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FIGURED WORLDS: A PHENOMENOLOGICAL STUDY OF THE
TRANSITIONAL ROLES OF COMMUNITY COLLEGE FACULTY LEADERS

A Dissertation
Presented to the
Faculty of
California State University,
San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education
in
Educational Leadership

by
Quinton Patrick Bemiller
June 2019
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Approved by:

Edna Martinez, Committee Chair, Education
Nancy Acevedo-Gil, Committee Member
Donna Schnorr, Committee Member
ABSTRACT

Despite the importance of community colleges in higher education, community college faculty are understudied. Although the community college has been defined as a teaching institution, its faculty also serve in non-teaching leadership roles. The purpose of this research study is to know (1) what the experiences of community college faculty in leadership roles are, (2) how their roles have changed over time, (3) what factors motivated faculty to accept non-teaching roles, and (4) how faculty have navigated the transition. Data were obtained from open-ended, semi-structured interviews using an Interpretive Phenomenological approach. Qualitative data were transcribed, coded, categorized, and then organized into five prominent thematic findings: a) Loyalty to the Community College and Students, b) A Student-Centered Collegial Identity, c) Personal Fulfillment, d) Cycle of Roles and e) Tensions. This study informs community college stakeholders about how to strengthen and support faculty leadership at the community college with implications for policy, practice and future research.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I was extremely fortunate to have Dr. Edna Martinez as my chair. She is an accomplished researcher, passionate teacher, and an ideal mentor. Dr. Martinez shared her knowledge generously, giving me resources and suggestions based on her deep knowledge of the literature. She held me to high standards—always pushing me to improve my analysis and refine my writing—while at the same time encouraging me with reassuring words. Dr. Martinez was always accessible for consultations and was meticulous in her feedback of my work. She went far beyond her role as a dissertation chair. She was an inspiration and a guide. For all of that, I am forever grateful.

My committee members, Dr. Acevedo-Gil and Dr. Schnorr also helped me to develop my work, and I am thankful for their time and efforts. In particular, I appreciated their assistance in the research seminars and their ability to see my research from their individual perspectives. Along with Dr. Martinez, they truly made a perfect committee.

This doctoral program was an extreme commitment of time and energy, on top of an already ridiculously busy schedule and life. For over two years, I shared most Tuesday nights and Saturday mornings (and many Saturday afternoons) with my colleagues in Cohort 10. Together, these dogged individuals with their unique experiences and genuine charisma created what could have been a successful reality television show. We helped each other through the journey, and I can't imagine it any other way. In particular, I want to thank my
friends Alejandro “Alex” Jazan and Debra Mustain. The group projects and papers, the tensions and pitfalls, couldn’t have been manageable without you two. I feel fortunate to have you as friends. You truly are “esteemed colleagues.”

My ability to participate in the doctoral program and complete my research was contingent upon not only personal sacrifices, but family commitment as well. Every minute I was researching, attending classes, or writing was a minute lost from some other aspect of my life, and that was often family time. Thank you to my wife Megann and our daughters, Lillie, Jade, and Violet for understanding and supporting me in this goal. I know it was not an ideal situation. We share in everything together, and I believe we will share our brightest days together yet.

I would like to thank my parents, Ray and Phyllis Bemiller for providing me with an educational path that started at home 42 years ago. I was privileged to grow up in a nurturing environment where education was the highest value. That obviously stuck with me and I just couldn’t get enough.

Lastly, I wish to say thank you to all the great teachers I have had in my life, both formally and informally. They are too numerous to mention but from each one I have gained something valuable.
DEDICATION

To my wife Megann, for all of your strength, wisdom and love; and to our daughters, Lillie, Jade, and Violet: the future is yours. You all mean everything to me, and these pages are all for you.
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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Problem Statement

Community colleges aspire to transform the lives of students (Bailey, Jaggers, & Jenkins, 2015; Cohen, Brawer, & Kisker, 2014), and community college faculty are the primary connection students have to their college (Fugate & Amey, 2000; Gibson & Murray, 2009; Lundberg & Schreiner, 2004; Tovar, 2014; Townsend & Wilson, 2006). About half of all baccalaureate graduates are former community college students, and community college faculty teach nine million students annually (CCEC, 2018). Of all higher education professors, one third is comprised of community college faculty (Levin, Kater, & Wagoner, 2006). Despite the significance of community colleges in higher education, and the critical role faculty play at these institutions, there remains a lack of research on the experiences of these professionals (Fugate & Amey, 2000; Rosser & Townsend, 2006; Twombly & Townsend, 2008; Gonzales & Ayers, 2018).

This dearth of research is problematic, because the identities of community colleges are tied to their faculty, and we cannot understand the community college as an institution without first understanding this group of professionals (Levin, 2012). Faculty define the very mission of the community college as a teaching institution (Townsend & Twombly, 2007), yet at the same time, are often at odds with the external political and economic pressures placed on their institutions (Levin, 2006).
Although the primary role of community college faculty is teaching (Cohen, Brawer & Kisker, 2012; Fugate & Amey, 2000; Rosser & Townsend, 2006), some faculty transition into administrative roles because of transformational experiences and encouragement from administration (Knirk, 2013). The necessity of recruiting administrators from within the teaching force is also a factor (Mitchell & Eddy, 2008; Shulock, 2002). Classroom burnout (Fugate & Amey, 2000), and less positive views of work life (Rosser & Townsend, 2006) might further tempt faculty to serve their institution in new capacities. For those faculty who do step into new roles, increased professional development is needed (Aziz et al, 2005; Gmelch & Buller, 2015; Gmelch et al, 1999; Gonzales & Rincones, 2013; Jones, 2011; Young, 2007). While faculty’s transition into administration might be a haphazard process, Young (2007) and Knirk (2013) argued that faculty could be supported by their institutions in more meaningful, positive ways. Lastly, Gonzales and Ayres (2018) suggested that some faculty may pursue administrative roles when their personal sense of dedication to the mission of the college gets construed with the neoliberal pressures placed on colleges.

All of the factors in the literature point to a situation where community college faculty will either see administrative roles as a potential progression of their values, passion, and concern, or as something that takes them away from their values, passion, and concern. It is difficult to find qualified community college administrators outside the community college system (Mitchell & Eddy,
2008; Shulock, 2002). This fact bears down on the structural system, applying a steady pressure that pulls some faculty towards administration, with transformational experiences repositioning them for administration (Knirk, 2013). Executive leaders may encourage faculty to move out of teaching and into administration (Knirk, 2013), with classroom burnout (Fugate & Amey, 2000), and less positive views of work life (Rosser & Townsend, 2006) as potential dynamics contributing to a change in role. Instead of role transition happening in a haphazard way, it could happen in a meaningful, positive, supported way (Knirk, 2013; Young, 2007;), and increased professional development is needed (Aziz et al, 2005; Gmelch & Buller, 2015; Gmelch et al, 1999; Gonzales & Rincones, 2013; Jones, 2011; Young, 2007).

In summary, the main problems catalyzing this study are the following:

1. Despite their importance, community college faculty are an understudied group of professionals.
2. Community college faculty are in a position of tension between their values as instructors, and the external political/economic pressures placed on their institutions.
3. There is an inherent need for some community college faculty to become administrators, yet the dynamics of this transition are not entirely clear.
4. When faculty do venture into administrative roles, most do not receive the institutional support they need.
Purpose Statement

The goal of the community college is to transform the lives of its students (Bailey, Jaggers, & Jenkins, 2015; Cohen, Brawer, & Kisker, 2014). Community college faculty are the primary connection students have to their college (Fugate & Amey, 2000; Gibson & Murray, 2009; Lundberg & Schreiner, 2004; Tovar, 2014; Townsend & Wilson, 2006). Roughly half of all baccalaureate graduates are former community college students, and community college faculty teach nine million students annually (CCEC, 2018). Of all higher education professors, one third is comprised of community college faculty (Levin, Kater, & Wagoner, 2006). The importance of community college faculty, however, is not reflected in the lack of research on these professionals (Fugate & Amey, 2000; Gonzales & Ayers, 2018; Rosser & Townsend, 2006; Twombly & Townsend, 2008;).

Levin (2012) asserted that understanding community college faculty is necessary if we hope to better understand the community college itself. Community colleges are teaching institutions, and the faculty define this aspect of the institution’s mission (Townsend & Twombly, 2007). Simultaneously, community college faculty are frequently in opposition to the neoliberal forces bearing down on their colleges.

Teaching is the primary role of community college faculty (Cohen, Brawer & Kisker, 2012; Fugate & Amey, 2000; Rosser & Townsend, 2006), yet non-teaching leadership experiences and support from administration are factors that potentially motivate faculty to transition into administrative roles (Knirk, 2013).
Using faculty as a pool for recruiting administrators is another consideration (Mitchell & Eddy, 2008; Shulock, 2002). Burnout in the classroom (Fugate & Amey, 2000), and negative views of their work experience (Rosser & Townsend, 2006) could also motivate faculty to explore non-teaching roles as an alternative way to apply their efforts and talents. Expanded professional development is essential for faculty transitioning into non-teaching roles (Aziz et al, 2005; Gmelch & Buller, 2015; Gmelch et al, 1999; Gonzales & Rincones, 2013; Jones, 2011; Young, 2007). Young (2007) and Knirk (2013) recommended that institutions offer improved assistance to faculty transitioning into non-teaching roles by establishing more deliberate support systems. One last scenario that might lead faculty to pursue non-teaching or administrative roles could be when dedicated faculty are taken advantage of by their colleges in service of external pressures on their institution (Gonzales & Ayers 2018).

The possibilities suggested in the literature, along with a general need for more knowledge regarding community college faculty experiences catalyzed my research. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to understand the experiences of community college faculty who transition into leadership roles and to understand their motivations and strategies during their transitions.

Research Questions

Based on my review of the existing literature, found in Chapter Two, I identified problems, which I addressed through the following research questions:
1.) What are the experiences of faculty currently serving in leadership roles?

2.) How have these roles changed over time?

3.) What factors motivated faculty to accept roles beyond teaching?

4.) How have faculty navigated their experiences?

At the end of Chapter Two, I present a conceptual framework, which guided my inquiry into the phenomenon of community college faculty leaders in transitional roles. This framework has four components: *Boundary Spanning* (Tushman, 1977), referring to those faculty whose roles bridged differentiated groups; *Normalization of Emotional Labor*, in which Gonzales and Ayers (2018) suggest that faculty can be manipulated and taken advantage of by administration; *Agency*, considered by Gonzales (2014) as specific actions or behaviors employed by faculty to earn or maintain academic legitimacy; and finally, *Figured Worlds* (Holland, Lachicotte, Skinner & Cain, 1998; Terosky & Gonzales, 2016; Urietta 2007), in which faculty construct their professional reality based on their relationship to others and through their actions. Figured Worlds was the culmination of the other three components of the conceptual framework.

**Significance of the Study**

The significance of this study is rooted in the importance of community colleges in higher education, and the value of community college faculty within those institutions. With roughly half of all baccalaureate graduates previously attending a community college, and community college faculty instructing nine
million students annually (Community College Research Center, 2018), the work of community college faculty contributes to the higher educational attainment of students in the United States. Students’ primary contact with their college is through their professors (Fugate & Amey, 2000; Gibson & Murray, 2009; Lundberg & Schreiner, 2004; Tovar, 2014; Townsend & Wilson, 2006). Research on community college faculty, however, is lacking (Fugate & Amey, 2000; Gonzales & Ayers, 2018; Rosser & Townsend, 2006; Twombly & Townsend, 2008). We do know that teaching is the primary role of community college faculty (Cohen, Brawer & Kisker, 2012; Fugate & Amey, 2000; Rosser & Townsend, 2006). Yet, for those community college faculty that transition into administrative roles, more professional development is needed (Aziz et al, 2005; Gmelch & Buller, 2015; Gmelch et al, 1999; Gonzales & Rincones, 2013; Jones, 2011; Young, 2007). We also know that tensions exist for faculty, because their values do not always align with the external pressures placed on colleges (Levin, 2006). Still, other dynamics may cause some faculty to pursue administration, (Knirk, 2013; Mitchell & Eddy, 2008; Shulock, 2002). The recent assertion by Gonzales and Ayers (2018) that faculty might pursue administrative roles because their sense of dedication gets muddled with the external pressures spoken of by Levin (2006), leaves us with more questions than answers.

The significance of this study is that it addressed gaps in the literature and is one of very few studies to examine the experiences of community college faculty since Fugate and Amey’s (2000) seminal work, Career Stages of
Community College Faculty: A Qualitative Analysis of Their Career Paths, Roles and Development. The results of this study both reaffirmed previous studies and contributed new knowledge. This study was conducted in California, home to the largest system of higher education in the world, let alone the largest community college system in the United States (California Community College Chancellor’s Office, 2018a), and where major external pressures, like Guided Pathways (CCCCO, 2018e), are currently causing major changes through the institution. There was no better time nor location to conduct qualitative research on community college faculty. Lastly, this study is significant in that it offers practical recommendations to support community colleges, development of leadership, their faculty, and ultimately their students, as we forge ahead into a period of great change.

Theoretical Underpinnings

This study takes an interpretivist approach, as it seeks to “understand situations from the point of view of those experiencing the situations” (Sipe & Constable, 1996, p. 158). In this interpretivist phenomenological study, I sought to understand the experiences of community college faculty who have transitioned into administrative roles, either partially or fully. Their experiences are important in understanding what prompted them to accept non-teaching leadership roles, and in what ways they could be better supported by their institution.

This interest grew out of my own experiences as a community college
professor. As explained in detail in the *Researcher as Instrument* section of Chapter Three, I found myself changing roles, transitioning from an identity of instructor/professor, to a multi-faceted identity somewhere between my old self, and a new identity in which I felt disconnected from teaching, and yet not entirely ready to be an administrator.

Assumptions

As the researcher, and as an active faculty participant in the community college system, I worked with several assumptions. I assumed that faculty would have individual experiences along their career path, and that there would be sources of tension along the way. I assumed that participants in my study would have various reasons for pursuing administrative roles, and that they would have mixed feelings about their decisions to pursue these roles. I assumed that participants would identify numerous ways in which their institution could have better supported them along their career path. Lastly, I assumed that the results of this study would both reaffirm previous studies and contribute new knowledge.

Delimitations

Because the non-teaching faculty leadership roles typically involve tenured/tenure-track faculty, this study excluded part-time/adjunct faculty. Only tenured/tenure-track faculty who currently had official non-teaching roles (reassigned roles) or were involved with activities that could be viewed as a path to administration according to the literature were included in this study, along with
deans, who represented the complete acceptance of a non-teaching leadership role.

Limitations

This study was an interpretive phenomenological study of the experiences of 15 faculty leaders in the California Community College system. One limitation was geographic location, as state policies vary, and some findings in this study may be limited to the socio-political environment of California. For example, community college faculty in California are unionized, and counselors are classified as faculty, which may not be true in all states.

Summary

The literature suggests that community college faculty are very important professionals, who must be studied by more researchers if we are to better understand the community college as an institution. The literature further suggests that community college faculty have values that differ from those embraced by their institutions. While community college faculty roles are defined by teaching, some faculty inevitably become administrators, or take on administrative roles. When they do, the literature shows that community college faculty do not receive the support they need. Questions remain as to how and why community college faculty pursue administrative roles in the first place, and what experiences they have when doing so. This study seeks to qualitatively show a greater understanding of the community college faculty experience and
identify areas where faculty can be better supported by their institutions. In doing so, the ability of community colleges to better fulfill its mission may be realized.

In the next chapter, Chapter Two, a thorough review of the existing literature is presented, including an examination of the conflicted history of the community college, present-day issues, and a conceptual framework.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The community college system is a 20th century invention, and a rather distinct branch of higher education in the United States. In this chapter, I break down key moments in the history and development of this institution, analyzing its achievements and shortcomings in light of its mission. I address the current neoliberal completion agenda, with particular emphasis on the Guided Pathways reform initiative in California, home to the highest concentration of community colleges in the nation (CCCO, 2018a). Throughout the chapter, I relate topics back to the faculty, positioning them at the center of teaching and learning at the community college. Despite a well-acknowledged dearth of literature on community college faculty (Fugate & Amey, 2000; Gonzales & Ayers, 2018; Rosser & Townsend, 2006; Twombly & Townsend, 2008), this group is explored in depth, including the complexity of their roles and their professional identities. As a link between teaching and non-teaching leadership roles, the conflicted role of department chair is addressed, followed by the dean position, which represents the first tier of fully fledged administrators.

To conclude, I summarize the literature and conceptually frame faculty leaders in terms of Figured Worlds (Holland, Lachicotte, Skinner & Cain, 1998; Terosky & Gonzales, 2016; Urietta 2007;), in which faculty construct their
professional reality based on their relationship to others and through their actions. Figured Worlds was the culmination of three other components of my conceptual framework which included: *Boundary Spanning* (Tushman, 1977), referring to those faculty whose roles bridged differentiated groups; *Normalization of Emotional Labor*, in which Gonzales and Ayers (2018) suggest that faculty can be manipulated and taken advantage of by administration; and *Agency*, considered by Gonzales (2014) as specific actions or behaviors employed by faculty to earn or maintain academic legitimacy.

The Community College System in the United States

Overview

The creation and evolution of the American community college is a complex tale tied to the socioeconomic and political dynamics of the United States. Brint and Karabel (1989) framed community college as a conflicted enterprise, stating that community college “has from its very origins at the turn of the century reflected both the egalitarian promise of the world's first modern democracy and the constraints of its dynamic capitalist economy” (p. 6).

While higher education in the United States was largely influenced by the European university system, the community college is essentially an American invention born out American society’s belief in transformational opportunities (Bailey, Jaggers, & Jenkins, 2015; Cohen, Brawer, & Kisker, 2014).
In the United States, higher education has been hailed as an opportunity for social mobility, where “the industrial classes would eventually study in the same institutions as those from the professional classes” (Geiger, 2011, p. 51). At the same time, Geiger (2011) points to a division between “elite” and “mass” institutions of higher education. Elite institutions are defined “by full-time residential students, by cultural ideals of liberal learning and character formation, and by destinations in high-status professions”, whereas mass institutions “cater to part-time or commuting students, convey applicable knowledge, and prepare students for employment in technical or semiprofessional positions” (p. 55).

Community colleges are mass institutions, and they expand access to higher education by keeping tuition low, being geographically convenient, and maintaining generous admissions policies (Cohen, Brawer, & Kisker, 2014). Addressing the intersection of race and social class, Cohen, et al., (2014) noted that by 2010, 42 percent of all community college students were students of color. At the same time, “the percent of associate degrees earned by white students is greater than that group’s share of total community college enrollment, while the percent of degrees earned by various minority groups is equal to or less than each group’s share of enrolment” (Cohen et al., 2014, p. 61). Indeed, some view community college as a system constructed by those in privileged positions to track students in ways that replicate social inequities (Dougherty, 2001). Brint and Karabel, (1989) explained that community colleges are a way of managing the ambitions of students too great in number to ever have a chance of
occupying the top positions in society. Community colleges “arouse high hopes only to shatter them later” (p. 11). Beach (2012) bluntly stated:

The leaders of the junior college movement were political and educational progressives, and the junior college was an institution embodying progressive ideology. Progressives believed in a white, Anglo-Saxon middle-class meritocracy that supported the capitalist system (p. 8).

This passage was a sobering reality check for those who might otherwise believe the community college had purely equitable beginnings. It also suggested an early flaw in the community college system, one which other scholars have continued to address. Vocational education, in particular, has been scrutinized by critics of the community college.

Brint and Karabel (1989) explained that vocational education is a compromise between society’s demand for higher education and the realities of labor division, what Clark (1960; 1980) coined as “cooling out” (1960, p. 569). This can be seen in the disproportionate number of non-whites from working class backgrounds enrolled in vocational education (Dougherty, 2001). Economic development and the supply of service, clerical, and other occupational workers is supported by directing a portion of students into vocational education (Labaree, 1997).

In a quantitative study, Pascarella, Edison, Nora, Hagedorn and Terenzini (1998) tested the assertions of Clark (1960; 1980) and other researchers who had asserted that community colleges hinder the higher education goals of their
students. Sampling 1,645 first-year students from 18 four-year universities and five two-year institutions, Pascarella et al. (1998) found that community college students who originally sought a baccalaureate were 20 percent to 31 percent more likely “to lower their lifetime educational plans below a bachelor of arts degree by the end of the second year of college” (p. 190). This type of data has spurred community college reform, and is no longer a revelation but rather a persistent, uncomfortable concern for community college leaders everywhere.

There is no denying that the majority of community college students never finish a degree or certificate (Bailey, Jaggers, & Jenkins, 2015; Brint 2003). In fact, some community college students appear to be adversely affected by attending a community college. Students seeking a bachelor’s degree who first enter community college are statistically less likely to obtain a bachelor’s degree when compared to students who enter a four-year institution first, with similar backgrounds, high school experience, and goals (Dougherty & Townsend, 2006). Countering this assertion is the fact that community colleges serve many types of students, including not just those seeking a baccalaureate, but also those seeking associate degrees, certificates, job skills, developmental education, and personal enrichment (Bragg, 2001; Cohen, et al, 2014; Dougherty, 2002). Community college students also face a myriad of obstacles, including family obligations, work demands, financial restraints, academic challenges, health issues, and personal matters that contribute to decreased completion rates (Cohen & Brawer, 2008; Doughtery, 1992; Levin, 2007; Ma & Baum, 2016).
These struggles mirror those of low-income, first-generation students, who make up just over half of community college students no longer enrolled (Engle & Tinto, 2008). Another circumstance to consider is that community colleges work “to serve all students, no matter their background, intentions, level of academic preparedness, family or community responsibilities, ability to pay, commitment to full-time attendance, or intervening life circumstances” (p. 62). Community colleges are “expected to serve nearly anyone who wants to attend college” (Bailey, Jaggers, & Jenkins, 2015, p. 1), and are tasked with addressing societal issues that universities did not have to consider, or in some cases, did not even want to consider (Cohen et al., 2014).

History, Purpose, and Critique

Following the Morrill Acts of 1862 and 1890, land was set aside for new colleges and the increasing popularity of inexpensive public higher education led to an expansion of institutional purpose (Cohen et al., 2014). At all levels of education, “whatever the social or personal problem, schools were supposed to solve it” (Cohen et al., 2014, p. 2). College attendance among 18 to 20-year olds increased from 5% to 10% between the first and second world wars, and universities could not provide complete access to all prospective students (Thelin, 2008). Furthermore, high school attendance among 14 to 17-year olds increased, with more than 51% of this age group, nearly 4.5 million students, attending high school by 1930 (Beach, 2012). High schools extended their reach into higher education, offering two years of baccalaureate coursework, and
increasingly provided vocational instruction (Brint & Karabel, 1989). At the same time, prominent university presidents desired to lighten university responsibilities by relegating lower-division courses to another institution, which led to the emergence of junior colleges, bridging secondary schools and universities (Brint & Karabel, 1989; Bragg, 2001; Turner, 2004; Cohen et al., 2014). Although the idea was put forth to make the freshman and sophomore years of college exclusively the domain of junior colleges, the idea was never adopted (Cohen et al., 2014). Brint and Karabel note that paradoxically, the junior college was popular because of its pathway to four-year institutions, however, “one of its primary tasks from the outset has been to restrict the number of its students who transfer to such institutions” (p. 10).

The first of these public junior colleges was located in Joliet, Illinois, outside of Chicago, and enrolled its initial six students in 1901, with the support of the Joliet High School Superintendent and the President of the University of Chicago. Joliet High School students effectively became the first transfer students, enrolling at University of Chicago with advanced standing (Bragg, 2001). “To prepare high school graduates for delayed entry into a 4-year university” was the original purpose of the community college (Beach, 2012, p. 1). Joliet Junior College retains its historic name today, with annual credit/non-credit enrollment of approximately 35,000 students, and 184 degree and certificate programs (Joliet Junior College, 2018). By 1915-16, there were 74 community colleges in the United States, only 26% of which were public
institutions. Growth happened quickly, however, and in California, almost two colleges opened every year from 1910 to 1960 (Cohen et al., 2014). The decades of the 1960s and 1970s was a period of robust growth among community colleges (Breneman & Nelson, 1981). Today, a century later, there are 1,108 community colleges, 88% of which are public institutions (AACC, 2017).

As community colleges developed, the working conditions and roles of community college faculty also evolved. Faculty working conditions at community colleges were often modeled after high schools, as many community colleges were in fact extensions of secondary education (Cohen et al, 2014). Like the secondary schools, community colleges were beholden to state policies on education, with requirements for faculty work hours, schedules, textbook usage, and institutional service (Cohen et al., 2014). In the earlier years, community colleges were small, and faculty maintained close working relationships with administrators. The students typically came directly from the local high school, and faculty knew what to expect in the classroom. As colleges grew, faculty became more distanced from staff and administration, and collective bargaining among groups became normalized. Community colleges went from having the single purpose of preparing students for transfer to a new, expanded purpose as a comprehensive institution with multiple missions (Beach, 2012). Changes in mission brought new students seeking career education, developmental education, and students uncertain about college altogether (Cohen et al., 2014).
Faculty hiring practices were affected by changing missions (Dougherty & Townsend, 2006). While community college faculty were originally rooted in the high school system, their professional roles eventually became clouded (Alfred & Linder, 1992; Fugate & Amey, 2000; Cohen et al., 2014). Community college faculty had to contend with larger classes, increased hours at work, institutional requirements, and less resources for professional development (Cohen et al., 2014). Indeed, community college faculty are affected by their institutions and daily working conditions, within the contexts of individual, group, and system-wide situations (Levin, 2006). While community college faculty are instrumental to the missions and daily functioning of their colleges, Levin (2006) asserts that faculty are often at odds with the external pressures on their colleges, such as economic and governmental goals.

An example of such external pressures was the passage of the Vocational Education Acts in the 1960s, which caused vocational programs to multiply at community colleges after 1970 (Brint & Karabel, 1989; Cohen et al., 2014). Students were offered these programs as a practical alternative to traditional courses, and industry lobbyists successfully steered federal funds to community colleges to support career programs in an effort to generate a stronger workforce (Brint & Karabel, 1989; Cohen et al., 2014). Career education, however, was not entirely new in the 1960s. It had always been a part of the community college enterprise, along with transfer preparation, developmental education, and community service. Today, all of these areas are still typically required by state
legislation (Cohen et al, 2014). Furthermore, legislation has increasingly considered how students advance through the K-20 pipeline, with community colleges held accountable to both the lower and upper ends of the process. This is an historic precedent, which continues to be relevant as community colleges move into the future.

While advocates cite the egalitarian spirit of community college, other scholars have cast doubt on this view. Dougherty (2001) outlined the debate over the efficacy of the community college system, organizing the key positionalities into schools of thought. The first of these is the Functionalist Advocates, who believe the community college democratizes education and serves society by providing the training needed to enter into middle-class jobs. The Functionalist Advocates believe that community college offers something for everyone: potential scholars who aspire to the university, redemption for those starting anew after an unsuccessful high school experience, and those seeking vocational skills to advance in their employment. They also believe that the community college preserves the academic rigor of universities by syphoning off academically underprepared students who otherwise might bog down the system.

Dougherty’s (2001) second school is that of the Instrumentalist Marxist Critics. The chief argument of the Instrumentalist Marxist critics is that community colleges actually “reproduce the class inequalities of capitalist society” (p.18), which they do in three ways. First, community colleges provide businesses with
trained workers, paid for with public funds. In that sense, the corporate world reaps the benefits of students’ education, whose aspirations are “cooled out” (Clark 1960; Pincus, 1983), especially working-class and racial/ethnic minority students. These students attend community college only to be corralled back to the same working-class conditions. Secondly, the community college supports generational class inequity. Students of low-income parents attend community college and end up in low paying jobs themselves, repeating the cycle. Quoted in Dougherty (2001), Zwerling (1976) states, “the community college is in fact a social defense mechanism that resists changes in the social structure” (p. 19). Lastly, community colleges track by social class, empowering elite universities to maintain their association with students of high socioeconomic status. Dougherty (2001) claims that while approximately 75% of community college students aspire towards a bachelor’s degree, most will not achieve their goal.

The last school of thought presented by Dougherty (2001) is the Institutionalist Critics. Here, Dougherty (2001) refers primarily to Brint and Karabel (1989), whose chief argument is that community colleges manage the ambitions of students, sorting them into societal slots, knowing that there will never be enough room at the top for everyone. Brint and Karabel (1989) view the community college as an entity that poaches students away from four-year universities. Once these students enter the community college, some will pursue vocational studies instead, abandoning the baccalaureate.
Dougherty (2001) points out that there is some truth to each argument and that there are certainly pros and cons to the community college system. His findings are that community colleges do support a more democratic approach to higher education and fill a need for students not seeking a bachelor's degree. At the same time, community colleges support the elitism of universities and their selective admissions policies. Dougherty (2001) also showed that community colleges have fallen short in their support of students who strive to obtain a bachelor's degree.

