. The top three priorities in order of preference were: "Developing an effective faculty and administrative team, including strategies for reward and recognition, morale, and evaluation of performance; strategic planning for the whole school, including survival strategies and analysis of growth potential; developing models of leadership in which administrators and faculty function as teams."fi Included less often among the top priorities were the evaluation of the financial condition of the school, relations to its various constituencies, the environment of theological education, and leadership in managing change and conflict. The pattern of responses made clear, as well, a need for assistance of new chief executives in all the above areas. He concluded that there was evidence both of an interest and of a need for training in management issues by seminary administrators. The endorsement was stronger for short-term workshops on specific topics, although positive and more guarded support was also voiced for a broader institute designed specifically for seminary administrators.

As a result of the initial research by the four-person Planning Committee a grant proposal was submitted to Lilly Endowment by Dayton Hultgren and United Theological Seminary in the name of a consortium of concerned theological schools, representatives of which had

agreed to serve as an integral part of the planning process. The proposal requested funding for a six-month planning phase of the proposed Institute of Theological Education Management. In forceful words it summarized the reason for concern: "There is a crisis ofeadership within theological education today; the pool of management-trained persons from which seminary leadership can be drawn is insufficient, and few opportunities exist for quality training and development of current seminary administrators. The seriousness of the problem is underscored by recent developments in church and society and by a series of dilemmas created by the seminaries themselves."7 It noted that the period of rapid expansion in education and the national economy was coming to an end with a consequent crisis of confidence in institutions including the church. Seminaries themselves were often confused about their institutional purpose, leading them into contradictory approaches to their constituency, sometimes trying to appease, other times leaning toward prophetic leadership. There was an aversion toward any systematic orientation to management. There was little heart to engage the hard work and sophisticated imagination required for securing necessary financial resources.

The proposal listed several approaches. The first was the use of existing graduate programs of administration in schools of education, especially the MBAs. Though such programs offer the most advanced management techniques, they do not address the complexity nor the political intricacy of theological schools. Nor are they geared to schools as small as the average seminary. Another approach is to focus on the institution as a whole by offering the services of consultants in institutional management effectiveness. The expense, however, of participation, both in time and in monies, would be prohibitive for most seminaries. Again, the great diversity of seminaries yields at best a series of groupings and would hamper any common consultative approach. A third approach was the short-term training institute. This could incorporate the team approach and it was in fact the type of program most commonly sought out by seminary administrators. To some extent the Harvard program for its Institute for Education Management could offer a model. Existing programs, however, focused on much larger institutions than the average theological seminary and gaining admission proved difficult for seminary administrators.

After considering these options, the Planning Committee proposed "An Institute (dubbed ITEM) for Theological Education Management which resembled Harvard's: conducted by a major management school in cooperation with professionals in education, for an intensive period during the summer, aimed at imparting general management skills."8

Meanwhile, the Planning Committee with the support of a modest preliminary grant proceeded with several steps. First, it recruited a representative group of ten seminary senior administrators (The Executive Officers Group) committed to developing the ITEM program. Members were the original Planning Committee together with William Baumgaertner (Saint Paul Seminary), Frederick Borsch (Church Divinity School of the Pacific), Lawrence Jones (Howard University School of Religion), William Lesher (Lutheran School of Theology in Chicago), Neely McCarter (Pacific School of Religion), Fred Stair (Union Theological Seminary in Virginia), and Jack Stotts (McCormick Theological Seminary).

The Committee also selected 22 institutions from the *Guide for Leadership Development Opportunities* published by the American Council on Education and investigated their programs through personal interviews with the directors. These included short,

specialized educational conferences as well as longer institutes for school administrators together with other programs for private business or for the nonprofit sector. From these it identified seven potential partners to approach for preliminary conversations. They included: Boston College, Carnegie-Mellon University, Columbia University, Dartmouth College, Harvard University, University of Pennsylvania-Wharton School, and Yale University. Northwestern University and Notre Dame University were added later.

The Committee planned the first meeting of The Executive Officers Group for March 17-18, 1980. The second meeting was scheduled for June 19-20 before the ATS 1980 Biennial Meeting in Denver. It also prepared and circulated the questionnaire cited previously to all of the institutions and individuals which had received ATS Administrative Development Grants between 1975 and 1979 to determine what the recipients studied, which programs they attended, whether their experience was applicable to their work, and what kinds of educational offerings they might like to pursue in the future.

In March of 1980 Lilly Endowment responded to a revised proposal with a grant of $60,000 to be awarded in two stages. The first phase would permit completion of market research and a feasibility study for an ITEM program. The second phase was contingent on a review of progress in arriving at an agreement with a suitable management school as a partner and with a sponsoring agency.

In order to help in evaluating the effectiveness of the seven sessions of ITEM through the succeeding decade, it is important to distill at this stage in the process of development the reasons that the Planning Committee had in mind for selecting the type of program which was proposed. The original designers had in mind a serious and substantive program to call for hard work and commitment from participants and to impart a significant amount of skill and content learning. A residential program with faculty from a graduate level management/educational institution seemed to offer the best chances of serving this goal. Secondly, a "one-industry" program designed specifically for seminaries seemed best because existing programs simply did not address the range of needs of seminaries. Thirdly, directors of existing programs noted the need of a central committed core of faculty who see their participation in the institute as a central part of their professional life. Such a faculty could assure high academic standards together with continuity, stability, and quality. The absence of such a faculty will make the program less coherent and organic and will offer little potential for year-to-year development and improvement. Fourthly, affiliation with the university-based partner will often make available convenient facilities with an academic atmosphere and access to a core faculty. The same directors suggested a minimum of 30 students at a similar professional level. They also affirmed that the program would probably require a financial subsidy for several years to cover design, research, and scholarship assistance costs. They felt that the initial direction could reasonably be expected to carry effectively for up to five years after which the experience should be evaluated for further direction. These conversations likewise revealed a range of subjects which proved to be the common elements of most programs for nonprofit management.

With this the Executive Officers Group continued its conversations with potential partners and with ATS as the preferred co-sponsoring agency by reason of its long standing support of such programs and its access to the theological schools. They opted for such an affiliation,

together with the support of a committee of theological school executives or similar board, as offering the greatest assurance of continuity, quality, and responsiveness to the community of schools.

With the incentive of the March 1980 commitment from Lilly Endowment, the Executive Officers extended an invitation to eight potential partners to submit proposals for such a program. Of these schools three indicated either that they had too many commitments or that they were not ready at that time to assume the responsibility for program design and sponsorship. Five institutions submitted serious proposals: Boston College, Carnegie-Mellon University, Columbia University, Northwestern University and the Wharton School. The Committee in early fall of 1980 narrowed the list to two finalists, namely the Kellogg School of Management of Northwestern University and the Riverside Group of the Institute for Not-for-Profit Management of the Graduate School of Business of Columbia University. After an additional round of interviews with these potential partners, the Committee voted to recommend to ATS and to Lilly Endowment that the partner be the Riverside Group composed of faculty at Columbia under the direction of Dr. Thomas Ference, Director of the Institute for Not-for-Profit Management.

Shortly after the June 1980 ATS Biennial Meeting, Dr. Leon Pacala, newly appointed executive director, agreed to support an affiliation of ITEM with ATS, the level— including liaison, endorsement, co-sponsoring, or full ATS ownership—to be determined by the ATS Executive Committee. Harvey Guthrie, ATS President, thereupon appointed a three-person liaison committee from the Executive Committee. In late fall of 1990, the ITEM Executive Officers Group voted to recommend to the December 1990 meeting of the ATS Executive Committee that it endorse an intensive summer institute such as ITEM; that an Advisory Committee of up to 15 members be named to represent the Executive Committee and the prior ITEM Executive Officers Group; and that ATS participate in the evaluation and review of the project for four years. This was approved with only minor modifications at the December meeting.

The formal recommendation of the Riverside Group of Columbia University as the school partner was made by the ITEM Executive Of icers Group on February 28, 1980. With that determination, a formal proposal was prepared and submitted to Lilly Endowment in April for funding the ITEM program for a period of three years. The proposal requested support for a Program of Theological Education Management (PTEM) of which ITEM would be the key component. Included in the proposal were provisions to sponsor additional workshops and forums on theological education management, continuing education opportunities for graduates of ITEM, and research on emerging issues in theological education management. An Advisory Committee on Theological Education Management (ACTEM) to be appointed in June would assume full responsibility for ITEM as well as the other programs which constituted a comprehensive program of administrative staff development providing a context for ITEM. ACTEM as the coordinating agency would function with the assistance of a Project Coordinator. Since the Advisory Committee would be constituted formally on July 1, 1981, the work of the prior planning groups would be terminated as of that date and all remaining funding would be turned over to ATS to assist with curricular design and planning. A sustaining grant of $ 607,255 was approved for a period of three years with the understanding that the funding agency was willing to support the program for five years. An additional grant of $ 592,245 from Lilly Endowment in 1984 enabled ATS to extend the program to the five years which were originally projected; thus the institute in its original basic format was offered in 1982,1983,1984,1985 and 1986. The character of ITEM was fully determined by the detailed description in the grant proposal. The Riverside Group was

asked to provide the faculty and appropriate facilities, to do curricular planning, background research, field interviews, and case writing as part of program development. The Advisory Committee (ACTEM) was given broad responsibility for supervising the program, for monitoring the developing state of theological management, for conducting research to identify changing needs, and to propose programs to further the quality of leadership. The Advisory Committee would be staffed by the Project Coordinator with support services from ATS staff. It functioned through four subcommittees. An administrative subcommittee to serve as the executive body of the parent committee; an educational policy subcommittee to be responsible for the development of curriculum; a subcommittee on recruitment, admission, and scholarship to handle those aspects of ITEM; and a subcommittee on research and evaluation charged with gathering the necessary data to evaluate the effectiveness of all programs and to plan for the future. Participants would be expected to pay 40% of the instructional, living, and travel expenses. This was the measure throughout the first f ve sessions of ITEM, 1982- 1986. Annual increases in the comprehensive fee for ITEM reflected only the inflation factor and ranged from $ 1900 in 1982 to $2550 in 1986. Also included in the original concept was an Internship Program for developing a pool of managerially aware potential leaders, limited to 10 to 15% of the total enrollment projected between 25 to 35 people per session. They would be chosen principally from chief administrative officers and secondly other officers at a policy-making level. The evaluation of each session was to be made by faculty, by participants, and by a representative of ACTEM with a major review scheduled for after the third year. Four critical steps were taken in July-August 1981 to inaugurate the program. First, the fifteen person Advisory Committee was appointed with Dayton Hultgren as chair, William Baumgaertner as vice-chair, and Tony Ruger as secretary. Secondly, a memorandum of agreement with the Riverside Group was negotiated and approved. Thirdly, Fred Stair, former President of Union Theological Seminary in Virginia, agreed to serve as program coordinator, a position which he filled for the first two years. His was the responsibility to exercise this initiative and leadership to launch the program, to work with ACTEM, to recruit participants, and to participate in evaluation. Fourthly, Barbara Wheeler of Auburn Theological Seminary agreed to serve as program associate to plan a consultation in October 1981,to plan a series of workshops for other administrators, and to participate in evaluation.

A Consultation on Theological Education Management was planned for October 1981 to provide a means for monitoring the changing management *conditions* and *needs* of theological education. Twelve persons who had worked closely with theological education from foundations and other agencies were invited to share their experience with ACTEM. As a result of the meeting it became clear that the internship program for prospective administrators could not be part of ITEM as it was designed. Priorities for recruiting were also established to favor chief executive officers with less than five years in office and then policy-level officers from underrepresented constituencies. And last of all a greater emphasis would be placed on conflict management and personnel evaluation in response to requests from the field. The meeting would be broadly based among people with knowledge of theological education. Another part of the proposal for ITEM was the providing of continuing education opportunities for alumni/ae of ITEM to sustain a network of mutual support. Also included was a provision for supporting workshops during the duration of the program to reflect the changing state and needs of theological school administrators. This

called for national workshops each year. The original focus was clearly on the needs of management training as a condition of exercising leadership, and on strategic planning as the framework for making the decisions required of leaders.

THE DESIGN OF ITEM

The Riverside Group, a consulting group with experience both as teachers of management programs and administrators in higher education, produced a plan for the institute which was approved by ACTEM for a workshop in two sessions, the first of which would be in summer and three weeks long. This session would use as its overall framework the concept of the strategic plan. Subjects which were addressed within that context as important for seminary managers included cost accounting and program budgeting, financial and planning analysis, research, marketing and resource development, personnel administration, relations to the board of trustees and to faculty, the personal development of the chief executive, computer skills, and theological reflection on administration. An integral part of the program was the preparation of a strategic plan in a given area for the participants' own school during the summer session. This was to be worked out with the assistance of a program team and of the staff. The plan would be implemented in the fall of the year as a Practicum and the results were to be shared when the entire group would reconvene for three days in the winter or late fall. At that time the projects, the successes, and the failures would be shared in small groups, each of which included an instructor. The teaching methodology for the summer ses sion varied. It included lectures, case studies especially designed for the institute, the modeling of different approaches to management, and theological reflection on the vocation of leadership. The first session was held at the Taylor Hotel near Westpoint, New York, and succeeding sessions were held at Arden House on the Harriman Estate near the Hudson River north of New York, the Continuing Education Center for Columbia University. The location proved an ideal one for the project, removed from the bustle of a university campus, quiet and comfortable.

THE EXPERIENCE OF ITEM

Because of the success of the initial series of sessions, ITEM was able to plan with the help of modest funds remaining from the original five sessions three additional sessions at two year intervals for 1988, '90 and '92. Only the first two were actually held. It was assumed that the growth of a core of experienced administrators would permit the spacing of the latter sessions. Also, the sessions were shortened from three to two weeks in the summer. Because of the abbreviated time, surgery was necessary and some elements had to be dropped or treated indirectly in relation to other topics. Such were the relation of the chief executive to the governing board and the faculty, the personal development of the chief executive, and theological reflection on administration.

The program profited from efforts to bring together graduates of the program in special sessions scheduled in connection with the ATS Biennial Meetings of 1984, '86 and '88. Graduates were able to share the impact of the Institute on their own administration and to share as well a case study prepared for the occasion.

The program benefitted from the availability of a core faculty most of whom saw the program through almost all the sessions. These included Thomas Ference, director, Fred Putney, Norman Toy, Donald Hambrick, and Maryann Hedaa, assisted by a few others. This continuity allowed for the gradual improvement of the program both in content and in teaching methodology with the help of a carefully designed program of comprehensive

evaluation. The success of these efforts was evident in the participant evaluations and in their strong encouragement of others to attend. In 1983, Edward Ciuba, president of Immaculate Conception Seminary in New Jersey, was added to the faculty for ITEM from ACTEM for the next two years to coordinate theological reflection. Presented as a distinct topic, integration proved far more difficult than anticipated. After reviewing the experience, ACTEM approved the suggestion of the Riverside Group that they integrate the theological aspect with the teaching of each topic. After all, the core faculty had done extensive research in preparation for the sessions, had visited campuses, interviewed personnel, and familiarized themselves with the pattern and goals of theological education. The new approach appeared to work.

There have been 203 participants in the seven sessions of ITEM with an average of 29 at each session. Of these, 45% were chief executive officers, a percentage which ranged from 61% in 1982, the first year, to 26% in 1990, the seventh and last session, with the intervening years between40 and50%. The steep decline in the ast session was indicative of a growing tendency of presidents to send lower level personnel rather than to take time themselves from their responsibilities. The pressure on their time was one factor. Another may well have been a declining emphasis on the role of the trustees in sending the chief executive officer, an important aspect of recruitment in earlier years. Of the other participants, about 20% were academic deans, 10% business officers, 9% development officers, 8% assistants to the president or planning officers, and 6% directors of student affairs with a sprinkling of directors of church agencies for seminaries.

Participants represented 124 separate member schools, almost 60% of ATS schools, and six church agencies. Two or more representatives were sent by 47 schools, an indication that the concept of administrative teams was taking hold. The survey of seminary presidents in 1991 by Leon Pacala indicated that about 26% had attended ITEM, no small contribution to the quality of leadership.

The comprehensive fee for the ITEM program advanced for the first five sessions only by an inflation factor on the average of 7% per year. The understanding for the latter sessions after the initial five was that the program should move gradually from subsidizing all but 40% of costs to the stage of self-sufficiency. This was done in three steps with an increase of fees to cover 55% of costs in 1988, to 80% in 1990 and to 100% of costs ($6050) in 1992. Despite intensive personal recruiting efforts by ACTEM for the 1992 session, the minimum number could not be met and the session was cancelled. Of the several reasons which contributed to this, the chief was obviously the high cost cited by the majority of people interviewed in the process of recruitment. Second was the growing difficulty of making room in an ever more demanding schedule for the time required for an extended session. Interest still ran high, but the requests were for shorter units, possibly in sequence, to address the same areas.

Further analysis of ITEM reveals that participation by mainline Protestant and by Roman Catholic institutions was higher by 6 and 5 percentage points respectively than their representation in ATS. Participation by Evangelical denominational schools was almost 9 percentage points lower than their ATS membership. One factor proper to the Roman Catholic schools was the obviously higher turnover ratio in executive officers. Average tenure was only 5.3 years, more than one year below their average Protestant counterparts.

ACTEM met regularly twice a year in February and October throughout the decade with a heavy agenda for every meeting. The original commitment of the members was for five years through the 1986 (5th) session of ITEM, no matter what happened in their calling. The purpose and existence of ACTEM have been reaffirmed regularly at succeeding ATS Biennial Meetings including 1992. It continues to serve its original function, conducting at present an extensive review of the management programs together with the preparation of recommendations for the next decade. The genius of the original design for a comprehensive program for management training has been more than confirmed over the years. Except for programs for development officers which have been separately organized and funded in the Development and Institutional Advancement Program (DIAP), the other workshops have profited from the common firm direction of ACTEM. They have often borrowed personnel and program units from each other, adapting them to the particular needs of a group or situation.

The comprehensive program under ACTEM included four middle management national workshops sponsored in 1983, 1984, 1985 and 1986. These were staffed by James Stoner of the Fordham University School of Management who also served on the ITEM faculty or by Carl Robertson, lecturer at the School of Management of Northwestern University. These workshops targeted different groups: faculty who are at the same time part-time administrators, recruitment, and admissions officers, business officers, and others. Two workshops were sponsored specifically for academic deans in 1987 and 1991. They addressed their responsibility for enhancing faculty scholarship and research and the need of planning to build theological faculties of the future.

The comprehensive program profited as well from the continuing responsibility for research and evaluation vested in an active subcommittee of ACTEM which gave firm direction to the evaluation of all programs. In October 1985, this Committee sponsored a second Consultation on Theological Education Management to which were invited ITEM graduates, foundation officers, and other consultants. ACTEM attempted again to discern the state of theological education management and its changing needs it became clear that new issues were surfacing.

In 1988-1989 ACTEM provided limited grants to 17 seminaries for strategic planning. In November 1991 and again in 1992, ACTEM sponsored a two-day and a three-day Consultation for New Chief Executive Officers in their first, second, or third year of tenure. Enrollment was limited to assure interaction among the participants and with the six or seven senior ATS administrators who made presentations and led the discussions on-key areas of management and leadership. Each of the two sessions hosted 22 new presidents. Response was very positive and encouraging for future offerings.

A growing concern toward the end of the decade was a tendency to look on ITEM as an exercise in institutional strategic planning and to lose sight of its importance as a style of administrative leadership and management in complex and rapidly changing times. There was a growing need to focus on the quality of leadership needed to manage effectively resources for the mission of the school. With the risk of losing their vision, seminaries would rapidly become marginalized in the world of higher education. There would be little sense of the contribution which was rightly their part. The responsibility for preparing senior administrative personnel continues to be a serious one which requires all the expertise now available to us from the supporting disciplines.

The Riverside Group for its part shared their broader experience of trends in training programs within the not-for-profit as well as the corporate sector. A greater concern for

identifying qualities of excellence in leadership was being voiced. Management skills were a condition for this, but were not sufficient by themselves. The identity and self-concept of the chief executive were being shaped by new expectations in the constituency both of church and of higher education. These shifts ran counter to the instincts of many who were coming to top administrative positions in seminaries especially from pastoral appointments. Often acquiescence from a pure sense of duty left little satisfaction from the experience of institutional leadership.

The experience of the 1980s fully validated the decision of the original Executive*e Officer Group to recommend the Riverside Group even though the costs were significantly higher than several of the other programs. Their willingness to engage in original research and case writing on behalf of ITEM and their tailoring of management education as "tools in the service of values" were evidence of their interest in theological education. They also offered extensive consulting services to participants. Some of the other schools were content to use "off-the-shelf" management curricula, thereby assimilating theological education to other industries. The full richness and potential for progressive development and improvement were not evident in such programs.

EVALUATION OF ITEM

Several surveys had been conducted in preparation for ITEM to discover the needs of the chief executives as well as their disposition toward a range of program options. Care was likewise taken to design a thorough process of internal and external evaluation of ITEM. The Riverside Group would itself take responsibility for assessing each topical unit of ITEM and for summarizing the feedback questionnaires. The Research and Evaluation Committee of ACTEM, staffed by Barbara Wheeler, would prepare two questionnaires to be administered at the end of each summer session and at the late fall follow-up session to solicit participants' reaction to ITEM together with ideas on emerging issues. ACTEM would also be involved in another way through one of its own representatives who would conduct an informal on-site evaluation toward the end of the summer session.

A summative evaluation of ITEM was scheduled after the first three sessions to be conducted by Michael Rion. Another evaluation of graduates of the first five sessions was conducted in 1987 by Barbara Wheeler.

Participants responded seriously to the questionnaires distributed at both the summer and the trailer sessions. Questions focused on the content, teaching methods, impact, learning environment, and future needs. Overall, comments reflected constructive criticism of a very positive group. The first session in 1982 yielded a higher number of critical responses bearing on teaching methodology, tight schedule, inadequate time to complete the project, and needless repetition. The Riverside Group responded positively in designing the 1983 session, so much so that the response of our participants was enthusiastic. Over the five years, the Riverside Group had developed a format for ITEM which worked exceptionally well. Case studies were presented with adequate time for reflection. There was time for peer discussion and for consultation with the faculty. Although there was some unevenness in the teaching, there was also significant improvement year-by-year. The sole exception was that the difficulties of the first session reappeared in the abbreviated session of 1988. Adjustments were again made so that the 1990 session received strong positive response. Without question, the Institute met its goals with reference to strategic planning.