In an analysis of community college vocational education at the national, state, and local levels, Dougherty (1988) discussed his Relative Autonomy of the State perspective, essentially giving two reasons why government supported vocational education. One was to expand “opportunities for the increasing number of ‘nontraditional’ (that is, working-class and nonwhite) students wishing to enter higher education in the 1960s” (Dougherty, 1988, p. 416) and the other was serve the community. “Long basic to the community college's ethos has been a belief that its 'mission' is to serve the needs of the 'community’” (Dougherty, 1988, p. 417). Dougherty (1988) points out that while vocational education policies were being constructed at the state and national level, no students were involved in the process. These policies were a way of “strengthening the position of their vulnerable institutions” (Dougherty, 1988, p. 417). Vocational (occupational) education improved the perception of “junior” colleges “by reducing the dropout rate, raising new revenues, bringing greater
prestige, and garnering the support of the public and of political influential” (Dougherty, 1988, p. 417-418). Dougherty (1988) insists that “the central role of government officials and their relative autonomy from the demands of private interest groups must be recognized” Dougherty, 1988, (p. 422).

In an attempt to remedy shortcomings, community colleges have engaged in Middle College/Early College High School programs and baccalaureate programs (Cohen et al., 2014). The authors refer to this as “the two-way stretch” (p.22), in which community colleges dip into grades 11 and 12 and reach into grades 15 and 16. Given the history of the formation of community colleges, this is not surprising. LaGuardia Community College, New York established its Middle College High School in 1974, which led to the replication of their model in over thirty schools nationally (Cohen et al., 2014).

A dramatic and still unfolding chapter in the history of community colleges is that of the baccalaureate degree-granting community colleges. Discussion of this hybrid institution began in the late 1980s, with Florida, Idaho, Nevada, and Utah becoming the first states to allow baccalaureate degree-granting community colleges (Levin, 2004). Navarro College in Texas was the first to do so, in 1985, and by 2010 community colleges in eighteen states were offering the baccalaureate degree (Cohen et al., 2014). Levin explains that the practice of granting baccalaureate degrees at community college is an expansion of its mission but also an identity change. According to Levin (2004), external pressures and opportunities for expanding its mission, along with the history,
culture and norms of individual institutions have led to this new purpose. In Cohen et al. (2014), the former president of Edison College in Florida, which became Edison State College, is quoted as saying, “our mission was never to be a two-year college. It was to be responsive to the needs of our communities” (p. 25). In an intrinsic case study of a four-year comprehensive college that transitioned from a community college, Martinez (2014) found that the main reasons for striving towards the baccalaureate were the pursuits of legitimacy, prestige, and increased financial resources, which lowered student access in the process. Community college faculty may be required to obtain additional credentials (Levin, 2006), conduct research (Levin, 2004), obtain grant funding, and prepare and teach upper division curriculum (Martinez, 2016). Being required to do research would be at odds with Fugate and Amey's (2000) finding that community college faculty appreciate not having to do research as part of the community college tenure process. Although some community college faculty do conduct research (Baker, Terosky, & Martinez, 2017; Gibson & Murray, 2009; Martinez, 2014; Terosky & Gonzales, 2016), most do not (Townsend & Twombly, 2007). How faculty will be affected by changes in the community college mission is not completely evident, however, Levin (2006) has stated, “as agents of the institution, faculty are compromised” (p. 84), referring to the disconnection between faculty values and institutional interests.

Educational opportunity and community needs, along with institutional self-interest, are the reasons for change in mission, and mission change among
community colleges is likely to increase (Dougherty & Townsend, 2006). Longanecker (2008) also concludes that mission change is inevitable, and that some of these changes will be mutually agreeable between the state and the college, while other changes may suit one party over the other.

The history of community colleges in the United States is complex and has led to its current state, which remains a contested arena of higher education. The following sections of this chapter present findings from the literature on current issues among the community colleges, the California community colleges, and an overview of community college faculty and administrator roles.

Current Issues

The Completion Agenda

A significant number of college-going students in the United States utilize community colleges. Among undergraduates at all institution types nationally in Fall 2016, nearly 6.1 million students, or 30.7%, attended a two-year institution, while among undergraduates attending public institutions, the number of students attending two-year institutions was 40% (NCES, 2017). The National Student Clearinghouse Research Center (2017b) estimated Fall 2017 public two-year institution enrollments to be 41 percent of all public undergraduate enrollments nationally. Cohen et al. (2014), have estimated that by 2020, 43 percent of all students in higher education will be enrolled at a community college.
Beyond enrollment, the community college is part of many students’ path to the baccalaureate. “In the 2015-16 academic year, 49 percent of all students who completed a bachelor’s degree at a four-year institution had been enrolled at a two-year public institution at some point in the previous 10 years” (National Student Clearinghouse Research Center, 2017a, p. 1). In ten states, this number was over 60 percent, and in Texas, 75 percent of bachelor’s degree earners had previously attended a public two-year institution (NSCRC, 2017a). Although nationally 22 percent of these students spent only one term at a public two-year institution, 63 percent of them spent at least three terms there, and 49 percent completed their baccalaureate degree within three years after attending a public two-year institution (NSCRC, 2017a). Ten percent of community college students completed a baccalaureate degree within six years (Ma & Baum, 2016).

While a large portion of students in the United States attend community college, less than 40% of them complete degrees or certificates within six years (Bailey, Jaggars, & Jenkins, 2015; Radford, Berkner, Wheeless, & Shepherd, 2010). In California, between 2010-11 and 2015-16 (six years), only 48% of all California community college students transferred or completed a degree/certificate (CCCCO, 2017).

Data on community college completion, however, varies according to the source. As a national source of data, the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), for example, gives only a partial view of completion rates, as they only include “first-time full-time degree seeking students” earning a
credential at the institution they first attended (Ma & Baum, 2016). IPEDS does not consider students who transfer and earn degrees/certificates at other institutions as completers. As a result, completion rates from IPEDS underestimate the true number of degrees attained by students, particularly at institutions with high transfer-out rates (Ma & Baum, 2016). Ma and Baum (2016) also concluded that while completion rates may be low among community college students, the Department of Education over reports these rates. Ma and Baum (2016) argue attention should be focused on understanding who community college students are, the specific barriers to their success, and the creation of constructive policies, rather than merely pointing out low completion rates.

A 2016 report from the Community College Research Center at Columbia University (Jenkins & Fink, 2016) found that among a fall 2007 cohort of 719,371 community college students, 33 percent were identified as transfer students, and among those, 42 percent earned a bachelor’s degree. Among lower income transfer students, 36 percent completed a bachelor’s degree, compared to 44 percent of higher income students. 29 percent of transfer students also completed an associate degree or certificate. This number was the same for both lower income and higher income students. This report defined transfer students as “first-time-ever-in-college, degree-seeking students who enrolled at a community college in the fall 2007 term and subsequently enrolled in a four-year institution within six years of college entry” (Jenkins & Fink, 2016, p. 7). The data
were obtained from the National Student Clearinghouse. Among all students in the cohort, 14 percent earned a bachelor’s degree, and 32 percent earned a certificate or associate degree. This report also showed that community college transfer students transferred at much higher rates to public institutions (73 percent) rather than private, and that they transferred at higher rates to moderately selective and very selective institutions (70 percent) as opposed to nonselective institutions.

In summary, the seven key findings of Jenkins and Fink (2016) were the following (pp. 38-40):

1. Institutional practices—not just institutional characteristics—matter.
2. Among four-year institutions, transfer students had better outcomes at public institutions, very selective institutions, and institutions with higher SES students. (Socioeconomic Status)
3. Outcomes varied remarkably by state.
4. Strong baccalaureate completion for community college students requires both high transfer-out rates and high transfer-in bachelor’s completion rates.
5. The connection between earning a community college credential before transferring and the probability of earning a bachelor’s degree is not clear in most states.
6. Lower income transfer students had worse outcomes than higher income students on almost all measures.

7. In a handful of states, the bachelor’s completion gap between lower income and higher income transfer students was small or nonexistent.

From their findings, Jenkins and Fink (2016) made several recommendations for institutional leaders and policy makers. They called on both the community colleges and the four-year institutions to share common metrics and track the progress of students from community college enrollment to the completion of their bachelor’s degree. They advise institutions to benchmark themselves against the highest performing institutions in the area of student services for transfer students. It was suggested that states strategically address opportunities for improvement, and work with institutions to reduce equity gaps among transfer students. Jenkins and Fink (2016) want highly selective four-year institutions to take in more community college transfer students. Conversely, they believe policymakers and institutional leaders should put more effort into improving outcomes for community college students who transfer to less selective, public regional universities. They emphasize the need for community colleges and four-year institutions to work closely as partners. Other researchers have made similar recommendation, but these may be challenging, given the hierarchical nature of community colleges and four-year institutions (Brint & Karabel, 1989; Dougherty, 2001; Cohen, Brawer, & Kisker, 2014).
Low student completion numbers have prompted increased scrutiny from policymakers, with almost two-thirds of states adopting or planning outcomes-based funding programs, as of 2013 (Bailey, Jaggars, & Jenkins, 2015). At the same time, community colleges are expected to keep tuition low while dealing with long-term decreases in state funding (Archibald & Feldman, 2006; Bailey, et al, 2015). Community colleges “are being asked to improve their performance without being able to count on additional revenue. And they are doing this in an environment of great public scrutiny, skepticism, and criticism of college performance” (Bailey, et al, 2015, p. 2).

The conflicting dynamics of community college, as framed by Brint and Karabel (1989), continue to be relevant. Referencing their work, Dowd (2007) described the community college as both a “gateway” and a “gatekeeper”, stating:

The tensions of the community college role as both gateway and gatekeeper are particularly salient today. It is becoming clear that community colleges have both a democratization effect and a diversion effect, but that these effects are experienced inequitably by students of different backgrounds. (p. 9)

Dowd (2007) declared that while access to higher education was once the mission and identity of community colleges, outcome equality must now be the goal. Bailey et al., (2015) highlight the fact that community colleges serve “a disproportionate number of low-income, immigrant, first-generation, and ethnic
minority students”, specifically “a majority of low-income, Hispanic, and Native American students” (p. 1). Osei-Kofi and Rendón (2005) described “the essentialized Latino student…as a community college student who is older than traditional-aged students, the first in their family to attend college, low-income, and academically under-prepared” (p. 251). In California, 42 percent of community college students are first-generation college students (California Community Colleges Chancellor’s Office, 2017). Among graduates of four-year institutions in California, 29% of University of California graduates and 51% of California State University graduates started their pathway in higher education at a community college (California Community Colleges Chancellor’s Office, 2017). Nationally, 31 percent of first-time college students enrolled in community college, including 43 percent of Hispanic first-time college students and 36 percent of Black first-time college students (Ma & Baum, 2016). While these facts could be viewed as indications of community colleges successfully providing access to diverse students, when the low completion rates are considered (Bailey, et al, 2015; Radford, et al, 2010;), it translates into not only a loss to the economy, but “widespread failure, disappointment, frustration, and thwarted potential among the millions of students who do not achieve their educational goals” (Bailey et al., 2015, p. 1).

Dowd (2017) argues that the transfer and remediation functions of community colleges are stratified by the racial, ethnic, and socioeconomic status of community college students. Dowd (2017) further explains that while
community colleges have opened their doors wider for increasing numbers of students, research universities and liberal arts colleges have become more elite, thereby stratifying the undergraduate student population, with community colleges serving as a gateway into that stratified system. At the same time, Dowd (2017) illustrates how community colleges function as gatekeepers, stating that for “fiscal conservatives” it “makes sense for less academically prepared students to enroll in the lowest-cost higher education sector”, where they can enter into “workforce training” (p. 3). Regardless of one’s view of community college as a gateway or as a gatekeeper, there is no denying low completion rates for both degrees and certificates (Bailey et al., 2015). The pressure on community colleges to increase student completion rates is driven by multiple factors, including global competitiveness, an increasing demand for educated workers, and the reversal of a declining middle-class (AACC, 2012).

Bailey et al., (2015), describe the national focus on outcomes in postsecondary education as a “very recent phenomenon” brought about by five factors (pp.5-7):

1. Graduation rates being published, starting in 1990 with the Student Right-to-Know (SRK) and Campus Security Act. Low graduation rates among “open-admissions” public four-year universities were called out, while highly selective, elite universities were applauded for high graduation rates.
2. As the economy became more technology-based, a college education became seen as “a basic economic necessity”. Completion of degrees and certificates was equated with a more secure economy.

3. Prospective students adopted the consensus of degree importance. As a result, over 80 percent of students enrolling at community college declare that a bachelor’s degree or higher is their goal. Yet, six years after enrolling at a community college, only 15 percent of students have achieved this goal.

4. Increases in college tuition coupled with flat earnings over the last decade make college much harder to afford than it was for the previous generation. Ironically, tuition increases are mostly due to lower state funding, yet public opinion focused on the colleges themselves, with “students, parents, and policymakers” wanting to know “what they were getting in return for their money”.

5. By 2011, the United States ranked twelfth among the list of countries participating in the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OCED), looking at the percentage of college attainment among citizens aged 25-34. “But among 25-to-64-year-olds, the United States ranked fifth—suggesting that other countries are overtaking the United States”. This perceived threat has encouraged higher education reform.

It is important to note that faculty have not been mentioned in the
preceding discussion of community college outcomes. The national focus on completion can be seen as an external pressure on higher education institutions. Community colleges adapt to external pressures by changing structures and behaviors internally to accommodate change (Levin, 2006). The values of community college faculty, typically centered on “personal and cognitive development of students or the social advancement of their society”, are incongruent with the economic decisions made by the college (Levin, 2006, p. 84). Levin (2006) describes “community college faculty as possessing attitudes and values that are shaped by their institutions, responsive to the conditions of the day, and contextualized within personal, group, and organizational experience (p. 63). Levin (2006) cautions that “employee compliance with institutional purposes of a high productivity and market-oriented institution” may become the norm (p. 84). How community college faculty will be affected by an increased focus on completion is not yet known. The national movement towards completion seemed to coalesce recently around Guided Pathways.

Guided Pathways

The American Association of Community Colleges (AACC) began to focus on completion as a national goal in 2015, with the creation of the AACC Pathways Project (American Association of Community Colleges, 2018). The project included 30 competitively selected community colleges across 17 states. Described as “a national project focused on building capacity for community colleges to design and implement structured academic and career pathways for
all of their students”, the AACC sees this as a new approach to increasing college degree/certificate completion, “especially among low-income students and students of color” (AACC, 2018, para. 2).

The influential book, Redesigning America’s Community Colleges (Bailey, Jaggars, & Jenkins, 2015), advocates for a “guided pathways” model for community colleges, conceptually aligned with the AACC Pathway Project. In this book, the authors, each affiliated with the Community College Research Center at Teachers College, Columbia University, suggest that community colleges need to offer strategic professional development for their faculty. They identify three professional development areas for faculty that will improve programs and instruction: collaborative teams, advising skills, and inquiry groups. This recommendation is an indication of potential shifts in faculty roles as a result of the national campaign for increasing completion rates at community colleges. If viewed as a bureaucratic, neoliberal policy, Guided Pathways may obligate faculty to serve their institutions in expanded ways, putting the responsibility of access and opportunity for underserved students on their shoulders (Gonzales & Ayers, 2018). Gonzales & Ayers describe such scenario, which seems apropos to the Guided Pathways/completion agenda:

Specifically, the logics of neoliberalism and the bureaucratic state compel efficiency, industry responsiveness, and surveillance infrastructure. As such, they position faculty members not only as instructors, but as
laborers expected to be more available, to stretch further, to give more, all in the name of fostering student success. (p. 471)

The completion campaign has reached California’s community college system, the largest higher education system in the United States, (CCCO, 2018a). It has adopted a focus on student completion, incentivized by a Guided Pathways Grant Program and supported through state policies and the chancellor’s office (California Community College Chancellor's Office, 2018e). Because of the sheer scale of the California community college system, which enrolls 2.1 million students across 114 colleges (CCCO, 2018a), and employs over 60,000 faculty (CCCO, 2018d), the following section addresses the current focus on Guided Pathways in California.

**Guided Pathways in California**

In 2015, the AACC Pathways Project began, with the selection of 30 community colleges nationally, from 17 states. Included were three California colleges: Bakersfield College, Irvine Valley College, and Mt. San Antonio College. These 30 colleges were “already progressing on a student success agenda to advance that work to the next level” (American Association of Community Colleges, 2018e, para. 3). In 2017, this model expanded, with the creation of the California Guided Pathways Project.

The California Guided Pathways Project includes 20 community colleges, “selected from a competitive application process... to design and implement structured academic and career pathways for all incoming students by 2019”
These 20 colleges pay $45,000 to participate in the project, spanning 2017-2019, sending teams of five to seven people to each of six institutes. Each team consists of the college CEO/President, a faculty leader and other representatives of the college. The goal is to adapt the American Association of Community Colleges’ Pathways model. This initiative is now spreading across the entire California Community College system, under the leadership of Chancellor Eloy Ortiz Oakley.

“There is a clear need for more workers to gain access to the skills and credentials,” Oakley said in an interview. “And if we (the community colleges) can’t organize ourselves in a way that catches up with that demand, then we are going to make ourselves irrelevant” (Zinshteyn, 2017, para. 2). Chancellor Oakley introduced his vision document, Vision for Success: Strengthening the California Community Colleges to Meet California’s Needs, approved by the Board of Governors in 2017. This document states that the “Chancellor’s Office plans to use the Guided Pathways initiative as an organizing framework to align and guide all initiatives aimed at improving student success. This $150 million onetime state investment over five years will give colleges the means and motivation to spur large-scale change across the system and bring together other existing categorical funds and apportionment dollars in a coordinated fashion” (Foundation for California Community Colleges, 2017, p. 20). Specifically, the Chancellor has laid out six California Community College System Goals to be
achieved through Guided Pathways policy (Foundation for California Community Colleges, 2017):

1. “Over five years, increase by at least 20 percent the number of CCC students annually who acquire associates degrees, credentials, certificates, or specific skill sets that prepare them for an in-demand job”.

2. “Over five years, increase by 35 percent the number of CCC students system-wide transferring annually to a UC or CSU”.

3. “Over five years, decrease the average number of units accumulated by CCC students earning associate degrees, from approximately 87 total units (the most recent system wide average) to 79 total units— the average among the quintile of colleges showing the strongest performance on this measure”.

4. “Over five years, increase the percent of exiting CTE students who report being employed in their field of study, from the most recent statewide average of 60 percent to an improved rate of 69 percent— the average among the quintile of colleges showing the strongest performance on this measure and ensure the median earning gains of the exiting students are at least twice the statewide consumer price index”.

5. “Reduce equity gaps across all of the above measures through faster improvements among traditionally underrepresented student groups, with the goal of cutting achievement gaps by 40 percent within 5 years and fully closing those achievement gaps for good within 10 years”.
6. “Reduce regional achievement gaps across all of the above measures through faster improvements among colleges located in regions with the lowest educational attainment of adults, with the ultimate goal of closing regional achievement gaps for good within 10 years”.

The Board of Governors approved the Guided Pathways Grant Program on July 17, 2017, approving grants to all 114 California community colleges over a five-year period, totaling $150 million. Disbursement of funds will be as follows: 20% equally divided among all colleges, 35% according to Full Time Equivalent Students (FTES), and 45% according to number of Pell Grant students. The Guided Pathways Grant Program is now part of the California Education Code, section 889220. Senate Bill 85, Chapter 23, in Statutes of 2017 supports the Guided Pathways Grant Program. Assembly Bill 97, Chapter 14, 2017 and Assembly Bill 99, Chapter 15 further support Guided Pathways in California (CCCCO, 2018b).

Echoing the California Guided Pathways Project (20 California community colleges) and the AACC’s Pathways Project (30 national community colleges), the California Community College Chancellor’s Office (CCCCO, 2018e) has put forth “Principles of Guided Pathways”, “Four Pillars of Guided Pathways”, and “Key Elements of Guided Pathways” for all 114 California community colleges (CCCCO, 2018e, para. 1-3). The Principles focus on “clear course-taking patterns” promoting “better enrollment decisions” among students, and integrating support services for students “during every step of their community
college experience” (CCCCO, 2018e, para. 1). The Four Pillars of Guided Pathways are “create curricular pathways to employment and further education”, “help students choose and enter their pathway”, “help students stay on their path”, and “ensure that learning is happening with intentional outcomes” (CCCCO, 2018e, para. 2). Lastly, the Key Elements are “programs that are fully mapped out and aligned”, “redesigning and integrating basic skills/developmental education classes”, “structured onboarding processes”, “instructional support and co-curricular activities”, “responsive student tracking systems”, and “proactive academic and career advising” (CCCCO, 2018e, para. 3).

To be eligible for funding, California community colleges must conduct a self-assessment using the CCCCO’s Self-Assessment Tool, and over five years, begin implementing Guided Pathways at their institution. “Using the Guided Pathways framework, colleges will rethink and redesign programs and services into cohesive, campus-wide strategies to achieve the outcomes expected by the state, our system, and our students” (CCCCO, 2018d, para. 1).

The faculty role in Guided Pathways is discussed by Bailey, Jaggars, and Jenkins (2015). They describe supporting student success as an adaptive challenge, which “tends to be new, unique, unclear, or ill-defined” (p.106). They advise that community college faculty utilize an inquiry process in supporting student success. In this process, faculty question their assumptions about students’ learning, derive new insights, and apply these new insights in the classroom, or make changes to old solutions. Bailey, Jagger, and Jenkins
warn that “inquiry is difficult and emotionally challenging (p. 107), which could forecast faculty reaction to the Guided Pathways endeavor. They reference “scholarship of teaching and learning” (Hutchings, Huber, & Ciccone, 2011), stating that faculty inquiry is “quite similar to the highly technical research process with which many instructors are already familiar” (p.106).

While some community college faculty may be familiar with research, few community college faculty engage in it (Townsend & Twombly, 2007; Twombly & Townsend, 2008) and their colleges do not offer the needed support for it (Baker, Terosky, & Martinez, 2017; Twombly & Townsend, 2008). Community college faculty are typically not rewarded by their colleges for engaging in research and demands on faculty time can inhibit scholarly learning (Baker, Terosky, & Martinez, 2017). In this situation, the emotional labor of faculty may increase under pressure to advance Guided Pathways, and institutions might take advantage of faculty’s commitment to their work, especially if faculty do not receive adequate support and resources (Gonzales & Ayers, 2018). To better understand the context of community college faculty work, the findings from available literature on community college faculty roles are discussed in the next section.

Community College Faculty Overview

The most important connection students have to their community college is via faculty (Fugate & Amey, 2000; Gibson & Murray, 2009; Lundberg &
Faculty are important, because their attitudes and behaviors impact student engagement and learning, and because they contribute to a positive academic culture (Umbach & Wawrzynski, 2005). Community college faculty are responsible for teaching nine million students annually, and about half of all baccalaureate graduates once attended a community college (CCEC, 2018). One third of the entire higher education workforce is comprised of community college faculty (Levin, Kater, & Wagoner, 2006). Despite the massive footprint of community college faculty on higher education, more research on community college faculty is needed (Fugate & Amey, 2000; Rosser & Townsend, 2006; Twombly & Townsend, 2008; Gonzales & Ayers, 2018). Twombly and Townsend (2008) suggest that because most research is conducted by faculty at research universities, their research topics tend to center around university experience, not community college experience. Likewise, research by community college faculty is rare, because it is not incentivized, except for scholarly learning and improvement of teaching (Twombly & Townsend, 2008).

At universities and comprehensive colleges, the professoriate is defined by three areas: teaching (including advising and mentoring students), research, and service to the institution, with tenure tied to these three activities (Neumann, 2009). Unlike universities and comprehensive colleges, research is not part of community college faculty duties, nor is it a requirement for tenure (Cohen, Brawer, Kisker, 2013; Fugate & Amey, 2000; Rosser & Townsend, 2006). One
possible exception is the development of the community college baccalaureate, which may put pressure on community college faculty to begin conducting research in order to retain their job (Levin, 2004; McKinney & Morris, 2010), obtain higher degrees (Levin, 2006), and pursue grants for funding (Martinez, 2014). Some community college faculty do pursue research, especially when related to teaching and engagement, however, evidence of scholarly learning by community college faculty across diverse research areas exists (Baker, Terosky, & Martinez, 2017; Gibson & Murray, 2009; Martinez, 2014; Terosky & Gonzales, 2016). While some community college professors conduct research, Fugate and Amey (2000) found that community college faculty appreciate the community college tenure process over that of four-year colleges and universities, because of the focus on teaching and the absence of publishing requirements. Community college faculty generally have a larger teaching load than faculty at four-year colleges and universities (Townsend & Rosser, 2007).

In a quantitative study, Townsend and Rosser (2007) used descriptive statistics to analyze data obtained from a sample of 18,563 full-time faculty at public institutions, utilizing two national samples. The first sample was 11,421 faculty from a 1993 National Study of Postsecondary Faculty data set, and the second was 7,142 faculty from a 2004 National Study of Postsecondary Faculty data set. Townsend and Rosser (2007) found that the number of courses community college faculty taught in 1993 averaged 4.06, and by 2004 that number had increased to 4.94, nearly five classes. In contrast, comprehensive
university professors taught an average of 3.48 classes in 2004, and for research university professors, that number was 2.48, about half of the community college professor’s workload. Townsend and Rosser (2007) illustrated the weekly credit hours faculty spent in the classroom, which was highest for community college faculty, at 12.70 hours in 2004. Comprehensive university professors averaged 9.95 hours in the classroom, and research university professors spent the least amount of time in the classroom, averaging 6.96 hours in 2004. Townsend and Rosser (2007) revealed that community college faculty published in refereed journals five and one-half times less often than comprehensive university professors, and nearly eleven times less often than research university professors. The analysis by Townsend and Rosser (2007) confirmed that the community college faculty workload is teaching-heavy and research-light, which makes sense, as the awarding of tenure is contingent on quality teaching (Cohen, Brawer, & Kisker, 2014; Fugate & Amey, 2000; Provasnik & Planty, 2008; Rosser & Townsend, 2006).

Fugate and Amey (2000) caution that multiple definitions of research must be considered. While community college faculty might not be conducting research in the traditional sense, or what Boyer (1990) termed the scholarship of discovery, they do spend time on assessment, student success and pedagogical inquiry. On top of an already high teaching load, this should be a consideration, rather than simply stating that community college faculty do not engage in research (Fugate & Amey, 2000). Like their counterparts at four-year colleges
and universities, community college faculty are expected to engage in the third tenet of faculty work: institutional service (Fugate & Amey, 2000; Rosser & Townsend, 2006). Fugate and Amey (2000) examined this aspect of community college faculty roles, along with other dimensions in their widely cited qualitative study of the career paths, roles and development of community college faculty.

In their study, Fugate and Amey (2000) interviewed 22 faculty at a suburban Midwestern community college, with research questions involving career paths of newly hired full-time faculty, self-conceptualizing of roles, early career stages, and faculty development. Semi-structured interviews with verbatim transcriptions, along with field notes, were analyzed in three areas: faculty career paths, faculty roles in the first six years of their career, and the impact of faculty development during those early years. Participants were purposively sampled, with a culturally and gender diverse mix of vocational and liberal arts faculty (Fugate & Amey, 2000).

Fugate and Amey (2000) found that while there was a collegial emphasis on the importance of quality teaching among new full-time professors, faculty in their second year were encouraged to start fulfilling institutional expectations, such as committee work. “In year two, faculty perceived an opportunity to ‘perfect’ and relax with the role of instructor” (Fugate & Amey, 2000, p. 9). Some faculty found committee work took away time from their teaching, although teaching remained the primary role for faculty at the community college. The community college faculty teaching role “involved going beyond the subject
matter to facilitating learning itself and preparing students for their careers” (Fugate & Amey, 2000, p. 11). In fact, faculty used many words to describe their teaching role: “mentor, role model, coach, advocate, student facilitator, and guide” (p. 6). Fugate and Amey (2000) found that an emphasis on teaching was one of the attractions of community college for faculty, and that faculty at the community college have a passion for teaching. Some community college faculty hold negative perceptions regarding four-year institutions, generally associated with the “publish or perish” expectation placed on university faculty (Fugate & Amey, 2000, p. 4; Wolf-Wendel, Ward, & Twombly., 2007, p. 263). Women in particular view the community college as a space where they are able to achieve some sort of balance or stability and fulfill family responsibilities (Townend & Twombly, 2007; Wolf-Wendel et al., 2007). Despite these attractions to the community college, many community college faculty were facing burnout (Fugate & Amey, 2000). The continuity and definition of the teaching role was found to be a factor in burnout. One participant expressed the views of many faculty:

“My biggest fear is that I’m going to burnout. But I could get burned-out at a university just as easily. I don’t know. I wasn’t [at the university] long enough to get to the stage where I really felt burned out. If I had to teach five sections of the same course tor the rest of my life, I ’m not sure that I could do it... The job itself and the hours are wonderful. The school is great. Everything is great. It's just actually burning out in the classroom [that is my concern]”. (p. 10)
Fugate and Amey (2000) concluded that burnout was not a serious enough concern to cause community college faculty to leave their positions.

Related to burnout, Rosser and Townsend (2006), in an analysis of data from the 1999 National Survey of Postsecondary Faculty, used equation modeling to define constructs of worklife, job satisfaction, and intent to leave. They found that the longer faculty worked at their college, the less positive they were about their worklife. Despite this, long-serving full-time faculty were less likely to indicate a desire to leave their job or change positions, even more so than recently hired faculty (Rosser & Townsend, 2006). One possible explanation for this might be that as faculty get older and stay in their positions longer, they feel a sense of commitment to their work. On the other hand, older faculty might feel that finding a new position is too much trouble, and therefore they “stay out of desperation or despair” (Rosser & Townsend, 2006, p. 139). In any case, Rosser and Townsend (2006) found overall job satisfaction and worklife among community college faculty to be high.

Although the primary role of community college faculty is teaching (Cohen, Brawer & Kisker, 2012; Fugate & Amey, 2000; Rosser & Townsend, 2006), most community college faculty never intended to teach at a community college (Fugate & Amey, 2000). Community college faculty commonly take their first community college teaching position for pragmatic reasons, and subsequently re-envision their careers to align with their new job (Fugate & Amey, 2000). These pragmatic reasons include the opportunity to be hired without completing a
doctoral degree, and higher salaries with benefits and job security (Fugate & Amey, 2000). Without preparation for teaching at a community college, these individuals must transition from research-orientated graduate experiences to the teaching-oriented community college (Fugate & Amey, 2000). Professional development then becomes important for new community college faculty adapting to their workplace (Fugate & Amey, 2000; Terosky & Gonzales, 2016).

Terosky and Gonzales (2016) expanded Fugate and Amey’s (2000) finding that community college faculty typically did not intend to work at a community college. In their qualitative study, “Re-envisioned contributions: Experiences of faculty employed at institutional types that differ from their original aspirations”, Terosky and Gonzales (2016) interviewed 50 tenure-track faculty members comprised of 12 assistant professors, 30 associate professors, and eight full professors from the social sciences, sciences and humanities. Only those faculty who were hired at an institution not of their original preference were ultimately studied. Five of these faculty were from the community college, and the research settings were specifically institutions not ranked as Very High Research Activity (RU/VH) in the Carnegie Classification, including two community colleges (Terosky & Gonzales, 2016). The researchers were seeking to know how faculty entered their profession, how faculty view norms, values, and evaluation in the profession, and how faculty navigate problems at work. They found that faculty re-envision their careers in two main ways: advancing the learning of others and engaging in inquiry for purposes other than publication.
Terosky and Gonzales (2016) made three recommendations based on their findings. First, doctoral programs should incorporate discussions of career choices, types of institutions and professional identities. Second, the need for professional development must be considered by chairs, deans and provosts when hiring new faculty. Lastly, higher education researchers should recognize that there is more than one way to be an academic; the variety of contributions by faculty at different institutions needs further illumination (Terosky & Gonzales, 2016).

Gibson and Murray (2009), like Terosky and Gonzales (2016), noted that community college faculty pursue research that is personally meaningful to them, even though it is not a job requirement. In their quantitative, correlational study, Gibson and Murray (2009) surveyed 128 randomized community college art faculty in Texas. Forty-three questions were included in the survey, designed to address the attitudinal range of the participants using a Likert-type scale and to collect demographics. Gibson and Murray (2009) found that very few art faculty, about sixteen percent, felt they had enough time in the studio, with studio time for artist-educators serving as a form of scholarship (Gibson & Murray, 2009). Sixty-seven percent of artist-educators equated their enthusiasm for teaching with their scholarly pursuits as artists. Most artist-educators at the community college, ninety percent, had greater confidence in their teaching when they were active in their artistic practice (Gibson & Murray, 2009). These findings, along with those of Terosky and Gonzales (2016) and Baker, Terosky and Martinez (2016) dispel
any potential assumptions that community college faculty do not engage in research or that scholarly research is disconnected from the teaching mission of the community college. Gibson and Murray (2009) emphasized the fact that community college faculty spend more time in non-teaching roles than many new instructors might expect. In addition to large teaching loads, community college faculty also engage in administrative tasks and service to the institution and/or community (Fugate & Amey, 2000; Gibson & Murray, 2009; Rosser & Townsend, 2006). Gibson and Murray advised that their study could be adapted to readdress professional development needs of community college faculty. Indeed, here is more room for further research in understanding the dynamics of community college faculty work life, including determining the ways in which faculty can be supported (Rosser & Townsend, 2006).

**Community College Faculty: Roles and Perceptions**

Levin (2012) explained the reason for seeking to understand community college faculty: “The faculty labor force for community colleges both reflects and shapes institutional identity. Understanding faculty, then, is a heuristic for understanding the community college” (Levin, 2012, p. 246). As Townsend and Twombly (2007) stated, community colleges are teaching institutions and teachers are “the centerpiece of community college professional identity” (p. 53).

We know the path to becoming community college faculty is not intentional (Fugate & Amey, 2000). The opportunity for landing a part-time job is one reason why postgraduates seek out the community college for employment, and once
hired, faculty adapt to a teaching role, learning how to be a community college instructor, often as part-time faculty (Fugate & Amey, 2000). Those who become full-time faculty appreciate the tenure process at community college over four-year institutions (Fugate & Amey, 2000) and tenure at the community college is generally less of an obstacle than at the university (Wolf-Wendel, Ward, & Twombly, 2007). Full-time community college faculty are also more satisfied with their salaries, social and family life, and their institution and departments, than university faculty (Cohen, Brawer, & Kisker, 2014).

While the generally positive working conditions of full-time community college faculty are noteworthy, faculty work life for part-time faculty is problematic. Cohen, Brawer, and Kisker (2014) explain that part-time faculty not only save colleges money and help them balance budgets but serve specific needs and can offer flexibility through their expendability. Nationally, part-time faculty make up approximately 70% of the community college teaching force, are paid much less per class than full-time faculty, and do not receive the fringe benefits full-time faculty enjoy (Cohen, et al, 2014). Put bluntly, “part-time instructors are to the community colleges what migrant workers are to the farms” (Cohen, et al, 2014, p. 92). Part-time faculty do not receive the same institutional support as full-time faculty, such as office space and computers, professional development opportunities, and rigorous evaluations to help strengthen their teaching abilities (Eagan, 2007; Jaeger, 2008; Kezar & Gehrke, 2013; Morest, 2015).
In a descriptive statistical analysis of data from the 1988, 1993, 1999, and 2004 administrations of the National Study of Postsecondary Faculty (NSOPF), Eagan (2007) found that despite lesser support of part-time community college faculty, this group is just as satisfied in their jobs as full-time faculty. Eagan (2007) also found that part-time faculty, contrary to popular beliefs, maintain stable employment, with the average span of employment lasting seven years in 2004. Eagan (2007) also found that part-time community college faculty were more dissatisfied with their benefits than full-time faculty but had become increasingly satisfied with their salaries over time. Part-time faculty feel about 30 percent less secure in their jobs than do full-time faculty, because of short-term contracts. They are, however, more satisfied with their workloads than the full-time faculty (Eagan, 2007). Eagan (2007) pushed back on previous assertions that part-time community college faculty are disengaged (Umbach, 2007) or somehow negatively affect the quality of education that students receive (Haeger, 1998). Instead, Eagan (2007) found that the pedagogical practices of part-time faculty are similar to those of full-time faculty. Nevertheless, ensuring support of part-time faculty is important, because the quality of educational outcomes and the quality of human resources are intertwined (Hightower et al., 2011).

In the dissertation, Community College Faculty Identities, Thirolf (2015) utilized an identity theory framework to qualitatively analyze both full-time and part-time community college faculty at a suburban community college in the
Eastern United States. Combining three methodologies (grounded theory, metaphor analysis, and case study), Thirolf (2015) interviewed 15 participants: three full-time math faculty, three part-time math faculty, three full-time English faculty, and six part-time English faculty. Thirolf (2015) showed, in this limited but important study, that community college faculty do have a clear understanding of their professional identity. Merely defining community college faculty with the description given by Cohen, Brawer, and Kisker (2014) is not sufficient: “As the arbiters of the curriculum, the faculty transmit concepts and ideas, decide on course content, select textbooks, prepare and evaluate examinations, and generally structure learning conditions for the students” (Cohen, Brawer, & Kisker, 2014, p. 79). Thirolf (2015) illuminated the roles of community college faculty in a richer way, going beyond the textbook job description to reveal a more nuanced, and personal reality of faculty work.

In Thirolf’s (2015) study, the participants collectively identified four primary aspects of their roles: (1) being a passionate and expert teacher, (2) providing students with the support they need or connecting students to the support services they need, (3) caring about students, and (4) serving their communities (p. 82). These four roles were in keeping with the findings of Fugate and Amey (2000).

Notably, Thirolf (2015) found that despite differences in employment status (part-time versus full-time), diverse personal backgrounds, and differences in subjects taught (math and English), participants essentially viewed their
identities as faculty in very much the same way. At the heart of their identities was the relationships with their students. For example, Justin, a full-time basic-skills math professor, metaphorically described his identity:

You know those handyman people? You hire them not because they are an astounding plumber or an amazing electrician nor any one of these specialties, but because they’re kind of a jack-of-all-trades. That’s really what we are, or at least what a good faculty member is. I think that it’s really being able to synthesize all of those things and balance them so that you can be a friend and confidante and advocate and sympathize all of those aspects. My faculty identity is just that. (Thirolf, 2015, p. 173)

Even the nine part-time faculty participants did not focus attention to their part time status, but rather their connections to students and community (Thirolf, 2015).

Thirolf (2015) determined that among all participants, the most positive factor influencing their identities outside the classroom was their connection to their colleagues. Informal gatherings were found to be more beneficial than formal professional development activities. Thirolf (2015) revealed that when faculty conversed amongst each other, their feelings towards themselves and their colleges were positively influenced to a high degree. While the topic of conversation could range from pedagogy to personal venting, collegial advising to casual conversation, the same positive effect occurred (Thirolf, 2015). Thirolf (2015) argues that it is time to move beyond debating whether teaching at the
community college constitutes a profession, as did Levin, Kater, and Wagoner (2006). Instead, Thirolf (2015) advocates for more researchers to gather empirical data on community college faculty, including their identity as professionals, and the ways in which they affect students.

Community College Administration

The community college administrative structure emphasizes particular college functions, with the board of trustees at the top of the structure, followed by the president, vice presidents, deans, department/division chairs, and then faculty (Cohen, Brawer, & Kisker, 2014). Department chairs represent a hybrid of faculty and administration, being considered one or the other depending on the particular college contract (Cohen et al., 2014). The duties of department chairs can number into the dozens, attending to issues of administration, students, business and finance, faculty, and curriculum/instruction (Cohen et al., 2014). Similar to community college faculty, “most chairs, and indeed most chief instructional officers, have received little preparation for their specific jobs” (Cohen et al., 2014, p. 141).

Department Chairs

In a mixed methods study, Jones (2011) analyzed and rated the competencies needed for department chairs in the next five to ten years. Jones (2011) sought to determine if any of these competencies were leadership based, and to identify relationships between the competencies. Jones (2011) examined the perceptions department chairs, deans, and faculty have towards the
competencies. Lastly, Jones (2011) identified beliefs department chairs have about departmental conditions and contextual factors that could impact chairs in the future.

The participants in this study were chairs, deans, and faculty from three research universities in the Florida State University system. Eight deans participated and were interviewed and asked to identify high-performing department chairs in their college (Jones, 2011). In addition to the department chairs identified by the deans, additional department chairs were selected through stratified random sampling, per institutional review board recommendations. Department chairs did not know which group they were in, and 22 were selected, with 11 in each group (Jones, 2011). One hundred and forty-five faculty were randomly selected, and a modified Delphi approach was utilized. This included questionnaires to yield quantitative data, while focus groups and interviews yielded qualitative data. Deans were interviewed while department chairs participated in focus group sessions, and all groups participated in the Delphi (Jones, 2011).

Jones (2011) identified three themes from the study. The first concerned ability-based positions, defined as “a competence to perform an observable behavior or a behavior that results in an observable product” (p. 121). In the study, 81 competencies for department chairs were identified, 51 were ability-based and 34 were knowledge-based. Twenty competencies were identified as most important, and of those, 15 were ability-based and 5 were knowledge-
based. This suggests that the department chair position is mostly based in behavior or abilities, which can be difficult in terms of classification, evaluation, and training (Jones, 2011).

The second theme identified by Jones (2011) was complementary competencies used simultaneously by department chairs. For example, thinking strategically was a skill frequently combined with negotiating, decision making, managing impressions, and political savviness (Jones, 2011).

The third theme identified by Jones (2011) was prerequisite competencies, which refers to competencies one must possess prior to becoming a department chair. Some competencies can be developed on the job, but others cannot. For example, negotiation and strategic thinking were considered important, even during the hiring process, at which time a prospective department chair could utilize negotiation skills to affect the terms of their appointment, and gain resources for their department (Jones, 2011).

An important finding from Jones (2011) was that the role of department chair is a leadership position, not merely a managerial position. A subtle point is that Jones (2011) differentiated managing a department from leading the department's management. (Jones, 2011) found that department chairs do the latter, and recommended that prospective department chairs receive specific kinds of training. Department chairs must experience scenarios that will simulate situations they might face as department chairs (Jones, 2011). They must have training prior to becoming a department chair that focuses on appropriate
behavior, if they are to become successful, competent leaders (Jones, 2011). Jones (2011) also acknowledged that deans and department chairs sometimes disagree on which competencies are important, and how often these competencies should be employed. Jones (2011) advised that discussion of expectations and consensus building is needed.

While Jones’ (2011) study focused on the needed competencies of future department chairs, a dissertation by Young (2007) investigated the role conflict encountered by community college department chairs. Young (2007) utilized two survey instruments to gather quantitative data from community college department chairs across the state of Illinois. In addition, the researcher selected one community college to study the interactions of the department chairs with part-time faculty, full-time faculty, and the chief academic officer. Young (2007) used organizational role theory as the theoretical framework for this study, focusing upon behaviors and expectations of department chairs, including role conflict and role overload. After assessing department chairs’ views of 21 duties, Young (2007) found that 19 of those duties were viewed to be considerably important by department chairs. Recruiting and hiring faculty was ranked most important by department chairs, followed by representation of their department to the administration. In the study, Young (2007) was able to identify an additional seven categories of department chair duties, beyond the 21 identified in the survey instruments. Through principal component analysis, five department chair roles were determined: “Department Leader, Resource Manager, Faculty Leader,
Instructional Manager, and Teacher and Student Adviser” (Young, 2007, p. 237). Because department chairs have five roles, not one, Young (2007) suggests that role conflict is more likely. In addition, Young (2007) found that role conflict for department chairs can potentially increase when department chairs mistakenly respond to a problem using the wrong role. Young (2007) addressed the fact that department chairs are also teachers, and that the community college is a teaching institution. As previously discussed in this chapter, the awarding of tenure at the community colleges revolves around quality teaching (Cohen, Brawer, & Kisker, 2014; Fugate & Amey, 2000; Provasnik & Planty, 2008; Rosser & Townsend, 2006). As such, it is plausible that department chairs might feel conflicted if they prioritize students and teaching while they simultaneously try to uphold their non-teaching duties as department chair (Young, 2007).

Young (2007) addressed the issue of reassigned time for department chairs too. Department chairs who received 25% or less reassigned time reported downplaying the roles of Resource Manager, Faculty Leader, and Instructional Manager, compared to those department chairs who received 50% or 100% reassigned time. In fact, department chairs that received 100% reassigned time from teaching downplayed the importance of teaching and advising students (Young, 2007). Essentially, Young (2007) suggested that increased reassigned time equates to increased responsibilities as chair, and consequently, a decreased commitment to teaching and interacting with students. Young’s (2007) assertion is amplified by Carroll and Wolverton (2004),
who authored a chapter entitled *Who Becomes Chair?*, in which they stated that more than forty percent of faculty serving as department chairs see themselves exclusively in terms of their faculty identity.

In addition to the role conflict between teaching and chairing a department, Young (2007) found that department chairs agreed that there was not enough time each semester to perform their numerous duties, indicating that they felt overloaded in their roles. Furthermore, Young (2007) determined that because department chairs feel certain roles are most important, they tend to spend too much time on those roles, rather than equally addressing all the required duties of being a department chair. Interestingly, department chairs perceived their role in managing part-time faculty to be greater than the part-time faculty did, while the chief academic officer perceived the department chair’s role in leading faculty to be greater than the department chairs did (Young, 2007).

Young (2007) offered five recommendations based on the study:

1. “Individual community college department chairs should recognize to which role they ascribe the most importance”.

2. “Prepare community college full-time faculty as well others for positions as department chairs through professional development programs”.

3. “Professional organizations and community colleges should offer continuous professional development opportunities designed for the community college department chair”.
4. “Executive administrators in community colleges should monitor the variety of duties community college department chairs are asked to undertake and the time these duties involve in order to retain department chairs”.

5. “Executive administrators in (Illinois) public community colleges should consider the results of this research in recruitment and selection of department chairs and in succession planning” (pp. 245-246).

Young’s (2007) study helps to paint a picture of the tension faculty experience as department chairs, an identity that exists in the middle, between faculty and administration, in the organizational structure of community college (Cohen, Brawer, & Kisker, 2012). Young (2007) recommends that consideration of department chair roles/role conflict be considered in succession planning.

While Young (2007) acknowledged tensions experienced by department chairs, Gonzales and Rincones (2013) specifically addressed emotion as an important and relevant topic in their case study of one department chair at a doctoral granting university. Gonzales and Rincones (2013) found that emotion is rarely discussed in the literature on higher education leadership. The researchers steered clear of positivist methodology, utilizing Participatory Action Research (PAR) and photo-elicitation to address the subjective concerns, knowledge, and experiences related to emotion and emotional labor (Gonzales & Rincones, 2013). According to Gonzales and Rincones (2013), “a study of emotional labor
is essentially a study of broad and powerful rules and norms that have been institutionalized by society, and which bear down on the individual level” (p. 5). They applied two tenets of emotional labor as their conceptual framework: emotional work, in which emotions are conjured up, and emotional management, in which emotions are suppressed (Gonzales & Rincones, 2013). In this study, Rodolfo Rincones was both co-author and participant, in keeping with PAR. He took photos of subjects he associated with emotional labor, captioned them, and sent them to the lead author, Leslie D. Gonzales, who used them with Rodolfo as tools to elicit his stories during loosely structured interviews. Field notes were also utilized (Gonzales & Rincones, 2013).

Gonzales and Rincones (2013) found that the emotional labor endured by Rodolfo existed primarily in the limited zone between his department and the higher administration. It was a struggle for Rodolfo to protect academic freedom and integrity of the faculty, while also meeting the demands of higher administration (Gonzales & Rincones, 2013). Recalling Levin’s (2006) assertion that faculty are often at odds with the institution, it could be particularly stressful for department chairs working on behalf of both faculty and administration. Depending on the context and social situation, Rodolfo both conjured and suppressed emotions. Within his department, Rodolfo labored over his interactions with faculty and staff, demonstrating openness, empathy, and vulnerability. Outside of his department, Rodolfo reframed his emotions to accommodate the efficient and rational approach to leadership that was the
norm. Although Rodolfo forced himself to act rationally, the experience for him was not rational, but rather a highly stressful, unwanted emotional experience (Gonzales & Rincones, 2013). To support a more humane work environment, it is recommended that emotional labor be a component in leadership training, and that those in leadership roles consider emotional labor as a relevant topic (Gonzales & Rincones, 2013).

Just as Gonzales and Rincones (2013) described the difficulty of one department chair caught in the small space between his department and the upper administration, King’s (1997) paper, “Surviving an Appointment as Department Chair” addressed the recurring theme of department chairs being stuck between two identities: faculty and administration. Citing Gmelch and Burns (1994), King (1997) mentioned that 60 percent of department chairs identify with faculty, rather than with administration. Yet, balancing obligations to both faculty and administration is necessary for effective department chairs (King, 1997).

King (1997) offered two differing perceptions of the department chair role. In the first, the organizational model, being a department chair is seen as respectable and distinguished, bringing with it more power and rewards. In the second, the community of scholars model, being a department chair is simply a job that must be done, until the faculty member can return to teaching and research (King, 1997). These two views equate to a desire to change one’s status or affect change at the institution, or both. King (1997) suggested that the
personal and professional success of faculty who move into administrative roles is dependent upon their motivations for accepting such roles. A department chair’s beliefs or attitudes toward the position can determine the difference between experiencing the role as a managerial chore or as an honorable leadership opportunity (King, 1997). King (1997) again cited Gmelch and Burns (1994) with the finding that 65 percent of department chairs return to faculty status, and only 19 percent continue on in administration. Department chairs who return to faculty status face potential social and esteem problems, if they identified with their chair position too much (King 1997). Either way, King (1997) showed that transitioning from a faculty role to a department chair role is tricky.

The many challenges required of faculty who transition into department chair roles warrants professional development (Gonzales & Rincones, 2013; Jones, 2011; Young, 2007). While several researchers have called for such training, Aziz et al (2005) conducted a case study of a formal process for determining the professional development needs of department chairs at Bowling Green State University. Participants included department chairs/school directors and deans/associate deans who participated in structured interviews led by pairs of researchers and completed surveys. Seventy-nine knowledge, skills and abilities (KSAs) areas were identified and divided into ten training areas. The most important professional development areas were training for chairs/directors and members of the department, and training for faculty related issues (Aziz et al, 2005). Issues pertaining to budget and resources were seen as the most
urgent. The issues most likely to impact the success of a department chair/director were found to be “budgets and funding, faculty issues, legal issues and professional development of the chair” (Aziz et al, 2005, p. 584). A comparison of composite ratings from chairs/directors and associate deans/deans indicated no significant differences” (Aziz et al, 2005).

In addition to quantitative data gathered from the surveys, Aziz et al (2005) solicited qualitative feedback in the form of open-ended questions regarding participant’s perceptions of professional development needs. The questions aimed to examine the information that new chairs/directors would like to know, their problems and concerns, and the most difficult things to learn or knowledge to gain (Aziz et al, 2005, p. 585). Personnel management and budgeting concerns were the top priorities, reinforcing the quantitative data (Aziz, et al, 2005). It should be noted that this study, like King (1997), Gonzales and Rincones (2013), and Jones (2011) were all conducted at four-year institutions, not community colleges. It is not known how these results might be different, if at all, at a community college.

Deans

Knirk (2013) advocated for succession planning in the dissertation, *Community College Administrative Roles in Identifying Faculty for Future Management Positions: A Phenomenological Study of Retired Administrators.* Knirk’s (2013) study was conducted in northern California, at no particular site, and featured nine retired administrators as the participants. The participants were
community college administrators who had retired within the last seven years prior to the study, and who had worked at a medium or large community college. Snowball sampling was used to purposively select the participants. Knirk (2013) selected retired administrators in the hope of encouraging candid responses, without worry over political/institutional concerns. The administrator’s lived experiences and perceptions of their roles in relation to succession planning was explored. Knirk (2013) used a transcendental phenomenological methodology, with four of the participants being male and five being female. Four of the administrators retired as deans, while five retired as vice-presidents or a higher position (Knirk, 2013). Semi-structured interviews were conducted, and some field notes and artifacts were utilized. Knirk (2013) had three research questions, addressed how community college administrators selected, advanced, encouraged and described faculty who took administrative roles (p. 47). The research resulted in five themes: “Challenges of the Deanship, Identification and Preparation of Faculty, Encouragement, Traits and Skills of Successful Deans, and Transitional Experiences” (p. 56).

While Young’s (2007) study showed how department chairs are in the middle, between teaching and administering, Knirk’s (2013) study emphasized the position of dean, the entry-level administrator position, in the middle between faculty and upper level administration. Gmelch et al (1999) described the academic dean position as “least studied and most misunderstood position in the academy” (p. 717). One participant shared a warning he was given prior to
becoming a dean, stating that he was told being a dean will put him in the middle, between pleasing faculty and working with administration (Knirk, 2013). Another participant expressed bluntly:

I’m not bashful about telling deans that those are the hardest jobs in our organizations, because those people are at the intersection of the faculty, the community, the students, the higher managers. That’s a very exposed job. All of your flanks are exposed every day when you show up to work. (Knirk, 2013, p. 59)

In addition to the complexity of the dean position, Knirk (2013) found that participants expressed feeling a lack of control, or powerlessness in the dean position, which they had not felt as faculty. One participant described not having control of her life or the same autonomy she once had when she was faculty, expressing that as dean, how she spent her time was determined by others (Knirk, 2013).

Knirk (2013) explained that participants had considerations in regard to the culture of their respective organizations. For example, one dean commented that at meetings with other deans, mentioning problems in one’s own area was not a good idea. This dean stated, “it would be blood in the water and the sharks will attack because you’re vulnerable in a competitive environment” (Knirk, 2013, p. 63).

On the topic of faculty transitioning into administration, Knirk (2013) found that there is no single path. One point, however, was made clear: all participants
viewed their faculty position as the beginning of their path towards becoming a dean (Knirk, 2013). Participants felt that it was the responsibility of faculty to obtain the experience they needed in order to become an administrator, and to identify themselves as being interested in administration, allowing current administrators to acknowledge and support them (Knirk, 2013).

To gain experience and identify themselves as potential administrators, faculty must seek out leadership roles beyond the classroom (Knirk, 2013). Self-identifying as a potential administrator is important, because not all faculty leaders are interested in becoming deans, even if they are highly qualified to do so (Knirk, 2013).

The participants in Knirk’s (2013) study identified transformational experiences faculty might have that can prepare them for administration. Three purposes of these experiences were given: leadership growth opportunities, sampling leadership roles to see if it is desirable, and providing an overview of the institution system. Specifically, participants identified “senate leadership, union leadership, department chairship, conferences, accreditation, and doctoral studies” as transformational experiences (Knirk, 2013, p. 66). Participants also explained that classroom experiences do not prepare faculty for administration. This relates to the finding by Aziz et al (2005) that department chairs need training in personnel management and budget issues, concerns probably not addressed through classroom experiences. Participants agreed senate leadership was especially effective in preparing faculty for administration, or
chairing committees, or being a union leader. Serving as department chair also was confirmed as a nearly obligatory position on the road to administration (Knirk, 2013).

Knirk (2013) concurred with Ebber, Conover, and Samuels (2010) that despite being a teaching institution, community colleges do little to educate their own employees, leaving it up to interested faculty to figure out on their own how to become administrators, if that is their aspiration. This relates to the documented need for professional development for department chairs (Gonzales & Rincones, 2013; Jones, 2011; Young, 2007) and the same need for deans (Gmelch et al, 1999).

The need to train and prepare future administrators is described as prescient by Knirk (2013), who acknowledged that community college administrators are always needed, especially with the continuing retirement of baby boomers (Hassen et al., 2010; Selingo & Carlson, 2006). Knirk (2013) also referenced the fact that it is very difficult to find qualified leaders outside the community college system (Mitchell & Eddy, 2008; Shulock, 2002). For these reasons, Knirk (2013) suggested that succession planning is the most appropriate method of filling the administration gap at community colleges.

In this instance, succession planning means that administrators identify particular leadership roles and identify community college faculty who show potential for leadership in these roles (Groves, 2007; Rothwell, 2005). Knirk (2013) cited the importance of Human Capital Theory (Rothwell, 2005) and that
the quality of educational outcomes is linked to the quality of human resources (Hightower et al., 2011). Knirk (2013) also asserted that faculty can be taught to be administrators using the American Association of Community College's (AACC) (2005) core competencies (Hassan et al., 2010; McNair, 2010; Smith & Wolverton, 2010). Lastly, Knirk (2013) mentioned that formal training such as doctoral programs and on-the-job training, such as mentorship, are both beneficial in preparing faculty for administrative roles.