On November 30, 1984, Michael Rion submitted his *Evaluation Report on ITEM,* based on the first three years of the program. Its purpose was: a) to help assess the impact of ITEM on individual institutions and b) to learn more about the weaknesses, strengths, and distinctive features of leadership in theological education. The research supports the positive impressions of ITEM received from formative evaluations of each of the sessions. Typical reactions of the impact of ITEM were: 1) Conversion to a new concept of the role of the chief executive; b) Acquisition of planning and management tools; 3) Opportunity for collegiality and reflection. This study revealed interesting attitudes regarding role performance. The roles of Administrator, the one who coordinates resources, and of Judge as one who makes the tough decisions were identified by all as most important; the roles of Administrator and Teacher-Theologian were noted as most enjoyed; those of Judge, Ceremonial Representative, and Fund Raiser were perceived as least enjoyed. Nineteen roles were tested. Respondents reported that they were strengthened in their professional identity by experience in office and comfortable in making decisions. In the survey, participants in ITEM were compared with a random sample of non-participant chief executives. The principle impact on the individual was in the area of planning and financial management, both targeted by the Riverside Group. Many of the findings of this survey can be compared profitably to those of Leon Pacala's extensive study reported in this issue of *Theological Education.* They offer an excellent base line for tracking changes in the concept of seminary management and the impact of supportive educational programs. Suggestions for future workshops or consultants gave highest ranking to "learning from the wisdom of experienced seminary administrators," an approach which was used successfully in the 1990 and 1991 Consultations for New Chief Executive Of icers. The Rion survey examined with great sensitivity the ambivalence of the approach of many presidents to managements leadership roles. The best of current management theory belies the myth of the tough, insensitive bottom line executive approach and begins with values and vision. The success of ITEM middle management programs and consultations offers a basis for projecting a new balance for the next generation of programs, in particular in light of the greater sophistication of personnel in support management positions and the greater variety of programs now being developed.

Barbara Wheeler sent an extensive questionnaire in 1987 to the 149 graduates of the five annual Institutes. Respondents were asked what plans they had made at ITEM and the extent to which these plans have been implemented. They were also asked about what programs or other resources would help them further in implementation or in meeting other management needs. Most reported that they had left ITEM with some project in strategic planning or for the reform of financial operations and had experienced at least some measure of success in implementing it. They expressed interest in several forms of continuing education e.g., "substantive refresher events," a consultant available to their ITEM project groups, Management retreat" with time for study and reflection with a peer group. The training of senior management teams was another focus together with a desire for topical workshops on financial or personnel matters. There was a definite desire to meet with peers outside one's own institution and to develop a team within the institution to coordinate strategy planning. The results of the survey indicate that ITEM was indeed meeting the goals set for itself.

Of particular interest is a report on ACTEM prepared by Dayton Hultgren, chair, for the 1986 ATS Biennial Meeting.9 It includes a brief review of PTEM together with a summary of the major observations of two researchers, namely, Michael Rion and Barbara Wheeler,

on the state of theological education and management especially in light of the 1985 consultation. These schools have moved a long way from the crisis situation affecting many seminaries in 1981. Although there has been a decided improvement in management capacity and sophistication in a substantial number of the schools, seminaries are by nature unusually vulnerable institutions with high fixed costs and high variable costs. They sail best on a calm sea. There is a growing awareness of the need of understanding better the environmental factors which will affect their future.

Comments in this report are grouped first under *Emerging Needs of Theological Institutions;* secondly, *Present and Emerging Needs of Managers;* and thirdly, *Recommendations to ATS.* This is an excellent report especially in the direction it suggests for ATS. In summary:

- Management programs should be continued under the aegis of ATS and the function of ACTEM should be continued.

- The primary goal should be to sustain and build the commitment to strategic planning, which the Riverside Group sees as legitimating the chief executive's right to lead strongly even while encouraging wide participation.

- Management programs should develop expertise in depth and breadth, especially for management teams.

- Information needs for seminaries should be studied.

- Provision should be made for training middle level staff.

- The failure to integrate management themes and theological reflection in ITEM sessions should be pursued in future planning.

- Seminaries should be encouraged to commit resources of their own on a regular basis to professional development of staff with less dependence on subsidies.

CONCLUSION

The graduates of ITEM who received their certificate of completion can look with pride to their peers with whom they shared an invaluable experience. Theological schools in the U.S. and Canada have profited immensely in ways that can be documented from the experience of ITEM.

ATS has learned much about the importance of its role in fostering a high quality of leadership to insure not only the viability of member schools but more so the quality of their programs in response to their stated mission.

ENDNOTES

[1.] *ATS Bulletin 39,* Part 1 (1990).

[2] *ATS Bulletin 39,* Part 8 (1990).

[3.] Jesse H. Ziegler, *ATS Through Two Decades 1960-1980* (Dayton, OH: By ATS, 1984), 41.

[4.] Pacala, Leon, *Theological Education* XVIII:1 (Autumn 1981) 9-44.

[5.] Carroll, Jackson, Project Transition: An assessment of ATS Programs and Services," *Theological Education* XVIII:1 (Autumn 1981) 46-165.

[6.] Ibid., 132.

[7.] United Theological Seminary of the Twin Cities, Grant Proposal to Lilly Endowment, October 5, 1980.

[8.] Ibid.

[9.] *ATS Bulletin 37,* Part 6 (1986) 88-100.

WALKING THE NARROW PATH:
FEMALE ADMINISTRATORS IN ATS SCHOOLS

Barbara Brown Zikmund

The 211 accredited and non-accredited institutions of the Association of Theological Schools in the United States and Canada listed in the 1991 ATS directory show twenty-one women serving either as a president or a chief academic officer (Dean or Vice President for Academic Affairs, etc.) of a member school. Six of these are presidents or chief executive officers, with four of the six serving accredited institutions and two serving associate institutions. Among the accredited schools: one woman serves as the chief executive of a university related school, two women began their presidencies of free standing seminaries in 1990, and a fourth female president was appointed in 1991. Top female leadership in theological education is *very* recent.

In addition to the six chief executives, fifteen women presently serve as academic deans or academic vice presidents in ATS schools. Fourteen work in accredited schools and one serves an associate institution.

Taken together, these twenty-one women comprise approximately 10% of the administrative leadership in ATS schools. Female enrollments in ATS schools stand around 25%. It is clear, therefore, that women are under-represented in the major leadership and decision making positions in theological education. As enrollments of women students in theological education increase, which is quite likely, there is a growing urgency for the numbers of women faculty and female senior administrators to keep pace.

The twenty-one women administrators currently working in ATS schools can be grouped as follows:
- 5 serve at Roman Catholic institutions,
- 4 serve in interdenominational institutions,
- 2 each serve in UCC, UMC and Evangelical schools, and
- 1 each serves in an American Baptist, Episcopal, Mennonite, Presbyterian, Swedenborgian and Unitarian-Universalist school.

The ATS annual directory only lists the chief executive officer and the chief academic officer. No doubt there are other women in key administrative roles in some of the larger Southern Baptist and independent Evangelical schools. It is still clear, however, "There are not enough women with major administrative portfolios in theological education."

My mandate in this research project was to explore issues related to the special needs of women in leadership positions in theological schools in the nineties. I asked, How has ATS supported women in leadership during the past decade? What learnings related to women's experience and needs ought to inform the ATS Advisory Committee on Theological Education Management in its future work?

In 1975 poet Adrienne Rich wrote a now classic piece entitled, "Toward a Woman Centered University." In that important article, Rich insisted that there were two ways in which "a woman's integrity is likely to be undermined" by the process of higher education. First the con*tent* of her education will show her that all formal schooling obscures or devalues the history and experience of women as a group. And second, the con*text* of her education will assume an unchanging hierarchical image, structure of relationships, even style of discourse,

involving assumptions about theory and practice, ends and means, process and goal—which uses women as *means* to the end of male work. She writes, "The hidden assumptions on which the university is built comprise more than simply a class system. In a curious and insidious way the 'work' of a few men—especially in the more scholarly and prestigious institutions—becomes a sacred value in whose name emotional and economic exploitation of women is taken for granted."[1]

A little over ten years later I wrote an article about my experience in theological education using very similar words. I pointed out how the well-being of academic women was often sabotaged by an unhealthy educational environment filled with hidden traps likely to ensnare female faculty and administrators. In spite of the fact that women administrators are very effective at balancing the multiple obligations of their complex jobs, male colleagues continue to resent women who have power "over them." Male faculty want female administrators to be available, to be "at home," ready to tend to their needs. Even other male administrative colleagues make unrealistic demands upon female administrators, in order to protect them from anticipated criticism. It is important, I concluded, that women faculty and administrators understand these predictable patterns which continually place women at a disadvantage. When we know them for what they are, only then will female leaders be able to escape from their control.[2]

As I have lived and worked with higher education in general, and theological education in particular, I find that seminaries not only suffer from a desire to emulate the university, they also draw heavily upon the patriarchal legacy of Christian and Jewish tradition. In spite of an egalitarian theology rooted in the conviction that we are all creatures of a common Creator God, the habits of theological education remain highly patriarchal. Life for women in our theological schools (as students, as faculty, as administrators, and even as the president) continues to confront some very troublesome realities.

Since becoming a president myself several years ago, I have wrestled personally with the question of women's leadership. Does it have unique problems? Does it wield power differently? Am I changing the presidential role, or is it changing me? What happens to women when they become administrators in our theological schools?

A recent study done by Judy Rosener examines some of these questions in the business world. She reports that her sample of women leaders in business felt that their leadership did not follow male patterns. They said that they rejected the so-called "command-and-control" style of managing others, and that they intentionally drew upon the "skills and attitudes they developed from their shared experience as women."

Rosener found that when men were asked to describe the ways in which they influenced those with whom they worked, men were more likely than women to describe themselves as engaged in what some management experts call "transactional" leadership. That is, they worked through a series of transactions with subordinates—exchanging rewards for services rendered, or punishment for inadequate performance. The men were also more likely to depend upon the power of position or formal authority in doing their jobs. Women, on the other hand, engaged in what might be called "transformational" leadership—getting subordinates to transform their own self-interest into shared interests by focusing upon a broader goal. Women regularly ascribed their power to personal charisma, inter-personal skills, hard work, or personal contacts, rather than to organizational stature.

Rosener calls this type of leadership "interactive." It goes beyond simply broadening participation. The women she interviewed were committed to strengthening their employees' sense of self-worth and to inspiring followers. Their interactive leadership encouraged participation, shared power and information, enhanced the self-worth of others, and energized people. Rosener concludes, "Women leaders do not covet formal authority, because they have learned to live without it." [3]

Although the number of women in ATS leadership remains relatively small, there is a growing body of literature about women's leadership/management and specifically about women in higher education administration. Recent book length studies include: *Women of Academe: Outsiders in the Sacred Grove* by Nadya Aisenberg and Mona Harrington (University of Massachusetts, 1988), *Tender Power: A Revolutionary Approach to Work and Intimacy* by Sherry Sub Cohen (Addison-Wesley, 1989), *The Female Advantage: Women's Ways of Leadership* by Sally Helgesen (Doubleday, 1990), and *Women at the Helm: Pathfinding Presidents at State Colleges and Universities* (American Association of State Colleges and Universities, 1991).

It is appropriate to remember that the first women administrators in American education were the founders of "Female Seminaries"—special institutions established in the nineteenth century to train women for their roles as wives, homemakers, teachers and missionaries. Whereas the liberal arts college was devoted to classical subjects to "challenge the masculine mind," female education was more practical. Eventually, however, opportunities for classical education for women were developed through a few colleges which embraced co-education, and at a small number of special colleges founded especially for women.[4] I am personally proud of the fact that Hartford Theological Seminary was the first theological seminary, in 1889, to authorize the admission of women for theological study.

In spite of these trends, the number of female college and university presidents has remained a very small percentage of the leadership of U.S. higher education. In 1975 women represented only 5% of all higher education presidencies. By 1989 that percentage had doubled to about 10%.[5]

As noted above, theological education is well below that level, with only 6 women presidents serving the 211 member schools, or 2.8%.

One woman president correctly notes, "We remain under-represented and overlooked. Furthermore, the numbers of women moving upward through the administrative pipeline—those leaders who will be likely candidates in the future for presidencies—are not increasing measurably."[6]

Who are these women? What leads any woman to move into the leadership of a college or university? What particular problems confront female administrators in a seminary or theological school? How are they doing?

To answer these questions, ten women administrators serving ATS schools were questioned about their experiences. As the ATS seeks to strengthen leadership in theological schools, it is important to understand the careers of women already serving as leaders.

The majority of the ten in-depth interviews were conducted over the telephone, each lasting between sixty and ninety minutes. Although almost all twenty women administrators serving ATS institutions were willing to be interviewed, conversations with ten provided sufficient information.

It is clear that women administrators want and need to talk about their situation. The interviews were longer than anticipated, because these women believe that they are involved in important work, and they are eager to do what they can to strengthen the future for women in ATS schools.

The women interviewed ranged in age from 44 to 73. Eight women were protestant and two Roman Catholic. They had been in their present positions between twelve years and three months at the time of the interviews. Three of the women moved to their current responsibilities from within their institutions, but most of them (7) were appointed from outside the institution to become the dean or president. Four of the women administrators have tenure as faculty members in addition to their duties in administration, while six are untenured. One is an interim dean. Most of the women serve in administration "at the pleasure" of their board or administration; however, three of the deans are appointed for terms of three years, subject to renewal at least once.

Eight of the women interviewed hold academic doctorates, with several degrees in fields unrelated to theological studies. One has a Doctor of Ministry degree and one does not have a doctorate. It is interesting that only two of the women have a B.D. or M.Div. degree (the basic degree preparing persons for ordination offered by most of their institutions). Most of the women have one, and sometimes two, master's degrees.

Both of the Roman Catholic women interviewed began their careers in a religious order, although one left the order a number of years ago. Of the eight protestant women, only three are ordained—with two of the three coming to ordination late in life. Four of the women are presently, or once were, married to clergy. In total, of the ten women—five are currently married, two are divorced and have not remarried, two never married, and one is widowed. Three of the women have no children. Among the remaining seven: one has adopted a child, two have one child, two have two children and two have three children. However, it is significant that only one of these ATS women administrators has children young enough to be living at home.

Before the interviews each woman was sent a list of questions to stimulate her thinking. The following questions served as an informal guide for the conversation.

How can the leadership of women in theological education be nurtured?

What are the major barriers to such leadership?

What is needed to increase the number and to support the role of women in leadership positions?

What experiences have prepared you for the leadership responsibilities you now carry?

What are your greatest joys, what are your greatest problems?

What do you think is going to happen to theological education as more women become presidents of institutions in theological education?

How might ATS facilitate and support women in leadership?

There are many ways in which this interview data can be interpreted. The following report clusters the responses of the women into three main areas: (1) comments made by the

women about themselves, women in general and the impact of women upon theological education; (2) the joys and concerns experienced by these women administrators in their current jobs; and (3) the suggestions made by these women concerning ways in which the leadership of women can be enhanced and nurtured by ATS.

The title for this research report "Walking the Narrow Path" comes as a response to one of the first interviews. I asked this woman if she thought that the fact that she was a woman made any difference in her administrative work? "Of course it does," she responded without hesitation. Why? Because the range of operations for women administrators is narrower than that available to men in similar positions. "It is somewhere between being too aggressive and too forgiving. And in the end our most enthusiastic supporters will be disappointed."

These comments bear out the judgement of psychologist Mira Komarowsky, "To be born a woman means to inhabit from early infancy to the last day a psychological world which differs from the world of man." The women interviewed are realists. They do not dwell upon the differences, but they know that they must walk a different path.

WOMEN IN LEADERSHIP

When ATS women administrators are asked about the leadership of women they echo many of the things highlighted in the literature. These women believe that they are more people oriented than rule oriented, that they have a more participatory style than male administrators. Several women mentioned the fact that managing a home, raising children and pursuing a career has prepared them to balance many things at once. They believe that their experience as women enables them to be good administrators.

The ATS women administrators interviewed also recognize that administration in graduate education is process dominated. They know that presidents and deans spend many hours working with faculty and boards. In these activities, these women administrators think that they are less hierarchical and more inclusive than their male counterparts. They agree with analysts and writers who see women leaders as information sharers, rather than information collectors. One woman remarked that she did not think that she was as fearful of "making mistakes" as some of the men. "I learn by trial and error. When things don't work, I try something else." Whereas, the women believe, male administrators are often preoccupied with goals and success.

The negative side of these attributes is also recognized by the women. Trying to keep everyone involved and happy is sometimes overwhelming and frustrating. Jo Freeman, in a classic article on the "tyranny" of feminist ideals in the early 1970's, noted that the preference of many women for "structurelessness and egalitarianism in leaderless female groups" prevents them from task oriented behavior on their own behalf.[7] Contemporary women leaders recognize that in efforts to be inclusive, women sometimes become unrealistic about institutional needs and personal costs. Listening to and clarifying the views of others is wonderful, but there comes a time when someone has to decide. There are also moments, confessed several women, "when you recognize your limitations and accept the fact that it is impossible to do everything." This balancing process takes a personal toll. "I know its overload," admitted one dean, "when I start cutting out sleep."

Repeatedly, however, the women agree that the fact they are women makes a difference. They speak of themselves as offering hospitality, providing a "woman's touch." They feel that their leadership is consistent with their understanding of Christianity, and they report that friends, faculty, and students in their schools often commend their work and recognize a difference between male and female leadership.

THE JOYS AND CONCERNS OF WOMEN ADMINISTRATORS

Female presidents and deans are challenged, but not overwhelmed by their jobs. They find the scale of theological schools manageable. They enjoy being able to combine their interests in education, in the church and their administrative skills. "I like running things," stated one president. Making things work, solving problems and being proactive is very satisfying.

Several women indicated how rewarding it is to be listened to and to be able to make a difference. These women know what it is to have their voices and opinions ignored. They are exhilarated when they are heard; they value the importance of having real power to do something.

Several ATS women administrators used the analogy of birth and mothering to describe their administration. Birthing new ideas into an institution and nurturing students and faculty is very satisfying. They talk about "challenging past assumptions," and "building bridges" for a new day. The women enjoy what they are doing, saying "it is never boring." As the interviews turned to the problems confronted by women presidents and deans, several common themes emerged.

Women administrators recognize that their experiences as women have not prepared them for handling power and money effectively. One woman noted, "Women tend to give their power away. We have more power than we realize, but we waste it and give it unknowingly to men and groups who do not always use it wisely." For example, women generally listen too long, waiting until everyone has spoken, hoping that their insights will be accepted. Women in leadership need to learn how to speak with authority and ask others to listen.

Another woman confessed that since she took office she is pleasantly surprised that it "makes a difference what I say." This means, however, that it is also necessary to slow down and to weigh her words more carefully. When no one listened it did not matter. Now that people are listening, she must be more thoughtful.

Boards of trustees, usually dominated by men, still find it difficult to believe that women can deal with money and property. There is "an unwillingness of men to acknowledge my technical competence," stated one president. In fact, they are "surprised," when I do well. Yet, as women gain financial experience, women are very effective fund raisers and money managers. One women noted, "Throughout human history women have had to ask for money from men. Why should we doubt their capacity to raise money for our schools?"

Top level administration, however, takes its toll. The ATS women administrators know that being in charge of an organization is lonely. There is a "natural distance" which comes with an office or a role which automatically means that friendships with faculty colleagues must become more limited. "I miss faculty intimacy," lamented one dean. Yet the women accept the fact that this is part of the job. "Just as a mother has to let go of her children and develop new relationships with adult children, administrators have to create new relationships." Several women deans spoke very specifically about the need for a peer group of women for support. They also highlighted the importance of their relationship to the president (a man), and how his good mentoring was essential to their survival.

Relationships with men, for ATS female administrators, remain at the center of their work. Ecclesiastical authorities are predominantly male. Trustees are overwhelmingly men. Tenured faculties are primarily male. Scholarship in many fields is dominated by men. Student populations (although this is changing in some schools) are still characteristically male. This means, according to these women administrators, that if women leaders are to succeed there is an increasing need for theological education to nurture men who can work with and for women in leadership. "We must find more men who are not threatened by a woman with power," stated one woman dean. Furthermore, when women make mistakes, and they will, we need more men who will not assume that "it would not have happened if the boys had been there."

Men are not the only problem for female administrators. Several women spoke of how other women are intimidated by and fearful of women in top leadership positions. If you succeed you are envied and if you fail you are pitied.

The capacity to handle many details is both a blessing and a curse. Sometimes it is hard to let go and delegate responsibility, especially in the domestic area. One woman president confessed that allowing a caterer to prepare a dinner in "her" kitchen was difficult. In the wider culture women are often measured by their domestic skills. It is difficult for women executives to let go of some details.

As enthusiastic and positive as most of these women are about their jobs, they also speak with real concern about the future. It is clear, stated one president, that the well meaning affirmative action efforts of our schools may actually set women up for failure and burn out. When younger women are moved into administrative responsibilities at earlier stages in their careers, they do not bring the experience of seasoned faculty members. As a consequence they may not be as effective. Furthermore, promising female scholars need time to do the writing and teaching which will give them credibility in academia. Add in the burdens of child care on top of the daily obligations of younger married professional women and it becomes increasingly difficult. "How can women compete with male colleagues who are often free to do research unencumbered by family responsibilities?" asked one dean.

All of the women agree that the next decade in North American higher education is going to be very difficult. Financial resources are shrinking. Schools will have to make hard choices and establish clear priorities. Leadership during this period will be exceptionally trying for men and women.

However, the ATS women administrators insist that the situation for women in theological education will continue to be more difficult than that for men. It is a fact that fewer women are hired, women do not hold as many senior appointments, women do not get tenure as easily. Women may have equal opportunity, but there is not equality in access.

It is frightening, according to one president, that just as more women are becoming available to take over top leadership positions in theological schools, we are on the brink of a very demanding, if not disastrous era. "In this situation," mused one woman president, "women need the freedom and the courage to say NO to some very questionable opportunities for leadership." No one will be well served if good women are destroyed by impossible jobs. ATS has a responsibility to help women discern where their leadership can be effective and not to pressure women to take on presidencies which cannot succeed.

NURTURING WOMEN ADMINISTRATORS

ATS women administrators do not consider the association a very friendly or supportive organization for women. In fact, women administrators are shocked and dismayed when they attend their first ATS Biennial meeting. "There were so few women." "The room was filled with dark suits and grey hair." "It felt like I was back in the 1950's."

Although the association has made efforts to have women on committees, has hired a female associate director, and one woman has served as the president of the ATS (1986-88)— the overall impact of women upon the organizational life of ATS remains very low. The women administrators interviewed all agree that the single most important thing that ATS can do to nurture and support women administrators is to make teaching and working in seminaries a more appealing to women.

There need to be specific incentives prodding member institutions to hire more women faculty. Furthermore, the association itself needs to structure its internal institutional life to make it easier for faculty to serve on committees and to encourage faculty to participate in the life of the association. As long as ATS is a club for presidents and deans it will remain out of touch with many gender issues in theological education.

The women interviewed believe, however, that as our schools hire more women faculty— the educational goals of the schools will be better served, and from the increased numbers of women faculty there will be a natural movement of more women into administration. Several women suggested that ATS should use its standards and accreditation power to demand that more women be appointed to full time faculty positions, or offered part-time positions with greater career stability during their child bearing years.

The data on women faculty in ATS institutions show that the number of women faculty is still relatively low when compared with female student enrollments. In 1971 the percentage of women faculty in ATS schools was 3.2% (73 women out of 2,297 faculty). By 1981 the percentage had risen to 8.9% (221 women out of 2,473 faculty). In 1991 the percentage stood at 15.4% (413 women out of 2,675 faculty). [ATS Fact Book data until 1988, statistics since 1988 were obtained directly from the ATS offices] In 1972 female enrollments in all degree programs of ATS schools was about 10%, twenty years later it is over 25%. In some institutions the numbers of women students have doubled and tripled, while the ratio of women faculty has increased very little.

The percentage of women administrators in ATS is better, but it is very difficult to get comparable statistics. Today there are high percentages of women serving as registrars, librarians and on the development or institutional advancement staffs of member schools. Furthermore, women administrators serve in numerous student services positions which did not even exist in ATS schools twenty years ago. In 1971 the percentage of women administrators in ATS schools was 12.3% (103 women out of 846 administrators). By 1981 the percentage had risen to 19.6% (203 women out of 1,035 administrators). In 1991 the percentage stood at 30.5% (501 women out of 1,642 administrators). [ATS Fact Book data until 1988, statistics since 1988 were obtained directly from the ATS offices].

Within these statistics, however, women presidents and deans are still very few and far between. Because presidents and deans usually come to such positions from service as faculty members, efforts to increase top female administrators will not improve until the female faculty populations increase. Virtually all of the women interviewed believe that the best presidents and deans for ATS schools will be experienced faculty members who have taught in ATS schools. They argue, therefore, that member schools need to think more creatively about the ways in which seminary teaching can become more attractive to women at all stages of their professional life. As more senior women faculty are nurtured, more female administrators will develop.

Several other things were mentioned by the women: ATS should develop a more intentional "mentoring system" for promising female and minority administrators. ATS should help women administrators network with each other and with women in leadership in secular higher education. There are simply not enough women in ATS schools. ATS should encourage member schools and denominations to identify women early, provide support —but not push women too fast to the detriment of their scholarly life. ATS should enable women administrators to get more training in economics and math. Women are often deficient in these areas through no fault of their own. And finally, the women interviewed agree that there is need for some special ATS program or workshop designed specifically for women administrators, full and part-time. Such an event could assist female leaders in organizational management and power analysis. It might also provide encouragement for women to explore alternative ways to run and lead their institutions.

In North America history equality for women is not normative. We have a cultural heritage which celebrates a distinct and unequal place for women. In spite of egalitarian democratic values, most Americans and Canadians believe that women's sphere is appropriately different from that of men. Women should be more concerned with private and domestic life.

The source of these assumptions about male and female roles is deeply embedded in the nineteenth century. In the Victorian era North American women were valued as protectors of Christian society. While men engaged in the dirty public world of commerce and business, women preserved family and religion. This division of responsibility (the so-called "cult of true womanhood") generated assumptions that it was not proper for women to exercise responsibility for public institutional life.

As a result, two things happened which affect the current leadership situation of women in theological education: women became primarily responsible for the private and domestic side of life; and religion became more and more relegated to the private. This so-called feminization of American culture continues to haunt the situation of women administrators in ATS schools.

On the one side this history limits the vision of institutional leadership for women. Being the dean or the president of a graduate school is not "seemly" for a woman. On the other side it suggests that what some have called "femininization," and interpreted to be a decline, may be an opportunity. If religion has become more private, and women are the legitimate caretakers of the private sphere, then it is a natural step for women to assume leadership in theological education. The feminization of religious life in North America may actually provide more freedom for women to be lay leaders, clergy, seminary faculty and even seminary presidents.

Within ATS schools my interviews with women administrators suggest that there are two possible scenarios on the horizon: First, as churches and schools sense that religion is no longer a very powerful public force, and that religion is increasingly a private matter—they will seek to retain past prestige and power by continuing to appoint men to top leadership positions. Women exercising leadership in religious and public life will be resisted, for fear that their leadership might further weaken the already shaky status of religion.

On the other hand a second response is quite possible. Churches and schools may accept the fact that religion is no longer a powerful public force, but that it has significant private importance. As men cease to be attracted to its leadership, no one will object when women take over top positions of leadership in religious institutions. This setting for female leadership, although ignored by the secular world, may give women enormous freedom to exercise institutional power in new and creative ways.

The question remains, Can ATS develop current programs and support systems for women faculty and administrators within member schools which can anticipate both possibilities, enabling women to lead effectively whether they are considered a threat, or left to explore new forms of religious leadership unencumbered by gender biases?

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THEOLOGICAL EDUCATION AND RACIAL/ETHNIC LEADERSHIP

J. Oscar McCloud

A PROLOGUE

This is a modest beginning of a discussion of an important issue. Racial/ethnics[1] as administrators in theological seminaries is a definitive statement about racial/ethnic leadership in theological education. What is attempted is the exploration of some of the barriers which racial/ethnic persons face, the challenge or opportunities theological schools offer racial/ethnic persons as presidents and academic deans, and where the initiative might be taken and the nurturing done to produce a meaningful increase in racial/ethnic administrators I theological education. The data and examples are used primarily about African Americans because they are the largest racial/ethnic group involved in theological education, and they are the group the writer knows best. Whoever the data is available, reference to other racial/ethnic groups will be made. In the absence of any great number of printed resources of this subject, the writer has relied heavily on interviews with several racial/ethnic person in theological education.

INTRODUCTION

W. E. Burghardt DuBois wrote at the beginning of the Twentieth Century:

> After the Egyptian and Indian, the Greek and Roman, the Teuton and Mongolian, the Negro is a sort of seventh son, born with a veil, and gifted with second-sight in this American-world,--a world which yields him no true self-consciousness, but only lets him see himself through the revelation of the other world. It is a peculiar sensation, this double-consciousness, the sense of always looking at one's self through the eyes of others, of measuring one's soul by the tape of a world that looks on in amused contempt and pity. One ever feels his twoness,--an American Negro; two souls, two thoughts, two unreconciled striving, two warring ideals in one dark body, whose dogged strength alone keeps it from being torn asunder."[2]

Although written almost a century ago, DuBois' concept of "twoness" is helpful in understanding the tension experienced by one who seeks to maintain his/her racial or cultural identify, and participates in the larger predominantly white society. The sensitive racial/ethnic person's group identity is an everyday reality from which one draws self-understanding and affirmation. But the same person cannot venture very far without some major encounter with the dominant white society. In the larger environment the racial/ethnic person often experiences neither understanding nor affirmation.

There are ways in which DuBois' characterization is applicable to racial/ethnic persons in theological education, especially those in top administrative positions. The "twoness" characterizes everything which occurs where these racial/ethnic leaders are concerned,--from fund raising to attracting faculty and students, and to the compositions of the Board of Trustees
.
African Americans are not the only ones who know something of this "twoness". United Methodist Bishop, Roy Sano, writing in 1983 about Asian Americans uses the expression "socially amphibious skills," a reference to the sensitivities that emerge from Asian Americans behaving in different ways in two cultures."[3]

On the other hand white seminary administrators come from the dominant community which provides the cultural context from the theological institution--its history, its primary constitu-

ency, its financial base, and the origins of its standards and structure of education. The white leader comes from an environment in which one is able to rely on an existing network of relationships sometimes going back to college and seminary days. Therefore, the white administrators may not be sensitive to the inherent tensions and conflicting pressures of the "twoness" existence.

The racial/ethnic leader in theological education is faced with major challenges because of race and culture. These persons are caught between affirming their own racial and cultural identity and trying to lead a white institution which may not want to affirm who they are. In all probability he/she will have had previous experience in a similar position. Consequently there will be those who question "Can he/she do it?" The racial/ethnic leader comes with the backing of a community or constituency which has any significant influence on the direction of the institution. He or she may be seen as an experiment, something unique and historic, and not simply as the most appropriate person to lead the institution. Racial/ethnic leaders do not come with a network of contracts with power, influence, and financial resources. Yet they are willing to make themselves available as candidates for administrative positions, though rarely chosen as presidents and academic deans.

AN HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

The historical record verifies the obvious: racial/ethnic progress in theological institutions has been mixed. Although there has been some increase in racial/ethnic faculty especially African American, there has been little progress by racial/ethnic persons in positions as presidents and academic deans in predominantly white theological institutions. According to Shelby Rooks, in 1959 only 6 Black faculty were employed in five predominantly white ATS Protestant seminaries. There were no racial/ethnic administrators except those in the historic Black theological seminaries. The only Black Roman Catholic administrators was found in the all-Black Divine Word Seminary in Bay St. Louis, Mississippi.[4]

The predominantly ATS Black Protestant theological seminaries today are: Howard University Divinity School, Hood Theological Seminary, Interdenominational Theological Center, Payne Theological Seminary, Shaw Divinity School, and Virginia Union University School of Theology. The Johnson C. Smith University Theological Seminary merged with the Interdenominational Theological Center, and the Lincoln University School of Theology ceased to exist sometime ago. The Divine Work Seminary (Roman Catholic) in Bay St. Louis, Mississippi is also closed. The Evangelical Seminary of Puerto Rico, founded in 1919 and The Dominican Study Center of Bayamon Central University in Puerto Rico are the only Hispanic schools. There are, however, at least two Chinese Seminaries in California, a Roman Catholic Seminary for Vietnamese in Arkansas, and the Cooke School for Native Americans in Arizona, none of which are accredited or ATS members. The predominantly racial/ethnic seminaries continue to provide a unique opportunity for racial/ethnic persons to develop and demonstrate administrative leadership in theological education.

Only since the Civil Rights Movement and subsequent federal legislation of the 1960's have racial/ethnic person found acceptance in the mainstream of theological education and professors and occasionally as administrators. Most of the racial/ethnic persons in theological education are African Americans. However, for too long African Americans were relegated to preaching and teaching. These were the two professions where they found some opportunity for educational, social and economic advancement. Though African Americans were relegated to preaching, they were not employed to teach homiletics by any of the predominantly white theological schools until the 1970's. The complexion of the administrative leadership in theological educa-

tion in North American is best observed at a biennial meeting of the Association of Theological Schools where the preponderance of theological schools' representatives are white. It is difficult to imagine another ecumenical gathering of professionals in North America where so little racial or gender diversity is present. And yet, The ATS potentially could serve as useful role in helping to cultivate opportunities for racial/ethnic administrators and encouraging individuals to consider the challenge. It may be necessary for ATS to evolve some effective strategies to increase the number of racial/ethnic theological school administrators if there is to be a recovery of some of the excitement and expectations which racial/ethnics had about the theological education two decades ago.[5]

THE CHALLENGE

There is a unique challenge facing theological education and theological schools today. The challenge is to provide relevant responses to the increasing diversity within the Christian communities in North America, and in the united States in particular. African American, Asian American and Hispanic American studies programs at a few theological schools will not provide an adequate response. The increasing challenge of the racial/ethnic diversity of the society and the growing diversity of membership in some churches will require different approaches in theological education. This diversity will also require increasing evidence of inclusivity in administrative positions.

Theological schools cannot wait until they have a thorough racially and culturally diverse student body before employing racial/ethnic faculty; the schools cannot wait until they have a racially diverse faculty before choosing racial/ethnic administrators as presidents and deans. Theological education institutions can meet the challenge by becoming models of what ministry and ministerial leadership can be in the churches. This is necessary because white students need to experience racial and cultural diversity in their training. And the theological schools must demonstrate they are capable of providing training which is relevant to the needs of racial/ethnic students.

Traditionally among the obstacles faced by racial/ethnic persons in theological education were the attitudes of their own communities and the stereotypes of the majority community. In the African American community a prevailing view was the minister did not require much training and certainly not four years of college and three years of theological studies. Proponents of this perspective could point to examples of African American pastors with large followings who had limited educational training. It was an anti-intellectual attitude when it came to the Black church, and Black ministers. To some extent this attitude lingers in the African American community today. The Hispanic church was frequently led by immigrant clergy who were trained elsewhere, or by U.S. born person with limited formal theological education. Asian consciousness in the church was somewhat dormant, and the ministry was not viewed as an attractive profession. Although the situation has changed somewhat during the past twenty years, much remains the same.

The issue of racial ethnics in leadership positions in theological schools cries out for some attention. For Asian Americans and Hispanic Americans the situation is particularly acute in the absence of any theological school in the Continental USA with primary emphasis and control in the hands of these communities. Considering the changing racial/ethnic membership of the USA churches, a logical question is whether it is time for theological schools reflect this challenge in the makeup of faculty, student body and administrators? The dual challenge is to train leaders for the changing church membership, and to increase the number of racial/ethnic administrators to serve as presidents/deans and academic vice presidents/deans.

There is also a challenge which confronts racial/ethnic leaders. The change the leadership situation in theological institution more racial/ethnic persons will have to accept being torn between two worlds. This is not an easy undertaking for some racial/ethnic persons who aspire to be involved in theological education. For some, the isolation and loneliness are too costly, and the risks of venturing into "this other world" too intimidating. For still others who have trained to be teachers entering administration may mean foregoing their first love.[6] Where there is serious intent and commitment, some of the perceived difficulties can become opportunities for racial/ethnic administrators. A lot of these perceived difficulties can be overcome where there is serious commitment by the theological schools.

Probably the greatest significance of having racial/ethnic administrators in theological institutions is what this does to authenticate theological training. It is inconceivable that theological education can be relevant if it fails to acknowledge and utilize the contributions of God's diverse people. If the religious experience of different racial/ethnic people are valid, then their theological contributions must also be valid. And if these contributions are valid, then they must be used in theological education endeavors which seek truth with integrity.[7] This means the development of some significant models of theological training and leadership other than that which is characterized by the white majority. It seems easier for North American theological schools to accept the contributions of Asia, Africa and Latin America than to accept similar contributions from within.

AFTER 1970

Seen from an historical perspective, a lot has changed since the decade of the 1950's but a lot remains the same. As stated earlier, prior to 1970 only few racial/ethnic teachers and not a single president or academic dean could be found in theological seminaries except for the Hispanic and Black institutions. A turning point in this development may well have resulted from 1970 ATS sponsored conference developed by Charles Shelby Rooks and Marshall Grisby. Some of the impetus for this event is credited to the existence of The Fund for Theological Education.[8] Further examination of the "turning point" since 1970 indicates it was only a matter of degree.

Early in the 1970's a few ATS schools made some important racial/ethnic appointments. Lawrence (Larry) Jones, who was Dean of Students at Union Theological seminary in New York, became the acting President. In 1972 David Shannon became the Academic Dean at Pittsburgh Theological Seminary. And in 1974 Charles Shelby Rooks became the first racial/ethnic president of a predominantly white theological school, Chicago Theological Seminary. Shelby Rooks' elections was truly an historic event.[9]

Although predominantly white theological schools increased their racial/ethnic enrollment and faculty during the 1970'S there was no comparable increase in the number of administrators. Subsequently as the fall of 1992, according to ATS, there were 21 racial/ethnic presidents/ deans, and academic vice presidents/deans. A few of these persons held dual responsibilities. Of the 21 administrators, 10 were at racial/ethnic schools: 9 were at Black institutions, and 1 at a Hispanic school. The 11 administrators at predominantly white institutions represent the

following racial/ethnic groups: African Americans 9, Asian Americans 1, and Hispanic Americans 1. If one looks at the statistics alone, it is difficult to find real progress over the past two decades.

TABLE I		
Presidents and Academic Deans in Minority Categories (Fall, 1992)		
Position	Racial/Ethnic	Position
Presidents/CEOs		

James Hutten Costen
  Interdenominational Theological
  Center, Atlanta, GA
	Black	President

James H. Evans, Jr.
    Colgate-Rochester Divinity
    School, Rochester, NY
	Black	President

Bernard Franklin
    Hood Theological Seminary
    Salisbury, NC
	Black	President

Louis-Charles Harvey
    Payne Theological Seminary
    Wilberforce, OH
	Black	President

William H. Howard
    New York Theological Seminary
    New York, NY
	Black	President

John W. Kinney
    Virginia Union University School
    of Theology, Richmond, VA
	Black	Dean/CEXEC

Luis Fidel Mercado
    Evangelical Seminary of Puerto Rico
    Hato Rey, PR
	Hispanic	President

Clarence G. Newsome
    Howard University Divinity School
    Washington, DC
	Black	Dean/CEXEC

David T. Shannon
    Andover Newton Theological School
    Newton Centre, MA
	Black	President

Talbert O. Shaw
    Shaw Divinity School
    Raleigh, NC
	Black	President

Kenneth B. Smith
    Chicago Theological Seminary
    Chicago, IL
	Black	President

Position	Racial/Ethnic	Position
Academic Deans/VP Academic Affairs		
Albert J. D. Aymer	Black	Acd/VP
Drew University Theological School		
Madison, NJ		
James Kenneth Echols	Black	Acd/VP
Lutheran Theological School		
at Philadelphia, PA		
Edwin Johnson	Black	Acd/VP
Mount Angel Seminary		
Saint Benedict, OR		
James Earl Massey	Black	Acd/VP
Anderson School of Theology		
Anderson, IN		
Calvin Morris	Black	VP/Acd
Interdenominational Theological		
Center, Atlanta, GA		
Joseph C. Paige	Black	Acd/VP
Shaw Divinity School		
Raleigh, NC		
James R. Samuel	Black	Acd/VP
Hood Theological Seminary		
Salisbury, NC		
Harold Dean Trulear	Black	Acd/VP
New York Theological Seminary		
New York, NY		
As of 1/1/93		
FumitakaMatsuoka	Asian	Acd/VP
Pacific School of Religion		
Berkeley, CA		
Gabino Zavala	Hispanic	President
St. John's Seminary		
Camarillo, CA		

SOME BARRIERS

The traditional attitude that "racial/ethnic have nothing to contribute to theological education" is one of the most serious barriers to overcome. This perception has resulted in racial/ethnic contributions being absent from the dominant thought pattern. In the words of David Shannon, "People don't think of minorities when they think of theological education." Therefore, theological schools reflect a kind of racism in the sociology of leadership selection. Shannon goes on to say: "Much writing about church history, and especially American church history do not reflect adequately the contributions of racial/ethnic people. Look at some of the most massive volumes of American church history and search for the contributions of racial/ethnic peoples. The risk of the absence of these contributions is the perpetuation of the myth that there were none. American history books for generations, and even today have failed to record the expe-

rience and contribution of the nation's racial/ethnic population. But this was a failure of the historians and of the failure of those who have been ignored."[10]

A second barrier to overcome is the perception by the dominant group that racial/ethnic people are only suited to teach, train, or lead their "own group." No such perception is held by the majority group about its capabilities. This perception has been so pervasive that even some racial/ethnic persons have believed it. It has led to a lack of self-confidence by some racial/ethnic persons. Combine this perception with the "Can he or she do it?" attitude, and the result is success and effectiveness are almost impossible.[11]

A third barrier is the way in which criteria are used for selecting racial/ethnic leadership. A common approach in selecting a racial/ethnic person is to seek someone who has had training and experience elsewhere. Often the racial/ethnic persons must have proved themselves beyond any doubt.[12] There is an impression that a racial/ethnic person is chosen when the conditions of the institution are in a state of crisis. This puts the person in the position of being a miracle worker, and thus, expected to be an excellent administrator, a proven fund raiser, and one capable of getting along with different constituencies. Frequently, the racial/ethnic leader is cast in the role of "doing the job by himself.? And seldom does the racial/ethnic person feel a sense of "institutional commitment" to the racial/ethnic person's success.[13]

A fourth barrier may be described as psychological. Racial/ethnic persons in leadership positions in predominantly white institutions are sometimes perceived as threatening--even to the existence of the institution itself. First, racial/ethnic leaders in "non traditional" roles are viewed as threatening to white males. Some of these leaders have sensed feelings of fear on the part of their white male colleagues. Sometimes there is suspicion "that he has my job". All of this combines to form a psychological barrier with which the racial/ethnic administrator must contend. This situation also leads to a certain amount of anxiety. Self-doubt, may occur causing the person to begin to wonder "what have I done wrong?"[14]

A fifth barrier may be called philosophical. The racial/ethnic leader must deal with his/her presence being a challenge to the white colleague. One of the results of the civil rights movement is that racial/ethnic professionals are no longer apologetic for what they do or the positions to which they aspire or to which they have advanced. They are convinced that through years of disciplined study and struggle they have won the right to be taken seriously by their white peers. Such a conviction can lead to a style of self-affirmation which may be perceived as aggressive or arrogant.[15]

Finally there is a spiritual or theological barrier. Racial/ethnic theological leaders tend more toward an interpretation of scripture and an understanding of theology which makes the unity of humankind of primary importance. Many racial/ethnic theologians are the descendants of people who received the gospel through those who were the oppressors. These descendants, like their forbearers, have transcended the boundaries created by the messengers and discovered the essence of salvation. Racial/ethnic people who have known oppression do by the very nature of their experience view God differently than people of the dominant culture.[16]

For example, several years ago at an ecumenical meeting a white American theologian was leading Bible study on Ezekiel 37:1-10. The leader said in essence that seldom had he heard a sermon on the story of the valley of the dry bones. "The passage seemed to have little relevance in preaching in the USA," he stated. He was approached following the Bible study by an African American who said his experience with the Ezekiel passage had been just the opposite of the white theologian. For the African American community the Ezekiel passage was a prime

example why people should put their trust in God and never despair. The African American went on to say "if God could bring the dry bones to life, then certainly God can handle the human condition."[17]

Although the barriers are many, they can be broken down and transformed into challenges if their is an "institutional commitment and will." Where the commitment and the will do exist the ways will be found to provide the necessary nurture and support for racial/ethnic administrators in theological schools to succeed.