Regarding doctoral programs, McNair (2010) conducted a survey study of upper administration at community colleges in California, with 113 participants. The purpose was to determine the skills needed for leadership, and which skills could be acquired through Ed.D. programs. McNair (2010) explained that when there is an economic decline, such as the recession in 2008, funding for professional development at community colleges is often reduced, putting the responsibility of preparation for administrative roles on the individual. McNair (2010) argued that because institutions benefit from well-prepared administrators, the institutions should bear responsibility for training future administrators. But for those individuals turning to formal education to prepare for administrative roles, McNair’s (2010) findings suggested that Ed.D. programs should be aligned with AACC core competencies (2005), and should include mentoring and on-the-job training, as respondents noted a strong desire for non-classroom-based learning. McNair (2010) found that the three most important competencies that can be developed through an Ed.D. program are
organizational strategy, resource management, and communication. McNair’s study confirmed an earlier finding by Amey and VanDerLinden (2002) that on-the-job training, mentoring, and internal and external professional development are preferred by those individuals seeking administrative roles.

In reviewing national survey data from 2000, Amey and VanDerLinden (2002) reported that 18 percent of community college administrators have an Ed.D. and 19 percent have a Ph.D. They also reported that 56 percent of administrators had mentors, and 42 percent were serving as mentors to others. Lastly, 43 percent of administrators had reviewed their career plan to determine strategies for acquiring new skills, more education, or training opportunities (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002). Although this study is now 16 years old, it has been confirmed by McNair (2010), and cited by Knirk (2013) as relevant among the rather limited community college literature.

Returning to Knirk’s (2013) study, an assumption was made that a certain number of faculty want to become administrators. Knirk (2013) also worked with the traditional career progression of faculty moving from instruction to department chair to administrative roles, such as dean. Knirk (2013) cited Carroll and Wolverton (2004), who found that 20 percent of department chairs become administrators. This is quite similar to Gmelch and Burns (1994), who found that 19 percent of department chairs become administrators. It is clear that the community college is a churning system that will continuously need individuals prepared to be administrators.
Administrator preparation including training, formal education and/or professional development, is needed for academic leaders (Aziz et al, 2005; Gmelch & Buller, 2015; Gmelch et al, 1999; Gonzales & Rincones, 2013; Jones, 2011; Young, 2007). Gmelch and Buller (2015) pointed out that the progress towards increasing professional development for academic leaders has been almost nil. In 1996, only three percent of academic leaders had received systematic leadership development (Gmelch, et al, 1996) and in 2012, barley more than three percent of department chairs had the preparation they needed for the position (Cipriano & Riccardi, 2012). Experience in the classroom does not prepare one for administrative roles (Gmelch & Buller, 2015; Knirk, 2013). There is no specific training, or credentials, or knowledge that is absolutely required of academic leaders (Gmelch & Buller, 2015). When individuals do not receive the training they need for academic leadership positions, it negatively affects institutions, programs, and individuals (Gmelch & Buller, 2015).

Complicating the issue further, there are concerns over equity in higher education leadership, which intersect with concerns over preparing academic leaders. The Campaign for College Opportunity reported that 69 percent of college students in California are ethnically or racially diverse, while 60 percent of senior leaders and faculty are White, and 74 percent of Academic Senators are White (Campaign for College Opportunity, 2018). More specifically, 41 percent of California’s community college students are Latinx, while only 15 percent of its leaders are Latinx. Yet, 64,000 people of color earned a Doctorate or Master’s
degree from the UC or CSU in 2012-2016 (Campaign for College Opportunity, 2018, p. 38), implying that there are plenty of qualified people of color to move into academic leadership roles. The Campaign for College Opportunity (2018) suggested that the real problem is that diverse candidates are not aggressively recruited. If Knirk’s (2013) recommendation of succession planning was executed in an equitable manner, it could potentially help achieve more diversity in academic leadership. If more diverse faculty received professional development and encouragement, that too could promote more diversity in leadership. Damien Peña, Vice President of Student Affairs at Ventura College shared his experience on this topic:

We need both of those — a diverse pool of diverse candidates and more internal consideration of diverse candidates. But the other thing we need is to empower our really good faculty and give them the notion that they would be an amazing administrator and really support them. I can be honest and say when I applied for this position, there was an imposter syndrome that you deal with. “Am I too young for this? Do I have enough experience? Am I worthy of such a role?” We have these questions that we ask of ourselves, but there’s nobody we can ask these questions to. So I had nobody other than my wife, who said, ‘No, I think you should do this. You can try it, and you can see what happens.’ (Campaign for College Opportunity, 2018, p. 41)
This is why the Campaign for College Opportunity (2018) recommends college executives and upper administration establish clear leadership pathways and support opportunities to develop leaders, so that marginalized groups can be better represented among the college administration. What the Campaign for College Opportunity (2018) has suggested is that a pipeline for leadership positions be created. This would not only support equity goals, but also the recommendations of scholars who advocate for succession planning (Knirk, 2013) and more professional development (Aziz et al., 2005; Gmelch & Buller, 2015; Gmelch et al., 1999; Gonzales & Rincones, 2013; Jones, 2011; Young, 2007).

Conceptual Framework

This study is driven by a desire to understand the human circumstances of community college faculty transitioning into administrative roles. There are several ways in which this transition can be viewed. One possibility is to view the transition of faculty into administration as the concept of boundary spanning (Tushman, 1977). Boundary spanning involves moving across borders. Tushman (1977) discussed the problems in communication between differentiated groups and the biases and distortions that result. This can be seen in the differentiation between faculty, department chairs, deans, and the problems in communication between these groups. Recall that Jones (2011) indicated that department chairs and deans don’t always agree on the role of the chair. Levin (2006) presented faculty as having values that are not aligned with the institution, and we know
faculty serving as department chairs tend to identify with the classroom more than administration (Gmelch & Burns, 1994). Tushman (1977) suggests that “boundary roles” can be developed to help bridge these groups, and that the people who occupy these roles are known as “boundary spanners” (p.591). Department chairs can be seen as boundary spanners between faculty and administration, and deans likewise span the boundary between department chairs and upper administration, as the organizational structure dictates (Cohen, Brawer, & Kisker, 2012).

Referencing Miles and Perreault (1976), Tushman (1977) advised that it is important to acknowledge and reward boundary spanners, especially when they face tension and stress. Young (2007) illustrated the tension department chairs face, as they navigate their role in the middle, between faculty and administration. Knirk (2013) also showed how deans find themselves in a conflicted position among faculty, community, students, and upper administration. These are examples of boundary spanning, the second proposed lens for viewing the transition from faculty to administrator.

A second view of faculty role transition can be seen through the concept of agency. Gonzales (2014) spoke of agency in terms of individuals exerting power both within and against a culture or structure. Gonzales (2014) considered agency as specific actions or behaviors employed by faculty to earn or maintain academic legitimacy. Gonzales (2014) adapted the work of Bourdieu (1983, 1998), who explored the intersection of agency, structure and culture. Bourdieu
(1983, 1998) believed agency manifested in different ways, taking the form of practice, actions, and struggles. This framework applies to community college faculty who may struggle as department chairs against the norms and structure of their institutions, taking on conflicted roles (King, 1997; Young, 2007), and laboring emotionally (Gonzales & Rincones, 2017). Deans too can be seen as employing agency, struggling for autonomy (Knirk, 2013) and misunderstood (Gmelch, et al, 1999). The concept of agency is important in understanding the motivations of faculty, and their decision to pursue administrative roles.

A third conceptualization of faculty transitioning into leadership roles builds upon agency (Gonzales, 2014) and emotional labor (Gonzales & Rincones, 2017). Most recently, Gonzales and Ayers (2018) opened up the possibility that our institutions have normalized the emotional labor of faculty. In one of the most cited studies on community college faculty, Fugate and Amey (2000) described community college faculty as dedicated passionate workers. Yet, Gonzales and Ayres (2018) push back against this type of characterization of faculty. Gonzales and Ayers (2018) choose to interrogate this characterization, proposing that it is a manifestation of labor injustice. Combined with the well-established assertion that faculty are put in a position of tension between their values and the neoliberal agenda of institutions (Levin, 2006), it is quite possible that faculty can be manipulated and taken advantage of by administration under such neoliberal pressures (Gonzales & Ayers, 2018). This is a new paradigm for viewing the dynamics of community college faculty and administration. It
suggests that there may be faculty who pursue leadership roles because neoliberal pressures get comingled with a personal sense of dedication to the mission of the college.

Finally, a fourth concept to consider is *figured worlds* (Holland, Lachicotte, Skinner & Cain, 1998; Terosky & Gonzales, 2016; Urietta 2007). Drawing from Urietta (2007) and Holland, et al., (1998), Terosky and Gonzales (2016) explained that “figured worlds allows for the possibility of re-envisioning (i.e., re-envisioning of one’s career contributions) as faculty members reject, resist, or negotiate prescribed roles and power structures within and outside of their institutional contexts” (p. 244). In figured worlds, people are put into different groups, or roles, and they learn ways of relating to one another (Holland, et al., 1998). Urietta (2007) noted that figured worlds is about social interaction, and how people respond to one another psychologically. Because of these reasons, boundary spanning dovetails with agency (Gonzales, 2014), as people take actions to gain legitimacy; as they move between multiple roles or classifications (Tushman, 1977); and as they grapple with emotions related to their roles (Gonzales & Ayers, 2018; Gonzales & Rincones, 2013). This study seeks to gather qualitative data that can be viewed through the aforementioned conceptual framework (Figure 1.), so as to better understand the phenomenon of faculty transitioning into leadership roles.
Summary

All of the factors in the literature point to a situation where community college faculty will either see non-teaching roles as a potential progression of their values, passion and concern, or as something that takes them away from their values, passion and concern. It is difficult to find qualified community college administrators outside the community college system (Mitchell & Eddy, 2008; Shulock, 2002). This fact bears down on the structural system, applying a steady
pressure that pulls some faculty towards administration, with transformational experiences repositioning them for administration (Knirk, 2013). Executive leaders may encourage faculty to move out of teaching and into administration (Knirk, 2013), with classroom burnout (Fugate & Amey, 2000), and less positive views of work life (Rosser & Townsend, 2006) as potential dynamics contributing to a change in role. Instead of role transition happening in a haphazard way, it could happen in a meaningful, positive, supported way (Young, 2007; Knirk, 2013), and increased professional development is needed (Aziz et al, 2005; Gmelch & Buller, 2015; Gmelch et al, 1999; Gonzales & Rincones, 2013; Jones, 2011; Young, 2007).

In the next chapter, I present my research design and methodology, including collection methods, participant selection, and data analysis approach.
CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Introduction

In this chapter, I readdress the purpose of this study and present my research questions. Next, I explain my research design and methodology, followed by my data collection methods, a description of the setting for my research, and offer my reasoning for the selection of participants in this study. I explore my subjectivities in a “Researcher as Instrument” statement, including my experiences, assumptions, and beliefs that have helped to shape this study. This is followed by an explanation of my approach to data analysis, including a rationale for my coding methods. Lastly, I show how trustworthiness was achieved in my research and review the delimitations and limitations of my study.

Purpose Statement

The goal of the community college is to transform the lives of its students (Bailey, Jaggers, & Jenkins, 2015; Cohen, Brawer, & Kisker, 2014). Community college faculty are the primary connection students have to their college (Fugate & Amey, 2000; Gibson & Murray, 2009; Lundberg & Schreiner, 2004; Tovar, 2014; Townsend & Wilson, 2006). Roughly half of all baccalaureate graduates are former community college students, and community college faculty teach nine million students annually (CCEC, 2018). Of all higher education professors,
one third is comprised of community college faculty (Levin, Kater, & Wagoner, 2006). The importance of community college faculty, however, is not reflected in the lack of research on these professionals (Fugate & Amey, 2000; Gonzales & Ayers, 2018; Rosser & Townsend, 2006; Twombly & Townsend, 2008;).

This dearth of research is problematic, because the identities of community colleges are tied to their faculty, and we cannot understand the community college as an institution without first understanding this group of professionals (Levin, 2012). Faculty define the very mission of the community college as a teaching institution (Townsend & Twombly, 2007), yet at the same time, are often at odds with the external political and economic pressures placed on their institutions (Levin, 2006).

Although the primary role of community college faculty is teaching (Cohen, Brawer & Kisker, 2012; Fugate & Amey, 2000; Rosser & Townsend, 2006), some faculty transition into administrative roles because of transformational experiences and encouragement from administration (Knirk, 2013). The necessity of recruiting administrators from within the teaching force is also a factor (Mitchell & Eddy, 2008; Shulock, 2002). Classroom burnout (Fugate & Amey, 2000), and less positive views of work life (Rosser & Townsend, 2006) might further tempt faculty to serve their institution in new capacities. For those faculty who do step into new roles, increased professional development is needed (Aziz et al, 2005; Gmelch & Buller, 2015; Gmelch et al, 1999; Gonzales & Rincones, 2013; Jones, 2011; Young, 2007). While faculty’s transition into
administration might be a haphazard process, Young (2007) and Knirk (2013) argued that faculty could be supported by their institutions in more meaningful, positive ways. Lastly, Gonzales and Ayers (2018) suggested that some faculty may pursue leadership or administrative roles when their personal sense of dedication to the mission of the college gets construed with the neoliberal pressures placed on colleges.

Therefore, the purpose of this study was to understand the experiences of community college faculty in non-teaching leadership roles over time. This study also sought to understand the faculty’s motivations for accepting these roles, and the ways in which they maneuvered their role transitions.

Research Questions

Building upon the purpose as stated above, the research questions for this study were:

1.) What are the experiences of faculty currently serving in leadership roles?
2.) How have these roles changed over time?
3.) What factors motivated faculty to accept roles beyond teaching?
4.) How have faculty navigated their experiences?

In Chapter Two, I presented the conceptual framework, which guided my inquiry into the phenomenon of community college faculty leaders in transitional roles. This framework had four components: *Boundary Spanning* (Tushman,
1977), referring to those faculty whose roles bridged differentiated groups; 

*Normalization of Emotional Labor*, in which Gonzales and Ayers (2018) suggest that faculty can be manipulated and taken advantage of by administration; 

*Agency*, considered by Gonzales (2014) as specific actions or behaviors employed by faculty to earn or maintain academic legitimacy; and finally, *Figured Worlds* (Holland, Lachicotte, Skinner & Cain, 1998; Terosky & Gonzales, 2016; Urietta 2007;), in which faculty construct their professional reality based on their relationship to others and through their actions. Figured Worlds was the culmination of the other three components of the conceptual framework. I created focused interview questions based on the conceptual framework, to guide my inquiry. See Appendix A.

**Research Design**

This was a qualitative study, which Creswell (2014) states is appropriate “for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem” (p. 4). In this instance, community college faculty were the primary group being studied. As the researcher, I sought to identify the experiences community college faculty face as they progress from their initial teaching role towards administrative roles during their career. The social or human problem experienced by community college faculty as they move through their career stages is only partially known. These include tensions experienced by community college faculty who have values that differ from their institution
(Levin, 2006). More tension potentially exists because there is a pressing need for institutions to recruit current faculty for administrator roles (Luzbetak, 2010; Mitchell & Eddy, 2008; Shulock, 2002). Knirk (2013) acknowledges that more institutional support is needed for faculty transitioning into administrative roles. While the literature addresses some of the problems community college faculty face in their career stages, it is also very clear that more research in this area was warranted (Fugate & Amey, 2000; Gonzales & Ayers, 2018; Levin, 2006; Rosser & Townsend, 2006; Twombly & Townsend, 2008).

In this study, I operated within the interpretivist worldview. As such, my mission was to “seek understanding of the world in which [community college faculty] live and work”, and to “rely as much as possible on the participants’ views of the situation” (Creswell, 2013, pp. 24-25). Glesne (2011) further states that “the ontological belief that tends to accompany interpretivist traditions portrays a world in which reality is socially constructed, complex, and ever changing” (p. 8). This is precisely the world of community college faculty, whose beliefs about their roles and the ways they are constructed matter just as much as demographics (Fugate & Amey, 2000). Understanding the experiences community college faculty have as they navigate new roles in their careers, and how they interpret these experiences, was central to this study.
Methodology

Studying the experiences of community college faculty leaders as they transition into administrative roles aligns with phenomenology. Creswell (2013) defines a phenomenological study as one that “describes the common meaning for several individuals of their lived experiences of a concept or phenomenon” (p. 76). The phenomenon studied here was community college faculty who transition into non-teaching leadership roles. Descriptive phenomenology, as developed by Husserl, was not appropriate for this study, because it requires the researcher “to shed all prior personal knowledge to grasp the essential lived experiences of those being studied” (Lopez & Willis, 2004, p. 727). Because I am a community college professor engaged in administrative duties, dismissing prior knowledge is nearly impossible. Aspects of this positionality are discussed in the Researcher as Instrument Statement, later in this chapter. More appropriate to this study was the interpretive/hermeneutical tradition of phenomenology, as developed by Heidegger (1962). In this approach, “the relation of the individual to his lifeworld should be the focus of phenomenological inquiry” (Lopez & Willis, 2004, p. 729).

In interpretive phenomenological research, the researcher goes beyond describing participants’ experiences, and interprets meanings found in the qualitative data (their narratives), which may not necessarily be obvious to the participants themselves (Lopez & Willis, 2004).
More specifically, this study utilized Interpretive Phenomenological Analysis (IPA), as conceptualized by Smith, Flowers, and Larkin (2009). Drawing from the field of psychology,

IPA is a qualitative research approach committed to the examination of how people make sense of their major life experiences. IPA is phenomenological in that it is concerned with exploring experience in its own terms… IPA researchers are especially interested in what happens when everyday flow of lived experiences takes on a particular significance for people. This usually occurs when something important has happened in our lives. (Smith, Flowers, & Larkin, p. 3)

In IPA, identity is important, specifically, changes in identity brought on by transitions in the participant’s life. This is particularly relevant to this study, which sought to understand what community college faculty experience as their roles change during the course of their career, from primarily teaching in the classroom to taking on administrative duties, or even becoming a full-fledged administrator.

Data Collection Methods

The data in this study came from semi-structured in-depth interviews. The purpose was to "facilitate an interaction which permits participants to tell their own stories, in their own words" (Smith, Flowers, & Larkin, 2009, p. 57). Smith, et al., (2009) recommended not asking the research questions directly, but rather to facilitate discussion with the participant, and through subsequent analysis, the
answers to the research questions will emerge. Smith, et al., (2009) also advised the use of an interview schedule, which is a list of the questions to be asked, provided to the participant in advance. Doing so will promote a more casual situation for the participant, allowing them to more clearly convey their relevant experiences to the researcher (Smith, et al., 2009). I applied these recommendations in the process of obtaining the data.

Van Manen (2016) emphasized that we can really only understand phenomenology by doing it, through lived experience. Lived experience “aims to provide concrete insights into the qualitative meanings of phenomena in people’s lives” (Van Manen, 2016, p. 40). Van Manen (2016) cautioned that phenomenology is a difficult methodology because it needs to be reinvented over and over again and does not have a short list of universal techniques and strategies. Being reflexive and aware of subjectivities guided my methodology in a manner that is appropriate for an interpretive study (Glesne, 2011). The richness of data is important, rather than having answers to specific questions from many participants (Smith, et al., 2009). See Appendix A for interview protocol.

In addition to the interviews, I utilized document analysis of faculty association contracts, to review the reassigned time for specific faculty leadership duties. Although document analysis was not a significant part of my data collection, it did help me to refine interview questions, and provided information that was not available by other means (Glesne, 2011). For example,
in some instances, participants could not recall specific reassignment amounts for particular roles. Consulting the faculty association contract gave me clarification in that regard.

Setting

The setting is the California community college system, which serves over 2.1 million students across 114 colleges (CCCCO, 2018a), and employs over 60,000 faculty (CCCC0, 2018d). In California, 42 percent of community college students are first-generation college students (California Community Colleges Chancellor’s Office, 2017). Among graduates of four-year institutions in California, 29% of University of California graduates and 51% of California State University graduates started their pathway in higher education at a community college (California Community Colleges Chancellor’s Office, 2017). The Campaign for College Opportunity reported that 69 percent of college students in California are ethnically or racially diverse, while 60 percent of senior leaders and faculty are White, and 74 percent of Academic Senators are White (Campaign for College Opportunity, 2018). More specifically, 41 percent of California’s community college students are Latinx, while only 15 percent of its leaders are Latinx.

The faculty in this study were unionized, represented by their faculty associations, and by the faculty academic senates. The faculty were also actively engaged in shared/participatory governance at their institutions. Recent
changes and new strategic goals within the California Community Colleges have been motivated in part the Guided Pathways initiative and the Chancellor’s Vision for Success, which partially tied funding to student success (CCCO, 2018b; CCCCO, 2018d; CCCCO, 2018e; Foundation for California Community College, 2017). These changes represented potential areas of ideological tension for faculty (Levin, 2006), and faculty’s emotional labor may be normalized by their institutions (Gonzales & Ayers, 2018).

Participant Selection

Polkinghorne (1989) recommended between five and 25 participants for a phenomenological study. Van Manen (2016) advised that sample size, as an external issue of validity, does not pertain to phenomenology, and that it should not be applied. Smith, Flowers, and Larkin, (2009) emphasized the importance of gathering rich data. Given these considerations, I interviewed 15 participants, which was a robust number for a phenomenological study, yet was manageable enough to allow me to conduct in-depth, semi-structured interviews yielding abundant data.

To align with my research questions, the participants were comprised of department chairs and other faculty leaders engaged in work beyond their primary teaching role, and academic deans who previously served as faculty. Knirk (2013) identified senate leaders, union leaders, and department chairs as roles which help to transform faculty into administrators. As such, department
chairs, senate leaders, and union leaders were ideal participants for this study. Knirk (2013) also found that attending conferences, participating in accreditation, and pursuing doctoral studies were potential indicators of future administrators. Young (2007) found that department chairs with 25 percent or less reassigned time identified more with teaching and students, compared to department chairs with 100 percent reassigned time, who identified most with administration.

In this study, the specific amount of reassigned time was not used as criteria to include participants. Rather, the participant’s role was used as the criterion for inclusion, and the amount of reassigned time should be noted and compared to the qualitative data that is obtained. For example, a faculty serving as an articulation officer with 100 percent reassigned time, possibly could identify with administration more than faculty, based on what Young (2007) found among department chairs. However, a faculty member with no reassigned time, but who recently began a doctoral program, might have warranted being included in this study, based on the findings of Knirk (2013). Lastly, deans were included in this study, as they represented the first level of full administration, the position in which faculty officially are no longer faculty at all (Knirk, 2013). Knirk (2013) found that deans operated between faculty and the upper administration (Knirk, 2013). Whereas department chairs were still faculty (Young, 2007), and 65 percent of them returned to strictly faculty roles (Gmelch & Burns, 1994), deans represented faculty who have gone completely to the administrative side of the institution—a complete transition. Based on the literature and my research questions, an ideal
conceptual participant pool included department chairs, academic senate presidents, union leaders, deans of instruction, faculty accreditation chairs, and tenured faculty pursuing a doctorate. All of these roles were represented in the participant pool for this study.

Notes on Roles of Participants

Table 1 lists the names (pseudonyms) of participants, their primary title, and their amount of reassignment. In the case of retired (emeriti) faculty, the exact reassigned time is non-applicable because the exact percentage is not known and/or was different than the current amount of reassignment for the same role. The two deans in the study are both former faculty, however, in their current roles they are not expected to teach, therefore they are not “reassigned”. The participants came from across various disciplines and departments, including sciences, mathematics, arts and humanities, social sciences, counseling, and business. Because of confidentiality issues, some details were obscured or omitted to protect anonymity of the participants.
Variety in the participant selection, as shown above, is an example of maximum variation sampling, which brought relevancy to this study and achieved
diverse variation among the participants (Creswell, 2013). Acting on recommendations by Smith et al., (2009) I utilized purposive sampling, which added another layer of meaningfulness, with selection of participants through referral by gatekeepers, opportunities through the researcher's contacts, and snowballing (referral by participants). Applying methods of IPA, participants were invited “to offer a rich, detailed, first-person account of their experiences” (Smith, et al., 2009, p. 56).

Glesne (2011) described reflexivity as “critical reflection on how researcher, research participants, setting and research procedures interact and influence each other” (p. 151). Glesne (2011) suggested that reflexivity practically requires two research projects: "one into your topic and the other into your 'self'”, and in paraphrasing Reason (1994), "the ground on which you stand" (p. 151). I interacted with the participants as a colleague and made sure to continually go back and forth between my understanding, or interpretation, and the experiences of the participants.

Researcher as Instrument Statement

My interest in education was established when I was a child. I was fortunate to grow up in a household where school was a priority and learning was expected. Looking back on my elementary school years, I realize that teachers were my idols in many cases. My mother became an elementary school teacher around age 40, and I grew up witnessing her as a college student. I browsed her
textbooks, admired her projects and even attended one of her classes at California State University, Los Angeles, which I remember well. This maternal connection to the education profession undoubtedly affected me. My sister is also a teacher, which I see as additional evidence of my mother’s academic influence on her children. Both my sister and brother have completed graduate degrees, as have I.

As I matured and pursued my own college education, faculty functioned as more than instructors to me. They were mentors, and I also see myself as a mentor to many students. For me, the faculty role goes beyond teaching the curriculum and includes career advising and mentoring. This is in keeping with the findings of Fugate & Amey (2000), who described the community college faculty role as “mentor, role model, coach, advocate, student facilitator, and guide” (p. 6). In my experience, teaching has been my most important role as a community college adjunct instructor and tenure-track professor, consistent with the literature (Cohen, Brawer, & Kisker, 2012; Fugate & Amey, 2000; Rosser & Townsend, 2006). As time went on, and especially as I approached tenure, I became increasingly involved in administrative duties and institutional service, again consistent with the literature (Fugate & Amey, 2000; Gibson & Murray, 2009; Rosser & Townsend, 2006). In the beginning, I only knew the responsibilities of teaching, and that was my sole concern. As time went on, I began to gain perspective on the community college as a whole, as a system, and I began to recognize my role within that context. I developed concern over
the institution and have found ways to serve the mission of the college beyond teaching. I still see teaching as a primary function, as say the heart is to the human body, but administrative roles are also critical, as are other functions of the body. Both are systems. Currently, my position is 90 percent reassigned. My roles include serving on the Guided Pathways Work Group, Art Gallery Director, Department Co-Chair, Academic Senator, Teaching & Learning Committee Chair, Program Review Committee Member, Curriculum Committee Member, Puente Mentor, and Art Club Co-Advisor.

As a high school and college student, I identified with many of my instructors and at times, I was drawn into their mystique. I paid attention to the characteristics of each professor and connected with them personally. Along the way, I gained some teaching experience by offering private music lessons when I was in high school and working as an art aide at elementary schools after completing my bachelor's degree. After graduate school, I was immediately hired to teach at a community college. I did not seek this job. It landed in my lap. This lack of intentionality in obtaining a community college faculty job is consistent with the literature (Fugate & Amey, 2000; Terosky & Gonzales, 2016). While I may have been prepared for the job, it wasn’t my goal necessarily. At that point, I simply wanted to be gainfully employed, and pursue my own professional interests in art. I continued community college teaching and within ten years, became a tenured Associate Professor at another community college.
As I think of my emerging research interests, the roles of community college faculty seemed like a clear choice to me. Here I am, a community college professor, engaged fully in a career I never imagined, and yet, clearly it is what I was destined to do. It is difficult for me to relate to individuals who strategically construct their career paths, as my path has been very organic. It was enlightening to discover that like me, many community college professors did not originally intend to teach at a community college. Also like me, those who had been community college students with positive experiences were more likely to teach at a community college later in life (Fugate & Amey, 2000).

Once hired, my own role at the community college evolved. I began as an adjunct instructor, working hard to keep my job each semester, for seven years. When I was hired as a full-time, tenure-track Assistant Professor, I felt somewhat like a freshman again, recognizing my place on the totem pole. After four years of proving myself, receiving tenure felt like graduating from high school—I would finally have my independence. Yet in a twist of irony, it was precisely at this point in my career that I felt the constraints of the additional roles I had acquired: department chair, committee chair, club advisor, gallery director, etc. Just as when I was first hired as an adjunct, all of these responsibilities seem to have fallen into my lap. It seems as though doing my job passionately and professionally was enough to propel me into all sorts of new responsibilities. For example, I was asked to be department chair because nobody else wanted to do it at the time. I wasn’t striving to do it, but I didn’t turn it down either. I assume
that if people thought I was not competent, they wouldn’t have asked me to do it. When a new committee was formed, the Teaching & Learning Committee, I was asked to be Chair, mostly because of my involvement with other committees. Honestly, the leadership positions I have obtained happened organically, and I am not sure exactly why. My own path, which is still unfolding, has led me to the doctoral program at California State University, San Bernardino. Seeking to better understand my own experiences, and those in similar positions, has drawn me towards researching community college faculty’s transition into administrative roles.