NURTURING LEADERSHIP FOR THE FUTURE

If the necessary racial/ethnic leadership is to become available in the future, there must be a change of the prevailing attitude of "not being wanted" which the racial/ethnic administrator experiences. (16) The many theological schools which have yet to hire more than a single racial/ethnic faculty member are cited as evidence of the need for some changes. Many schools seeking their first racial/ethnic faculty member do so expecting someone else to have nurtured and trained person of these positions. Very few theological schools have identified racial/ethnic persons with the potential for teaching and then supported them in obtaining a doctoral degree. The few schools which are the exceptions have provided financial support and offered the student a faculty position upon completion of the degree. These are the institutions with a commitment and will to diversify their faculty, and have developed strategies to achieve this objective. No comparable effort has been undertaken to increase the number of racial/ethnic presidents and academic deans.

To reach the level of commitment and will necessary to generate meaningful results will require some significant change and on the part of theological institutions. For this change to occur, there is the need to acknowledge past failures and to demonstrate in concrete ways that the situation is now different.[18] It is not easy for those who have traditionally been in leadership to confess their failures, and to seek help in bringing about change. Racial/ethnic people who have been neglected and ignored for so long will not perceive substantive change in words alone. Nothing short of a rediscovery of prophetic leadership will provide a new conditions required.

Some racial/ethnic administrators suggest nurturing as a way to overcome the barriers to the paucity of racial/ethnic administrators. They point to what has been done during the past two decades by The Americans Fund for Theological education (FTE) doing doctoral studies in religion. None of the black administrators doubt the need for concerted efforts if the number of racial/ethnic administrators is to increase. To change the present situation, the theological community should be above board about the purpose and intent of nurturing racial/ethnic persons for administrative leadership. Considering the brief history reviewed above, it is doubtful much will happen if left to the individual seminaries. The theological seminaries as a community have to recover the sense of "call" and see administration as one of the church's ministries. Having recognized administration as a ministry to which one may be called, the community can then declare urgent the need for more racial/ethnic administrators in theological schools. Where the concept of the "call" is recovered with a sense of urgency, theological education administrators and faculty will look among their students and alumni/ae for racial/ethnic persons who exempt some of the qualities for good administrators.

One meaning of nurture is "the further development of something or someone." There can be little doubt if the number of racial/ethnics in administration in theological school is to increase significantly, it will require a concerted effort. There are an increasing number of racial/ethnic persons qualified to teach in theological schools. There are also racial/ethnic person with the skills and capabilities to lead these schools as presidents and deans.

The source of these persons seems so limited because no concerted effort has been made to address the situation. One can think of reasons the various churches should nurture racial/ethnic persons for leadership in theological education. Among these are: the churches' need for relevantly trained clergy for congregations; the witness which churches could make through racial/ethnic administrators, and the outreach opportunity it would provide for the churches. Unfortunately, there is no evidence to suggest churches are interested and therefore will do anything about it. Churches do not have a good record of training person for leadership even with their own basis structures. Often churches have drawn their leadership from within a small pool consisting of pastors whose success was measured by the size of their congregations. Small congregations were not generally seen as a training ground for denominational leadership. Seminaries have at time followed the same approach in their search for potential administrators--pastors from large congregations or administrators from positions in other theological schools.

When the question was asked "where do racial/ethnic persons get experience for administrative positions in theological schools?" the responses usually are "I don't know" or "minorities don't get experience to be administrators in theological schools." Where there is no intent, there is no commitment, and where there is no commitment there is no will. And the absence of will means there is no identifiable strategy or program to produce a pool of racial/ethnic administrators for theological schools.[19]

There is no seminary which is known to have employed and trained a racial/ethnic person for an administrative position in theological education. And yet it seems like such a natural thing to do. Of all the theological schools at least one should have pioneered in becoming a training ground for racial/ethnics for theological education administration. For example, the University of Pennsylvania is know as a place which trains African Americans for social work supervision.[20] If the churches are not likely to nurture racial/ethnic administrators for theological schools, and if the schools have failed to see this as a challenge and opportunity, what hope is there?

Celebration should have greeted the selection of David Shannon as president, Andover Newton Theological School, and William Howard for New York Theological Seminary. The selection of these two racial/ethnic administrators within a two year period exceeded what had occurred during the previous 200 years. It is to be hoped these recent developments signal a turning point among theological schools.

If basic to increasing racial/ethnic administrators in theological schools is the existence of a nurturing process, how and where might this occur.

INITIATIVES FOR PREPARATION AND SUPPORT

As the word *nurture* means "the further development of", the word support means "to keep from losing courage". It is one thing for racial/ethnic persons to venture into theological education administration, but it is quite something else to experience the support which "keeps one from losing courage.: The necessary support comes from a change in attitude by the various

theological education constituencies, and the recognition that no person can successfully do the job alone. It means white administrators doing what many western missionaries were slow to do namely, transferring to their successors the "network of support of the churches back home." Where this was done effectively by western missionaries the mission work still continue to thrive under the national as it had under the foreigner. More white administrators must be willing to befriend racial/ethnic administrators, and to share their experiences of success. A significant factor in what this writer has achieved at the FTE is due to the generous advise, counsel and shred contacts of a few other theological eduction administrators.

Another way to encourage and support racial/ethnic in administration is to select them for responsibilities which are not racial or cultural in orientations. Not all racial/ethnic person want to be considered experts on racial/ethnic issues. Sometimes racial/ethnic persons want to be considered for their general ability and skills. The overall situation in theological school will change as an increasing number of racial/ethnic person are chosen for general administrative positions. Because of the "twoness" of the experience of many racial ethnics, they may be better qualified for general administrative responsibilities than many others.

Another factor in advancing racial/ethnics in administrative responsibility is their viability. There is much to be said for racial/ethnic administrators being in positions which will be visible to students, faculty, and to the public. Until race is no longer a major sociological factor in American society, it is unwise to claim "color" or "culture" blindness where racial/ethnic persons are involved. Racial/ethnic persons can handle visibility because for many that has been a constant part of their experience. Whites need to learn to handle racial/ethnic visibility and to accept it. It is only through visibility that racial/ethnic in leadership positions can serve as role model. Racial/ethnic person, like other groups, must see examples of success to want to succeed. Successful models of racial/ethnic administrators in theological schools are one the of the most effective ways to increase the number.

REASON FOR HOPE

Although there is a decline in membership and attendance in so called "main line" denominations, membership among racial/ethnic persons is growing, with the most rapid occurring among Asian Americans. As a result seminary enrollment by Asian Americans, African Americans and to a lesser degree, Hispanic Americans is also on the increase. Because this increase in enrollment will mean more racially and culturally diverse student bodies, the pressure for more racially diverse faculties and administrators will be felt. It is imperative that a number of schools recognize this development now, and begin to prepare to meet this challenge. While it is true the results of the past two decades are not overwhelmingly positive, yet there are some hopeful signs. In 1968 there were approximately 40 African Americans with doctorates in the field of religion. Today that number is considerably more. Approximately 70 of these scholars were supported through the FTE. There is a continuing increase in the number of African American and Hispanic Americans entering doctoral studies in religion. According to the FTE statistics, there are 74 African Americans and more than 40 Hispanic American Doctoral candidates currently pursuing the Ph.D., Th.D. and Ed.D. degrees in religion. In spite of the increases in the number of doctoral candidates, the number of Hispanic Americans on theological faculties irregular teaching positions remains tragically small.

David Schuler in an editorial in <u>Theological</u> <u>Education</u>, Autumn 1983, wrote, "In 1965 theological seminaries were predominantly white-male-middle-class institutions that loudly trumpeted the claims of racial and ethnic justice".[21] He went on to report that the results since 1965 had been mixed. Today the results continue to be mixed as can been seen in the Table below

TABLE II			
	1982	1989	%Increase
Asian Americans	702	2065	194
African Americans	2576	3961	53
Hispanic Americans	1180	1490	26.3
Native Americans	86	147	70

While these are amazing increases in student enrollment, except for Hispanic, there are no comparable increase in the percentage of racial/ethnic administrators serving as presidents and academic deans during this same period. The situation with Hispanic Americans is the most lamentable given the size of that population in the USA. The absence of Hispanic faculty and administrators at theological schools must have some bearing on the very small increase in student enrollment for the seven year period 1982-1989.

A recent consultation on Asians in theological education in North America sponsored by the FTE confirmed a growing interest in theological education. Although several areas of theological studies were identified as areas of need, the M.Div. and doctoral programs were the priorities. The consultation identified a doctoral scholarship program in religion for Asian students as the most important priority for FTE's consideration. It may safely be assumed that as the current generation of Asian M.Div. students complete their studies, there will be increasing pressure for more Asian faculty and administrators.

In 1988 the ATS Committee on Underrepresented Constituency undertook a survey of faculty and administrative positions which would become vacant during the period 1989-90. According to the respondents, a total of 75 administrative positions will become available, including 15 academic deans, 11 presidents, and 7 deans of students. Although some of the institutions indicated they would be seeking racial/ethnic candidates, the number was so small as to be insignificant.[22] What the survey by the Committee on Underrepresented Constituencies suggests is that opportunities and occasions for change will occur in the foreseeable future. The question remains whether the will and determination are going to be present.

CONCLUSION

Charles Shelby Rooks, in 1983 in an article entitled 'Vision, Reality and Challenge: Black Americans and North American Theological Education, 1959-83, had this to say:

> Finally, there are no internships or on the job training programs to support blacks who undertake education for administrative or library positions. Thus, almost no blacks are ever substantively encouraged to seek these kinds of ministry. It is fair to say that some ATS seminaries have shown considerable interest in black faculty and administrators. Unfortunately, most of these school do noth-

ing to produce the needed persons. Instead they wait for blacks to select themselves, to support themselves while being educated at graduate level, and then somehow develop the needed experience which will enable them to become the ideal and superior candidate seminaries seek for every opening. Black faculty and administrative presence simply will not develop in that manner."[23]

Here we are ten years later, and what has been achieved? Two modest approaches are suggested here for consideration:

1. The ATS should sponsor a 1-2 year administrator apprenticeship program which select and places 5 to 10 racial/ethic person in several theological schools. These persons would work along with the president and academic dean learning every possible about the job. An institution training one of the apprentices should be free to employ the person at the end of the first year of training. Persons should be identified and recruited for the apprenticeships who have an interest in and an aptitude for administration.

2. Another approach is to negotiate with a particular theological school to establish an administrators institute. The theological school selected should have a favorable atmosphere for acceptance for racial/ethnic students and a good record on diversity. The institute should bring together on a semi-annual basis a select number of racial/ethnic persons for training in theological education administration. The sessions might run from 2 to 4 weeks to allow participants to fit this into continuing education time or vacation. Participants should be selected using the same criteria for either approach. Both should have some relationship to the ATS in the hope that a larger number of theological schools would have some ownership. A training program for racial/ethnic persons should benefit from the advice and counsel of other racial/ethnic persons who have experienced theological education administration.

Preparatory to undertaking any programs for nurturing racial/ethnic for administration, there should be an in depth study of the experience of the few persons who have been involved during the past two decades. Such a study should include a special examination of the challenge of administration in the historic African American and Hispanic American theological schools.

A strategy which a number of theological schools could develop and implement would be to increase the hiring of racial/ethnic persons at the entry job level. Where this is done, it should focus on those programs which are not related to racial or cultural identify. Theological schools already employ faculty at entry job levels, and test them for several years before considering them for tenure. Why not a "tenure track" program for racial/ethnic administrators?

If the theological schools as a group were very serious about the endeavor, they could ask the ATS to undertake an evaluation of the affirmative action programs of member schools. The evaluation should focus on the existence of an affirmative action policy and program in contrast to an equal employment policy. The examination should include not only employment policies but practices as well. Schools which are deemed to have had some success should be studied to identify positive factors in their experience which could be shared with others. Theological schools might also look at what some colleges and universities have done to increase the number of racial/ethic administrators.

Although the current number of racial/ethnic administrators is quite small, surprisingly not all of them know each other. The only regular occasion for meeting, though infrequent, is the biennial meetings of the ATS, and not all racial/ethnic administrators are assured of attending

these meetings. Racial/ethnic administrator feel quite kneely their isolation from each other. There is an immediate need for racial/ethnic administrators, especially presidents and deans, to gather occasionally to share experiences. From such occasional gathers information could be collected on factors influencing the success or failure of racial/ethnic administrators. Through these gatherings racial/ethnic administrators may find mutual support and become a network for nurturing a future generation of racial/ethnic theological leaders.

ENDNOTES

[1]. Racial/ethnic will be used in this article when referring to African Americans, Asian Americans, Latinos (Hispanic American) and Native American. The terms "non-white" and "people of color" are consciously not used.

[2]. *The Souls of Black Folk.* W. E. DuBois, Fawcett Publications Inc., 1961, PP. 16-17 (First published in 1903).

[3]. *Theological Education,* Autumn 1983, Vol. XX, No. 1, p. 83.

[4]. Ibid., pp. 37-52.

[5]. Interviews with Charles Shelby Rooks, November 20, 1991.

[6]. Interview with James Evans, January 1992.

[7]. Interview, Rooks.

[8]. *Theological Education.* Vol. XXVI, Supplement I, 1990, Fumitaka Matsuoka, pp. 38-39, 47.

[9]. *Theological Education*, Autumn 1983, Vol. XX No. 1, pp 43-45.

[10]. Interview with David Shannon, January 1992.

[11]. Ibid., Shannon.

[12]. Ibid., Shannon.

[13]. Ibid., Evans.

[14]. Ibid., Shannon.

[15]. Ibid., Shannon.

[16]. World Council of Churches, Central Committee Meeting, 1988.

[17]. Interviews with Charles Shelby Rooks, November 20, 1991.

[18]. Ibid. Matsuoka.

[19]. Interviews, with Seminary Presidents, January 1992

[20]. Ibid.

[21]. David Schuller, *Theological Education*, Autumn 1983, Vol XX. No. 1. p. 5.

[22]. ATS *Bulletin* No. 39, Part 6, 1990, p. 50-57.

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Principles for Developing Executive Leaders

D. Douglas McKenna and Jeffrey J. McHenry

Sitting in her office looking out across campus, Patricia Jones sighed heavily as she reflected on her first seven months as president of Midwestern Theological Seminary and the challenges she now faced. Prior to becoming president at MTS, Patricia had been an outstanding scholar, teacher, and department chair at a prestigious and affluent seminary in the Northeast. The MTS faculty had hailed her coming to the seminary as a step in the right direction -- one of their own would now lead them out of the wilderness. Their support had changed into opposition almost overnight, however, when she proposed significant changes in academic organization, resource allocation, and faculty responsibilities and accountabilities. Faculty opposition was only one of her major challenges. She also had to deal with a slow, but steadily declining enrollment and decreasing tuition revenues; a small endowment which had not grown in five years; increasing costs in almost every area of seminary operation; emotionally-draining negotiations with the community over new construction and student parking; continuing questions from constituents about the relevance of seminary education to the changing needs of the church; a board of trustees divided and stalemated over the mission and strategic direction of the school; and finally, the personal challenge of finding time to spend with her husband and their three teenagers. "How could I have better prepared myself for all this?" she thought.

We suspect that this question occurs to every seminary president or executive at some time during his or her tenure. The purpose of our paper is to address this question by crossing over into the world of business to uncover ideas, research, experience, and practices which can be applied to the problem of preparing talented people for the challenges of executive leadership in our seminaries. In looking at the state-of-the-art in executive development in business, however, we went beyond asking what the individual can do to prepare for executive leadership. We also looked for insights on what organizations can do, individually and collectively, to increase the likelihood that the right number of people with the right capabilities will be available when needed; that is, to ensure that the pool of executive-level talent is well stocked for the future.

This is a different tack than the one on which we started. Our original purpose was to identify how and where educational programs (e.g., university-based executive development programs) are being used to develop leaders in industry. But we discovered that there is little empirical evidence that formal educational programs for managers and executives have an impact on development. As McCall, Lombardo, and Morrison (1988) have observed, investment in formal education for executive development appears to be more a matter of faith than of reason based on demonstrated results. This suggested to us that there is a more strategic question that needs to be addressed: "What kinds of experiences (educational or otherwise) have the most potent developmental effects on executive-track people?" Consequently, we took a step back from executive education to search for information on how people develop the capabilities and values needed to function effectively at the executive level in business organizations. By not assuming that formal education is critical to this process, we were able to assess the relative value of different developmental experiences and open up the possibility of challenging the way resources are currently being invested in executive development.

The paper is organized into three major sections. First, we will report results from Kotter's (1988) research on executive opinions on the state of leader development practices and programs in large business organizations and particularly, those of the best managed compa-

nies. Next, we will present ten principles of executive development which are largely derived from the work of McCall, Lombardo, and Morrison (1988) and Kotter (1982, 1988). Finally, we will propose recommendations on how seminaries and the Association of Theological Schools can apply these principles to the task of developing seminary leaders for the future.

EXECUTIVE DEVELOPMENT IN CORPORATE AMERICA

We had hoped that resource-rich Corporate America would provide us with a wealth of research and good ideas on the practice of executive development. Unfortunately, we found a literature filled with simple-minded testimonials, anecdotes, essays, and flavor-of-the-month best sellers claiming to have solved the problem of how to grow leaders.

Opinions about Executive Development Programs and Practices

Corporate executives recognize that leadership development is not as easy as the popular literature would have us believe and that current methods are not working very well. Kotter (1988) found that high ranking corporate executives are seriously disenchanted with the programs and practices their firms use to attract, retain, and motivate leadership talent. In a survey involving over 900 of these leaders (who held the top 1% or higher level jobs in their firms) from over 100 companies, 42% said that their firm was doing a poor or fair job in developing employees with high leadership potential (Kotter, 1988). Only 19% said that their firm was doing a very good or excellent job.

Kotter's executive sample was even more dissatisfied with the adequacy of specific programs and practices targeted at developing and broadening these high potential people. When it comes to developing high potentials, the following practices were all judged *less than adequate* by the percentage of executives shown:

- the way managers are rewarded for developing subordinates (93%)

- the instruction given high potential people about how to manage their own career for long-term development (89%)

- the number and type of lateral transfers made for development purposes across divisions (87%)

- special programs aimed at identifying the development needs of high potential people (80%)

- the mentoring, role modeling, and coaching provided (79%)

- the amount of time and effort the company spends in trying to manage the whole process of developing high potential people (79%)

- the way special jobs are used to develop high potential people (77%)

- the way feedback is give to subordinates regarding the developmental progress (75%)

- the firm's participation in outside management training programs (65%)

- the firm's use of in-company management training programs (57%).

Notice that the most positive of these negative results are concerned with the use of inside and outside management training programs. Yet a clear majority still think their firm's use of these programs for developing high potentials is less than adequate.

Executive Development Practices in "Best Managed" Companies

If corporate executives are generally disappointed with the effectiveness of leader development practices in their firms, to whom shall we turn for ideas and direction? Kotter notes, "It is not clear whether there are any firms today that do a truly exceptional job of attracting, developing, retaining, and motivating leadership talent" (Kotter, 1988, p.79). But two additional studies by the same author indicate that there are some well managed companies that do a number of things differently and more successfully in developing potential leaders. In one of these studies, in-depth interviews were conducted with top executives in 15 of the 20 companies rating highest on the "quality of management" and "ability to attract, develop, and keep talented people" dimensions of *Fortune* magazine's 1985 Reputation Study. Five factors differentiated the leader development practices of these "best managed" companies (e.g., IBM, Dow Jones, Hewlett-Packard, Coca Cola, Morgan Guaranty, 3M, General Electric):

A sophisticated recruiting effort. In these companies, line managers (including senior executives) rather than human resource managers drive the recruiting process. Recruiting is focused on a limited number of schools considered to be good sources of leadership talent. Hiring standards are kept high and are continually monitored. Leadership potential is explicitly assessed considered in the hiring process. Management goes out of its way to "close" on top candidates. The overall recruiting effort is evaluated at least once per year.

An attractive work environment. Kotter's best managed companies are described as good places for talented people to work. According to the executives interviewed, this means that people are treated well, competence is respected, the work is technically challenging and exciting, and people are recognized and rewarded for initiative. The executives' most common response, though, to the question of what makes their company "fun" for high potential people was that the environment was friendly rather than political. People help each other. Substance rather than style is valued. Finally, the best managed companies provide high potential people with timely information on jobs available throughout the company.

Challenging opportunities. These companies provide high potential employees with challenging entry level jobs and promotion opportunities. Organization structure and growth appear to be key. They create challenging opportunities by: decentralizing; organizing into small units; stressing organizational growth; minimizing bureaucracy so that jobs can be enriched to stretch employees; using task force assignments; creating special jobs for high potential people; and, when necessary, moving "blockers" (i.e., people who have peaked in a position that offers significant development opportunity for high potentials) out of the way through early retirement, transfer, or other means.

Early identification. The best managed companies pay careful attention to their pool of high potential people. Although their efforts are not necessarily formal or scientific, they make special attempts to observe younger employees in action and expose them to senior executives. Kotter notes that these companies "look, talk, and think" about their high potential people throughout the year (Kotter, 1988, p. 90) . It is common for senior managers to spend time each month asking tough questions about and discussing "promotable" employees and their development needs.

Planned development. These firms plan for the development of their high potential people. And they appear to use a wider variety of developmental tools more systematically than businesses in general. Training, for example, is not used as a substitute for experience, but to leverage or reinforce experience and prepare for specific future assignments. Top companies also tend to link leader development efforts to their vision of what types of leaders will be needed in the future. Thus, their planning has a visionary and strategic focus.

To sum up Kotter's (1988) research on the effectiveness of leader development programs and practices in industry, the following can be said:

- Corporate executives are generally dissatisfied with the effectiveness of their firms' leader development programs and practices.

- Companies which have a reputation for quality management and for attracting, motivating, and retaining talented employees do a number of things differently than their less well-managed counterparts.

- Leader development is a *systemic, organizational* process, involving the alignment of the full array of organization design elements -- vision, strategy, structure, job design, information and control systems, reward systems, managerial behavior and style, culture, employee selection and development systems, etc.

What is still missing from this picture is a conceptual framework which explains why certain programs and practices are important in leader development, which ones are most developmentally potent, and how they fit together into a coherent strategy for executive development. In the next section of this paper, we present such a framework in the form of ten principles for the development of executive leaders.

TEN PRINCIPLES FOR EXECUTIVE DEVELOPMENT

Those who have studied executives in action know that any description of what they observe will be probably be too simple, too static, too predictable to capture the complexity, dynamics, and uncertainty of what is actually happening (cf. Mintzberg, 1973). When we consider that the development of an executive leader takes place over a lifetime of such activity, it is obvious that trying to study and understand this process is a tremendously difficult and complex undertaking. It is, nevertheless, a task which is absolutely critical today because we need capable leaders more than ever before. In business, the reasons for this are quite straightforward: intense global competition and a breakneck rate of change in virtually all segments of the business environment. Survival in this kind of world requires intelligence, learning, responsiveness, and the motivation to persist when times are tough. Leaders are key because they help people recognize, interpret, and create ways of responding to what is happening. At critical points, they must make difficult and often unpopular decisions on direction to keep their organizations moving rather than stalling. Leaders also give people the sense of high purpose and confidence that are necessary to keep struggling when things are difficult. A world of intense competition and uncertainty is no place for leaders or organizations with an aversion to risk or an addiction to set ways of doing things. Kotter articulates this well when he says, "No one has yet found how to administer or manage people into battle."

So we need leaders more than ever, but the challenge of leading has never been more difficult. Business organizations and their environments are becoming more and more complicated, making it necessary for executives to bring an increasingly broad range of knowledge, skills, and other personal resources to the job. So although we have a limited understanding of how to develop leaders, the stakes are too high to wait for more research to be completed before taking action. Unfortunately, if the executives in Kotter's (1988) study are correct, our current approaches to leader development are not working. To meet the current and future demand for leaders, we need to try some new approaches. The following Ten Principles of Executive Development are our attempt to challenge current ways of thinking about this process and stimulate more creative approaches to the problem.

Ten Principles for Executive Development

1. Recognize that executives must be prepared to deal with a wide variety of strategic challenges.

2. Understand that executives must master a variety of lessons to be effective.

3. Use on-the-job experiences to teach the lessons of leadership.

4. Create opportunities for potential leaders to have diverse experiences.

5. Encourage potential leaders to seek out challenge and cope with adversity.

6. Insist that potential leaders take personal responsibility for their own growth.

7. Avoid standardized, cookie-cutter approaches to executive development.

8. Deliver focused support during the "critical learning periods."

9. Start early to grow an executive.

10. Make executive development a priority over short-term business results and departmental interests.

Although the principles draw upon a wide range of references from the fields of organization theory, organization design, organizational behavior, and human resource management, it will become immediately apparent that we have been most heavily influenced by two research programs on executive development. The first was conducted by Morgan McCall, Michael Lombardo, and Ann Morrison at the Center for Creative Leadership in Greensboro, North Carolina, and reported in their book, *The Lessons of Leadership*. The second is that of John Kotter from Harvard. His findings are presented in two books, *The General Managers* (1982) and *The Leadership Factor* (1988). We believe that these efforts stand at the cutting edge of the field of leader and executive development and that they are the most relevant and rigorous sources of information for the purposes of this paper. Consequently, we have not written an exhaustive review of the corporate leader development literature, but have drawn selectively on studies which we believe have the most to say about where research and practice in this field should be heading.

PRINCIPLE #1: RECOGNIZE THAT EXECUTIVES MUST BE PREPARED TO DEAL WITH A WIDE VARIETY OF STRATEGIC CHALLENGES.

At a broad level of analysis, all people in executive jobs do many of the same things. Mintzberg (1973), for example, found that all executives performed ten basic roles: the *interpersonal* roles of figurehead, leader, and liaison; the *informational* roles of monitor, disseminator, and spokesperson; and the *decisional* roles of entrepreneur, disturbance handler, resource allocator, and negotiator. Kotter (1982) simplified things even more by suggesting that effective leadership in senior management positions hinges on two main tasks: creating an agenda for change and building a strong implementation network. This focus on what's common across executive jobs may lead to the erroneous conclusion that an effective executive should be able to be successful across a wide range of industries, organizations, and strategic situations. To borrow from Gertrude Stein, "A good leader is a good leader is a good leader."

A closer look at executive jobs and what it takes to succeed in them, however, undermines this view. Digging deeper into his own data, Kotter (1982) found that effective leadership in senior management jobs required industry- and organization-specific knowledge, relationships, and reputations which are typically developed over long periods of time. He argues that the generic "professional manager" and the "professional leader" are unfortunate myths. Even within the same industry, organizations face different strategic situations and challenges at different times. Effective leaders must be prepared with the knowledge, skills, and personal capabilities required by these situations. In the anecdote with which we opened this paper, for example, President Patricia Jones faces a challenging turnaround situation. Effective leadership in this kind of situation requires very different actions than it does in more stable situations where there is a steady flow of resources into the organization.

There are several ways of sorting through the different types of strategic challenges with which organizations and their leaders must deal. One approach is to look at the specific challenges that confront an organization at a particular point in time -- challenges which create different job thrusts and therefore require different executive capabilities. Gerstein and Reisman (1983) provide a good example of the first approach. They propose that the following strategic situations call for substantially different executive actions and capabilities:

- **Start-up**. Building a new business or venture from scratch.

- **Turnaround**. Halting an organization's decline and rebuilding on a pared-down foundation.

- **Extract Profit/Rationalize Existing Business**. Increasing efficiency and reducing costs in an existing, profitable business (also known as milking a "cash cow").

- **Dynamic Growth in Existing Business**. Keeping the business on course while quickly building an organization to accommodate growing business levels.

- **Redeployment of Efforts in Existing Business**. Changing the resource allocation patterns within or across organizational subunits or businesses in response to changing market conditions or opportunities.

- **Liquidation/Divestiture of Poorly Performing Business**. Pruning weak or unprofitable businesses to strengthen the organization as a whole.

- **New Acquisitions**. Identifying and acquiring new businesses to increase organizational capabilities and integrating them into the existing organization and businesses.

A second approach is to consider the organization's stage of development and growth (Greiner, 1972). Figure 1 on the following page shows one view of how organizations pass through different stages of development. From a leadership perspective, what's most significant is that organizations at different stages of growth have different needs. Greiner identifies four "developmental crises" which occur at each of the jagged plateaus shown in the graph:

- **The Crisis of Leadership**. The fledgling organization grows to the point where its size requires direction and management, rather than just the enthusiasm and market or technical expertise of its founder(s).
- **The Crisis of Autonomy**. Employees begin to chafe under the strong leadership which was needed to resolve the previous crisis. Size creates information and decision overload at the top. Systems for delegation and control are created to resolve the crisis.
- **The Crisis of Red Tape**. Bureaucratic systems of delegation and control undermine organizational coordination and responsiveness and also employee morale. Bureaucratic systems and structures must give way to more complex, organic systems such as teams, task forces, integrating managers, and matrix structures.
- **The Crisis of Psychological Saturation**. Over time, the organization can become psychologically saturated and lose its ability to cope with more or new information, particularly information indicating that change is necessary. As a result, it becomes misaligned with its environment, both in terms of strategy and structure. Revitalization through a variety of actions may be required (e.g., turnaround, re deployment, diversification, divestiture, or acquisition).

Figure 1. Organizational Life Cycles
(Adapted from Daft, 1986, p. 188)
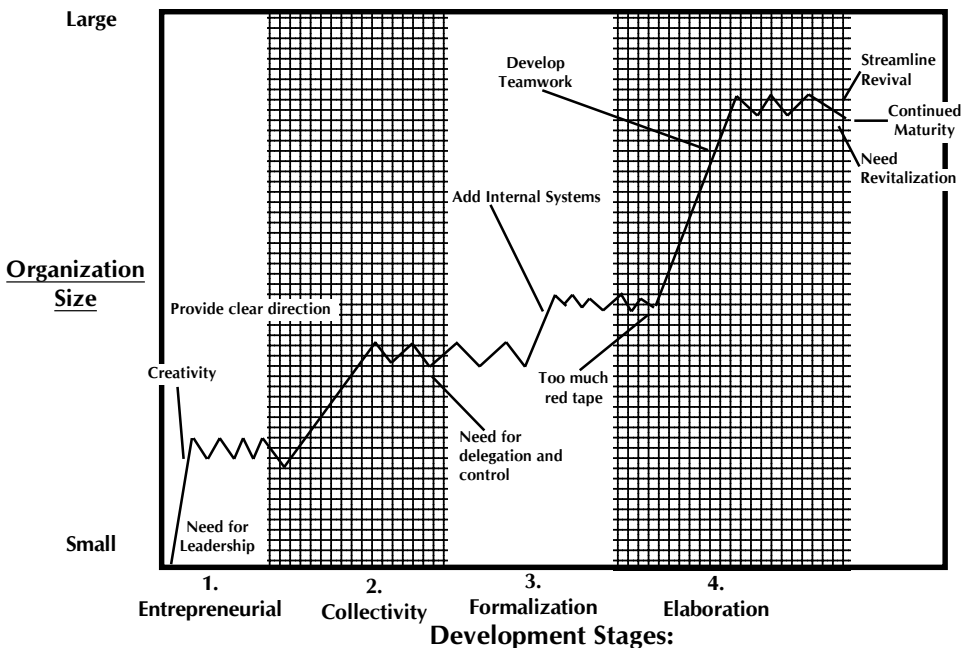
Although we will examine the implications of these differences in strategic situations or developmental stage for executive *development* in Principles #3 and 4, it is critical that we understand their implications for executive *selection*. First, assuming that different situations require different executive capabilities, we need to select leaders who have the wherewithal to deal with the demands of the specific strategic situation which the organization faces today. It is folly to assume that an executive who has been successful in leading a small, stable, profitable organization will be able to lead an effective turnaround of an organization in deep trouble. Second, because a) most complex organizations today contain subunits which are in different strategic situations or stages of development, and b) all organizations are undergoing change because of major environmental change, we must select top executives who are capable of dealing with the full range of strategic situations.

PRINCIPLE #2: RECOGNIZE THAT LEADERS MUST MASTER A VARIETY OF LESSONS TO BE EFFECTIVE.

In the early 1980s, McCall, Lombardo, and Morrison became interested in how executives develop the skills needed to meet the challenges that they face on their jobs. In a series of four studies that began in 1981 and continued through 1987, they asked 191 successful executives from six major corporations to describe "key events in your career, things that made a difference in the way you manage now" (McCall, Lombardo & Morrison, 1988, p. 6). Each executive described at least three events and the lessons he or she had learned from each event, yielding a total of 616 events and 1,547 lessons.

McCall et al. found that the lessons could be grouped into 32 types of lessons, which in turn could be organized into five themes. These are presented in Table 1 on the following page. The lessons and themes represent the knowledge, skills, values, dispositions, and ways of thinking that an executive must master to be effective across a broad range of strategic contexts. The first theme, *Setting and Implementing Agendas*, describes lessons that a leader must learn to create an agenda for change, which we mentioned in Principle #1 as a key and common executive function or task. The six lessons in this area equip leaders with an understanding of technical, operational, and strategic business issues and sharpen their problem solving skills.

The 12 lessons in the second theme, *Handling Relationships*, provide the skills needed to build a network of individuals to implement the leader's agenda, which Kotter (1982) describes as the second key task of an executive. These lessons teach leaders how to deal effectively with peers, subordinates, superiors, customers, and other stakeholders in a wide variety of complex situations.

TABLE 1
LESSONS MASTERED BY SUCCESSFUL EXECUTIVES

Adapted from M.W. McCall, M.M. Lombardo, and A.M. Morrison (1988)

Setting and Implementing Agendas
Technical/professional skills
All about the business one is in
Strategic thinking
Shouldering full responsibility
Building and using structure and control systems
Innovative problem-solving methods
Handling Relationships
Getting people to implement solutions
What executives are like
How to work with executives
Strategies of negotiation
Dealing with people over whom you have no authority
Understanding other peoples' perspectives
Dealing with conflict
Directing and motivating subordinates
Developing other people
Confronting subordinate performance problems
Managing former bosses and peers
Basic Values
You can't manage everything all alone
Sensitivity to the human side of management
Basic management values
Executive Temperament
Being tough when necessary
Self-confidence
Coping with situations beyond your control
Persevering through adversity
Coping with ambiguous situations
Use (and abuse) of power
Personal Awareness
The balance between work and personal life
Knowing what really excites you about work
Personal limits and blind spots
Taking charge of your career
Recognizing and seizing opportunities

The lessons under the remaining three themes reflect personal values and qualities that leaders must develop to be successful. The lessons provide a guiding set of management principles (*Basic Values*), character traits essential to the tasks of leadership (*Executive Temperament*), and self-awareness (*Personal Awareness*).

As leaders encounter job challenges, they draw on these lessons to determine what to do. For example, a leader who is trying to turn around a floundering business would draw on the following lessons to help chart a course of action:

- All about the business one is in
- Building and using structure and control systems
- Directing and motivating subordinates
- Confronting subordinate performance problems
- Being tough when necessary
- Persevering through adversity

Referring back to President Patricia Jones, if she has not learned these lessons through prior experience or is unable to master these lessons on the job, she will have a hard time leading a successful turnaround at MTS.

It is probably unnecessary for a leader to have mastered all 32 lessons to succeed in a first-level or middle management position. Such jobs typically pose a fairly limited set of predictable challenges. However, as we noted earlier, the challenges faced by senior executives tend to be more complex and less predictable. An executive leader may need to take charge of a turnaround in one business unit while plotting a rapid growth strategy in another. Next year, the same executive's major challenges may require the development of a marketing strategy for heading off international competition or fending off a buy-out offer from an unwanted suitor. It is difficult to predict which of these lessons executive leaders will need to put into play over the course of their tenure and career. Consequently, executives who are going to be effective over the long term must master most if not all of these lessons at some point.

PRINCIPLE #3: GIVE PRIORITY TO ON-THE-JOB EXPERIENCES FOR TEACHING THE LESSONS OF LEADERSHIP.

Executives and potential executives spend the vast majority of their time on the job. We should not be surprised, then, to find that most of their learning happens on the job, not in formal training. This being the case, it is puzzling that when we think about how to train and develop executives, our first thought is typically about off-the-job classroom training or education.

In their research on developmental experiences, however, McCall et al. (1988) discovered something remarkable. They found that virtually *all* potent developmental experiences described by senior executives occurred on the job. On the other hand, formal off-the-job training was *almost never* described by executives as one of their potent development experiences or as a source of a key leadership lesson. Leaders, like most of us, learn best when something important to them is on the line (e.g., getting a new business off the ground, getting a high-risk but well-conceived proposal approved by senior management, salvaging the career of a failing employee). Learning is catalyzed when the job or situation provides direct, hard-hitting feedback and consequences. Organizations that are most successful in developing leaders expose them to exactly these kinds of potent learning experiences by continually raising the stakes in job assignments and responsibilities (Kotter, 1988).

The obvious implication of this principle is that we need to focus more on how to use job assignments and on-the-job experience to develop leaders. We need to break away from our fixation on formal off-the-job management or leadership training. It is not that formal coursework cannot be helpful in growing executives. To be effective, however, both the timing and the content of the course must directly support what the developing executive is

trying to accomplish in her present job assignment. The training must be perceived as directly instrumental to coping with the challenges and opportunities she is facing right now or will face in the immediate future.

There is one other benefit of formal coursework, however, which should be mentioned. It can build self-confidence (McCall et al., 1988). In many organizations, an invitation to attend a special training course is a reward for good performance. The invitation itself can boost a potential leader's confidence that he is performing well and is regarded by the organization as having high potential. Self-confidence may also be enhanced when the trainee discovers that the lessons taught in the class have already been mastered and that he knows as much if not more than his peers. Finally, by attending an "executive" workshop, the young manager may begin to think of himself as an executive and actually modify his behavior to bring it into alignment with that self-image.

The most critical factor in the success of classroom training appears to be timing. Potent learning occurs when courses teach lessons that leaders are struggling to learn on the job. Recall that in Kotter's (1982) study of the best managed companies, training was never used as a substitute for experience. Rather it was used to support or reinforce learning of key lessons so they can be called upon more readily in future situations. Courses offered in lock-step sequence (e.g., to all new managers, to all department heads after 18 months on the job) are rarely helpful because they fail to get the right lessons to the right people at the right time.

PRINCIPLE #4: PROVIDE LEADERS WITH A DIVERSITY OF EXPERIENCES.

When it comes to teaching the lessons of leadership, not all job or life experiences are created equal. Based on their interview data, McCall et al. (1988) concluded that there are a variety of different types of experiences which are associated with learning different lessons. Table 2 on the next page shows their taxonomy of developmentally potent experiences. It should be immediately apparent that it is not an experience per se that is developmentally potent. Rather, it is the timing and nature of the challenge that the experience presents. For example, we have known for some time that the degree of challenge a future manager experiences in his first job is a significant predictor of advancement over the course of his career (Bray, Campbell, & Grant, 1974). In this case, it is the degree of challenge in the experience that stimulates learning.

Each of the experiences shown in Table 2 provides a potential executive with an opportunity to learn a subset of the 32 lessons of leadership. When a manager switches from a line to a staff assignment, for example, the key lessons which can be learned include: a) deepening or broadening technical/professional skills, b) gaining an understanding of corporate strategy and culture, c) understanding more about the business the organization is in, d) learning what executives are like and how to work with them, and e) coping with ambiguous situations in which there may be no right answer and the results are often intangible (e.g., a top management decision which is influenced to an unknown degree).

TABLE 2. KEY EXPERIENCES

Adapted from M.W. McCall, M.M. Lombardo, and A.M. Morrison (1988)
Setting the Stage
- Early work experience
- First supervisory job

Leading by Persuasion
- Project/task force assignments
- Line to staff switches

Leading on Line
- Starting from scratch
- Turning a business around
- Managing a larger scope

When Other People Matter
- Bosses

Hardships
- Personal trauma
- Career setback
- Changing jobs
- Business mistakes
- Subordinate performance problems

A "leap in scope" teaches some of the same lessons, but a number of different ones. For example, a manager who jumps from a position in which she manages 30 employees to one in which she is responsible for 200 employees, has the opportunity to learn important lessons on: a) building and using structure and control systems to manage more by "remote control," b) getting people to implement solutions, c) directing and motivating subordinates, d) developing other people, e) managing former bosses and peers, and f) learning that "you can't manage everything alone."

Thinking back to our Patricia Jones scenario at MTS, the turnaround or fix-it situation she finds herself in holds the opportunity for learning the following lessons: a) shouldering full responsibility, b) using innovative problem solving methods, c) developing and executing negotiating strategies, d) dealing with people over whom you have no authority, e) confronting subordinate performance problems, and f) managing former bosses and peers. Unfortunately, from what we know of President Jones's prior work experience as a faculty member and department chair at an affluent seminary, it seems unlikely that she would have learned these important lessons prior to coming to MTS. Thus, the cost to both MTS and President Jones of learning these lessons may prove very high -- learners make mistakes, sometimes big ones. Perhaps her other strengths make the risk worthwhile, perhaps not.

McCall et al.'s research shows that growing leaders even need to experience a variety of bosses with different styles, strengths, and weaknesses. While it is obvious that "good" bosses can provide coaching, modeling, and insights which will be helpful to the young leader, it appears that we may be overlooking the developmental value of having a "bad" boss. By observing and experiencing the consequences of a boss's insensitivity to people, for example, the fledgling executive may learn a valuable lesson enabling him to avoid making the same mistake. The most interesting aspect of this finding is that its logic runs counter to the way we usually think about whether or not to take a particular job. We

certainly would not want to take a job working for a boss who is known as a brilliant, but tyrannical manager -- or would we? McCall et al.'s studies suggest that we actually may want to seek out such bosses, rather than avoiding them. The best boss from a developmental standpoint seems to be one with great strengths *and* great weaknesses. These are the ones from whom young leaders appear to learn the most.

The fundamental point of Principle #4 is that we need to expose potential executives to a diversity of experiences which will provide them with the opportunity to learn the full array of lessons which will be needed when they arrive at the top. In other words, we need to help potential leaders build a broad portfolio of mastered lessons of leadership.

PRINCIPLE #5: ENCOURAGE POTENTIAL LEADERS TO SEEK OUT CHALLENGE AND COPE WITH ADVERSITY.

 The old saying "no pain, no gain" seems to be as true for developing executives as it is for physical fitness. McCall et al.'s (1988) findings are very clear. Challenge is necessary for learning, and adversity can be a particularly powerful stimulus for development. Motivation to learn is created when there is a gap between what the young leader wants to do and what she knows how to do. This gap creates the tension which drives learning and adaptation.

Key developmental experiences bring at least two kinds of challenge. One is the challenge that comes from a job assignment in which the leader must learn in order to succeed. Overcoming obstacles to success is the key in these experiences. The second type of challenge involves coping with failure and hardships. While the former type tends to teach external lessons -- for example, about the business, about working with others -- the latter type teaches the executive lessons about himself. We need to look carefully at both types of challenge in thinking about how to stimulate and support executive development.