I am interested in the phenomenon of tenured/tenure-track faculty who have partially, or fully, transitioned into administrative roles. Creswell (2013) states that “a phenomenological study describes the common meaning for several individuals of their lived experiences of a concept or phenomenon.” (p. 76) I want to know what these individuals are experiencing, so that colleges can better support them. My research lies within a social constructivist framework, or interpretivist worldview. I want to know how faculty roles change, how and why administrative roles are acquired, and how faculty perceive these changes in their roles. Recently at my college, a tenured professor was in tears, literally, because another faculty member told her that she was essentially an administrator, because of her role as assessment committee chair. The upset faculty member is still teaching, but her job includes monitoring and tracking down faculty’s progress with assessment and she is given reassign time. It
devastated her to be thought of as an administrator. I am interested in examining situations like this to learn the stories that shape faculty’s perceptions and the potential outcomes of these beliefs.

Before I begin interviewing faculty, I know that I must consider my own subjectivity. It would be tempting to give more weight to qualitative data that supports my own perceptions of community college faculty, to gravitate towards ideas that confirm my beliefs. By the same token, I could inadvertently discredit stories which contradict my own experiences. Rather than avoid or attempt to eliminate my own predispositions, Peshkin (1988) suggests that qualitative researchers “tame” their subjectivity. He advises that by paying attention to our emotional responses, both negative and positive, we can monitor our subjectivity. The emotional reactions we have when listening to a story or witnessing a situation are our subjectivities manifesting. Peshkin advocates for finding a middle ground between writing an autobiography and creating an “authorized biography”, in which the writer flatters the subject, leaving out honest details. In my case, I can clearly see the need to avoid reporting my personal experience as a community college professor and the importance of being attuned to faculty stories which differ from mine. Because I am actively involved in administrative roles, my tendency might be to favor those faculty who are like me. I must be careful to have objectivity in my interpretation of the qualitative data I obtain. Whether my research validates my individual experiences is not the purpose of this study.
At the same time, embracing the fact that I am a full participant in the community I am researching can be beneficial. Glesne (2016) explains that by being a full participant, a researcher can have access to the inner workings of a group and gain trust by establishing relationships. Additionally, Glesne reasons that when researchers function as observers only, they can emphasize the “otherness” of those whom they are studying, causing the subjects to limit their participation and keeping the researcher on the outside. By participating with the community college faculty I am studying, I hope to gain maximum trust and exercise a level of sensitivity that an outsider could not match.

One last consideration is that of identity. Stanley and Slattery (2003) demonstrated the advantages of researchers who connect with their subjects in terms of identity. While I certainly cannot share racial and gender identity with all faculty, I can connect well with community college faculty in terms of educational background and socioeconomic status. Discussing the profession of college education with my peers will provide some level of comfortability. I would consider conducting both one-on-one interviews and small group sessions, where faculty might have the opportunity to connect with each other in ways that I cannot, such as gender and race. Wolf-Wendel, Ward and Twombly (2007), for example, revealed particular considerations of mothers who are community college faculty, a topic that male researchers might not investigate. I want to be sure to pursue all possible avenues in gathering qualitative data from the faculty.
This means extending beyond myself while also utilizing my own identity as a community college professor to gain the richest possible data.

Data Analysis

I transcribed semi-structured in-depth interviews, coded the data, organized the codes into categories, and identified themes. Versus coding is one type of coding that was particularly relevant to this study. Saldaña (2016) stated that “versus codes identify in dichotomous or binary terms the individuals, groups, social systems, organizations, phenomena, process, concepts, etc. in direct conflict with each other” (p. 137). Versus coding was appropriate for this study because the premise of the study is that there is a binary system of roles in the community college workplace: faculty roles versus administrative roles. Saldaña (2016) mentioned Teachers versus Technocrats, (Wolcott, 2003), as an example of literature that supported this notion of moieties, or mutually exclusive divisions within a group (p. 137). Referring back to Levin (2006), we know that community college faculty were often at odds with the goals of their college administration. Yet, we also know that some of these faculty needed to become administrators, because finding community college administrators outside the system was not feasible (Mitchell & Eddy, 2008; Shulock, 2002). Furthermore, Knirk (2013) showed that community college faculty have experiences that prepare them for administration and are even encouraged to become administrators by other administrators at their college. Herein lies a dynamic
situation, where community college faculty and their views represent one end of a spectrum, and at the other end, we have administrators with their views. Given that community college faculty are at different points on this spectrum (career stages), it was necessary to code qualitatively in terms of the two groups/roles. As mentioned in the description of IPA, it was important to recognize the life changing experiences community college faculty have, and the precise moments in their lives that contribute to an identity change, such as transitioning from faculty to administration. Versus coding was instrumental in helping to analyze and interpret the data in these terms. Emotion coding and values coding were also appropriate, as they helped to label emotions and attitudes (Saldaña, 2016), which were part of the participant’s experience. The use of analytic memos to reflect on the coding process also helped me to be more aware of my thinking (Saldaña, 2016).

Trustworthiness

To achieve credibility (trustworthiness), I employed “thick description, concrete detail, explication of tacit (nontextual knowledge), and showing rather than telling” (Tracy, 2010, p. 840). Thick description was especially important, as it allowed the circumstances of faculty and the specific details of their stories to be “heard” by the reader, rather than filtered through me. I was also very interested in tacit knowledge. I was able to capitalize on my familiarity of the community college system to create careful transcriptions of the interviews and
detailed analysis. A pseudo-version of triangulation was achieved by having multiple perspectives of the phenomenon (Smith, Flowers, & Larkin, 2012). Having viewpoints of department chairs, faculty leaders, and deans, added credibility. Crystallization allowed me to add credibility to my research while embracing multiple viewpoints. Related to crystallization was multivocality, which I employed to capture multiple voices, the participant’s point of view and collaboration with participants (Tracy, 2010).

In my case, I felt as though I was in the group I was researching, and part of my motivation to do this research was so that I could honorably represent the faculty and their experiences in the community college system. I felt that I was doing this work on their behalf. I was “studying us”, as Tracy (2010) referenced from Tillmann-Healy (2003). I also incorporated member reflections, in which I asked for feedback from the participants and shared with them the nature of my study and their role in it. It was important that the participants understood that they were not “others” being studied by me. In that sense, I did see myself as a toned-down activist-participant.

Yardley’s (2000) criteria, similar to Tracy (2010) was employed to check for sensitivity to context, commitment and rigor, transparency and coherence, impact and importance. An independent audit which is a trail of evidence, from start to finish, was employed (Yin, 1989). Lastly, I was attracted to the idea of presenting text with aesthetic merit, described by Tracy (2010) as “beautiful, evocative, and artistic”. I aimed to write in a manner that was not sterile or overly
academic but evocative, and hopefully moving. I feel that was what the participants deserved.

Delimitations

Because the transition from faculty into administration typically involves tenured/tenure-track faculty, this study will exclude part-time/adjunct faculty. Only tenured/tenure-track faculty who currently have official non-teaching roles or are involved with activities that could be viewed as a path to administration according to the literature were included in this study, along with deans, who represented the complete transition of faculty to administration. Again, in this study, the roles of the participants included department chairs, leadership positions in the academic senate and faculty association (union), instructional deans, faculty accreditation chair and a tenured faculty pursuing a doctorate.

Limitations

This study was an interpretive phenomenological study of the experiences of 15 faculty leaders in the California Community College system. One limitation was geographic location, as state policies vary, and some findings in this study may be limited to the socio-political environment of California.
CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

Introduction

I present the findings of the study in this chapter. To recall, I set out to examine the following research questions: a) What are the experiences of community college faculty currently serving in leadership roles? b) How have their roles changed over time? c) What factors motivated faculty to accept roles beyond teaching? d) How have faculty navigated their experiences? I constructed themes from the data, and the findings are arranged according to those themes. The themes bring attention to how participants characterized their experiences in leadership/non-teaching roles. In line with interpretive phenomenology, I discuss these interrelated themes from the vantage points of the participants and interpret meaning from their narratives (Lopez & Willis, 2004). The five interrelated themes I identified were: a) Loyalty to the Community College and Students, b) A Student-Centered Collegial Identity, c) Personal
Fulfillment, d) Cycle of Roles and e) Tensions. I have organized my discussion of some themes into sub-themes, as needed.

Loyalty to the Community College and Students

Participants in this study demonstrated significant loyalty to community college students, and to the community college itself, believing in its potential to transform the lives of students (Bailey, Jaggers, & Jenkins, 2015; Cohen, Brawer, & Kisker, 2014). This finding suggests potential for normalization of emotional labor (Gonzales & Ayers, 2018), because of participants' blind faith in the community college system. The participants generally viewed their allegiance to the community college as a moral conviction. Additionally, participants expressed loyalty towards the community college because of the opportunity they had been afforded by it, such as obtaining a full-time tenure-track job. This created the dynamic of reciprocity, in which participants felt they should “give back” to their college. Moreover, because participants saw the community college as a benevolent institution, they likewise saw their work on behalf of the community college as virtuous. This made it possible for participants to justify almost all labor they performed, as part of a general, student-centered mission. It also allowed participants to feel proud of their work. This viewpoint laid the foundation for how faculty perceived their roles and it provided context for their experiences at the community college. It allowed faculty leaders to see themselves as general
servants to the college, on behalf of students, and equate both teaching and non-
teaching roles with serving students.

Opportunity for Students

There was remarkable continuity in the way participants described the community college. I believe the participants in this study might be well described as *Functionalist Advocates* (Dougherty, 2001), because they espoused the institution’s open-access mission in serving all kinds of students, from first-ever-in-college, to veterans, to parents, and more. All participants had something positive to say about the community college, with “opportunity” for students being the most common response:

Ted: “personal opportunity”

Mark: “a pathway to career success”, “support”, “family”, “community”

Valentina: “a staircase of opportunity”

Joan: “opportunity”, “personal and professional growth”

Perry: “opportunity for students”, “academic freedom”

Paula: “opportunity… for my students… employment for myself”

Lucy: “being able to support those in your community”

Jean: “a way to give people opportunity”

Carrie: “an opportunity”

Tina: “a place for second chances”

Marjorie: “a means of socio-economic improvement”

Genevieve: “a vital link for students”
Rachel: “opportunity for the students”

Tucker: “equity”, “access”, “opportunity for social mobility”

Brian: “a job”, “the last bastion for true equity in our society”

The participants did not criticize the community college, despite the many ways the institution could improve its effectiveness and service to students (Jenkins & Fink, 2016; Ma & Baum, 2016; Bailey, Jaggars, & Jenkins, 2015; Radford, Berkner, Wheeless, & Shepherd, 2010; Dowd, 2007; Brint & Karabel, 1989). Instead, the participants held steadfast in their descriptions of the community college as the most accessible institution in higher education.

The participants described many ways in which the community college was a noble institution, citing the various types of students that found opportunities there. Patty spoke for many participants when she explained:

It’s really being able to support those in your community and offer them an education and kind of suit their needs, whether they’re transfer needs, whether they’re retooling, trying to get their skills back up, someone who has been laid off… I mean it’s sort of this broad gamut people in the community.

Beyond the community, participants saw the community college as important to society as a whole, just as Levin (2006) had discussed. Tina explained the connection between student success and the improvement of society from her viewpoint:
I value the contribution we’re going to make to society, via our students. That’s a big one for me. It’s making sure that we have students that walk out of here and have life skills to move to whatever that next step is.

Rachel also valued the principle of educating students as a societal issue. I could sense that she viewed her work as a community college professor as a moral cause:

I believe in education in a democracy particularly, so for me, it’s a political issue. And I believe in education very, very broadly. For career-oriented people, and not just for people that are going to go on and do a Ph.D. or whatever, or people that are interested in the humanities. And the reason for that is that I think that you can’t function in a democracy unless you’re educated, and we’re all supposed to be functioning in this democracy.

Jean’s views also aligned with those of Tina and Rachel. She stated, “I think we have the same goal. We should. To help students. If we do that, we’re helping the community. We’re helping the world.” For Tina, Rachel, and Jean, working at the community college meant that they had a hand in improving our society, and that belief is a powerful one. Although we cannot measure their contribution to society, their conviction was important to their sense of dedication to the community college.

Opportunity for Themselves and Reciprocity

The participants openly shared that it was not just the students or society that benefitted from the community college—they did too. They shared positive
memories as community college students themselves, or vicariously described the positive experience of children or family members who had attended community college. But most of all, the participants expressed gratitude for finding full-time work as a professor at the community college. They appreciated the tenure process (Fugate & Amey, 2000), specifically not having to formally conduct research or publish, as they would at a four-year university. Participants also felt the community college was a more viable option for them, as almost all did not possess a doctorate degree when hired, something they felt would be needed at the university. Participants also appreciated that the community college gave them the ability to accommodate their family schedules (Townsend & Twombly, 2007; Wolf-Wendel et al., 2007). In fact, nearly all of the participants had previously worked at institutions outside the community college but were ultimately drawn to it. Salary and academic freedom were also mentioned as positive factors for participants. Overall, the participant’s lives had been significantly improved by landing a job at the community college. This resulted in a reciprocal dynamic, in which participants felt they owed the community college above-average performance.

Joan described her willingness to take on extra roles early in her career because she felt so grateful for having a good salary. In fact, she was in disbelief when the human resources staff member informed her of her starting salary, which was more than her doctoral advisor had made at the university, after 35 years of teaching. Although there was a demand on full-time faculty to take on
non-teaching roles, Joan didn’t mind, in light of how happy she was to be earning good pay. She recalled, “So as soon as I arrived here, I was willing to do anything necessary to keep this job.” Elaborating on that sentiment, Joan confided, “Responsibility makes me feel useful. I want to be useful. I want to earn the money they give us. I feel guilty about the salary they give us, a lot.” For Joan, working hard and accepting reassigned positions is like a form of redemption, something that absolves her of her guilt and makes her feel worthy of the large salary that changed her life. It must be noted that Joan shared, “I was homeless like four times during my college career” and in her mind, she owed the community college everything. Joan described wanting to be the faculty that could help a student to make good choices, and get on the right track, to be the kind of faculty she needed as a student. This level of involvement with students and dedication to them in the form of being a “role model” was previously described in the literature (Fugate & Amey, 2000, p. 6). Joan further explained how her sense of guilt carried over into her interactions with part-time faculty. Joan spoke on behalf of herself and a full-time colleague when she said:

We have this intense guilt where part-time faculty are concerned, because we feel like we have been seated at this amazing feast and for part-time faculty, we’re scooping up pieces of our dinner onto a side plate and setting it down on the floor for them to eat, right?

Joan felt a sense of privilege as a full-time, tenured faculty. Her past experiences included periods of personal struggle, so she felt grateful for her position at the
college. Working alongside part-time faculty reminded her regularly of her days as an adjunct, before she acquired her more lucrative full-time position. Her feeling of guilt was a form of emotional work (Gonzales & Rincones, 2013). It had bearing on her sense of loyalty to students and the community college.

Like Joan, Tucker also felt lucky to get a full-time job at the community college, saying it was “just like the planets aligned.” Yet he had gone to great lengths to gain community college teaching experience, taking a part-time job in a different region, while commuting long-distance from home. Genevieve described her willingness to take on leadership roles, explaining, “I felt like this was my lifetime job, I might as well have a vested interest”. Perry emulated these feelings of loyalty, stating that he had a willingness to serve, that “I feel gratitude for the institution because of the opportunities that it's given me” and “I want to give back to the college”. These emotions seemed to drive participants to go the extra mile in their jobs, to have an attitude of willingness to serve. This is exactly the scenario Gonzales and Ayers (2018) described as being conducive to the normalization of emotional labor. It appeared to be easy for the participants to give too much, but they did not see it that way. Just as they neglected to point out the shortcomings of the community college system, I noticed that they also did not see themselves in a vulnerable situation of being willing to give of themselves endlessly in support of their institution’s needs.

Setting the Bar High for Service
The participants took their loyalty to the community college so seriously, that they set a high bar for both themselves and their colleagues. In fact, participants described their service to their college with a competitor’s drive, often noting that they had colleagues who did not keep up with their level of service, for which they harbored resentment.

Every participant expressed that it was important to them that they pull their weight, and many participants voiced at least a mild disdain for faculty they believed did not work hard enough on behalf of the college. Ted passionately spoke about this issue:

I work very hard and I think that I want to be a model for other faculty and a mentor to other faculty and basically say that this job is not just about teaching. There’s so many more things involved, which is another reason I take on leadership roles like being a part of faculty senate and some other things. But I want to be true to the job that I'm hired to do. So I have integrity in the classroom and amongst my colleagues because I see that there are a number of people, a number of faculty who don’t pull their weight, and so I know I'm not going to be that person… I also work hard, so that I can gain respect of my colleagues, so that again, I'm pulling my weight.

Participants pushed back against the idea that the community college is strictly a teaching institution (Townsend & Twombly, 2007). Ted’s example showed his desire to have more validation of his non-teaching roles, to get more credit for the
work which he considered part of his job. This was an example of striving to gain legitimacy (Gonzales, 2014). Participants had some resentment towards colleagues who viewed non-teaching roles as less important than teaching. The fact that participants consistently referred to colleagues not pulling their weight implied the normalization of emotional labor (Gonzales & Ayers, 2018), in that the level of work they contributed, and the emotions that went along with that work, had somehow become standard in their minds.

Valentina viewed faculty responsibility as more than teaching and wanted to see more faculty get involved outside the classroom. She believed, “We need people that are going to be representing not just their discipline, but their college, and the goals of the college.” Valentina felt even first-year faculty should do more than focus on teaching. She stated, “The approach of ‘oh, just focus on your teaching and your new preps’… I just have a different philosophy. Because I feel like that keeps them isolated and we have enough of those in the college.” This viewpoint really emphasized that teaching itself was not the most important aspect of a community college professor’s role. Valentina spoke for other participants too when she accentuated the importance of knowing the college as a whole, as an institution.

Not one to be isolated, when Marjorie was working as a one-year temporary instructor, before she was hired for the tenure-track position, she jumped at the opportunity to serve as a department representative on a rather political faculty committee, when nobody else in her department would. She said
her decision was “based on me wanting to show my worth”. That move demonstrated agency in an effort to gain legitimacy and help her obtain the tenure-track position. She continued to serve on that committee and would lead the group many years later. Marjorie’s decision to wade into the political pool of that committee as a new faculty member was partially based on a need for personal validation and a desire to earn her stripes. But it was also because nobody else would step up to do it. In analyzing Marjorie’s experiences, it is hard for me to separate out the commitment to serving the community college from the pressure to take a new role, from the agency exerted to gain academic legitimacy. She admitted, “A non-tenured person in senate is very risky” yet that is a risk she took. “I knew that was a place of influence”, Marjorie said of academic senate. “Do I think I can help more students? “Where can I help? Where can I better put my talents? Where will it serve more people?” These are the questions Marjorie asked herself in deciding to serve on academic senate.

Her decision showed a confluence of factors that included loyalty to students and the college, tension from the pressure in her department to be the representative, and agency, demonstrated by her specific action to gain academic legitimacy (Gonzales, 2014).

Joan referred to “filling holes” as her version of pulling weight and being loyal to the institution. She had a sense of duty, and when she saw a need, she filled it. At the same time, she expressed a tinge of resentment towards those colleagues that did not pull their weight:
I’m department chair because (the former department chair) suddenly became a dean. [They] had been my chair and suddenly [they were] dean, and there was a hole. I was like, o.k. I’ll fill the hole. I saw that there was a hole and that has to be filled. We are all again going in the same direction. If everybody stands there and goes ‘ehhhh’… we don’t go anywhere. And for the most part our college, our colleagues, are fantastic. Very few people shirk their responsibilities. And the ones that do? We all know who they are.

This passage shows Joan’s commitment to the college, her desire to be of service, and that she sees the department chair role as her responsibility. When she said, “we are all going in the same direction”, that implied that her identity was neither faculty nor department chair, but just one of the many servants of the college. She exhibited loyalty to the college and expected the same level of loyalty from others. Again, as in Ted’s case mentioned previously, this implied that perhaps Joan was not getting the credit she wanted or felt she deserved. As with all of the participants, Joan compared herself to others, to establish her rank among colleagues, based on a perception of duty to the college. This also suggested normalization of emotional labor.

A Student-centered Collegial Identity

A student-centered collegial identity was the most dominant point of view the participants had about themselves. Participants were student-centered and
viewed themselves as individuals with a shared purposed. They preferred to not get caught up in their roles or titles. They aspired to treat others with respect, and did not feel that one’s role, be it president or office support staff, should require different levels of respect. They saw themselves, and other employees of the college, as working toward the common goal of serving community college students.

Student Advocates

Just as faculty are the most important connection students have to their college (Fugate & Amey, 2000; Gibson & Murray, 2009; Lundberg & Schreiner, 2004; Tovar, 2014; Townsend & Wilson, 2006), the participants in this study demonstrated that the inverse of that statement is also true: students are the most important connection faculty have to their college. The participants in this study described their identity in terms of serving students and advocating for them. This often included advocating for the community college at large, but ultimately always came back around to the students themselves.

Like other participants, Perry defined his identity as an “advocate” and did not want to be defined by a particular role, such as department chair. He saw advocacy as a constant theme in the various roles he served in, be it supporting faculty, his department and programs, or students directly. He explained, “I don’t feel like I’m changing hats. I just really see myself as an individual. And I think
that the advocate is the strongest word because everything that I'm doing is advocacy”. The identity of the participants was interconnected with their strong sense of loyalty to the community college. This in turn was because of the mission of the community college. Participants easily saw a connection between serving the college and serving students. Their non-teaching roles were in service of students.

This included serving faculty and upholding the fairness. An example advocating for faculty in the larger context of the faculty union was provided by Paula. Fairness was particularly important to Paula, and she described being in a situation where her knowledge of the union contract was in conflict with her role as department chair, a role already full of conflict because of the multiple requirements of the job (Young, 2007). Paula explained that her colleagues were not following the faculty contract in a particular situation. She had to tell them, “I can't sit there and let you misinterpret the contract and the faculty right and process. So I can't let you guys do that”, to which her colleagues responded, “You should just be quiet”. Paula explained, “I'm going to be looking at everything, it has to be fair for everybody”. In this sense, she saw her identity as an enforcer of justice rather than aligned with one particular role. She did what she thought was right, and in this case, that meant upholding the faculty contract, which had been adopted by all constituents at the college. This episode was a point of tension for Paula, but it was also a moment of agency. If she had not
possessed loyalty to the college, and had a sense of advocacy, she might have acted differently.

It must be pointed out that I repeatedly heard participants explain that their non-teaching roles were still in service of students. This is important, because advocating for students did not always mean that participants were teaching or directly interacting with students. Paula, for example, felt that her non-teaching roles were still beneficial to students. Yet, there was a connection to her role of teacher/professor that she did not want to let go. She mentioned that an administrator asked her if she would consider being a dean. She was not yet ready to let go of teaching and her time with students. She imagined a scenario, in the future, in which she might accept a dean position:

When I feel I'm not effective, then maybe I can. There will be a point where I'm just probably not reaching them (students). Maybe, you know, I'm a [55 plus] year-old woman and they see no value. Like I don't connect with them anymore, there will be a point I think.

Note that Paula maintained her loyalty to the community college in her future scenario. For Paula, like the other participants, connecting all of her roles back to the students and the mission of the community college was important. She was willing to give up some of her cherished time teaching students only because she could connect those non-teaching duties back to serving students. Her only way to justify becoming a full-fledged administrator was by imagining herself as an
ineffective teacher, in which case she would better serve students in a non-teaching role.

**Collegiality**

Although community colleges are hierarchical by design (Brint & Karabel, 1989; Dougherty, 2001; Cohen, Brawer, & Kisker, 2014), participants eschewed official titles, and focused on cooperative efforts to serve students. Their desire to disregard status seemed to stem from their focus on students, and suggested they respected their colleagues because like them, they supported students too. Ted discussed how he tried to ignore the hierarchy of roles at the college, treating part-time faculty and administrators alike:

> I don't think that I change when I’m going from one role to the next. When a part-time faculty comes in to speak to me, I keep forgetting until probably after they leave, ‘Oh, they depend on me for a job’, you know, as department chair. I don’t really think of it that way. But I think that, oh, here’s a colleague that has come in. I try to humble myself. And I do that even for staff around campus, you know, I want to be respectful of the job that they do and try to acknowledge when I can and treat them as colleagues, even though there is this sort of hierarchy. I try not to recognize that and even, you know, speaking with administration, sometimes I just try to not be disrespectful. But I try to treat them as a colleague, you know, as we're in this together. Same way with students.
The respectfulness participants like Ted described was not just for the sake of being polite, or cordial at work. It was part of their identity as student advocates, and was based on recognizing one another as mutual partners.

Mark viewed himself along the same vein. He described his identity at the college in terms of collegiality too. He felt respect was important, and he maintained his individual identity no matter the context:

I find that for me personally, I don't mind wearing many hats, but I'm not going to take on many personas. So how I speak to you as a colleague, whether we're doing [a community college reform effort] or we're talking about things just as friends online, pretty much my approach is going to be the same. I'm going to use the same euphemisms, I'm going to use the same humor, the same language. And candidly, I'm going to use that same approach, whether I'm talking to (the president) or I'm talking to students in my classroom. There's always going to be that same level of respect, that same level of good humor, at least I hope it is, and that desire to be able to communicate openly with the person I'm talking to. So, I don't have that desire, nor do I feel like I'm necessarily changing my view of myself when I'm acting in one role versus the other.

The participants mentioned behaving in similar ways, whether among students, faculty or administration. This collegial, student-focused identity was essentially their boundary-spanning role (Tushman, 1977). It provided a buffer for them,
avoiding at least some of tensions they might have experienced if they had been strongly attached to one particular role.

Jean was in line with the other participants, in terms of having a collegial, student-centered identity. She didn’t want any particular role or title she possessed to get in the way of being collegial. Speaking of her role titles, she explained:

I'm not conscious of them. I definitely think with students our roles are different. I think with students we're in the position of responsibility for their education, but we also want to be approachable and want to be human beings. And I think that's the bottom line with everybody. We want to be human beings with each other.

Jean explained how tensions still crept up, especially with the department chair role, despite her efforts at being “human”. As we talked, Jean recalled the tension she felt being a department chair, which caused her to feel uncomfortable in that role. Like other participants, she saw herself as an advocate, yet like Paula, she could not blindly support colleagues at the expense of students:

This is my role. I’m advocating for my department, for my faculty, whatever it is. So yeah, absolutely, I would be aware of that. And I think that's one of the challenges of the department chair role, for me it was. I was very conscious that it was a role of advocating for faculty, but also there are times where the department chair is required to deal with complaints that
come regarding faculty, and they’re colleagues, and this is where it felt very much an in-between role and I was very uncomfortable.

The dilemma Jean recalled was a type of conflict particular to the department chair role (Young, 2007). She went on to explain that a lack of clarity in the role made her feel uncomfortable because she was simultaneously supposed to be an advocate for faculty but also an enforcer of discipline and conduct. Young (2007) specifically addressed how department chairs experienced tension when they tried to maintain student-centered actions while simultaneously engaging in non-teaching roles. Jean was only department chair for a short time, and never took that role again, choosing other ways to serve the college. Like other participants, Jean exerted agency in accepting/denying roles or pursuing/avoiding roles, depending how the role suited her personally and if she could connect the role back to students. She emphasized her identity as one of serving students, not necessarily as a teacher, but that teaching did help to refocus her attention on students. Jean said,

When I walked into the classroom it always made sense, it felt like things just kind of settled down because that is really what everything is all about. It’s ultimately all about the students and it helped me to keep that focus. I think it’s so important for all of us that we keep that focus.

With 80 percent reassigned time away from teaching at the time of my interview with Jean, she continued to see her identity as someone who is focused on what
is best for students, and mentally kept her non-teaching duties connected to students.

I found more insights into the identity of the participants by listening to Carrie speak about how she viewed herself. She called herself a “player-coach” and admitted that being called “boss” by another faculty made her “cringe.” This was in keeping with the other participants’ tendency to disavow specific role titles and the associated clout. She said, “I have a really, really hard time seeing myself as a leader of my faculty” but admitted she was more comfortable doing so among part-time faculty. Still, she wanted “to acknowledge them as faculty and as valuable partners in what we’re doing.” In relation to administration, Carrie stated:

I see myself as being equal really, with the deans. I acknowledge that they have different responsibilities and so I'm willing to follow the procedures that they want to have followed, but I don't see them as being above me. I have earned the respect that they should be giving me, just as much as they've earned the respect that I'm giving them.

Because Carrie had entered a phase of her career in which she was not teaching very much at all, her identity was not one of teacher or instructor. Yet she seemed to have accepted that fact, as she explained:

I am disconnected and so as much as I want to be part of the teaching environment at this institution, I can't really be a first person conversationalist about it. And I recognize that in myself. I have to trust
that my faculty and the people I'm working with are really doing that heavy lifting. Because I don't believe personally, I have a valid conversation anymore.