Ruderman, Ohlott, and McCauley (1989) have conducted research to dig deeper into the nature of the first type of job challenge. Taking McCall et al.'s (1988) work as their point of departure, Ruderman and her colleagues have developed the Job Challenge Profile (JCP), an instrument which measures the various kinds and amount of challenge in a given job. The JCP provides a way of assessing the developmental potential of a job. The 12 scales of the JCP are shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3. DEVELOPMENT ELEMENTS OF THE JOB CHALLENGE PROFILE

Adapted from Ruderman, M.N., Ohlott, P.J., and McCauley, C.D. (1990)
1. Lack of top management support
2. Supportive boss
3. Lack of strategic direction
4. Conflict with boss
5. Intense pressure
6. Downsizing/reorganization
7. Achieving goals through personal influence
8. Problem subordinates
9. Establishing personal credibility
10. Revitalizing a unit
11. External pressures
12. Inherited problems

In their research, Ruderman et al. were able to determine the strength of the linkage between these job challenge factors (or as they call them, developmental elements) and the 32 leadership lessons identified in the McCall et al. studies.   For example, "intense pressure" in a job is associated with higher probabilities of learning that:

- Neither the subordinate nor the organization benefits if you procrastinate in directly confronting a problem subordinate.

- Decisions must be made for the sake of the business, even if they involve human cost and hurt you personally. You have to grit your teeth and do what must be done.

- Most important management situations are characterized by ambiguity, uncertainty, and stress. You have to learn to be comfortable with it and act in spite of it.

Although a great deal of research remains to be done on the JCP and its validity, it appears to be a very promising tool for assessing the development potential of a job or assignment. It could be profitably used by an individual considering whether to take a particular job or by an organization to inventory the development potential of its existing jobs or special assignments.

We want to emphasize here the dilemma that the relationship between job challenge and learning introduces for the growing leader. Contrary to our culture, which encourages an individual to pursue what feels good, we are saying that a leader will grow only by subjecting himself to painful, difficult job experiences. In the words of a best-selling pop psychology book, we are asking the high potential leader to "feel the fear and do it anyway."

From the McCall et al. studies, however, it is clear that leaders could not avoid pain even if they wanted to. Hardship and failure come into all our lives, whether we choose them or not. And they often come at the most inopportune times and when we feel least prepared to deal with them. The good news is that hardships and failures are among the most powerful developmental experiences of the executives in these studies. From personal traumas, business mistakes, career setbacks, problem subordinates, and changing jobs, the executives interviewed by McCall et al. learned a number of key lessons, mainly about themselves and

their own limitations. When they were able to engage, absorb, and reflect on the meaning of a hardship experience, executives increased their stock of two attributes which are sadly undervalued by our popular culture -- humility and compassion.

The bad news about hardships, particularly personal traumas, is that they ". . . guard their lessons best" (McCall et al., 1988, p. 90). It was not uncommon for executives in these studies to report how they had retreated into defense when confronted with hardship. Emotional distancing, blaming, cynicism, fatalism, withdrawal, and overcompensation were common defensive responses. Although it is mere speculation at this point, we suspect that hardships may be the experiences which make the most critical contribution to leader development. Hardship may be the crucible which both produces and reveals depth of character in the leader.

To sum up this principle, we would note that challenge and adversity are essential to the developing executives. The McCall et al. and Ruderman et al. studies provide us with excellent ideas and tools for identifying challenge and channeling young leaders toward those experiences. Nevertheless, the fundamental importance of unpredictable hardships in teaching the lessons of character must alert us to the fact that much of this process cannot and should not be programmed or controlled. We will return to this issue in Principle #8.

PRINCIPLE #6: INSIST THAT LEADERS TAKE PERSONAL RESPONSIBILITY FOR THEIR OWN GROWTH.

Because organizations have such a high stake in ensuring that executives are available when needed, they may be tempted to assume too much responsibility for the development of individuals. It is clear from Kotter's (1988) research that the best managed executive development programs in industry assign primary responsibility for the development of leaders to the leaders themselves. When we consider the type of person we hope that the process will produce, this makes perfect sense. Leaders are, among other things, people who readily shoulder responsibility. Like greenhouse roses that lack the fragrance of garden roses, leaders developed in a highly controlled and standardized executive development program will lack a gut-level understanding of the importance of self-motivation and accountability.

The McCall et al. studies show that successful executives are not greenhouse roses. They do assume primary responsibility for their own development. They search diligently for challenging and exciting opportunities for growth. They do not wait for their organizations to offer them developmental assignments.

Taking personal responsibility for growth involves three steps. The first step is to take advantage of opportunities. In the words of one executive:

> Seek out expanding, broadening opportunities. Don't look for comfortable
> jobs that rest on technical skills. You've got to put yourself under pressure.

The executives studied preferred assignments that had high visibility, direct senior executive involvement or oversight, tight deadlines, adverse business conditions, and large scope or scale. They tried to avoid assignments are that offered little challenge. They also reported that some of their most powerful developmental assignments were those involving a stark transition from previous jobs (e.g., a sudden promotion of two or more levels, an abrupt change from a general manager job to a staff position in an unfamiliar technical environment). These transitions frequently produced great anxiety, but they made it impos-

sible for the executive to feel any comfort or complacency -- those twin enemies of development. Indeed, several executives told McCall et al. that they bypassed comfortable promotions in favor of lateral job transfers that offered better opportunities to develop new skills.

The second step is to search aggressively for meaning in the new situation. Successful leaders ask a lot of questions. They want to know why a product is designed in a particular manner, how customers choose products, who the key stakeholders in the organization are, how a key employee thinks and what motivates him to work, which numbers on a report are most critical. Executives operate in a busy environment where learning occurs in real-time, often through trial-and-error. Nevertheless, it appears that they make time for reflection. They try to understand their environment and how it works. They learn from the good and bad examples of their superiors. They make sense of hardships. Like classroom training, reflection helps crystallize and reinforce lessons.

The final step is in taking personal responsibility is to increase self-knowledge. As leaders experience successes, failures, and hardships, and as they observe those above them in the organization, they make an honest accounting of their own strengths and weaknesses. This may be hard on the leader's self-confidence. However, effective leaders are highly driven to succeed, and they recognize that self-knowledge is a critical step on the path to managing their own growth and success.

To conclude, institutions can support executive development in a number of ways, but individuals must retain primary responsibility for their own growth.

PRINCIPLE #7: AVOID STANDARDIZED, COOKIE-CUTTER APPROACHES TO EX-ECUTIVE DEVELOPMENT.

N.F. Simpson once said, "We can't leave the haphazard to chance." This sums up nicely the dilemmas of executive development. The process has some inherently serendipitous, spontaneous, and individualized elements. For example, we cannot predict nor ethically introduce hardships in the life of a young leader. We cannot control market or organizational conditions that can deplete or expand the developmental potency of a particular job or assignment. And although we know when some of the critical learning periods for a manager are likely to occur, we have very little if any ability to predict when the unique "teachable moments" will occur for a given individual.

From studies of organization design, we know that unpredictable and non-routine tasks can be performed most efficiently when organizational structures and processes are organic and non-bureaucratic (e.g., distributed authority, flexible planning and work processes, open and widespread sharing of information, informal communication and teamwork, etc.). Given the high degree of unpredictability and complexity in the executive development process, we need to support it with more organic, flexible, responsive, individualized programs and practices.

One analogy we have found helpful in imagining what such an executive development process would be like is just-in-time (JIT) manufacturing. Japanese companies have found that by delivering needed parts to the assembly line "just-in-time" -- as close as possible to the time the parts are needed -- they can reduce inventory costs and the amount of time it takes to adjust or change the manufacturing process.

McCall et al.'s research strongly supports the need for "just-in-time" executive development. We need to be able to deliver parts and tools (e.g., knowledge, skills, lessons learned,

perspectives, questions to ask) to developing leaders just-in-time to be used in dealing with real job challenges. We also need to be able to help talented people identify the assembly line (e.g., function, business unit, organization) and the place on the assembly line (i.e., job) where they can use their parts and tools most profitably, thus building their repertoire of knowledge, skills, etc.

McCall et al. provide a scorecard for evaluating executive development systems. The scoring elements clearly describe and support an organic structure and process. The elements include.

- **Opportunistic.** The organization's business must come first. Effective development systems are those that find and scramble to use developmental opportunities when and where they occur in the course of doing what is right for the business and the organization.
- **Individualistic**. People are unique. A good executive development system will know individuals "well enough to match development needs with development opportunities" (McCall et al., 1988, p. 185) as both arise.
- **Long-term**. Executive development takes a long time. An effective program will attend to the sequence, diversity, difficulty, and balance of experiences an individual has over time.
- **Self-motivated.** As mentioned in Principle #6, an effective system communicates clearly that the primary responsibility for development belongs to the individual. The individual has the most incentive and the best perspective to manage the development process.
- **On-line.** This is the basic theme of McCall et al.'s work and this paper. The most significant learning by executives takes place in real time when they are doing real jobs with real consequences. Simulations, case studies, and classroom discussions will rarely produce the depth of learning that direct experience can provide.

We would like to offer one final thought on this principle. It seems apparent that most executive development systems, including executive education programs, fail on most of these criteria. Why is this the case? One possibility is that we are so concerned about the problem of not having enough capable leaders that we have done what we know best -- classroom-type training and education. But it appears to us that pre-packaged classroom training delivered to large numbers of executive hopefuls is much like the mechanistic process Detroit used in the past to assemble automobiles. The result was efficient production of poor quality cars which customers stopped buying.

It is time to shut down the management education assembly line, take a closer look at how developing leaders really learn, and develop the organic systems necessary to support that process in a more flexible, creative, and effective way.

PRINCIPLE #8: DELIVER FOCUSED SUPPORT DURING THE "CRITICAL LEARNING PERIODS."

Ethologists note that there are critical learning periods in the development of many species when they are predisposed to learn. For example, in the first days of their lives, young ducklings are predisposed to developing deep attachments to their parents. If the attachments do not form during the critical learning period, they may never be learned.

It appears that there are analogous critical learning periods in the lives of leaders (McCall et al., 1988). Lessons learned during these periods help launch a successful executive career.

If the lessons are not learned then, however, there is a high risk that the individual will never be prepared to assume executive responsibility.

Critical learning periods can be seen as windows of opportunity in which organizations can leverage their efforts to spur the development of new leaders. Organizations with effective executive development programs invest a large share of their executive development resources in supporting individuals during these critical learning periods.

One of these critical learning periods occurs during a potential leader's first supervisory job. At this time, she must learn the difference between being a manager-contributor and being an individual contributor. Central to this transition is learning that getting other people to move involves more than coming up with the right answer from a technical or rational perspective. It requires constant listening, explaining, empathizing, negotiating, and selling. Many first-time managers fail to grasp this distinction and never advance in their leadership skills. Harvard's Linda Hill (1992) has studied this transition in depth and describes it as "mastering a new identity." Looking back on their first supervisory job, many executives credit their boss with helping them through this critical learning period. Organizations can support developing leaders by continually reminding bosses to provide first-time managers with guidance and counsel on their new role. Unfortunately, we continue to see bosses who never made the transition themselves, and therefore are likely to be more of an obstacle than a help to a new manager during this time. This seems to be particularly true in organizations which place high value in technical, specialized contributions (e.g., high tech firms, universities, hospitals).

A second critical learning period occurs when leaders take on new jobs that are much more complex or much greater in scope and scale. The most common example is the transition to the general manager job, when the manager first becomes responsible for the profitability of a business. Kotter (1982) indicates that general managers need to learn how to help others become self-sufficient, how to spot danger signs in the operation, and how to learn and crystallize lessons when there is almost no time for reflection. These lessons are not learned by osmosis, however, and organizations can help by making experienced business advisors and senior mentors available to assist new general managers.

A third critical learning period occurs when a manager's flaws -- they all have them -- start to create a growing number of problems for himself, the people around him, and the organization. These are signs that the manager may be heading toward "derailment" (McCall & Lombardo, 1982). Table 4 on the following page shows the ten fatal flaws which can derail a previously successful executive. Leaders who exhibit three or four of the ten fatal flaws are in grave danger of derailment. What the derailing executive needs most at these times is candid, timely feedback from credible others. It is easier to keep a precariously balanced manager on track than it is to lift a derailed one back on track. This can be an excellent time to send the manager to an assessment-based development center (e.g., Personnel Decisions's Executive Development Center; the Center for Creative Leadership's Leadership Development Center or Looking Glass Simulation) which provides an opportunity for self-assessment and for feedback from credible experts. Organizations also may need to help a manager identify "remedial assignments" that will help her learn lessons that went unlearned in previous assignments and are now causing problems in her present position.

TABLE 4. TEN FATAL FLAWS LEADING TO DERAILMENT

Adapted from McCall, M.W. and Lombardo, M.M. (1983).

1. Specific performance problems with the business

   A series of performance problems sometimes emerges in which a manager runs into profit problems, gets lazy, or demonstrates that he can't handle certain kinds of jobs (usually new ventures or jobs requiring a lot of persuasion. More important, by failing to admit the problem, covering it up, and trying to blame it on others, the manager shows that he can't change.

2. Insensitivity to others: an abrasize, intimidating, bullying style.

   The most frequent cause for derailment was insensitivity to others. This often shows when managers are under stress.

3. Cold, aloof, arrogant

   Some managers are so brilliant that they become arrogant, intimidating others with their knowledge. Descriptive of such managers is this remark: "He made others feel stupid...wouldn't listen, had all the answers, wouldn't give you the time of day unless you were brilliant too."

4. Betrayal of trust

   In an incredibly complex and confusing job, being able to trust others absolutely is a necessity. Some managers commit what is perhaps management's only unforgivable sin—they betray a trust. This rarely has anything to do with honesty (which was a given in almost all the cases); rather it is a one-upping of others or a failure to follow through on promises, which wreak havoc on organizational efficiency.

5. Overmanaging: failing to delegate or build a team

   After a certain point, managers cease to do the work themselves and become executives who see that it is done. Some never make this transition, never learning to delegate or build a team beneath them. Althoughovermanaging is irritating at any level, at the executive level it can be fatal because of the difference in one's subordinates.

6. Overly Ambitious: thinking of the next job, playing politics

   Some, like Cassius, are overly ambitious. They always seem to be thinking of their next job, bruising people in their haste, and spending too much time trying to please upper management.

7. Failing to staff effectively

   Some managers get along with their staff but simply pick the wrong people—staffing in their own image with technical specialists, or picking people who later fail.

8. Inability to think strategically

   Preoccupation with detail and a miring in technical problems keep some executives from grasping the bigger picture. They simply can't go from being doers to being planners.

9. Unable to adapt to a boss with a different style.

   Failure to adapt appears as a conflict of style with a new boss. Although successful managers have the same problem, they don't get into wars over it, fight problems with facts, and rarely let the issues get personal.

10. Overdependence ojn a mentor or advocate

    Slometimes managers stay with a single advocate or mentor too long. When the mentor

PRINCIPLE #9: START EARLY TO GROW AN EXECUTIVE.

McCall et al. (1988) note that it often requires 2 - 3 years for a leader to master the lessons available in a job or personal experience. Furthermore, each experience teaches only a handful of lessons. To learn all lessons necessary to succeed in a top leadership position, executives may need 7 - 10 of these developmentally potent experiences. Thus, it is not surprising that Kotter (1988) has estimated that it takes at least 10 - 20 years to grow an executive. Successful executive development must begin early in a young leader's career. Otherwise, he will not have time to build an adequate portfolio of lessons learned.

One way in which the best executive development programs in business organizations address this need is by singling out high potential individuals early for special attention (Kotter, 1988). Typically, individuals are accepted into an executive development program during their second or third year with an organization. This practice often raises both questions and eyebrows. For example, how can the organization maintain high job motivation among those who learn that they are not on the fast track? The answer is that these organizations assure individuals that they will have several opportunities to be considered for the executive development program. These organizations update the list of executive candidates annually by adding "late bloomers" and removing candidates whose careers have derailed. Still, with each passing year, those who are not included in the program know that their chances of being considered for executive jobs declines, and their job motivation may dwindle with their career prospects. Nevertheless, this is a trade-off these organizations are willing to accept because of the necessity of providing growing leaders with the breadth of experience and quality of support needed to be successful at the top.

As we have seen in Principle #8, the best executive development programs do not impose a great deal of structure on participants. Rather, the best programs educate participants that development is a long journey that can be completed along many paths, and reassure them that the organization will provide the support they need along the way. The programs help participants understand how job opportunities and challenges may build on prior career experiences and lessons learned, but participants are given a great deal of latitude in choosing assignments. Participants' progress is closely monitored during critical learning periods and they are frequently given opportunities for skill assessment and career planning near the conclusion of these critical periods. Some programs will identify a mentor to assist each participant in her career development, but the best programs also encourage participants to work for a wide variety of supervisors. There are no time deadlines imposed on learning, and there is no attempt to rush participants into executive positions (or any other positions) before participants are ready.

PRINCIPLE #10: MAKE EXECUTIVE DEVELOPMENT A PRIORITY OVER SHORT-TERM BUSINESS RESULTS AND DEPARTMENTAL INTERESTS.

In his research on the best managed executive development programs, Kotter (1988) discovered two major obstacles to providing developing leaders with the experiences they need to develop a broad base of capabilities: pressure for short-term results and parochial politics. They have a number of effects that undermine executive development efforts. They make managers reluctant to take risky jobs in which short-term success is unlikely.

They force recruiters and managers to look for someone with the complete set of skills necessary to do a job successfully from the start. They cause bosses to be reluctant to let their talented young people leave for a better developmental opportunity in another department or function.

Kotter (1988) identifies four factors that mitigate the negative effects of short-term economic pressures and parochial politics on executive development:

- The CEO places a strong emphasis (in word and deed) on leadership and makes leadership development a top priority.
- There is a moderately strong corporate culture and identity, almost clannish, which emphasizes doing the right thing for the long-term good of the company.
- Formal structures, systems, and policies support "appropriate" practices.
- There is line management "ownership" of responsibility and accountability for the development of a pool of leaders for the entire organization.

Kotter (1988, pp. 112 - 113) also discovered five factors which impede the success of leader development efforts. They include:

- not enough support and involvement from the top
- too centralized; the process does not involve everyone up and down the line
- too staff-driven; personnel or human resources staff drive the effort
- unrealistic expectations about how quickly leaders can be developed; expecting too much can be accomplished in a short period of time.
- the view that leader development is too labor-intensive; it takes up scarce time that people need to do their "real" jobs.

Of these five impeding factors, it is important to note that the first two -- lack of support and involvement from the top and too centralized -- were regarded by executives as the most significant things that get in the way of executive development. Lack of support from the top was perceived as a major impediment to leader development by 70% of those Kotter surveyed. Before investing too heavily in *any* executive development program or practice, it is clear the CEO needs to take a hard look at her own commitment to the effort and determine how she will demonstrate that commitment to the organization.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Although successful leaders take primary responsibility for their own development, the 10 principles demonstrate that there are many things an organization can do to facilitate leadership development. Kotter's research shows that the organizations with the best reputations for developing effective leaders follow these principles (Kotter, 1988).

The principles are based primarily on studies of major corporations, which operate in a much different environment than most seminaries. One critical difference between major corporations and seminaries is that seminaries may be less able to provide the range of job challenges that leaders need to develop a full range of capabilities. Most major corporations are involved in several lines of business and have tens of thousands of employees.

The variety of job challenges available in these corporations is enormous. At any point in time, the corporation may have dozens of openings for managers to help lead businesses that are expanding rapidly, businesses that are floundering and require a turnaround, new businesses, corporate task forces, and installation of new systems that will impact all 1,000+ job sites in the company. By comparison, the range of job challenges available in a 200-student, 50-employee seminary may be quite small.

A second critical difference between major corporations and seminaries is that seminaries may not benefit as much as corporations from their investment in leadership development. This is because promotion practices in most major corporations are quite different from those in seminaries. Most major corporations promote from within. The young leaders they develop today will be the officers and chief executives of tomorrow. Their investment in leadership development will be returned to them. By comparison, many seminaries hire their deans, officers, and presidents from outside the institution. Consequently, they have little incentive to invest in developing their own leaders. Seminaries that do the best job developing leaders often lose their most talented individuals to other seminaries, which may make them more reluctant to invest in leadership development in the future.

Despite these difficulties, seminaries cannot afford to ignore the 10 principles of leadership. Seminaries will continue to need strong leaders to accomplish their educational missions and meet the economic and organizational challenges of the years ahead. Leadership development must be a priority.

The differences between major corporations and seminaries may make it difficult and unnecessarily costly for an individual seminary to develop an adequate supply of leaders to meet its future leadership needs. Nevertheless, we believe that the 10 principles of leadership development can be applied effectively and profitably by seminaries *if seminaries are willing to work together on this problem*. We offer eight recommendations below.

RECOMMENDATION #1: IDENTIFY POTENTIAL LEADERS EARLY IN THEIR CAREERS.

Because it takes 10 - 20 years to develop a leader, leadership development must begin early in an individual's career. Before they can help facilitate a potential leader's development, organizations must first identify who the potential leaders are. In organizations that do the best job developing leaders, executives meet regularly to discuss leadership development and to identify employees with leadership potential (Kotter, 1988). If leader development is to be a priority for ATS, seminary presidents must show a similar commitment to identify and discuss potential leaders with one another. Before these discussions can occur, seminary presidents will need to determine a) the qualities and characteristics that distinguish potential leaders from others, b) how to identify individuals who possess those qualities and characteristics, and c) where to look for potential leaders.

In a recent summary of research on leader characteristics, Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) concluded that the six core traits required to be a successful leader include drive, leadership motivation, integrity, self-confidence, cognitive ability, and knowledge of the business. Kirkpatrick and Locke note that self-confidence and knowledge of the business are qualities which a leader can develop during the course of his career. However, drive, leadership motivation, integrity, and cognitive ability are traits that are less trainable and changeable.

These are the traits that organizations must look for when they attempt to identify potential leaders. Kirkpatrick and Locke cautioned that "traits *alone . . .* are not sufficient for business leadership -- they are only a precondition" (p. 49). However, Kirkpatrick and Locke were adamant that not everyone is a potential leader.

> "Regardless of whether leaders are born or made or some combination of both, it is unequivocally clear that *leaders are not like other people. . . .* It takes a special kind of person to master the challenges of opportunity."

A critical question is how to identify individuals with these qualities and characteristics. Many organizations use formal assessment procedures, such as ability tests and assessment centers, to help identify individuals with leadership potential. Assessment centers have proven to be especially accurate predictors of future leader effectiveness (Bray, Campbell & Grant, 1974; Bray & Grant, 1966; Gaugler, Rosenthal, Thornton & Benson, 1987). The disadvantage of assessment centers is that they are costly. Most small organizations cannot afford to maintain an in-house assessment center, and vendors typically charge several thousand dollars for a complete evaluation of an individual's leadership potential.

Because of these costs, many organizations base their evaluations of an individual's leadership potential on her job performance. Does the individual seek leadership positions? Does she seek job challenges? Does she analyze problems accurately and choose thoughtful solutions? Does she drive for results? Does she persist in her job assignments until she succeeds? Does she demonstrate honesty and integrity in her dealings with others? Individuals who behave in this manner, even in simple assignments, are demonstrating their leadership potential. The most cost-effective approach to identifying future seminary leaders is for current leaders to look for individuals who prove their leadership potential on the job.

The final challenge is determining where to look for potential leaders. We suspect that most seminary presidents were hired from senior administrative positions at seminaries and religious colleges. However, this is *not* the place to look for potential leaders. By the time individuals reach senior administrative positions, they are well into their career. To determine where to look for potential leaders, seminaries should poll seminary presidents to determine what jobs they were holding when they first decided that they were interested in becoming an executive at a seminary or college. There probably will be a variety of responses, but the 6 - 10 most common responses are likely to capture the starting point for the careers of at least 90% of the presidents. These starting points will be the best places to look for future leaders.

We suspect that many leaders begin their careers in work settings other than seminaries (e.g., religious colleges, non-profit organizations affiliated with a religious denomination). To ensure that all potential seminary leaders are identified, seminary presidents will need to ask chief executives in these other organizations to help identify individuals who may be interested in seminary leadership positions. The development of leaders who are working in other settings may prove as important as the development of those employed by seminaries.

The result of these efforts should be a list of individuals who have the qualities required to be an effective leader and who express at least some interest in working in a seminary. (Alternatively, there may be separate lists for groups of seminaries that embrace similar religious beliefs and are likely to be interested in a common group of future leaders.) The

list should be dynamic. At least once each year, the names of new potential leaders should be added and the names of individuals who choose other careers or who prove to be ineffective leaders should be dropped. One of the roles that ATS could play would be to maintain the list and ensure that it is accessible to member institutions.

The chief value of the list is that it can be used to help monitor and assist with the development and career progression of potential leaders. All of the recommendations that follow assume that seminaries have some means of identifying potential leaders. If seminaries are unable to do this, their ability to foster leader development will be very limited.

RECOMMENDATION #2: TEACH POTENTIAL LEADERS THAT EXPERIENCE IS THE KEY TO DEVELOPING EXECUTIVE SKILLS.

It is good to let individuals know that they have been nominated as potential leaders. Most leaders have a strong leadership motivation. They are likely to view the nomination as a reward for their drive and accomplishments and will be motivated to continue to work hard and effectively.

This discussion also creates an opportunity to explain the principles of leadership development to the potential leader. They need to understand that job experience is the key to developing executive skills. The skills are not developed in a classroom, so they will not be asked to complete a series of leadership classes. Nor will they be assigned a mentor. Their nomination means that their development will be monitored and they will be kept informed of job openings and potential assignments, but ultimately they will be responsible for choosing and making the most of developmental opportunities.

RECOMMENDATION #3: HELP LEADERS MONITOR THEIR CAREER EXPERIENCES AND LESSONS LEARNED.

Perhaps the most valuable support seminaries can offer their developing leaders is to teach them about the lessons of leadership and the developmental role of experience and to provide them with a means of monitoring their career experiences and lessons learned.
The Center for Creative Leadership is in the process of developing Benchmarks, a questionnaire that will provide a snapshot of the lessons aspiring leaders have learned during their career. The survey is being designed to be completed by the leader and by individuals who are familiar with the leader's job performance. A profile showing how well the 32 lessons of experience have been learned will be produced from the completed questionnaires. The profile will include a summary of key developmental needs.

The Center for Creative Leadership is suggesting that leaders complete Benchmarks in conjunction with the Job Challenge Profile (JCP), which was described earlier (see Table 3). The JCP characterizes the job challenges or developmental elements of the leader's current assignment and generates a list of lessons that the individual can expect to learn more fully from his job.

When the two questionnaires are completed together, the combined results can be used to produce a report showing how the leader's current job assignment could contribute to his portfolio of lessons learned and suggesting types of future assignments that would add to the portfolio. This will be an enormous aid to a manager who is trying to ready himself for executive responsibilities but is unsure what type of assignment he should pursue next.

*RECOMMENDATION #4: PROVIDE SUPPORT FOR LEADERS DURING THEIR FIRST
SUPERVISORY JOB.*

Generally, training classes that are designed for a particular level or type of manager are
ineffective. To be useful, training must be delivered just-in-time when it is needed to help
solve real world job challenges. Usually, job challenges differ so much from position to
position that two managers with the same job title may be facing completely different prob-
lems requiring much different skills and management values.

Perhaps the only occasion when it may be appropriate to offer training to a cohort of man-
agers is for individuals in their first supervisory job. McCall et al. (1988) note that this is
one of the critical learning periods in the development of a leader. It is a time when they
learn a new identity (Hill, 1992), as well as several valuable lessons about the difference
between managerial and technical work, including:

- Strategic thinking
- Shouldering full responsibility
- Getting people to implement solutions
- Managing former bosses and peers
- Sensitivity to the human side of management.

This will be the first exposure to these lessons for most individuals. Most will be struggling
with these lessons to some extent. Many will derail because they will become bogged
down in technical detail and will fail to get work done through the people that report to
them. Therefore, we recommend that high potential leaders in their first supervisory job
complete a training class that reinforces the lessons of the first supervisory job.

Individual seminaries could develop their own first-line management training course, but
we believe that there would be several advantages to a course that was offered jointly by
ATS members. First, it would expose individuals to peers working in a variety of different
organizational cultures and settings. They would learn that the challenges they are facing
are not unique to their seminary. They may hear about a number of different approaches to
meeting these challenges that they had not previously considered.

Second, it would enable future seminary leaders to begin developing networks with peers
from other institutions. Recall that industry relationships are one of the keys to executive
success.

Third, there should be a sufficient number of high potential first-time supervisors to enable
ATS to offer the class at least once each year. In most seminaries, it is doubtful that there
would ever be more than one or two high potential individuals moving into supervisory
positions during a given year, so there may be several years between classes. This would
not be adequate for institutions committed to just-in-time training and development.

Finally, a jointly sponsored class would be more cost-effective. The costs for developing
the class would be shared by ATS members. And there would be economies of scale in the
classroom, also. For example, in a jointly sponsored class there might be a student-teacher
ratio of 15:1. This would be much higher than any seminary might achieve (i.e., because
there would never be 15 high potential leaders in need of first-line management training).
However, a ratio of 15:1 would still provide an excellent environment for learning. The
money saved on teacher costs could be invested in other activities that would be incorpo-

rated into the class.

Many companies have excellent training classes that help reinforce the lessons of the first supervisory job, including IBM, AT&T, and Allstate Insurance. These companies probably would be willing to share their ideas for first-line management training with ATS.

RECOMMENDATION #5: ENCOURAGE DEVELOPING LEADERS TO CHOOSE TRAIN-ING COURSES THAT WILL HELP THEM MEET CURRENT JOB CHALLENGES OR REINFORCE LESSONS LEARNED.

When it comes to training, many individuals are like little children in a candy store: They want to try everything. They have been convinced that they should not pass on any training opportunity because "you can never tell when you might need to know that."

However, the evidence shows that training is valuable only when it helps an individual meet current job challenges or reinforces lessons learned in a job assignment that is nearing completion. Otherwise, the facts learned in training tend to be forgotten long before they can be applied, and there is no value to the training experience.

In most organizations, the human resource department receives hundreds of advertisements for training classes and seminars. Seminaries can help their developing leaders choose appropriate training by making sure that they receive information about classes that are relevant to their current assignment. ATS could help by maintaining a database on high quality training classes that is organized around the 32 lessons of experience. This would allow an aspiring seminary leader to obtain instant, just-in-time recommendations for classes that would help her meet immediate job challenges. The training departments in many Fortune 500 companies maintain an extensive library of information on training classes. Some may be willing to help ATS develop a training class database.

RECOMMENDATION #6: CONSIDER DEVELOPMENTAL NEEDS WHEN MAKING JOB ASSIGNMENTS.

Throughout this paper we have maintained that individuals should have primary responsibility for managing their own development. This should include responsibility for nominating themselves for appropriate developmental assignments.

However, we recognize that organizations have the final responsibility for making job assignments. For example, if two individuals lobby for the same assignment, the organization must decide which individual gets the assignment based on the qualifications of both individuals and the interests of the organization. There also may be some assignments that no one wants, even though the positions are critical to the success of the organization. Again, the organization must choose whom to place in these positions.

Previously we noted that pressure for short-term results and parochial politics often prompt organizations to neglect developmental needs when making job assignments. The results for leadership development are disastrous. Individuals are assigned to do the same type of job over and over again. As a result, no one ever learns the diversity of lessons that are required to be an effective executive.

Seminaries that are serious about developing leaders must commit themselves to making development a top priority in determining job assignments. When the lessons from an assignment have been learned and the leader requests a new assignment, the seminary should make an effort to accommodate the request, even if it means that the position vacated by the

leader is filled by an individual who is less capable. In the short term this may create difficulties for the seminary, but in the long term it will be in everyone's best interest because the leader will develop new skills that he can apply to challenges faced by the seminary.

The Benchmarks and Job Challenge Profile questionnaires can be used to help make job assignments. The JCP predicts which lessons an individual is likely to learn from a job assignment. If the results from the Benchmarks questionnaire indicate that the individual has already mastered these lessons, then a different job assignment should be made.

RECOMMENDATION #7: PROVIDE OPPORTUNITIES FOR DEVELOPMENTAL ASSIGNMENTS OUTSIDE THE INSTITUTION.

Because most seminaries are considerably smaller than major corporations, they may have difficulty providing the range of job challenges that leaders need to master all of the lessons of experience. For example, some seminaries may be in the middle of a very long turnaround situation. They may never provide a developing leader with the opportunity to manage a growing operation. Others may find themselves in the midst of a very long growth cycle. They may never offer developing leaders a chance to manage an organization with a cash flow problem.

This means that most seminaries will need to provide their high potential employees with developmental opportunities outside the institution in order to ensure those individuals are prepared for any future job challenge. These opportunities may include job assignments at other seminaries, at colleges, at other non-profit (e.g., parachurch) organizations, or at for-profit corporations.

As a starting point, we suggest that seminaries establish a leader exchange program to be managed through ATS. Each seminary would identify one or more high potential individuals who needed to master lessons that could not be learned in that seminary and who had agreed to make themselves available for a one- or two-year assignment at another seminary. The seminary also would identify an equal number of developmental assignments, which it would describe in terms of job challenges and leadership lessons that might be learned. ATS's role would be to match aspiring leaders to developmental assignments.

If this program proved successful, we believe other types of organizations would be interested in collaborating with ATS on this program. For example, we suspect that many leaders move between seminaries, religious colleges, and other non-profit religious organizations during their careers. Because they draw from the same talent pool, religious colleges and other non-profit religious organizations may be interested in cooperating in a leader exchange program. It is possible that some for-profit corporations may be willing to provide job assignments for developing leaders, also.

ATS's costs for managing a leader exchange program would not be great. Much of the work could be handled by the members of the Advisory Committee on Theological Education Management. If necessary, one or two committee members could be added to help with the increased workload.

The most costly element of the leader exchange program would be the costs of temporarily relocating individuals. We recommend that ATS submit a proposal for a pilot program to an organization that might be interested in funding the development of leaders in religious education. The pilot program would include 30 - 40 high potential individuals from ATS

seminaries. At the end of two years, there would be an evaluation of the pilot program's effectiveness. ATS then would decide whether to continue with the program and whether to encourage the participation of other types of organizations. If the pilot program proved successful, an effort would be made to secure long-term funding through donations and grants.

RECOMMENDATION #8: IDENTIFY DIFFICULT CHALLENGES FACED BY CURRENT SEMINARY EXECUTIVES AND DEVELOP A NETWORK OF SUPPORTING EXPERTS TO PROVIDE JUST-IN-TIME COUNSEL ON THESE ISSUES.

All of our prior recommendations are focused on developing a long-term solution to the problem of developing executive leaders for seminaries. Considering the haphazard and generally ineffective approaches to executive development which we see in industry, we suspect that the situation is probably not much better in seminaries. As a result, it seems likely that current seminary presidents and other executives may find that there are a number of lessons of leadership which they simply have not had the opportunity to learn through experience. Since development is a life-long process, we need to use the principles presented in this paper to support the senior executives in our seminaries today.

As a first step, we recommend a systematic investigation of the specific challenges that seminary presidents are facing or have recently faced in their jobs. With the resulting inventory of presidential challenges in hand, we could then proceed to identify sources of information or counsel that could be tapped by seminary executives on a just-in-time basis. For example, we might find that President Patricia Jones's challenge in dealing with the community over construction and parking is fairly common to the experience of seminary presidents. Other presidents who had successfully worked through this kind of problem could perhaps be identified and asked if they would be available and willing to talk and share their experience with executives like President Jones on a "just-in-time" basis. Rather than spending their professional development budget on workshops, a system for paying a consulting fee to participating presidents and consultants might be developed or even funded by an outside source. A list of other resources such as books, audio, or videotapes relevant to the various presidential challenges could also be identified and distributed to seminary presidents.

Finally, we suggest that seminary presidents could benefit from participating regularly (e.g., quarterly or semi-annually) in an executive forum with other seminary or college presidents. The purpose of the forum would be to talk about job challenges, share lessons learned, give feedback and counsel, and provide the support and encouragement that come from knowing that others appreciates the difficulty of the job presidents are trying to do. Executive forums of this type are becoming increasingly popular in industry. Because the forum concept fits the just-in-time approach and the principles we have proposed, we recommend that seminary presidents give it a try.

SUMMARY

We set out to address a strategic question about leadership development: "What kinds of experiences (educational or otherwise) have the most potent developmental effects on executive-track people?" Instead of assuming that formal education is critical to this process, we assessed the relative value of different developmental experiences in an attempt to identify the optimal strategy for investing in executive development.

From Kotter's (1988) research on executive opinions of leader development programs and practices in large business organizations, we concluded that corporate executives are generally dissatisfied with their firms' effectiveness. We also found that the companies which have a reputation for quality management and for attracting, motivating, and retaining talented employees do a number of things differently than their less well-managed counterparts. For example, they attempt to identify high potential employees early in their career, and they encourage high potential employees to take advantage of a wide range of challenging job opportunities.

Next, we identified 10 principles of executive development, based primarily on a series of interviews of 191 senior executives at six major corporations conducted by researchers at the Center for Creative Leadership (McCall, Lombardo & Morrison, 1988). These principles demonstrate that the keys to a successful leadership development program are:

- identifying individuals with leadership potential early in their career

- helping high potential individuals learn the lessons of experience by encouraging them to take advantage of challenging job experiences that require them to solve real job problems and by offering just-in-time training and support, especially during critical learning periods

- building a flexible, decentralized support system, with strong executive and line management ownership, that places a higher premium on development than on short-term results or parochial concerns.

Finally, we offered eight recommendations describing how seminaries and ATS could apply the principles to the task of developing future seminary leaders. We noted that, because seminaries are so much smaller than major corporations, they may not be able to offer the diversity of job challenges that leaders will require to become successful executives. However, we showed that by working together, seminaries can effectively and efficiently develop the tools that they need to identify leaders early in their career and provide them with the tools and job challenges that they need to reach their potential. We also recommended that seminary CEOs attend to their own continuing development by meeting together regularly in executive forums.

The 1990s and the early 21st century will be a turbulent time for seminaries, as they struggle to meet the needs of and prove their value to their constituents. The need for visionary leadership has never been greater. Fortunately, we have learned a great deal about effective techniques for leadership development in the past 10 years. These techniques are readily available to seminaries and ATS. By committing themselves to leadership development today, seminaries and ATS can ensure that they will have highly skilled leaders who are capable of addressing the great challenges that lie ahead.

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Nonprofit Executive Leadership Education Study

David J. Nygren, Miriam D. Ukeritis

I. STUDY OVERVIEW

INTRODUCTION

This study summarizes current leadership programs offered for the training of nonprofit executives. This project also addresses the past and anticipated future trends of nonprofit leadership education and analyzes to whether or not these predicted trends are being currently addressed by existing programs. Finally, this study suggests implications for the Association of Theological Schools Advisory Committee on Theological Education Management (ACTEM) and the training of theological school CEO's.

The Center for Applied Social Research was asked to undertake this study by ACTEM as part of its review of the training needs of theological education leadership for the next decade. The overall study is funded by the Lilly Endowment Inc.

The objectives of this study are:

1) to review the existing management training programs for CEO's in the areas of theology/religion, educational management and philanthropy;

2) to gain information on the methods used by these programs including audience, duration, cost, curriculum and marketing; and,

3) to assess the current trends of these programs over the past ten years and project future needs.

METHOD

To accomplish these objectives, the Center for Applied Social Research mailed 42 letters and response forms (see Appendix A) to institutions known to sponsor educational programs or research in the areas of nonprofit, philanthropy, voluntarism and religious management. These institutions were identified through Independent Sector's[1] *Academic Centers and Programs: Focusing on the Study of Philanthropy, Voluntarism, and Not-for-Profit Activity* (1991). These organizations were asked to indicate if they sponsored nonprofit leadership programs, the format and content of these programs, and what they saw as the trends in nonprofit leadership education. Finally, these organizations were asked to indicate any other institutions which conduct training programs in this area.

In addition to this mailing, the Center for Applied Social Research identified and telephoned organizations listed in Independent Sector's (1987) *Resource Directory of Education and Training Opportunities and Other Services* as sponsoring nonprofit programs. Telephone follow-ups to the initial mailings were also conducted to request additional information. A total of 68 organizations were contacted by mail and/or telephone and 54 responses were received. Interviews with individuals knowledgeable in nonprofit leadership, and a thorough literature review of the nonprofit area were also conducted.

ANALYSES

Types. The program analysis indicates that current executive leadership programs fall into five classifications: religious management, nonprofit management certificates, masters in nonprofit management, nonprofit management specialization, and shorter duration programs.

Length and Cost. These programs vary in length from one day to upwards of two years depending on program type. Typically, programs are targeted toward middle to upper level managers currently working in the nonprofit sector. Five programs were specifically targeted to chief executive officers. Program costs also vary drastically from $165 for a two-day seminar to $25,515 for a two-year masters program.

Content. Current programs cover a wide range of topics specific to the nonprofit sector. The areas which seem to be common to almost all programs include financial management, human resources management, marketing, and strategic planning. Leadership was addressed specifically by 18 of the 45 programs.

Trends. Trend analysis reveals that educational programs particular to the nonprofit sector have grown rapidly in the past ten years and continue to grow. These programs have focused primarily on development of management skills, recognizing the need for greater expertise and professionalism within the field.

A future trend that was identified by this analysis presents the need for the development of a nonprofit executive network which fosters *collaboration among administrators*. Programs may encourage the formation of this network by requiring participants to be at the same organizational level, having participants attend the same sequence of courses together, and by encouraging group activities within courses. Additional identified needs include increased self-assessment techniques, and organizational applications. Both of these techniques would encourage *learning transfer to the participant's organization*. A last need identified by the project was the *diversification of instructional methods*. Instead of relying solely on lecture methods to communicate material, programs should focus on class activities, simulations, and discussion.

Analyses of the current program offerings in comparison to future trends and needs indicates several areas which have yet to be addressed by programs. These include programming particular to leadership skills, audiences of one organizational level, cohort programs, and personal and organizational applications. There is also a need for shorter duration programs which utilize a greater variety of instructional methods.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Though indicating many weak areas within present leadership program offerings, the project also contains some limitations which limit the scope of the project results. Trend analysis data was based on a limited sample of sponsoring organizations and interviews were conducted with individuals known by the project authors to be knowledgeable about the field.

II. PROGRAM CLASSIFICATIONS

A search for nonprofit leadership programs has identified the following 45 programs. These programs fall, for the most part, into five categories. These categories and the programs associated with them are listed below.

Religious Management

1. Graduate Theological Union
2. Saint Thomas Theological Seminary
3. Seton Hall University
4. Union Theological Seminary in Virginia

Nonprofit Management - Certificate

1. California State University - Hayward
2. California State University - Long Beach
3. Case Western Reserve University
4. Columbia Business School
5. Concordia College (Portland, Oregon)
6. Duke University
7. Regis University
8. Roosevelt University
9. Tufts University
10. University of California - Irvine
11. University of California - Riverside
12. University of Delaware
13. University of St. Thomas (St. Paul, MN)
14. University of San Francisco
15. University of Texas at Austin

Nonprofit Management - Master

1. Case Western Reserve University
2. Regis University
3. New School for Social Research
4. University of San Francisco

Nonprofit Management Specialization

1. DePaul University
2. Indiana University
3. Seton Hall University
4. SUNY - Stony Brook
5. University of California - Berkeley
6. University of Missouri - Kansas City

Shorter Leadership Programs

1. The Alban Institute
2. Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges
3. Carnegie-Mellon University, School of Urban and Public Affairs
4. Center for Creative Leadership

5.   Center for Creative Management
6.   Concordia College, Center for Management of Nonprofit Organizations
7.   Council for Advancement and Support of Education (CASE)
8.   DePaul University, Institute for Leadership of Religious Organizations
9.   Fuller Theological Seminary, Institute for Christian Organizational Development
10.   Harvard University, Graduate School of Education
11.   National Center for Higher Education Management Systems (NCHEMS)
12.   National Training Labs (NTL) Institute
13.   Rockhurst College
14.   State University of New York at Binghamton, Center for Leadership Studies
15.   Support Center Network
16.   Tufts University, Professional and Continuing Studies

III.   SUMMARY OF PROGRAM PROFILES

DURATION

These programs vary in length from a few hours to upwards of two years depending on the program type. Within each program classification, duration also varies. Programs in religious management vary drastically in duration, ranging from a few hours to two years. Within Nonprofit Management Certificate programs the length of the programs ranges from 6 weeks to two years (part-time). The average length of these programs is one year. Masters programs in Nonprofit Management range from one intensive year to more than two years, depending on whether the student chooses to attend full or part-time. Nonprofit Management Specializations are typically two year programs. Finally, shorter programs may last from as little as a few hours to a few weeks.