At the same time, Carrie did not see herself as an administrator either, and had no interest in being a dean. This was how other participants felt, too. The participants, as faculty leaders with non-teaching roles, really existed in a space between teaching and administering. They were boundary spanners (Tushman, 1977). Carrie wanted to be helpful to faculty, administrators and staff alike, all while keeping the interest of students in mind. She viewed her position as faculty with 100 percent reassignment as an opportunity, in which she cobbled together her own particular job description:

So if I'm looking at [said college] and what I'm offering [said college], I can do a heck of a lot more from this position than I could from switching over to be a dean. And it's kind of an amalgamation of all those pieces, having to be together. I need to be a chair. I need to be in [said community college reform effort]. I need to be in those places so that I have that broad knowledge. And I know people respect the fact that when I'm in those positions, I'm learning all about the other positions. I'm not just going in and, 'Well, the classroom faculty want this.' No, I'm not interested in that. I need to know what's best for the students.

Carrie mentioned other faculty she kept in mind as role models, stating that

“They were never administrators. And they were powerful people, very powerful
people”. Carrie’s self-view is ultimately not tied to a particular role at all, but rather to strategically using her skills to have the most positive impact on the institution and the students. This was true of all the participants.

Tina also identified herself not in terms of a specific role, but in terms of being a “contributor”. This was her version of advocacy. She was only interested in non-teaching roles in which she could see a connection to helping students. She explained how one does not necessarily need to be directly in contact with students to positively impact their lives:

I see myself as a contributor. I think the roles that I have contribute more in the background of teaching, sometimes, you know? Like program review, like non-credit. Those are things that may not be visible—specifically visible to students, but they contribute in a way that students don’t recognize—but they do have impact. I feel when I develop non-credit classes I’m contributing to a student we don’t even serve right now. This may be a marginalized student, maybe a business person. There’s a contribution there. I don’t really want to do things where I can’t see what the contribution is. And I get asked to do those a lot.

Tina also spoke about supporting other faculty, including mentoring part-time faculty, which she sees as connected to students. She said, “I’ll give them whatever they need. Because I think that ultimately leads to student success. And that’s what it’s really about, is student success”. For all of the participants, their identity was rooted in serving the college and students in particular, rather
than any one role. The participants in this study call into question the accepted view that community colleges are teaching institutions, with faculty defining a mission of teaching (Townsend & Twombly, 2007). Instead, the mission seemed to be to serve students broadly, and the participants did so through multiple roles which they tied together through their identity as advocates. Tucker spoke for the participants when he said, “I don't think my view of myself changes”. He emphasized the need for understanding, which he said he had as an instructor and has maintained as a dean. “My goal is to enlist supporters for a shared vision”, and like the other participants, he sees all roles at the community college being in support of students.

Personal Fulfillment

While the participants held onto a collegial, student-centered role as advocates, they also remained strong in their own personal identities. With all of the participants, maintaining their sense of individuality was part of their professional work. For example, Marjorie exemplified freedom to be herself when she insisted, “I am who I am, and I am who I am in front of everybody…genuine”. Although she recognized needing to wear different hats because of her different roles, she said, “I never stop being [Marjorie].” Genevieve felt similarly. When I asked her about one of her high-profile faculty leadership roles, she told me that she did not think of her role or title. Her self-view was as herself, not her role. Explaining, she said:
No, I was me. I'd been part-time for a long time, so I could always relate to adjuncts. I could sympathize with them, and I tried really hard to help them as much as I could. With administration, they knew what I was all about, and they knew what my experience was. I feel I had their respect. I don't feel that it changed, really. The only time it may have changed, was in the classroom, when you then sort of geared down to deal with your students, and to reach them on their level, and coax them along, and get what you can from them.

For Genevieve, the roles she took were extensions of her personality. In other words, she chose roles in which she could naturally be herself. “I felt like I had all those aspects of my personality that I could let them flow through. It let me feel that I was really making the most of myself as a person”. This suggests that matching individual faculty to the right role was important for their well-being.

In Rachel's case, her identity was always “what-you-see-is-what-you-get”. But at the same time, she felt her self-view did change for the better after taking on non-teaching roles. She explained:

I think I thought of myself as sort of an absent-minded professor type before I started taking on all those roles, and once I started doing those things, I felt very organized and competent. So I think that my view of myself, in that sense, changed, but not in relation to various different groups, but rather just overall.
Genevieve and Rachel were able to reach a level of self-actualization in their leadership roles at the college. Not only were they able to be themselves, but they were able to become better versions of themselves. The participants in this study were all on personal journeys, and over time continued to fine-tune their roles.

Beyond serving students, faculty leaders in this study sought roles that fulfilled them personally. Participants were personally invested in their programs, and as such, the success of their programs was a source of pride. They used agency to accept roles that gave them more power to strengthen programs they valued. They found a sense of purpose in working for the community college, which they saw as an important cause. There was a subtle sense of competition expressed by participants, be it in pursuing a doctorate to be more like their peers, or in taking on roles that had been modeled for them by a respected colleague. Participants used agency to work within the system to create more flexibility in their schedules, by taking reassigned roles that lessened their teaching load, for example. This seemed to help prevent or alleviate burnout (Fugate & Amey, 2000). Alternatively, participants used agency to return to the classroom when administrative duties became overwhelming.

**Personal Exploration**

The participants expressed a keen interest in exploring new roles and learning about the inner workings of the college. This interest was a motivating factor for faculty to pursue non-teaching leadership roles. Through their own
agency (Gonzales, 2014), participants created new opportunities for themselves via these roles. Rachel described her motivation for acquiring non-teaching roles:

I did want reassigned time. I did want to be out of the classroom. I found that, though I enjoy teaching, that being in the classroom all the time made it difficult for me to do some of the writing that I wanted to do. And I found that somehow the administrative work... even things as onerous as doing the accreditation self-study... that was a lot of work, but I could fit that into doing my own writing better than my teaching. I guess it was ... it's that draining of doing the grading, I think, more than anything else.

Rachel was naturally inquisitive, and that led to her chairing one of the academic senate standing committees early in her career, after she had proven herself by investigating the official policies that applied to that committee. This was one example of inquiry for purposes other than publication (Terosky & Gonzales, 2016). She had worked for nine years as an adjunct faculty at a small, private liberal arts college before being hired as a tenure-track faculty at the community college. She explained how that experience increased her appreciation of her job at the community college:

You know, you're sort of on the outskirts when you're an adjunct, and so I was really excited to be part of the community. So I think it was also partly that. So it wasn't just ... I mean, yeah, I was interested in [the committee work], but it wasn't just that. It was really the idea that I could actually function as part of a community.
Rachel, like the other participants, found personal fulfillment in working collaboratively with their colleagues on behalf of students and the college. Their leadership on committees, in elected positions, and as department chairs involved a personal interest in scholarly learning (Baker, Terosky, & Martinez, 2017). Through the partial of complete reassignment of their teaching roles, participants were able to engage in scholarly learning with more flexibility than if they had been teaching at a 100 percent load.

Being involved is something that was important to Tina, too. Like Rachel, Tina wanted to feel connected to the college. She said that for her, participating in certain committees “makes me feel more involved. I think it makes me feel more connected. It’s kind of about connection back to the campus.” This comment shows how participants, despite enjoying teaching and working directly with students (Fugate & Amey, 2000), recognized that “the college” was more than just teaching. To feel “connected” meant to be actively involved in non-teaching roles and working together to solve problems through inquiry and discussion. Tina said that when she would step away from serving in non-teaching roles, she would feel disconnected. She enjoyed the feeling of contributing and being useful, and her main satisfaction came from a “connection to what’s happening on the campus”, including the participatory/shared governance of the college. The participants shared a sense of proprietorship towards the college, and as such used their agency to insert themselves into
positions in which they could have more legitimacy and personal fulfillment. This was often done through exploration of various non-teaching roles.

Another motivation participants had for exploration of roles was a desire to add variety into their careers. For example, Carrie accepted non-teaching roles because she recognized more in herself than just the skills used for teaching. She said being a department chair “appeals to my strengths in some ways, my organizational strengths. It was nothing about being in a leadership role, per se. It was really just about changing the job. Not that I didn't like teaching.” Carrie used the analogy of working in a business, and changing roles/positions. “If you work in a business, you finally end up in a different job, you change your job. And I guess my idea was I needed the job to change.” Carrie said she liked the analytical part of the non-teaching roles, and the challenge brought by those roles. Carrie and the other participants literally changed their jobs when they exerted agency to fulfill their own needs. The participants in this study revealed another dimension to agency as discussed by Gonzales (2014). Whereas Gonzales (2014) found that faculty agency can be used to operationalize the aspirations of the institution (non-teaching roles), to negotiate (compromise between non-teaching roles and teaching), and to resist (refuse non-teaching roles). In this study, I found that the participants were often making decisions about their roles in terms of their own fulfillment, not just navigating the dichotomy of teaching or non-teaching roles.
In fact, participants shared how non-teaching roles could actually be more fulfilling in terms of helping more students. Brian shared Carrie’s attraction to change and he explored many non-teaching roles before eventually becoming a dean. He explained how he is drawn towards new roles:

I jokingly say that I try not to have ‘shiny-ball’ syndrome. I feel like a little squirrel and every time a shiny ball goes rolling down the street, I go chasing it because I want to do it. And I just want to have an effect that's positive and that is tangible, and it's not just sort of droning on doing the same thing. And trying the same thing over and over again. And I felt like I had more opportunity to do bigger things for more people in those roles.

Part of the exploration for Brian was discovering that he could make large-scale improvements for students as a department chair and later as a dean. He realized he could apply his interest in analyzing data to affect many more students than he could have reached in the classroom alone.

Cycle of Roles

Faculty leaders in this study described the duality of their roles, moving between teaching and non-teaching roles in an ongoing cycle. This cycle was largely controlled by the faculty themselves, through their agency. There were tensions created by having dual roles, but also benefits for the participants.

Faculty in this study used agency to advocate for students and themselves, usually within the community college, but occasionally against it.
When faculty found themselves in a role that they felt did not serve students, or themselves, they experienced tension. They then used agency to navigate around, or away from, those tension-filled roles. Additionally, faculty used agency proactively to seek out roles that would increase their power to serve students or themselves. As faculty’s feelings towards their roles changed over time, they would respond by switching to a new role, and/or modulating the ratio of teaching to non-teaching roles in their work. This cycle of moving between teaching and non-teaching roles or simply changing up their roles, was an adaptive form of agency, a kind of pressure-valve faculty could employ in order to relieve tension.

I have created sub-themes to help examine the strategic and responsive ways participants used their non-teaching roles. The sub-themes are The Lone Savior, Personal Benefits of Non-teaching Roles, Gaining Influence, and The Teaching/Non-Teaching Duality.

The Lone Savior

Many of the participants described situations in which they believed they were the only person who could take a certain role. Paula shared her story about taking on the department chair role, when the previous chair took a leave of absence. She wasn’t sure she wanted to continue in that role. She described how some faculty end up doing more work than others, perhaps because they are picking up the slack, and ultimately concedes that she will most likely continue to be department chair:
I still think there’s some people that do a lot more than others, and maybe they want to, I don't know, you know, maybe they want to or maybe they’re forced. Forced because no one else wants to do it or you know… I don't foresee anyone wanting to take a .6 (60% reassignment), if (the department chair) doesn’t come back. Nobody's going, 'hey, I'll do it!' There's a lot of people that are just kind of like, ‘no—that’s not what I want to do.’ So, then what happens? I feel like I have a responsibility to the college and to the department.

Serving as department chair was in addition to Paula’s elected position she already had. While she felt she needed to be the one to step up and serve as chair, she was also conflicted about losing more contact with students. This tension she felt seemed to be an example of normalization of emotional labor, in which she resigned herself to being department chair, even though she already had another leadership role. I wondered if Paula was ultimately taking the chair position out of loyalty to her college or if it was really because of expectations placed on her by the institution. This situation demonstrated the emotional labor involved with taking a new leadership role, especially when it is under duress.

Perry explained that he needed to be department chair “because I'm really the only one that kind of knows how all of those parts work,” referring to the specialized needs of his discipline. Similarly, Mark found himself being somewhat recruited by his department to be department chair, and ultimately recognized that he alone needed to take the lead. “They felt as a group that I was the best
person for the job at the time, and I reciprocated that faith that they put into me.”
When asked what his motivation was for becoming a department chair, he replied instantly: “Somebody had to do it”. In this sense, he “saves the day,” so to speak. Ted also saw himself as the only viable person to be department chair, in his case for a second time, after previously serving in the role many years earlier. “I wasn't really ready to leave the department in other hands, so it might be a vain thing of saying well, I'm the only one who can do it”. Perhaps that is partially vanity, or ego but Ted also shared “I have low self-esteem, and so I'm kind of surprised when someone shows me respect, whether it be students, faculty or administration. But that's why that acknowledgement is so important to me.” In light of that, his decision to accept the role of department chair seems to be pragmatic—out of loyalty to the department and to gain legitimacy. When everyone else said no or simply wasn’t ready, he probably was the only realistic choice.

**Personal Benefits of Non-teaching Roles**

Despite the stress and tension associated with non-teaching roles, participants did cite beneficial attributes of reassignment. For example, Rachel openly admitted:

I did want reassigned time. I did want to be out of the classroom. I found that, though I enjoy teaching, that being in the classroom all the time made it difficult for me to do some of the writing that I wanted to do.
Facing burnout in the classroom is a real concern for community college faculty, although their dedication to the college typically does not subside (Fugate & Amey, 2000). This was true for the participants in this study, who benefitted from non-teaching roles as a way to avoid burnout in the classroom. As a published scholar, Rachel continued to pursue her own research, writing and professional activities while working at the community college. She found that even though her administrative roles were “onerous,” she had more flexibility with her time in those roles than she did in her teaching role. Carrie said precisely the same thing, about not having to grade papers on the weekends. “You know, that’s the worst part of the job, grading papers. I’m not sure that I liked it all that much. So now I’m like, hmm, maybe for the rest of my time here, I should be doing this”. Carrie was referring to her reassigned roles, which if you recall, totaled 100 percent of her workload. Trading some of their teaching load for non-teaching roles was an example agency, and the participants took these actions, in part, for personal benefit. Rachel also explained how non-teaching roles allowed her more time to work on her personal writing projects. She also felt her teaching was better because she was less exhausted by it when she was teaching fewer classes. She said, “Just in terms of my general health, having lots of different kinds of things to do seemed to me to be a benefit”.

Participants found leadership roles were intrinsic to their sense of self-worth, too. Rachel shared how she came into her own at the community college, mainly through her non-teaching roles. For example, when she negotiated a new
union contract, she said she did that “because I thought it seemed like a really interesting thing to do, and I wanted to challenge myself, and I thought, ‘I bet I can do this.’ So, I did that”. A pivotal moment seemed to be her attendance at a leadership conference, where she was challenged to think about what kind of leader she wanted to be. The idea of faculty leaders, versus administrative leaders, was presented. She remembered, “I came out of there thinking no, I really wanted to be faculty, in part, because of the interactions that I had with people that were heavily into administration. I thought, ‘That’s not really me,’ you know?” It was then that Rachel realized how much potential there was in being a faculty leader.

Rachel pursued leadership positions as an opportunity for developing herself as a person and as a professional. She remembered when she arrived at the college, she looked around and said:

‘Oh, here are all the things that one can do here. You can be faculty lecturer, you can be promoted to professor, you can be a senate president, you can be...’ And I looked at all those things and I said, ‘I'm going to do all those things.’ And I did! So, there you go. And then I left (retired).

It is important to note that as faculty like Rachel advanced in their careers and acquired new roles, doing so was personal. It was their life, not just their work, and represented their personal accomplishments and personal validation. It was their form of self-worth. As such, it was important to them that they had autonomy
and control over their career. This was a motivation for Rachel, to be in charge of her life through her career stages and choose roles that would add value to her life.

Another benefit of non-teaching roles is having a better understanding of the community college and issues in higher education. Marjorie spoke about how being in her elected position allowed her to travel around the state of California, learning more about equity, and various initiatives. She felt the opportunities she had as a faculty leader made her a better teacher, and she would like to see more faculty get out of the classroom and even out of their college. “If I stay in my microcosm of my classroom, and my students are telling me that I'm doing such an outstanding job, I convince myself that I am”. She continued, quite intently and almost angrily: “All those instructors that don't go out, I really think they should be required to. A semester at least... To do some form of service outside of the college”.

With the literature pointing to teaching as the primary role of community college faculty (Cohen, Brawer & Kisker, 2012; Rosser & Townsend, 2006; Fugate & Amey, 2000), and an emphasis on teaching being an attraction to the community college for faculty (Fugate & Amey, 2000), it is important to note that participants in this study found benefits to reducing their teaching load in favor of some amount of non-teaching duties. Even more importantly, participants did find that non-teaching roles helped them to be better connected to the college, more
informed of issues in higher education at the community college, and ultimately, to improve their teaching.

Tucker explained that his teaching improved after acquiring non-teaching roles, but for a different reason than Marjorie. He avoided teaching overload classes, so his reassigned time was less of a burden and more of a relief from a heavy teaching load. For him, it was a “less is more” attitude. He reflected on that:

I was so excited to be able to have a two-hour block of time away from my desk and my phone and computer that it was intense. I loved being in the class. I think I was a better teacher because I didn’t have to teach six classes. I was able to really engage. It was really all about connecting with students.

These perspectives dispel the premise that reassignment/non-teaching roles are always a threat to the quality of teaching at the community college. Instead, it suggests that there are benefits of faculty taking non-teaching roles and that management of the ratio of teaching to non-teaching, along with the individual faculty’s personal situation will affect how positive or negative the experience will be for them.

The participants in this study exerted power within the culture of their college by using faculty leadership positions to shape policy, negotiate with administration, advocate for programs and disciplines, and create the professional environment that was most congruent with their life and their values.
Gaining Influence

Rather than drawing a line between themselves and the administration, participants in this study engaged in leadership roles to exert power and influence over administration, working with them to make change. Genevieve, for example, disliked pitting faculty against administration. She believed:

It's just that we all have different roles to play, and so there doesn't have to be this horrible in-fighting all the time. [Some faculty] always made it be like the faculty against the admin. That's not what it's all about. That doesn't help anything.

That isn't to say that Genevieve wouldn't push back against policies she did not support. She said, “I rattled cages as I went, sort of in my own way.” She remembered standing up to a chancellor once, literally, at a meeting in front of other faculty leaders. She was promptly ordered to sit back down by the chancellor. But Genevieve used these experiences to her advantage. Recalling that moment, she said, “I'll never forget that, he got so mad at me. That's why I could deal with him when I was in the union. I had experience with him.” She was not trying to go against the chancellor, but rather, assert herself to be recognized by him, to get his attention, which she did. Once she had his attention, she could negotiate with him for better policies.

For Marjorie, her self-described “big ego” drew her straight to the positions of greatest influence. She said,
Faculty have different ways of influence: you can have influence through unions, you can have influence through senates, and I always liked colleges that had influence through senates. How can I best influence, and have the greater influence? If that's going to be through senate president, then I shall be senate president. Does that make sense?

When I asked Marjorie what kind of influence she wanted to have, she connected it back to making the college better. “I could come up with a million things that were wrong with the college at the time, that I wanted to help solve.” Marjorie detested people who complained without doing something to make things better. “I'm not the type of person that says I don't like this, I don’t like that, and I don't like this, without supplying a solution.” Her views could again be related back to the example Rachel gave us, in the sense that both individuals wanted to have roles that would increase their self-worth. Their sense of purpose was actualized by doing “important work,” by advocating, and by gaining influence.

The participants shied away from saying they had “power,” instead focusing on influence. Tina shared her desire to have influence at the college. She shared a recent encounter she found humorous:

Somewhere said to me, ‘you are an alpha female.’ (Laughing) I said, ‘oh?’ ‘You have a lot of power.’ And I said, ‘no, I don’t have power, I have influence.’ And they said, ‘no—you have power.’ So, I think that’s interesting. I think I have influence but I’m not really looking for power. Power is not the point of my existence.
Tina has been in her profession for thirty years and chose to put her time into roles that had a clear connection to serving students and also made her content.

She explained:

I'm saying no more and more often to things I'm not passionate about and I don't think are going to make a difference. Because I've got limited time. And I want to put my time into things I'm really interested in at this point.

Again, this spoke to the faculty's desire to maintain their well-being and create the work environment they enjoy. To that end, Tina also mentioned the importance of matching the individual to the right role:

I think we could do a better job of succession planning. I think we can do a better job of identifying people who could fill those leadership roles and mentor them along. So, at some point hopefully they can do that. I haven't seen any community college that does that very well.

Tina's words express what she has accomplished for herself and what she hopes can be accomplished for all faculty.

Succession planning helps individuals to find roles that suit them (Groves, 2007; Rothwell, 2005) and helps to prevent tensions related to particular roles (Knirk, 2013; Young, 2007). The participants in this study agreed and seemed to also have found personal benefit by finding the right roles for themselves, where they could have more influence and fulfillment. Jean commented on this, stating:
I think ideally...people will be given the room to find what works for them and what they think they’re good at, and what they can do well, and in that way, be fulfilled and satisfied in their job before they take it on.

This is important because although community college faculty’s loyalty to their college and students increases over time—and they rarely leave their job—they also tend to have more negative feelings the longer they work at the college (Rosser & Townsend, 2006). The participants in this study shared a desire to find the roles that were right for them.

In terms of the magnitude of influence faculty leaders can have at their college, Carrie was an excellent example. She exerted power by getting people to listen to her. She saw herself as equal to a dean in terms of the influence she had at the college, although it could be argued she had much more. She believed the administration relied on faculty like her to build coalitions and rally support for particular policies and ideas. While this potentially could have been a case of normalization of emotional labor (Gonzales & Ayers, 2018), Carrie and other participants were conscious of making sure the work they did match their values. Carrie saw her role as a parallel role to administration, a collaboration. She explained her point of view:

I think that the administration needs strong faculty leaders in many ways too, because they can come and lean on faculty leaders when necessary. I get a dean or VP or president who comes to me before something and says, ‘It’d be really helpful if you brought up this or that, or the other thing,
or if you were supportive of this, that, or the other thing’. And I'm happy to do that if I believe in what they're talking about. If I don't believe what they're talking about then we have another conversation. But, you know, if I do believe in what they're talking about, then yes, I'm going to use my position to talk to the people who need to be talked to, when my president would get in trouble.

This quote revealed how important faculty leaders were, how the work they did could have influence that no other leaders could have, even the president of a college. Paula also shared how she used her influence as a faculty leader to accomplish important work. Paula explained how she and another faculty leader would step in for top-level administrators when they were better suited for the situation:

We're going to take maybe like a draft of our educational master plan to the chancellor, not [our president], because if [our president] takes it [they'll] get yelled at. So now it's me and her going. It might work. You know, it might be better.

These are examples of how participants actually had more influence than even a president of a college, in certain situations. Their agency was exerted through actions within the governance structure of their college (Gonzales, 2014).

Perry spoke about his influence as a faculty leader to communicate with administration and advocate his viewpoints. He felt that because of the governance structures of the community college, all faculty had a fair amount of
potential agency to influence decisions at the college. This is what he said about how he exerted influence at the college:

I think I just speak my mind. I don't really have any qualms about speaking to administrators, so I think that's one way. A lot of things come through Senate. I'm really able to speak my mind about things that come through there. Nearly all of the institutional things, especially things associated with academics, are going to Senate. So I get to see all of that. And I like that. So I think that's the, you know… committee service, serving on Senate… I think just lobbying for my program. Being an advocate for my students… I think that's a way that I use my power. But all faculty members have that. Which is kind of a beautiful thing. We have a system that allows us all to do that in a way.

Of course, if Perry did not serve on academic senate, or participate on committees, or serve as a department chair, his voice would not be so influential. When he said that all faculty have the ability to exert power, that is true, but not all faculty have done that like the participants in this study. Perry demonstrated that there is a certain level of self-confidence and self-worth that is required for speaking up. This confidence could drive faculty to take a new role, but new roles could also help to bolster one's confidence. This again showed how personally connected faculty were to their leadership roles. Perry expressed his agency in this comment: “I feel I have a unique voice on senate. I have the ability to offer different points of view and make sure that things that I feel are important are at
least discussed”. We know that what was important to the participants was serving students, so through their faculty leadership roles, the participants were increasing their advocacy for students.

Having a voice and collaboration were important to the participants of this study. Mark recognized the power of his chair position, but chose to use it in a collaborative, helpful way. He shared:

Sometimes it's beneficial to be in a situation where I'm connecting either with committee members or students on that committee, and I basically say, you know, ‘speaking as the chair… let me suggest this, or tell you what we'll be doing.’ So that connection definitely has changed since I was given that responsibility.

For Mark, the department chair role was pragmatic. He used the position as a resource to collaborate and accomplish shared goals. Although Young (2007) found that department chairs with the lowest amount of reassignment were the ones most connected to students, the participants in this study demonstrated an unwavering commitment to students, no matter what their reassignment percentage was.

Ted used the influence of his department chair role to advocate for faculty. He described having concerns over initiatives like Guided Pathways, which are intensely student-focused. I did not have any reason to believe that Ted was not student-focused himself, as he also spoke about his dedication to students. But, his concern over certain initiatives was based on a counter effect of
administration neglecting faculty. The participants did share various examples of times when their values did not match the administration or the external pressures placed on the college (Levin, 2006). But, I must be very careful to clarify that these examples were minor in comparison to the volume of shared values between the participants and administration. In Ted’s case, he was concerned that by only focusing on what was best for students, faculty concerns would be ignored. He described that concern:

If faculty have certain needs and I need to go to administration for it, and even though sometimes those get shot down or I get kind of, you know, looks that say ‘Ted, we’re not pleased with that’, or something along those lines, that can be somewhat defeating. But then I realized, no! I need to be an advocate for our faculty and so I'll go back in and you know, continue to ask. Quite honestly, I was a little frustrated with (the former) department chair because (that chair) would not be our advocate. (That chair) would not try to take good care of us and at a department chair meeting, a dean shot me down for making all these changes, and said ‘it’s not about faculty, it’s about students. It’s about faculty, too. You can't ignore that.

What I noticed most about Ted’s story was not that there was disagreement among faculty, department chairs, and deans, but that Ted used this moment to reaffirm his advocacy, his agency, for the faculty, which we know are the main contact students have with the college (Fugate & Amey, 2000; Gibson & Murray, 2009; Lundberg & Schreiner, 2004; Tovar, 2014; Townsend & Wilson, 2006). He
was using his influence to argue that if the goal is to better serve students, then faculty concerns must be addressed too, as they are the ones directly working with students most often. Rather than walking away with their hands in the air, the participants in this study repeatedly demonstrated a willingness to stay in the game, so to speak, rather than becoming apathetic and withdrawing from their leadership roles.

In fact, in Ted’s case, he was returning to the chair position after previously serving in that role years earlier. He didn’t have to go back to being chair but was recognized as the best person for the role. Still, he chose to take the role because of his dedication to the college and to once again gain more legitimacy (Gonzales, 2014). He thought he might relinquish all of his non-teaching roles and return to the classroom 100 percent for a while. But instead, he decided to focus entirely on his non-teaching roles, and even stop teaching the one overload class he had. This was because he recognized that he could make a difference, that his influence through leadership was needed. Like all of the participants, feeling that they made a difference was important to them. The flexibility of roles and the opportunity to change one’s mind year to year or even semester to semester in regards to their work load and roles allowed participants in this study to strategically use non-teaching roles in ways that were meaningful to them.
The Teaching/Non-Teaching Duality

Participants exerted power against the culture of their college, to fight against injustice, to stand up for their values, and to rectify flaws in the community college system. One of the key findings was that faculty leaders controlled their work experience by creating a cycle of teaching and non-teaching roles, a purposeful “ebb-and-flow”. Like a valve, faculty could ramp up involvement with leadership when they needed a release from the pressures of teaching or when they wanted to strategically accomplish a goal. Likewise, they could escape the pressures of leadership roles by returning more fully to the classroom. Each participant had agency in determining the “right fit” for them, and this was often fine-tuned over time. These actions of agency ultimately enabled faculty to “figure their world”, a phenomenon in which the participants determined who they were through their relationships and through their actions (Terosky & Gonzales, 2016; Urietta, 2007; Holland, Lachicotte, Skinner & Cain, 1998).

Rachel exerted a tremendous amount of faculty influence and personal agency during her tenure at her college. One of her earliest actions was to gather some faculty together to form a program review committee in response to external pressures from the State. She recalled:

At some point, the state started making all these noises about program review and assessment. They were put together. And we had a new vice president of academic affairs ... and he was actually only there for a year; I
don't even remember his name... and he came in and said, ‘Okay, we have to do this.’ There was money tied to it. I can't remember what that initiative was called, but there was a big push by the state at that point to give money for this... something ‘excellence’, the something Excellence Program... and it sounded to me as though what was going to happen was that we were going to be dictated to about how we ought to teach. And I thought that shouldn't happen. There were a bunch of us that actually thought this, and so we said, 'Let's take the initiative and let's get this program committee going, and I wanted to be on the program committee because of that.

Rachel described trying to combat the “business model of education”. She wanted to preserve her own discipline within the broader humanities, and she wanted to defend her vision of what education should be. Her attitude was, "Well, if this is going to happen, and it looks like it's going to happen no matter what, let's have it happen in a way that works for the benefit of both faculty and students." Rachel soon recognized that leadership positions were respected, which allowed her to “get the ear of the administration” and “some benefits”. She continued to take on new leadership roles throughout her career. The participants in this study were open-eyed about their involvement with leadership roles. They were not subjugated into serving. It was their choice, and in instances where they were nudged into a role they didn’t like, they got out. Over time, they
continued to use roles strategically, and balance their roles with the amount of classroom teaching that suited them.

Joan took on the responsibilities of leadership roles “because it allows me control over my environment”. When she took roles that did not suit her, she gave them up. Joan recently reached a point of exhaustion with her leadership roles. She noted, “I’m doing less classroom work. I probably want to do more, which is why I signed up for the [said program].” Doing so was an action she took in order to control her work environment and achieve the balance she needed at the time. Availing herself of the opportunities for faculty, as Rachel mentioned, was a way to craft the work environment that was most desirable.

Valentina spoke for the participants when she described how she saw the cyclical nature of teaching and leadership roles. She expressed it succinctly:

I think there’s a life cycle. And I think it just continues on. I think we get really into it—administration, and we get exhausted by our students. And then I think we’re over administration and want to get back to our students.

It is important to understand, based on the experiences of participants in this study, that teaching and non-teaching roles are not an “either/or” proposition. Tina described how the cycle of role panned out in her experience:

Typically, what I do… I do a lot. And then I get a little burned out, and I take a year off and don’t do as much. And then I get bored with that and I jump back in and I get involved in something else. It’s kind of like this (hand gesture). But have been times when I’ve been on a committee but
not a chair of the committee that I've kind of taken a year off here and there and really focus more on teaching and working with students. I miss being in the classroom, to a certain extent, but I kind of like not being in the classroom, to a certain extent, that's kind of an interesting thing. Like other participants, Tina took advantage of her freedom to choose what roles to take, when to take them, and for how long.

Another factor in the cycle of roles is that for the participants, life at work and life at home were interconnected. For example, Valentina explained how she used to serve on a particular committee, but when the meeting time was switched to 2:00 p.m. – 3:30 p.m., that was a deal-breaker. She explained why she could not attend the committee at that time of day:

So, when kids came, that didn't work for me anymore. Having that flexibility of finding things that worked with my schedule and with my kids, was definitely influencing my choice. But when my kids are grown, I'm still going to be here. So, then I might retreat back to that committee representative role.

We know that community colleges are particularly attractive to faculty that are mothers/child care providers (Wolf-Wendel, Ward & Twombly, 2007). Parenting was one life circumstance that affected participant’s decisions to accept or not accept certain roles. Their work is part of their life, and participants in this study use their agency to select roles that are tenable at the time.
Tensions

Faculty leaders were more likely to accept tension in their roles if they could clearly see a connection between the role and serving students or gaining personal benefits. In other words, the threshold for stress was higher when faculty felt they were being loyal to their college or to students, or when they were benefitting personally. Likewise, faculty had a lower tolerance for tension in their role if they seemed to be serving something or someone that was not directly connected to students or did directly benefit their life. Tensions often caused emotional labor, in which the emotions of participants were conjured or suppressed (Gonzales & Rincones, 2013). These tensions were also “normalized”, to a degree (Gonzales & Ayers, 2018), but not in an all-consuming way. This could most readily be seen in the fact that the participants called out colleagues who were not deemed to be supporting the college enough through non-teaching roles. They seemed to judge others based on an apparent lack of dedication to their college. The participants described their emotional labor and expected their colleagues to perform similar labor. In this sense, emotional labor had been normalized. A lack of professional development, mentioned frequently in the literature (Aziz et al, 2005; Gmelch & Buller, 2015; Gmelch et al, 1999; Gonzales & Rincones, 2013; Jones, 2011; Young, 2007), was also cited by the participants of this study as a tension. I have organized Tensions into sub-themes of Workload, Loss of Student Contact, and Lack of Clarity in Role.
Workload

Workload itself was a tension the participants shared. It is important to document the feelings faculty have regarding their workload, as emotional labor bears down on individuals, especially department chairs who must advocate for faculty while answering to upper administration (Gonzales & Rincones, 2013). Hidden within workload issues could be examples of normalization of emotional labor, in which colleges take for granted the unwavering dedication of faculty to serve, using it as a solution for a lack of resources (Gonzales & Ayers, 2018). The participants in this study worked extraordinarily hard. While some of this work may have been their choice, the participants described the responsibilities of their individual roles as being high. Of the department chair role, Ted gave this account:

Being a department chair is a lot of work. I know that I personally have a .4 (40%) reassign. We have a really large department and in that .4, which you know equals however many hours it equals, we put a lot more hours into the job than just that .4.

This statement suggests that while there is a set amount of department chair hours per reassign (the faculty contract stipulated 1.5 hours of work, minimum, per .100 reassignment), participants in the department chair role were working more hours than they are compensated.

Reviewing faculty can be another time-consuming aspect of the department chair role. Mark noted that he was recently responsible for
conducting eight faculty observations and reports. “Not all of that can be covered in my chair time, and so I'm losing even more time in terms of being able to be with students”. Mark also stated, “Where I might get resentful of the use of my time, is in the plethora of meetings that we often find ourselves involved in”, and he listed several obligations that stemmed from his role as department chair. This was an example of how tension increased when participants could not see a connection in their work to serving students or find a personal benefit in it.

When Valentina became the director of a fledgling program, she described it as a “huge undertaking”, having to write a “humongous” document of which she said, “You would think it was a dissertation”. Perry served as department chair and faculty in two disciplines that were very demanding of his time. He described some of the work he did in one of these disciplines:

[The discipline] has a tremendous amount of software, and equipment, and interns that are related to that, and I have to train those interns and monitor their activities when they are doing things on campus. So that's a big chunk of responsibility in just managing all of that… For a long time, I was the point person on that grant, until we hired our full-time faculty for (the discipline). I wrote four degrees-worth of curriculum… So, it's a lot.

When you add institutional service on top of that and other things… In Perry’s case, like all of the participants, there was a tremendous amount of work to do in order to make his discipline grow and prosper. Genevieve also described her work with curriculum. “I struggled for about a year, to come up with
a correct curriculum. I re-wrote those course outlines of all those classes”.

Clearly there was a significant amount of work to do as part of the faculty role, let alone additional non-teaching roles. This is important because workload tensions affected participant’s decisions on which non-teaching roles to take, and how much they could handle.

The workload of the participants can be compounded by teaching overload classes. This can cause added tension. When I asked Ted about teaching one online class even though he was 100 percent reassigned, he said, “Yeah, that was a mistake, because that's a real lot of work”. Although it was only one class, he had to recreate much of the content for a new online platform adopted by the college, which on top of his reassignments was too much. When Tucker was still teaching, and became a department chair with reassigned time, he made the decision to forego an extra teaching load. He proudly described a memorable encounter with an administrative assistant:

I'll never forget it, the administrative assistant, she goes, ‘Oh, here's your schedule.’ And I was like, ‘What the hell is all this? Take this off.' She goes, ‘You taught these classes last semester.’” I said, ‘No, but I'm not doing that. I have this other release time.’ She goes, ‘But look at all that extra money you're going to get.’ Like, I don't care. For me, it was like I'm not doing that, I can't do that, I'll run myself ragged”.

This was a moment of agency for Tucker, but it was also his response to seeing the pitfalls of working too much and steering clear of an excessive workload. It
was an example of exerting power against a culture that existed at Tucker’s college (Gonzales, 2014).

Loss of Student Contact

One primary tension expressed by participants was their distress in being less connected to students. Participants had to grapple with taking overload classes to stay connected to students, when doing so was a strain. Paula taught overload classes, and in combination with her non-teaching roles/reassignments, this was more work than she wanted. It had a negative consequence, which she explained:

I have .6 for the chair. I have a .2 for (an elected position), and then I'm teaching a .6, which I regret. So, I'm a 1.4. I've always only taught a 1.0. I just feel that I want to find the balance where I'm okay, in my, you know, psyche or my mental state. I think that if I'm too overworked or too overstressed, that I don't give my best to my students. And I feel that that has happened a little bit. I've given them what I can. But I am distracted. I'm not 100% with my class.

Paula was doubly concerned about her reassignments taking her away from students because of her personal background as a member of an underrepresented group. The first in her family to graduate from college, she earned a Ph.D. from a selective university in a very competitive field. She said, “I think that being with the students is important, especially being of a minority underrepresented group.” She clearly felt the need to be loyal to the students,
especially when so many community college students are first-generation college students from minoritized groups (Bailey, Jaggers, & Jenkins, 2015). Yet at the same time, she understood the importance of non-teaching roles in terms of serving students, and confirmed that “If I didn't, I wouldn't do it”. Her leadership roles were important to her, as with the other participant’s, but likewise, it was necessary for Paula and the others to be sure they were serving students in those roles.

There was much consensus that non-teaching roles make faculty less connected to teaching, and less connected to their students. Ted explained, “every time I put my efforts into (non-teaching), my efforts in the classroom weakened greatly. So, when I go back into the classroom and strengthen those up, you know, what’s going on there, the other weakened”. Valentina said, “I feel like I’m a little more removed, unfortunately, from my students. I used to know every single student’s name and now I can’t say that I know”. Joan talked about how she used to enjoy being a student club advisor, but after she became department chair, she just didn’t have the time. She had to turn it over to other faculty, of which she commented, “And I do feel guilty about that. I know what to do, I just don’t know that I have the energy to do it”. Participants felt tension in response to less time with students because they generally enjoyed teaching and working with students (Fugate & Amey, 2000). Perry also lamented not having enough time as he would like for students:
The non-teaching roles pull a lot of time away where I would maybe just have more office hours or go hang out in a lab and keep it open and let students be able to come in during those times... I think that some of those extra demands pull away from that and that can be frustrating.

Tina directly stated her own axiom, “how many roles you have decreases the amount of contact you actually have with students”. Marjorie agreed, stating, “The connections can't be as deep, unfortunately, because I can't spend as much time with them, which I'd like to. That I can't avoid”. At the same time, this was not to say that the participants regretted their non-teaching roles. As Marjorie mentioned, less time with students was simply unavoidable.

Brian’s stress of balancing teaching and non-teaching roles is precisely what nudged him into administration full-time, as a dean. He shared how the stress of his dual roles intensified while he was a department chair:

It's very much a roller coaster of balancing the time. I actually found it to be quite a challenge because when I'm teaching, I want to be with my students all day long. I want to help them wherever I can and answer their emails on weekends and nights. Which I know is not healthy, I get that (laughing). But I was that teacher, I always was. Trying to do both and live in both worlds was a challenge for me.

Brian’s statement was characteristic of the other participants, who also felt that “living in both worlds”, was stressful. But remember, the participants also appreciated their cycle of roles, and their agency in changing roles as needed. In
Brian’s case, his role change was to move from department chair to dean. He explained how as department chair, he was excited about helping to negotiate relationships with the local high schools that aided students in matriculation to the community college. He said, “I was very stressed out about the balancing of time. So, this (becoming a dean) gave me the opportunity to do that full-time”. In that way, Brian was just like the other participants, who changed their roles based on serving students and meeting their own needs.

Genevieve remembered feeling the same way. For her whole community college career, she had been the only full-time faculty in her discipline, while also serving as an elected faculty leader and department chair. “The burden was on me for all of this stuff, and it was kind of overwhelming sometimes”. Like Brin, she applied for a dean position too, at another college, but the funding fell through for the position and her opportunity evaporated. She described how she continued to change her roles anyway:

When I came back and didn't get the admin job, I kind of thought, ‘You know, it's time to do something else.’ And as I taught, I thought, ‘I think I'm ready to move on.’ And that's when I did finally retire.

She took a part-time non-teaching position in her retirement, which she described as “really refreshing and wonderful”. It was very clear to me that all of the participants created their own individual career paths, while navigating with a student-centered advocacy identity, and a need for personal fulfillment.
In this study, all of the faculty participants had 50 percent or more of their teaching load reassigned to non-teaching roles, except for Lucy, who had only 20 percent reassignment, or the equivalent to one lecture class. It is notable that Lucy is the only participant who expressed no significant level of tension in her role. This fact was consistent with Young (2007), who found that increased reassign time equated to increased department chair duties, which in turn created tension for department chairs. In other words, less reassignment equated to less tension. I do not think it was coincidental that Lucy expressed very low levels of tension in her role as department chair, while all of the other department chairs did. She stated, “I’m totally content” and “haven’t had any struggles and where I fall short, or didn’t understand something, I always felt really supported”. In Lucy’s case, she did not experience much tension, presumably because her chair duties were light. As she described her work as department chair, she made it sound like a relatively straight-forward, manageable role. This allowed her to more fully stay engaged with students and teaching, whereas the consensus of the other participants was that the department chair role was filled with tension, partly from managing time, having less connection to students, and most importantly, lack of preparation and understanding of what the role entailed.

**Lack of Clarity in Role**

Struggle is not always negative—it can be a form of agency too (Bourdieu, 1983, 1998). The participants in this study, all educators, recognized that learning, while empowering, often involved tensions and struggle. For example,
Mark felt that every new role comes with a learning curve, and there is always some struggle in a new role. He had a positive attitude, however, saying, “Struggles for me are not necessarily negative. It’s more about appreciation that there’s more to learn.” Mark’s experience was that all of his struggles stemmed from learning the job of his various roles. Joan also had struggles related to learning new roles and not being prepared for them. She described becoming chair of a committee she had never served on, and how one administrator belittled her:

[He] hated me and it was just tough, it was really tough, because I didn’t know how to do an agenda, I didn’t know how to do anything. And every time I made a mistake, he was like, see! And it was like, I will get you!

Despite how negative her story sounded, Joan described it while laughing and smiling. She seemed to be laughing at her former self, who knew much less than she did now. Joan described her experience of becoming department chair at a stressful time in her life, hoping to be given a handbook to help her with her new role, but the handbook didn’t really exist:

Most of the challenges that I’ve come across are either, you know, I don't know how to do a job and being asked to do, which you learn it, like becoming chair. I was getting married, two weeks from the moment I became chair. Like I was in the middle of wedding planning. And no, now I’m going to be chair. Okay. How do I be chair? Right? And she's like, oh,
there's a handbook. Oh—could I have the handbook? Sure, sure.

Someday. And then there was no handbook!

Joan wished she had received more training, mentoring and/or advice to prepare her for new roles, a common need addressed in the literature (Aziz et al, 2005; Gmelch & Buller, 2015; Gmelch et al, 1999; Gonzales & Rincones, 2013; Jones, 2011; Young, 2007).

Brian told stories that were very similar to Joan’s experiences and the other participants. When he took the dean position, there were a “myriad” of things he didn’t know, that he had to learn on the job. He said, “A training program would have been fantastic! (Laughing) That would have been awesome. Or even just a calendar of things you’re supposed to do”. There was a bill he was responsible for paying, but nobody told him about it. “It’s $45 a year and I didn’t pay it and we came within hours of having the website shut down and it was like my second month on the job. (Laughing) This is a bad thing.” Although Brian had some mentoring from the former dean, he described it as happening “in the eleventh hour”. There was no formal mentoring or training for him as he transitioned from faculty/department chair to dean.

Tucker also was perplexed at the lack of guidance and clarity of his role when he became dean at the college. He described his shock after having clear guidelines in his previous position at another college:

I want to say this: multiple times I've looked at my past experiences and I've had clear guidelines and processes... When I landed on this job, no
one handed me a manual of decision making, budget resource allocations and other processes. I never got any of those things and I've just been trying to figure it out and I'm working on knowledge of others. I can't even open up a manual, and I've sent this out multiple times here. Go to the (former college's) website and look up, under the board, look under shared governance. Just open up that page and there's three manuals that I got handed when I got there.

Tucker went on to describe how he didn’t even have access to the budgets he was supposed to manage as dean. He would like to see more clarity in his role, and transparency, so that everyone can understand what to expect of each other.

For Mark, and the other participants, the department chair role was perhaps the hardest. Mark described how he struggled to maneuver politically:

It's interesting as a chair I haven't had any struggles in terms of working with the people in my discipline. All of my struggles have been on the learning end of things—about figuring out my role in scheduling, for example, and figuring out you know, how to do rankings properly so that I don't screw up and lose the opportunity to get a person on the list.

Understanding, to be candid, what I would call some of the politics behind the chair and knowing how to properly communicate with all the involved parties, so that it's going in the direction that I hope it will go.
Learning the politics of the department chair role was a struggle for participants because it was a behavior, and behaviors are very hard to classify, evaluate, and teach (Jones, 2011).

Valentina went straight to her role as department chair to describe her struggles. When she first became chair, she described the other chairs as a “good-old-boys network”, not literally male-dominated, but meaning “who’s been there the longest could easily push out other classes, get primetime slots, you grow your numbers…” Valentina said the chairs that had been in their position longer “were more effective because they had the right language. They knew the ins and outs, they knew the language to be most effective and then I think there’s also a sense of intimidation to go up against them.” Valentina described how prior to her tenure as chair, the previous chair had a meek personality and simply could not fight for their department. This chair was “very sweet but was definitely a more passive voice, and a different approach. So what happened to (our department)? We didn't grow. We got pushed out to evenings, mornings and weekends.” This was a problem that had to be rectified by Valentina, over time, as she learned how to play the department chair game effectively.

Jean described the department chair position as “complicated”, with “so many pieces”—as many as 81 competencies have in fact been identified in the department chair role (Jones, 2011). She described her frustration, saying, “I felt very much caught between administrators, students and faculty”, a clear example of emotional labor (Gonzales & Rincones, 2013). Jean's struggle seemed to be
about existing as a faculty member yet having to bend into an administrative role at the same. Being department chair was perhaps an identity crisis, which she explained:

Some people say this as an administrative role because of administering certain functions or being responsible for certain deadlines, roles, whatever. So in that way, they’re administrative tasks. For me some of the challenges were being a faculty member in a faculty member role, which is what the department chair is.

I sensed some resistance as Jean explained her challenge of performing administrative duties while still in her role as faculty. It seemed that more clarity in the role could have been provided by the college, not just for Jean’s sake, but for her colleagues to better understand the role Jean was in, to prevent uncomfortable situations.

Lucy described the politics of department chairs ranking new faculty hires as the most stressful experience. She said, “That’s probably the most uncomfortable meeting of the year for me. I hate going to that.” Instead of arguing over which department will get a new hire, she would like to see some kind of rotational system for allotting new faculty hires. She suggested:

Maybe we plan it that way and not do it the way where people’s feelings are hurt and having to make strong cases for why you need someone and why you think… That’s a moment of power and alliances and relationships.
that all comes into play in that meeting. It makes me really, really uncomfortable.

Lucy also said, “I’m not a political person”, so for her, it would be appreciated if she wasn’t forced into political situations in her chair position. She would like to see the college organize a better approach to faculty hiring.

Tina brought up a very sore spot for her personally, regarding politics at the college. As a conservative, she has found that her voice, her opinions, are not welcomed among the liberal majority of faculty. She explained:

So the place I find most difficult here is the lack of acceptance for conservative values. So, that I have a little bit of trouble with. And that’s why I had to get off academic senate because it’s too liberal for me. There are a group of us who are moderates or conservatives and we don’t talk. We get beaten up verbally, and in some cases you may even be ostracized. We do have a little bit of bullying on campus when it comes to some of that.

Although Tina is very outspoken and confident, when it comes to conversations in which political views color the discussion, she finds she must be silent. This is an example of mutual respect not being practiced at her college, and it has been a real struggle for her.

Carrie, who is also incredibly confident, seemed to doubt herself when thinking of herself as a leader. She struggled to accept the level of influence she had at the college. “I have a really, really hard time seeing myself as a leader of
my faculty.” It was hard for her to digest becoming the kind of role model she admired when she first started working at the college. She explained:

And so, I think, oh wow, when [certain former colleagues] were here, I remember thinking ‘Ahh! I want to be like them.’ I like to their style of leadership. I thought, you know, they just really were cool. I sort of go, oh, crap, there are people looking at me that way right now, and it just makes my head go (garbled noises and hand gestures). You know? That's a lot.

That's a lot to think that there are junior faculty walking around right now...

While it was one thing to accept certain roles, it was another thing to deal with the emotions that followed. Emotional labor is a struggle because it involves participants having to deal with both the emotions that are conjured up because of certain experiences, while also having to suppress emotions that aren’t acceptable to others (Gonzales & Rincones, 2013). Carrie struggled inwardly, processing her position of importance at the college.

Marjorie looked inward too, when describing her struggles. For her, personal weakness were her main struggle. She acknowledged “dealing with my own weaknesses and saying, ‘oh Marjorie, what were you thinking?’” when she had opened her mouth and said something inappropriate at a meeting. In her elected position, politics play a large role, yet Marjorie still saw this as one of her weaknesses. She said:

I am stubborn, I'm too honest, which ... So, a lot of times I'll show my cards too early on. I'm not very good at politics. I have to get better at
politics for a lot of the positions that I would like to maybe aspire to. So I have to kind of look at that.

This was a clear example of the pressure to suppress emotions (Gonzales & Rincones, 2013). Colleagues and administrators expected Marjorie to know how to navigate and perform in a political context, yet that is not something she was trained to do. The college needed someone to fill the role that Marjorie filled, but the support and appreciation were not always there for her.

Genevieve entered into a political context too, in her work with the union. She described that experience as “tons of trouble…a lot of it had to do with sexism”, which Genevieve combatted by getting “more women on the board”, a feat of agency on her part. Despite writing an exemplary union contract, she said “the good old boys gave me a real rough time”. This again was not in the description of her role, yet it was a fight she had to have to get things done.

Rachel most succinctly described the struggles of being faculty with non-teaching roles. What was hardest for her—and this was echoed by many participants—was that other faculty didn’t understand what Rachel was trying to do, and didn’t always believe Rachel had their interests in mind. It really was a situation where some faculty pitted themselves against administration, and faculty like Rachel were lumped in with the administration as the “other”. In the following passage, Rachel recalled the stressful dynamics of her non-teaching roles:
Yeah, there always were struggles... if you're in that sort of in-between position of being senate president, and you're meeting with the chancellor once a month... and you've been to all the board meetings, and you meet with the vice president, and you meet with the president of the college... and so you know things that are going on in ways that the faculty don't, and it's sometimes difficult. I mean, first of all, they don't want to know all the details, and secondly, there's no point in telling them all the details, because a lot of the stuff just gets washed away and never even happens. So sometimes there's a tension when faculty see something that you know is not something to worry about, and they think it's something to worry about, and they get all upset, they get upset with you. So that kind of thing happened a variety of times throughout both the time I was in the senate, the time I was chair of the department, and most definitely when I was negotiating the contract. Negotiating the contract was one of the most stressful experiences that I've ever had, and it was primarily because of stresses from the faculty, and feeling like faculty believed that I wasn't doing the best by them.

For all of the participants, there was some degree of stress caused by other faculty not understanding their roles, and the work that they did on behalf of the college.
Summary of Results

The participants in this study were individuals with strong loyalty towards community college students and their belief in the mission of the community college to transform the lives of students (Bailey, Jaggers, & Jenkins, 2015; Cohen, Brawer, & Kisker, 2014). They did in fact maintain their identity as collegial advocates on behalf of students. The participants sought personal fulfillment in their roles and desired to find roles in which they could thrive and be useful, exerting significant agency (Gonzales, 2014). They also purposely alternated between roles in order to have more autonomy in their careers. They were dedicated teachers but recognized the importance of non-teaching roles too.

The participants in this study were inextricably human. Their emotions and personal experiences affected their work at the community college. Despite the tensions of their roles and isolated situations where they felt taken advantage of by the college (Gonzales & Ayers, 2018), the participants retained a positive outlook on their careers at the community college. The experiences of the participants were varied in details but coherent in their emotional labor. Over time, the participants exerted agency to fine-tune their roles and exert agency to have more influence at their college. The participants were motivated by their need to have balance between teaching and non-teaching roles, to gain respect and personal fulfillment. The purposely and strategically navigate a cycle of roles, to have more autonomy in their careers, make the best use of their skills, serve
students and the college to best of their ability, and find personal fulfillment.
CHAPTER FIVE
RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to understand the experiences of community college faculty in leadership roles. Using an interpretive phenomenological approach, I sought to find meaning in the narratives of the participants (Lopez & Willis, 2004). Although the primary role of community college faculty has been described as teaching (Fugate & Amey, 2000; Rosser & Townsend, 2006; Cohen, Brawer & Kisker, 2012), some faculty, like those in this study, transition into leadership roles or even administrative positions.

Transformational experiences and encouragement from administration (Knirk, 2013) have led some faculty into administration. The necessity of recruiting administrators from within the teaching force is also a factor (Mitchell & Eddy, 2008; Shulock, 2002), and there is a continual need for some faculty to leave teaching and fill administrative roles. Classroom burnout (Fugate & Amey, 2000), and less positive views of work life (Rosser & Townsend, 2006) could potentially tempt faculty to serve their institution in new ways. For those faculty who do step into non-teaching roles, increased professional development is needed (Aziz et al, 2005; Gmelch & Buller, 2015; Gmelch et al, 1999; Gonzales & Rincones, 2013; Jones, 2011; Young, 2007). While faculty’s transition into administration might be a haphazard process, Young (2007) and Knirk (2013) argued that faculty could be supported by their institutions in more meaningful,
positive ways. Gonzales and Ayers (2018) suggested that some faculty may pursue non-teaching roles when their personal sense of dedication to the mission of the college gets construed with the neoliberal pressures placed on colleges.

This chapter offers a discussion of the results of my study, in relation to the existing literature. After making these connections, I present final conclusions and recommendations for policy, practice, and research.

Discussion of Findings

I conducted in-depth semi-structured interviews with 15 community college faculty and former faculty. These included 11 professors/associate professors, two academic deans (former faculty), and two faculty emeriti. All participants served as department chairs and had other non-teaching/reassigned roles, ranging from 20 percent to 100 percent of their assignment.

The interview questions were rooted in a conceptual framework I created, based on my review of the existing literature. The framework guided my inquiry into the phenomenon of community college faculty serving in leadership roles and had four components: Boundary Spanning (Tushman, 1977), referring to those faculty whose roles bridged differentiated groups; Normalization of Emotional Labor, in which Gonzales and Ayers (2018) suggest that faculty can be manipulated and taken advantage of by administration; Agency, considered by Gonzales (2014) as specific actions or behaviors employed by faculty to earn or maintain academic legitimacy; and finally, Figured Worlds (Terosky &
Gonzales, 2016; Urietta 2007; Holland, Lachicotte, Skinner & Cain, 1998), in which faculty construct their professional reality based on their relationship to others and through their actions. Figured Worlds was the culmination of the other four components of my conceptual framework. It dovetailed with agency (Gonzales, 2014), as people take actions to gain legitimacy; as they move between multiple roles or classifications (Tushman, 1977); and as they grapple with emotions related to their roles (Gonzales & Rincones, 2013; Gonzales & Ayers, 2018).

The in-depth semi-structured interviews yielded qualitative data, which I coded, categorized, and collapsed into themes. In keeping with interpretive phenomenology, I analyzed these interrelated themes from the vantage points of the participants, and interpreted meaning from their narratives (Lopez & Willis, 2004). The six interrelated themes I identified were: a) Loyalty to the Community College and Students, b) A Student-Centered Collegial Identity, c) Personal Fulfillment, d) Cycle of Roles and e) Tensions. The key findings of this study are discussed thematically.

Finding 1: Loyalty to the Community College and Students

The participants in this study were extremely devoted to the community college system and community college students in particular. While Twombly and Townsend (2007) described community colleges as teaching institutions defined by faculty, the participants of this study believed students were at the heart of community colleges. Serving the students, either through teaching or non-
teaching roles, was the primary concern of faculty.

Participants in this study believed in the potential of community colleges to transform the lives of students (Bailey, Jaggers, & Jenkins, 2015; Cohen, Brawer, & Kisker, 2014). Participants held unwavering faith in the community college system despite the many ways the institution could improve its effectiveness and service to students (Jenkins & Fink, 2016; Ma & Baum, 2016; Bailey, Jaggars, & Jenkins, 2015; Radford, Berkner, Wheeless, & Shepherd, 2010; Dowd, 2007; Brint & Karabel, 1989). Participants in this study were proactive, looked for ways to serve students more effectively, and sought out roles that suited their talents and abilities. The participants believed in the community college as an effective institution for positively impacting the lives of students and focused on what they could accomplish.