AUDIENCE

With the exception of the MPA programs and some of the short-term programs, all of the listed programs are designed to target individuals currently working in the nonprofit sector. Most of these are designed for middle to upper management. Five programs are specifically targeted for chief executive officers. These programs are sponsored by Graduate Theological Union, Columbia Business School, University of California - Irvine, University of Delaware, and University of San Francisco. Most of the programs, with the exception of religious management programs and a few of the short-term programs, are also targeted for individuals of all nonprofit subsectors.

PROGRAM COST

Costs of these programs also varies drastically between and within the length of programs. Overall costs ranged from $165 for short duration programs to $25,515 for masters programs. The approximate ranges and average costs for each program length are listed below.

Program Length	Range	Average
1 hour - 6 weeks	$165-$9500	$2370
6 - 16 weeks	$325 - $5500	$1620
1 year	$400 - $8505	$3015
2 years	$4785-$25515	$12,600

PROGRAM CONTENT

While topics covered by these programs vary, some commonalities appear among program offerings. Topics addressed by these programs include:

Accounting	Computer Applications
Conflict Resolution	Economics
Ethics	External Relations
Financial Management	Fundraising
Governance	Grantsmanship
Human Resources Management	Information Systems
Leadership	Legal Issues
Lobbying	Marketing
Multicultural Issues	Organizational Behavior
Organizational Development	Quantitative Methods
Personal Assessment	Planning
Program Development	Program Evaluation
Property Management	Resource Development
Tax Issues	Volunteer Management

The following four areas are addressed by almost all of these programs:

Financial Management
Human Resources Management
Marketing
Planning

Fundraising/resource development and legal issues were also included in many of the program offerings. Leadership was addressed specifically by 18 of the 45 programs and governance was included in 14 programs. Leadership was emphasized by more of the short-term rather than long-term programs. Important areas which were neglected by current programs include personal assessment and organizational development.

MARKETING

A variety of strategies are utilized by these institutions to market their programs. Conducting interviews with sponsoring organizations, University of San Francisco (1992) found that the most common method is direct mail followed by newspaper ads, public relations and open houses/special events. Other strategies mentioned by these institutions included ads in professional newsletters, university catalogues or materials and follow-up calls.

V. NONPROFIT EDUCATION TRENDS

THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS

PETER DRUCKER'S ANALYSIS OF NEEDS

"Precisely because they have grown so much, the service institutions require more and better management - and they require quite *different* management". This quote by author and consultant Peter Drucker (1991) emphasizes the increasing recognition that nonprofit leaders require training specific to their unique needs. As nonprofits continue to grow, Drucker proposes that three things need to happen in the sector:

1. *Nonprofit executives need to increase their management skills*. Nonprofit executives need to realize that they are accountable for their actions and that good intentions alone are not sufficient to manage an effective organization.

2. *Nonprofit executives need to learn how to raise money*. Drucker proposes that nonprofits need to "sell" individuals not on charity *needs* but on charity *results*. He believes that new fundraising efforts will require organizations to focus on organizational results in order to secure donations.

3. The success of the nonprofit sector depends on an *attitude change on the part Government* needs to recognize the importance of nonprofits to social problems and encourage charitable donations to these organizations.

While the Drucker's final prescription is beyond the scope of the present objectives, the first two imperatives are directly relevant. The unique skills required by a changing environment command attention. In examining the unique aspects of nonprofits, Herman and Heimovics (1989) interviewed 45 nonprofit CEO's to determine the present challenges facing nonprofits and the leadership skills necessary to deal effectively with these challenges. The authors found that nonprofits are confronting two *primary demands*. First, in a time of declining governmental support and intensifying competition, nonprofits must *learn to be proficient in the political marketplace* to secure sufficient financial resources. Dealing with this challenge involves creating more creative fundraising efforts and adapting programs and services to the shifts in funding. Herman and Heimovics also found that coping with the changing political and social environment involves *more proactive, risk-taking behavior* on the part of nonprofit leaders than required in the past.

CHARACTERISTICS OF OUTSTANDING NONPROFITS

Dealing effectively with these organizational challenges will place greater demands on nonprofit leaders. Knauft, Berger, and Gray (1991) propose that the new challenges facing nonprofit organizations make it a requirement that nonprofit leaders not only have inspired

leadership but manage their organizations efficiently. As expressed by these authors, "the excellent organization is not only well led, but well run" (p. 133). Distinguishing outstanding nonprofit organizations from good organizations, Knauft, Berger and Gray propose that outstanding nonprofit organizations contain four "hallmarks of excellence". These differentiating characteristics are:

1. Clearly articulated sense of mission

2. A leader who creates the organizational culture and motivates the organization to fulfill its mission.

3. Commitment from the board, and good working relations between the board and the executive officer.

4. Ongoing capacity to attract sufficient financial and human services.

Responsibility for acquiring these four characteristics usually falls to the chief executive officer. Herman and Heimovics (1990) have shown that both executives and board presidents see the CEO as responsible for both successful and unsuccessful outcomes and see the board members as affecting outcomes very little. In order to identify successful leadership efforts from unsuccessful, many researchers have focused on the identification of leadership competencies which are characteristic of outstanding leaders.

In a study which compared a group of effective executives to an executive comparison group, Herman and Heimovics (1990) found effective leaders, compared to the comparison group, facilitated interaction in board relationships, envisioned change and innovation for the organization, promoted board accomplishment and productivity, initiated and maintained board structure, spent time on external relations, developed an informal information network and participated in strategic planning. In addition, Knauft, Berger and Grey (1991) proposed that outstanding nonprofit leaders are *willing to take risks, convey a vision to others, and have a strong self-understanding*.

Particular to religious management, interviews with 35 religious leaders conducted by The Cheswick Center (1991) found that respondents felt that the skills needed by today's leaders are very different than those needed in the past. In the human services area, these leaders felt that the most important *leadership competencies* were knowledge of government regulations, *accountability, individual initiative*, and *skills in negotiation and process*. In the ecclesiastical area, the ability to vision and communicate effectively with others, comprehend economic and monetary factors, work participatively, understand planning, be personally organized, and balance work and play were considered important competencies.

Identifying the qualities of outstanding leadership of religious orders, Nygren, Ukeritis, and McClelland (1992) found that competencies characteristic of excellent religious leadership may be distinguished from those characteristic of the typical leader. By conducting Behavioral Event Interviews with 24 outstanding and 15 typical leaders, these authors found that leadership excellence requires the *basic skills* of seeking information, administrative adeptness, an orientation toward efficiency, conceptualization, analytical thinking, and mission awareness. These authors hold that these *threshold competencies* are bounded by personal qualities such as self-confidence and a concern for moderation. Beyond these threshold characteristics, outstanding leaders were deeply rooted in the awareness and presence of God, and motivated by achievement and socialized power. *Outstanding leaders*

focused on strategy by acting from a long-term perspective. Competencies of the outstanding leaders are bounded by perceptual objectivity and empathy, both accurate and perceived. All these leadership activities resulted in a shared collective and enabling vision to which members were committed.

Several authors have suggested ways to develop the necessary leadership skills for nonprofit leaders. Emphasized by both Herman and Heimovics (1991) and Knauft, Berger and Gray (1991) is the need for training programs to *emphasize self-perception* as a means of increasing skill levels. *Both of these sets of researchers feel that sharpening individuals' perceptions of themselves, their present skills, and how others might perceive them is the key to developing capable leaders.* Specific course offerings particular to nonprofit leaders which have been suggested by Levinson (1987) are fundraising, financial management, negotiation, board-executive relations, strategic planning, volunteer training, entrepreneurship.

APPLIED CONSIDERATIONS

In order to determine the past and future trends in nonprofit leadership, a number of methodologies were utilized: forty-two organizations were surveyed, a content analysis of Independent Sector's 1988 and 1991 progress reports was conducted, survey literature in the area was compiled and four individuals knowledgeable on the topic were interviewed. Responses are categorized according to program format, focus, audience, and content.

NONPROFIT TRENDS IN THE PAST TEN YEARS

Organizational Surveys

Format: In relationship to program format, respondents felt that programs focusing exclusively on nonprofit organizations have become much more available within the past ten years. Programs have also diversified with a greater number of shorter duration, non-degree programs being offered from independent agencies rather than from traditional program sources. Respondents also felt that organizations are starting to design programs for specific audience needs.

Focus: Respondents felt that programs are starting to reflect a professional, bottom-line orientation recognizing the importance of developing business-like management skills. Entrepreneurial behavior is also being fostered in current programs. In regards to audience, women and racial/ethnic minorities are more actively taking part in programs and being incorporated more fully into nonprofit curriculum. Respondents also felt that programs are not teaching specific leadership skills but advocating flexible approaches. According to respondents, program content has also focused on planning development, dealing with uncertainty, quality, participative management, management skills, and personal assessment.

Content Analysis of "Independent Sector" Report

Analysis of Institutional Resources: The organizational survey responses closely correspond with a content analysis of Independent Sector's progress reports published in 1988 and 1991 on *Academic Centers and Programs: Study of Philanthropy, Voluntarism, and Not-for-profit Activity.* This analysis reveals that the number of institutions focusing on these areas has risen from 20 in the 1988 report to 26 in 1991. The majority of this increase has been in the area of nonprofit. All of the institutions in the directory are recently founded.

The oldest, Yale University's program on nonprofit organizations, was founded in 1977. The majority of the 1991 listings were institutions founded between the years 1986-1988. Many programs continue to be developed.

Program Concentration - Older and Newer: Program offerings and research related to nonprofit institutions have changed somewhat. Major areas of program concentration in 1988 were financial management, legal environment, marketing, board relations, and fundraising. While these areas are still a focus in 1991, new areas such as leadership, human resource management, organizational development, strategic planning, and international issues have been added to program offerings.

Survey Literature

Cheswick Center Study: The literature reveals a few surveys which directly address religious leadership. In their interviews with 35 catholic and protestant religious leaders, the Cheswick Center study (1991) found that religious leaders identified both positive and negative trends in religious leadership education. The promising trends included 1) open, participatory, selection of leaders, and 2) a desire to support and improve leadership through continuing education. Some negative trends identified by these leaders were, 1) a *shrinking pool of potential leaders*, 2) a sense of *leadership unpreparedness* due to theological education's *lack of emphasis on institutional leadership development*, 3) the *lack of support after taking office* and, 4) *orientation and training programs* too limited in scope to deal with wide-ranging responsibilities of leading a religious organization. When asked how to develop religious leaders, all the respondents felt there was a need for improved leadership development programs specific to the needs of nonprofit organizations. Most felt that pre-package leadership training programs should be avoided.

Steward and Development Study: These results were echoed in the Steward and Development study survey of parish and congregation leaders (1992). While it was found that the majority of pastors were extremely satisfied with their leadership skills in the areas of theological and pastoral responsibility, respondents were less satisfied with their administrative skills. Eighty-five percent of the ministers were unsatisfied with the administrative and financial training they had received. They saw a need for more courses in business management, delegation, accounting, and personnel management. Though dissatisfaction with their training was expressed most of those surveyed had *little interest in attending such courses*.

This study also administered questionnaires to academic deans and presidents of theology institutions to look at programming available in the areas of leadership, management and stewardship. The study results showed that most of these institutions offered these courses, however, they were *rarely part of the required curriculum*. Missing from all institutions were courses specific to financial matters; fundraising, economics, budgeting. The study identified the highest priority topics in need of educational attention for protestants as, strategic planning/leadership, congregation operations management, human resources development and theology of christian stewardship. For catholics, the highest priority topics included strategic planning/leadership, human resource development, parish operations management, and theology of christian stewardship.

Notre Dame Study: The Notre Dame Study (Hoge, 1987) of Roman Catholic parishioners suggested that parishioners are looking for similar competencies as those identified above in their parish leaders. Parishioners are looking for a leader who employs a facilitating

leadership approach, places greater emphasis on adult development, encourages lay persons to assume leadership roles, and fosters a sense of community. Overall, parishioners were more satisfied with parish leadership in 1985 than in 1974 but were still at satisfaction rates lower than years previous to 1974.

Interviews with Expert Educators

Trends: Interviews with four individuals knowledgeable in the area of nonprofit leadership education revealed similar findings to those mentioned above. One of the interviewees agreed with survey respondents that programs in nonprofit leadership training are increasing as there is a growing realization that *for-profit programs are not appropriate to train nonprofit leaders*. The interviewee felt that these programs tend fall into four concentrations; 1) administration management, 2) leadership, 3) "issue" specific training such as conferences on total quality or globalization, and 4) disciplinary programs which train specific positions. This interviewee also felt that leadership and management have overlapped in these programs to a great extent, the shorter programs tending to focus solely on management while the longer programs touch on leadership issues.

Another interviewee agreed with survey respondents that *nonprofit education is rapidly focusing on professionalism*. There is a trend toward a need for greater expertise and putting professional managers into positions of leadership. This interviewee felt that a leader who is committed to the vision of the organization is not enough. One must learn also how to manage that vision. This need for management as well as leadership skills is increasingly recognized by leadership education programs. Second, this interviewee felt there was a growing recognition that nonprofits must be accountable to their publics just as for-profit organizations are accountable to their shareholders.

Another trend identified by one interviewee was the growing recognition that there are some commonalities across the nonprofit subsectors in the necessary leadership competencies. The last trend mentioned by an interviewee was the *trend against pre-packaged training programs* which do not take the different skill levels and organizational environments of the participants into account.

FUTURE NONPROFIT TRENDS

Organizational Surveys

Focus: Survey respondents had definite ideas concerning the future trends of nonprofit education programs and issues these programs should begin to address. Many of the trends of the past 10 years were predicted by respondents to continue. Respondents felt that program growth would place more emphasis on *client tailored, on-site training*. According to the individuals surveyed, the focus of educational programs will change. Increased *focus* will be placed on *forming practical applications to the individual program participant's organization*. Respondents expressed a greater need for nonprofit executives to be in connection with other organizations, nonprofit and other sectors. Leaders of business, government and the nonprofit sector should collaborate to face issues from the broader societal perspective. Respondents also described a greater need for educational programs to *foster collaboration between participants*. Respondents felt that collaboration was essential to establish problem-solving networks.

Content: In regards to program content, respondents anticipate that many of the current trends in nonprofit curriculum will continue. Financial management, managing uncertainty, diversity, and other management skills will continue to be emphasized in nonprofit leadership programs. Respondents felt that these programs will also begin to focus on teamwork, organizational development (developing organizational strategies, structures, and processes for increased organizational effectiveness), ethics, and implementing change.

INTERVIEWS WITH EXPERT EDUCATORS

Trends: In regards to the future of nonprofit leadership education, the interviewees had similar opinions as to where they saw the field going, and what they would recommend for training curriculum. These trends are as follows:

1. All of the individuals who were interviewed felt that there was a need for increased self-evaluation built into training content.
2. Following the move to on-site training, the interviewees felt that training curriculum should be applied to individual participant's leadership and organizational needs. The interviewees felt that this would help individuals recognize the need for training and increase the applicability of program topics to their organizational situation.

Program Content: Interviewees also provided curriculum recommendations. Along with the focus on self-assessment, they recommended that the following elements be incorporated into a training program:

1. Creating an organizational vision
2. Values of the organization
3. Social/economic environment
4. Mission statements
5. Quality of processes
6. Team building

Cohort Groupings: One interviewee also recommended that program participants should all be of the same organizational level and that group interaction be encouraged so that individuals form a network of professionals who could help each other solve organizational problems.

Instructional Methods: Another concern of the interviewees with current programs was in relation to instructional methods utilized. All of the interviewees felt that training programs must move away from traditional lecture methods towards more interactive learning approaches. Suggested methods included leadership simulations, case studies, and group activities.

Marketing and Self Assessment: A final word by the interviewees concerned marketing nonprofit leadership programs. These individuals felt that incorporating more self-assessment methods into the leadership program would not only increase the quality of the program, but make the program more marketable. Interviewees also suggested that marketing a leadership program to the board of directors during times of leadership transition or having boards nominate individuals to the program may highlight the importance of ongoing education and assure increased program participation.

VI.   DISCREPANCY ANALYSIS

A comparison of the data gathered in this project regarding needs with the information obtained concerning current offerings surfaced the following gaps:

MANAGEMENT/LEADERSHIP

Current program offerings address many of the needs expressed by questionnaire respondents and specified in the literature. There are also many unmet program needs. Current program offerings consist primarily of long duration, expensive, lecture-oriented management training. While it is important to continue this emphasis, increasing focus should be placed on *shorter duration, less expensive programs which specifically emphasize the development of leadership skills*. As discussed, management and leadership are difficult to separate. However, the current programs focus almost exclusively on the management and administration rather than on leadership of nonprofit organizations.

COHORT GROUPINGS

There is also a need to develop programs that are targeted to members of one organizational level rather than to several organizational levels. Requiring participants to be at the *same career stage* would allow instructors to focus programs more specifically to participant needs. Cohort programs instead of cafeteria programs should also be encouraged. These ideas would facilitate the development of informal networks among professionals encouraging sharing and collaborative problem-solving.

PROGRAM CONTENT

While the content of the current programs addresses many of the essential management skills necessary to be an effective leader, there is a need for increased emphasis on teamwork, organizational development, assessment, and implementing change within program curriculum. Another discrepancy between the trends in nonprofit leadership education and current programs is the need for these programs to focus more specifically on *personal and organizational assessment* as a tool for effective leadership.   Organizational assessment strategies may focus on identifying an *organization's structure, culture, mission and processes*. Focusing on participant and organizational needs in content development would facilitate greater application of the material to participant organizations.

INSTRUCTIONAL METHODS

Finally, trend analyses suggests that programs should move away from the current utilization of traditional, lecture methods to train participants. Instead, active instructional methods such as *case studies, discussion, leadership simulations, and group activities* should be encouraged.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Although the project identified the above trends which need organizational attention, it is limited by its data collection methods. Data collection methods rely heavily on the identification and referral to organizations by the original 42 contacted organizations. Though

efforts were made to include all institutions sponsoring nonprofit leadership education, some institutions have no doubt been overlooked. Trend analysis data was also based on a limited, non-random sample of sponsoring organizations and interviews were conducted with individuals known by the project authors to be knowledgeable about the field.

VII. SUMMARY RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations emerge from the discrepancies between the needs identified by educational providers and current program offerings.

- *Program Format:* Based on the comments of educational providers, the format of an executive leadership program should emphasize the following elements:

- *Short duration*: The majority of comprehensive programs are of long duration (one to two years). There is a need for leadership programs of a few days to a few weeks in duration.

- *Low cost*: Tuitions for programs lasting a few weeks are steep, ranging upwards to $9500. A need for more affordable programming is evident as the majority of nonprofit organizations cannot afford such fees.

- Targeted at *one organizational level*: Many current programs are offered to individuals at a variety of organizational levels. Programs focusing on a single organizational level are needed to encourage participants to develop a network with individuals encountering similar organizational issues.

- *Cohort program*: Programs should be formed in such a way that participants proceed through all modules together as a group. Again, this structure contributes to the formation of informal networks.

- *Active learning methods*: Instructional methods which encourage participation from attendees should be emphasized. These methods hold participant attention, increase retention, and encourage participant application of the material. Suggested activities include case studies, discussion, simulations, and group activities.

Program Content: Though an executive leadership program should not neglect the importance of management skills, providers suggest that program content should also focus on the following curriculum areas:

- *Specific emphasis on leadership*: There remains a need for programs to focus specifically on leadership rather than management skills.

- *Personal and Organizational Assessment*: Programs which assess participants' competencies and organizational environments are greatly needed. Assessment assists program sponsors in tailoring the program to the needs of the participants and their organizations, and helps participants and organizational sponsors receive the maximum value of a program.

- *Organizational Applications*: There is a need for programs to focus on applying program content to participant organizations. Some programs have accomplished this by discussion of the material, while other programs have asked participants to work on an applied project, driven by the needs of their organization.

- *Teamwork*: Teamwork was addressed by only two of the 45 programs. There is a need to include teamwork in program content.

- *Organizational Development and Implementing Change*: These topics are absent from current programs and were identified as essential by educational providers.

Additional Recommendation: ATS may wish to consider acting as an information clearing-house; receiving nonprofit leadership program information and passing this information on to members. Functioning as a clearinghouse would allow ATS to remain updated on program offerings, as well as increase members' awareness of educational opportunities.

Institutions: Two institutions are currently conducting programs which incorporate many of these program recommendations: DePaul University and University of San Francisco. DePaul University offers both short-term and long programs specific to the needs of nonprofits and religious organizations. The Institute for Leadership of Religious Organizations utilizes many elements recommended by program providers, and offers individual and organizational consultation.

The University of San Francisco offers certificate, and masters programs in nonprofit management. Like DePaul, many of the above recommendations are incorporated into program offerings. Although the University of San Francisco does not offer programs specific to religious management, the University is sponsored by a religious group and would likely be responsive to the special needs leadership of religious organizations.

[1]The Independent Sector is a non-profit coalition of 825 corporate, foundation, and voluntary organization members. The Mission of the Independent Sector is to create a national forum capable of encouraging the giving initiative that helps to better serve people and community causes. They have done extensive research in identifying educational programs designed to assist persons working in the non-profit sector.

ENDNOTES

[1.] The Independent Sector is a nonprofit coalition of 825 corporate, foundation, and voluntary organizaation members. The Mission of the Independent Sector is to create a national forum capable of encouraging the giving initiative that helps to better serve people and community causes. They have done extensive research in identifying educational programs designed to assist persons working in the nonprofit sector.

[2.] Peter Drucker, "It Profits Us to Strengthen Nonprofits," *Wall Street Journal* (19 December 1991).

[3.] E. B. Knauft, R. A. Berger, and S. T. Gray, *Profiles of Excellence*, (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1991): 133.

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