Participants also expressed loyalty towards the community college because of the personal opportunities they had gained from their employment. This created a situation of reciprocity, in which participants felt they should “give back” to their college. Participants viewed the community college as a benevolent institution and they therefore saw their work on behalf of the community college as virtuous. Participants were able to justify almost all labor they performed, as part of a general, student-centered mission. This created potential for normalization of emotional labor (Gonzales & Ayers, 2018). It also allowed participants to feel proud of their work. This viewpoint laid the foundation for how faculty perceived their roles and it provided context for their experiences at the
community college. It allowed faculty leaders to see themselves as general
servants to the college, on behalf of students, and equate both teaching and non-
teaching roles with serving students.

**Finding 2: A Student-Centered Collegial Identity**

Because of the participants’ loyalty to the community college and its
students, it made sense that their identity was centered on students and working
together with colleagues to better serve students. Participants did not see their
identities as being connected to any particular role, but rather to using all roles—
teaching and non-teaching—to serve students.

While the literature pointed to faculty as the most important connection
students have to their college (Fugate & Amey, 2000; Gibson & Murray, 2009;
Lundberg & Schreiner, 2004; Tovar, 2014; Townsend & Wilson, 2006), the
participants in this study demonstrated that the inverse of that statement is also
ture: students are the most important connection faculty have to their college.
The participants in this study saw their identity as student servants, and as
student advocates.

Despite the hierarchy of community colleges (Brint & Karabel, 1989;
Dougherty, 2001; Cohen, Brawer, & Kisker, 2014), participants paid little
attention to official titles, and focused on cooperation to serve students.
Disregarding status seemed to stem from participants’ student-centeredness,
and suggested they respected their colleagues because of their shared purpose.
Finding 3: Personal Fulfillment

While being collegial and student-centered was at the core of the participants in this study, they also stayed connected to their own personal identities. Each of the participants maintained their sense of individuality, regardless of their role. While participants were devoted to students, they also respected themselves and made decisions in their own best interests too. In fact, the participants chose roles that would add something to their lives or empower them in some way.

Participants also took pride in their programs and gained fulfillment from roles that allowed them to have more agency over their areas of interest, while feeling like they were contributing to serving students and the college.

The participants explored new roles that helped them in personal ways. This interest was a motivating factor for faculty to pursue non-teaching leadership roles. Through their own agency (Gonzales, 2014), participants created new opportunities for themselves by accepting leadership roles. They also avoided burnout in the classroom (Fugate & Amey, 2000) by taking non-teaching roles. Participants were able to meet their personal needs better when they took non-teaching roles.

Finding 4: Cycle of Roles

Essentially, participants in this study learned to navigate their professional life by using a cycle of roles to minimize tensions. When faculty found themselves in a role that they felt did not serve students, or themselves, they
experienced tension. They then used agency to navigate around, or away from, those tension-filled roles. Additionally, faculty used agency proactively to seek out roles that would increase their power to serve students or themselves. As faculty’s feelings towards their roles changed over time, they would respond by changing to a new role, and/or adjusting the ratio of teaching to non-teaching roles in their work. This cycle of moving between teaching and non-teaching roles or simply changing up their roles, was a strategy and a form of agency. It was like a pressure-valve faculty could use in order to relieve tension.

Participants noted an improvement in their teaching from taking non-teaching roles. With the literature pointing to teaching as the primary role of community college faculty (Cohen, Brawer & Kisker, 2012; Rosser & Townsend, 2006; Fugate & Amey, 2000), and an emphasis on teaching being an attraction to the community college for faculty (Fugate & Amey 2000), there is some irony in finding that by taking non-teaching roles, participants saw benefits in serving students. Marjorie insisted that getting away from the classroom, away from the college even, could be a form of enlightenment. She said, “If I stay in my microcosm of my classroom, and my students are telling me that I’m doing such an outstanding job, I convince myself that I am”. After expanding her horizons in her non-teaching roles, she felt she became a better instructor.

Participants in this study engaged in leadership roles to exert power and gain influence over administration, working with them to make change. They didn’t need to move into administration necessarily, as they could yield the same
level of influence as administrators from their roles as faculty leaders. The administration depended upon the work of faculty leaders distinctly, differentiated from their work as instructors. Faculty used their agency to determine when and how to work with administration, maintaining their student-centeredness. But the participants clearly were using their non-teaching positions to shape the direction of the college, exerting power within or against the institution as needed (Gonzales, 2014). As Carrie noted, “the administration needs strong faculty leaders in many ways too, because they can come and lean on faculty leaders when necessary.” Rather than seeing the community college as being comprised of faculty who teach and administrators who lead, the truth was that faculty leaders worked in partnership with administrators to lead the college.

Faculty leaders controlled their work experience by creating a cycle of teaching and non-teaching roles, a purposeful “ebb-and-flow.” These actions of agency ultimately enabled faculty to “figure their world”, a phenomenon in which the participants determined who they were through their relationships and through their actions (Terosky & Gonzales, 2016; Urietta, 2007; Holland, Lachicotte, Skinner & Cain, 1998).

Finding 5: Tensions

Participants were more likely to accept tensions in their roles if they could clearly see a connection between the role and serving students or gaining personal benefits. The threshold for stress was higher when faculty felt they were maintaining loyalty to their college or to students, or when they were benefitting
personally. Faculty had a lower tolerance for tension in their role if they seemed to be serving interests that were not directly connected to students or did not directly benefit their life. Tensions caused participants to labor emotionally—conjuring up emotional responses to situations while suppressing other emotions that were not accepted (Gonzales & Rincones, 2013). These tensions were also “normalized,” to a degree (Gonzales & Ayers, 2018), but not always.

The participants called out colleagues who were not deemed to be supporting the college enough through non-teaching roles. They seemed to judge others based on an apparent lack of dedication to their college. The participants described their emotional labor and expected their colleagues to perform similar labor. In this sense, emotional labor had been normalized. A lack of professional development, especially on the department chair role—mentioned frequently in the literature (Aziz et al, 2005; Gmelch & Buller, 2015; Gmelch et al, 1999; Gonzales & Rincones, 2013; Jones, 2011; Young, 2007) —was cited by the participants of this study as a tension. Jean said of her time as department chair, “I felt very much caught between administrators, students and faculty”. Learning to navigate the politics involved with leadership roles was also a source of tension for the participants.

Recommendations for Educational Leaders

In Policy

Policies like those generated by the national movement of Guided
Pathways (Bailey, Jaggers, & Jenkins, 2015; AACC, 2018) and state-level policies like the California State Chancellor’s Vision for Success (Foundation for California Community Colleges, 2017) are reform efforts on a grand scale. They are centered on students in the sense that they call for improved outcomes for students and suggest ways in which that might be accomplished.

Yet at the same time, there have been long-term decreases in state funding (Archibald & Feldman, 2006; Bailey, et al, 2015) coupled with more and more states adopting performance-based funding (Bailey et al., 2015). This creates more pressure on community colleges, already an institution of higher education charged with essentially serving many types of students, including not just those seeking a baccalaureate, but also those seeking associate degrees, certificates, job skills, developmental education, and personal enrichment (Bragg, 2001; Cohen et al., 2014; Dougherty, 2002)—essentially, anyone who shows up at their doors (Bailey et al., 2015).

This pressure trickles down to the community faculty, as they are the primary contact with students (Fugate & Amey, 2000; Gibson & Murray, 2009; Lundberg & Schreiner, 2004; Tovar, 2014; Townsend & Wilson, 2006). Yet, as I have shown in this study, community college faculty are much more than teachers. They are vital to governance and strategic planning at their colleges. In all that they do, how they feel about their experiences and how they labor emotionally (Gonzales and Rincones, 2013) does affect their attitudes and decisions. Gonzales and Rincones (2013) noted that rarely is emotional labor
ever considered in the literature on higher education leadership. I would argue that it is discussed even less in higher education policies.

For policies to be more effective, for higher education to be more effective, we must start to acknowledge the reality of the emotional work of faculty. It is one thing to map out a system for change—something that logically makes sense on paper. It is another thing entirely to consider the ramifications of neoliberal pressures (Levin, 2006) bearing down on community colleges, particularly the faculty. As I showed in my findings, community college faculty leaders operate within a cycle of roles. They retreat from leadership roles when they have had enough, and they exert more of themselves when they believe the cause is directly benefitting students.

To ask community college faculty to labor harder will only work if policies clearly connect the faculty’s efforts back to students. Faculty must feel and believe that they are working on behalf of students, not on behalf of policy makers or administrators who feel forced to comply with top-down initiatives and funding formulas. Remember, students are the faculty’s strongest connection to their colleges.

At the state and national level, I recommend that policy makers a) include community college faculty in their development and creation of policies; b) conduct S.W.O.T. analyses that include emotional labor (Gonzales & Rincones, 2013) and insurance against the normalization of emotional labor (Gonzales & Ayers, 2018) as part of policy planning (strong tensions among faculty could
pose a threat to governance and policy implementation, for example); and c) acknowledge the non-teaching/leadership roles of faculty as distinct participants in the successful roll-out of any community college policy. Before policies are released, they must be vetted to include the interests of community college faculty, as they most closely tied to students.

National leading organizations in higher education, such as the American Association of Community Colleges (AACC) and think tanks such as The Aspen Institute regularly offer metrics, competencies and rubrics for evaluating or developing leaders at community colleges. Yet these typically address the work of administrators, not faculty leaders. The latest, third edition of the AACC Competencies for Community College Leaders (AACC, 2018), however, is greatly improved. This current edition address competencies and behaviors for aspiring leaders, including faculty leaders, mid-level leaders, senior-level leaders, and CEOs. While faculty leadership roles certainly can prepare faculty to become an administrator if they choose (Knirk, 2013), all policy makers and advisors need to acknowledge the distinct work that community college faculty leaders perform, in their own right. Providing competencies for senate and union leaders, for example, would direct much needed attention to the importance of these roles in the general leadership and governance of community colleges. The new AACC competencies (AACC, 2018) are a step in the right direction, and community colleges should take advantage of this resource.
In Practice

Where the boots hit the ground, so to speak, is in the daily operation of community colleges and the experiences of the students, staff, and faculty. It is in the minutiae of endless committee meetings, workgroups, emails, conversations, etc. that the work of a college gets done. It is the faculty’s attitudes and behaviors that impact student engagement and learning, and contribute to a positive academic culture (Umbach & Wawrzynski, 2005). I would also argue that it is the other work that faculty do—their non-teaching roles—that provide a whole additional layer of importance to the academic culture of a community college.

This special group of community college faculty—the faculty leaders—are the ones who are moving and shaping their institutions. At the same time, it is not any particular role that matters most to community college faculty—it is the connection they have to their students as advocates, and it is their own personal pursuit of well-being that I found defines the community college faculty leaders.

So often, community college faculty leaders in this study had jumped into new roles, willing to give it their best shot, in hopes of learning something new, or to gain more legitimacy, or simply because of their loyalty to students and the college. Yet, even when participants truly saw the connection to serving students, they still encountered tensions, especially in the department chair role. This was often due to a lack of clarity in their job description or a lack of preparation or guidance. While we already knew professional development is sorely needed in all roles (Aziz et al, 2005; Gmelch & Buller, 2015; Gmelch et al, 1999; Gonzales...
& Rincones, 2013; Jones, 2011; Young, 2007), this study helped to identify specific needs for faculty serving in non-teaching leadership roles. I offer four recommendations to strengthen professional development at the community college, along with one recommendation to support implementation of these professional development improvements. These are followed by one recommendation for improving trust and mutual respect, and one recommendation for addressing equity issues among faculty leaders.

First, professional development specific to each type of non-teaching role is needed. Rather than struggling in a new role—the so-called “learning curve”—it would be beneficial for community colleges to offer professional development programming for roles such as department chair, committee chairs, academic senate and union roles. While professional development that centers on issues of teaching and learning is important, community colleges must move beyond thinking of their professors as exclusively teachers and recognize their needs as leaders too.

Second, professional development should be offered to all faculty, even if they are not immediately considering a leadership role. This would generate “pools” of potential future faculty leaders, and help with succession planning, which is very much needed too (Knirk, 2013; Groves, 2007; Young, 2007; Rothwell, 2005). Tina mentioned, “I think we can do a better job of identifying people who could fill those leadership roles and mentor them along. I haven’t seen any community college that does that very well.” This is a problem. Perhaps
More faculty would participate in leadership roles if only they felt better prepared and knew which role(s) might be right for them. Succession planning helps individuals to find roles that suit them (Groves, 2007; Rothwell, 2005) and helps to prevent tensions related to particular roles (Knirk, 2013; Young, 2007). As found in my study, faculty make decisions to strategically pursue roles that are meaningful to them and that do not cause them stress. Proper professional development could help accomplish both.

Third, mentorship would be ideal for faculty pursuing or preparing for leadership roles. In the nearly 20 years since Fugate and Amey (2000) published their findings on community college faculty, some things haven’t changed much. Faculty in this study still appreciated that the tenure process focused on teaching, and by their second year, they “perceived an opportunity to ‘perfect’ and relax with the role of instructor” (p. 9). Yet sadly, year two did not come with direct, intentional mentoring as faulty began to explore non-teaching roles. While all of the participants in this study felt confident in their teaching, they got in too deep with leadership roles before they had any real guidance for those roles. I recommend that community colleges adopt an official mentoring program that pairs experienced faculty leaders with new faculty that can help them navigate their non-teaching opportunities. The department chair role, for example, was a source of tension for participants due to internal politics. The department chair position is mostly based in behavior or abilities, which can be difficult in terms of classification, evaluation, and training (Jones, 2011). Mentorship in that case
would be ideal. A fourth recommendation for professional development is to provide faculty with opportunities to expand their knowledge of power and leadership dynamics. The participants in this study eschewed the notion of having or using power in their roles, because they had negative associations of power. They saw power as the antithesis of collaboration. They viewed powerful people as autocrats, or in terms of dominating others. Yet, at the same time, each of the participants used their agency to gain and maintain academic legitimacy (Gonzales, 2014). Professional development for faculty leaders should include exposure to more expansive philosophies of power. For example, Foucault (2000) believed every relationship has power, and that power was diffused throughout all human interactions. Foucault (2000) also believed that although power could be used for negative purposes, it could also be used in a positive, productive manner. A healthier, positive view of power might enable faculty leaders to more confidently navigate through the political challenges of leadership roles.

Mentorship programs, along with increased professional development opportunities and succession planning for faculty leaders will undoubtedly require additional funding and human resources. This is likely to include additional reassigned roles for faculty serving in mentoring programs and succession planning. I recommend prioritization of these efforts by embedding them into educational master plans and strategic plans college/district-wide, so that fiscal planning and budget allocations can bring such goals into reality. Furthermore,
current faculty leaders will need to negotiate updated faculty association contracts or memorandums of understanding that ensure the adequate reassignment of faculty roles to achieve these goals.

From this study, it was clear that there were pockets of normalization of emotional labor (Gonzales & Ayers, 2018). Just because a job was completed, it did not necessarily mean that the faculty felt good about it, if they had labored emotionally (Gonzales & Rincones, 2013). If administration and faculty leaders are to work together productively, with trust and mutual respect, community college leaders should not assume that the work of the college will magically happen because of the dedication of faculty leaders. Their “dedication” might actually be hiding feelings of negativity and resentment, which could fester and erode trust among faculty and administration.

Similarly, distrust and resentment can happen amongst faculty too. The participants in this study were concerned with faculty that did not “pull their weight”. While the participants took actions to gain legitimacy, they often questioned the dedication of colleagues. This can be seen as distrust. As mentioned above, with little mentoring, professional development, and succession planning, the college culture might not be conducive to the emergence of new faculty leaders. Perhaps some of those faculty who were not “pulling their weight” were simply not made to feel welcomed or confident enough to step forward.

For these reasons, I recommend that community college administrators and
faculty leaders work together to clarify faculty leadership roles and define responsibilities. Doing so might help prevent assumptions, both on the part of administrators assuming that faculty leaders will be willing and able to serve at every turn, and on the part of faculty assuming that their peers are not laboring enough on behalf of the college. This recommendation could include reexamining union contracts, faculty handbooks, and the general culture of work that is created at any community college.

My final recommendation is that community colleges address equity among its faculty leadership. There is a disproportionate relation between the ethnic and racial diversity of community college students and faculty leaders. For example, in California, 69 percent of college students are ethnically or racially diverse, while 74 percent of Academic Senators are White (Campaign for College Opportunity, 2018). Community colleges need to ensure that professional development, mentoring and succession planning efforts are being linked to equity goals at their college. Disaggregated data should be used not only to analyze the hiring practices of tenure-track faculty, but also which faculty are filling those leadership roles and why.

Recommendations for Future Research

One strong recommendation for research is to conduct qualitative studies similar to this one, but with participants not engaged in leadership roles. The participants in this study were faculty who shared in the phenomenon of
becoming faculty leaders. It was a particular population of faculty, with similar experiences. What we cannot learn from this study is how faculty who are removed from leadership roles perceive their college and their colleagues serving in leadership roles. Future research could investigate the phenomenon of community college faculty who abstain from faculty leadership roles or use their agency to resist participating in such roles (Gonzales, 2014). This may balance perspectives and allow community college leaders to develop a more inclusive culture, as just mentioned in the preceding section.

A second recommendation for future study is to research part-time/adjunct leadership and representation in community college governance. We know that most community college faculty never intended to work at community college, and that they came to the community college for opportunity as adjunct instructors (Fugate & Amey, 2000). The participants in this study described their adjunct experiences as part of how they “figured their world”. They described the increases in pay, increased academic freedom, and increased connection to the college community they experienced when the crossed over from adjuncts to full-time tenure-track professors. There was a stark contrast between those two worlds. As these experiences were important to the participants in this study, it would be beneficial to know what is important to adjunct faculty in the moment, especially considering that nationally, part-time faculty make up approximately 70% of the community college teaching force (Cohen et al., 2014).

Adjunct faculty are paid much less per class than full-time faculty, and do
not receive the fringe benefits full-time faculty enjoy (Cohen et al., 2014). Put bluntly, “part-time instructors are to the community colleges what migrant workers are to the farms” (Cohen et al., 2014, p. 92). The full-time faculty leaders in this study used their roles to accomplish more for students and the college. If research determined that adjunct faculty had little opportunity for leadership roles, for example, there might be negative implications for student success.

Another potential area for research would be conducting a longitudinal quantitative study examining data from many community colleges. This could yield specific insights into how faculty change their roles and what variables affect their decisions over time. Whereas this study provided insights into the experiences of faculty leaders currently, quantitative data could be gathered and analyzed looking at a span of time. For example, a quantitative study could potentially reveal how the labor of faculty leaders has changed from one presidential administration to the next, or from one state initiative to another. A better understanding of the external pressures on faculty roles would help pinpoint sources of tension and links between societal changes and the evolution of community colleges in this country.

Lastly, conducting more qualitative research in other states—phenomenological and case studies—could reveal the effect variances in state policies might have on faculty’s decisions to take leadership roles. For example, in some states, community colleges do not have strong faculty unions, or any union at all, which would likely have an effect on the experiences of faculty
leaders. This study was conducted in California, home to the largest system of higher education in the world, let alone the largest community college system in the United States (CCCO, 2018a). Dynamics in other states are likely different and know how these differences affect faculty leadership might provide new recommendations for practice.

Limitations of Study

This study was an interpretive phenomenological study of the experiences of 15 faculty leaders in the California Community College system. One limitation was geographic location, as state policies vary, and some findings in this study may be limited to the socio-political environment of California.

Conclusion

I believe the most important finding in this study was that community college faculty were not necessarily on their way to becoming administrators nor were they bound to the classroom exclusively. The participants in this study were individuals with strong empathy towards students and belief in the mission of the community college. They sought personal fulfillment in their roles and desired to find roles in which they could thrive and be useful. They also purposely alternated between roles in order to have more autonomy in their careers. They were dedicated teachers but recognized the importance of non-teaching roles too. The participants in this study were inextricably human. Their emotions and
personal experiences affect their work at the community college. By taking the time to understand the experiences of community college faculty, we can better serve them, and in turn, better serve community college students, which as Jean reminded us, “Everything is about the students.”
APPENDIX A

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL
Appendix A
Transitional Roles: A Phenomenological Study of Community College Faculty Leaders

Interview Protocol

Interview description: Interviews will be semi-structured. The interview process will follow the subsequent protocol.

1) Introduction
2) Share purpose of study and provide informed consent form to interviewee
3) Provide interviewee with the opportunity to ask questions and express concerns
4) Upon completion of consent form begin recording and proceed with interview

The following questions will guide the interview:

Faculty/Deans

- Tell me a little bit about yourself.
  a. How would you describe your role here at the college?
  b. What’s your identity here?
- Can you tell me a little bit about your experience in your current role(s)?
  a. How did you transition into this/these role(s)?
  b. Were there any factors that motivated or influenced you to accept the role(s)?
- What does the community college mean to you?
- What practices or actions have you engaged in to gain/maintain academic integrity?
- What values do you possess, professionally?
- Do your values match the values of your colleagues and institution? Why or why not?
- Have you had any struggles in your professional role(s)? If so, could you tell me about those?
- How do you exert power in your role(s) at the college?
- How does your self-view change when interacting with various groups on campus (i.e., full-time faculty, part time faculty, staff, students, administrators)?
- How do you describe your connection to teaching students before, during and after you acquired non-teaching roles?
- What factors motivated you to accept roles beyond your teaching/initial role?
- Could you describe your initial teaching role?
- Could you describe your non-teaching role(s)?

Interview protocol created by Quinton Patrick Bemiller for purposes of this study.
APPENDIX B

RECRUITMENT EMAIL
Appendix B

Recruitment Email

November 15, 2018

Dear Professor/Dean ______________:

My name is Quinton Bemiller, and I am an Educational Leadership doctoral candidate at California State University, San Bernardino, in the College of Education. I am conducting a research study entitled, *Transitional Roles: A Phenomenological Study of Community College Faculty Leaders*. I am writing to invite you to participate in my research study.

Attached, you will find a statement of Informed Consent, which details the parameters of your potential participation. Essentially, I am inviting you to participate in one interview, with the possibility of one follow-up interview. Additionally, I have attached the proposed interview questions to inform you of the nature of the interview.

Please read the attached Informed Consent statement, and let me know if you are willing to participate. If you agree to participate, I will schedule a day/time for your interview, at your convenience. Prior to the interview, I must receive a copy of the Informed Consent statement with your signature/date. On that form, you may also indicate if you will allow audio recording.

If you have any questions or concerns, please do not hesitate to contact me.

With much appreciation,

Quinton Bemiller
California State University, San Bernardino
Mobile Phone: 626.590.5584
Email: 005775909@coyote.csusb.edu
APPENDIX C

INFORMED CONSENT
Appendix C

Transitional Roles: A Phenomenological Study of Community College Faculty Leaders

INFORMED CONSENT

PURPOSE: Quinton Bemiller, Doctoral Candidate in Educational Leadership at California State University, San Bernardino invites you to participate in a research study. The purpose of this study is to improve my understanding of faculty leadership roles at the community college. This study has been approved by the Institutional Review Board at California State University, San Bernardino.

Expected results include an understanding of the experiences of faculty leaders, their roles, transitions, and motivations. Overall, this project addresses the general gap in the literature. It also promises to inform the dialog on professional development, succession planning, and organizational structure at the community college. This study will highlight implications for policy and practice as well as areas for future research.

DESCRIPTION: I would like to ask you to participate in an interview. Your participation will require approximately 45 minutes. The interviews will be conducted in a format preferable to you, either face-to-face, via telephone, or face-to-face remote conversation using Skype. The time and location of the interview is to be scheduled at your convenience, as well. A follow-up interview may be requested, if needed. With your permission, all interviews will be audio recorded.

PARTICIPATION: Your participation is completely voluntary. You do not have to be in this study and you do not have to answer any questions you do not wish to answer. You may skip or not answer any questions and can freely withdraw from participation at any time.

CONFIDENTIAL: I will do everything to protect your confidentiality. Specifically, your name will never be used in any dissemination of the work (e.g., articles and presentations). Both you and your college will be assigned a pseudonym. In addition to using pseudonyms, specific titles and academic profiles will be further disguised. For instance, a Department Chair of Arts & Humanities would be referred to simply as a Department Chair, and a Dean of Social and Behavioral Sciences would be referred to simply as an Academic Dean. Also, demographic information such as gender, race and ethnicity will not be collected or revealed. Lastly, in efforts to protect confidentiality, any data collected will be kept under lock and key and in a password protected computer file. The audio recordings will be destroyed three years after the project has ended.
DURATION: The extent of your participation would include one interview, with the possibility one follow-up interview, if needed. The interview(s) would last approximately 45 minutes each. Following the interview(s), you could be contacted via e-mail with follow-up or clarifying questions. Such an exchange would require no more than ten minutes time. Following the interview, you will receive a transcript of the interview along with a scanned PDF of the signed consent form. Participants will be given the opportunity to review, confirm and/or withdraw the transcript from the study.

RISKS: I do not know of any risks or discomforts to you in this research study as you and your institution will not be identifiable by name.

BENEFITS: I do not know of any way you would benefit directly from taking part in this study. However, upon completion of the study, you will be provided with an executive analysis of an issue that is important to community colleges and their workforce.

AUDIO: I understand that this research will be audio recorded. Initials ____

CONTACT: If you have any questions regarding this study, please contact Quinton Bemiller at 005775909@coyote.csusb.edu or 626-590-5584. You may also contact California State University, San Bernardino’s Institutional Review Board Compliance Officer, Michael Gillespie at 909-537-7588 or mgilles@csusb.edu

RESULTS: The results of this study will be disseminated through various outlets including conference presentations and publication. Findings will published online through ScholarWorks, California State University, San Bernardino. An executive summary of findings will also be provided to research participants and the Office of Institutional Effectiveness at your College.

CONFIRMATION STATEMENT:

I have read the information above and agree to participate in your study.

SIGNATURE:

Signature: _____________________________    Date: ________
APPENDIX D

INSITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL LETTER
November 13, 2018

CSUSB INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
Expedited Review
IRB-FY2019-64
Status: Approved

Mr. Quinton Bemiller and Prof. Edna Martinez
Department of Educational Leadership
Doctoral Studies Program
California State University, San Bernardino
5500 University Parkway
San Bernardino, California 92407

Dear Mr. Quinton Bemiller and Prof. Edna Martinez:

Your application to use human subjects, titled “Transitional Roles: A Phenomenological Study of Community College Faculty Leaders” has been reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB). The informed consent document you submitted is the official version for your study and cannot be changed without prior IRB approval. A change in your informed consent (no matter how minor the change) requires resubmission of your protocol as amended using the IRB Cayuse system protocol change form.

Your application is approved for one year from November 13, 2018 through November 13, 2019.

Please note the Cayuse IRB system will notify you when your protocol is up for renewal and ensure you file it before your protocol study end date.

Your responsibilities as the researcher/investigator reporting to the IRB Committee include the following four requirements as mandated by the Code of Federal Regulations 45 CFR 46 listed below. Please note that the protocol change form and renewal form are located on the IRB website under the forms menu. Failure to notify the IRB of the above may result in disciplinary action. You are required to keep copies of the informed consent forms and data for at least three years.

You are required to notify the IRB of the following by submitting the appropriate
form (modification, unanticipated/adverse event, renewal, study closure) through
the online Cayuse IRB Submission System.

1. If you need to make any changes/modifications to your protocol submit a
modification form as the IRB must review all changes before implementing
in your study to ensure the degree of risk has not changed.
2. If any unanticipated adverse events are experienced by subjects during
your research study or project.
3. If your study has not been completed submit a renewal to the IRB.
4. If you are no longer conducting the study or project submit a study
closure.

Please ensure your CITI Human Subjects Training is kept up-to-date and current
throughout the study.

The CSUSB IRB has not evaluated your proposal for scientific merit, except to
weigh the risk to the human participants and the aspects of the proposal related
to potential risk and benefit. This approval notice does not replace any
departmental or additional approvals which may be required. If you have any
questions regarding the IRB decision, please contact Michael Gillespie, the IRB
Compliance Officer. Mr. Michael Gillespie can be reached by phone at (909) 537-
7588, by fax at (909) 537-7028, or by email at mgillesp@csusb.edu. Please
include your application approval identification number (listed at the top) in all
correspondence.

Best of luck with your research.

Sincerely,

Donna Garcia

Donna Garcia, Ph.D., IRB Chair
CSUSB Institutional Review Board

DG/MG
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