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PERCEPTIONS OF FACULTY ASSOCIATION LEADERS: ROLES AND ESSENTIAL SKILLS

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PERCEPTIONS OF FACULTY ASSOCIATION LEADERS:
ROLES AND ESSENTIAL SKILLS

by

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B.S., Southern Illinois University, 1985
M.S., Southern Illinois University, 1999

A Dissertation
Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the
Doctor of Philosophy Degree

Department of Educational Administration and Higher Education
in the Graduate School
Southern Illinois University Carbondale
August 2011
ROLE PERCEPTIONS OF FACULTY ASSOCIATION LEADERS: ROLES AND ESSENTIAL SKILLS

By

Keith Brian Reinhardt

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
in the field of Educational Administration

Approved by:

Dr. Patrick Dilley, Chair
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Graduate School
Southern Illinois University Carbondale
May 26, 2011
AN ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION OF

KEITH B. REINHARDT, for the Doctor of Philosophy degree in EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION, presented on May 26, 2011, at Southern Illinois University Carbondale.

TITLE: PERCEPTIONS OF FACULTY ASSOCIATION LEADERS: ROLES AND ESSENTIAL SKILL

MAJOR PROFESSOR: Dr. Patrick Dilley

A specific perspective of how faculty association leaders function at a tangible level has yet to be presented. Past studies describe faculty leadership as a collective abstract idea or theme, disregarding the concept and importance of individual faculty leader’s roles at an operational level. The purpose of the study was to identify the roles and skills of present-day faculty association leaders (FALs) within Illinois’ public four-year universities with a collective bargaining unit and distinguish tangible actions of these individuals as they exercised their everyday roles in this professional capacity. A qualitative research design was used to gather data and explore perceptions and life experiences of twelve FALs at six Illinois public four-year universities with collective bargaining. A personal interview was conducted with each participant with the assistance of a researcher designed interview guide. FALs view their role as that of a contract manager: one who interprets, negotiates, and defends the contract in conjunction with informing their constituents to contractual matters of concern. The ability to communicate effectively was identified as the primary professional skill required of FALs. The ability to be an empathetic listener with the capacity to be open-minded and flexible to circumstances on-hand was identified as the foremost personal skill best suited for FALs. This research advances the contextual understanding of FALs as they go about fulfilling their daily roles and their need for preparatory training.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Great works are performed not by strength, but by perseverance (Samuel Johnson, British author, 1709-1784). For this reason, I wish to express my deepest gratitude to my parents, Kenneth and Loraine Reinhardt, and elder siblings, Gary, Connie, and Gina, who, by some means, instilled in me a work ethic to persevere during times of hardship. Without your rearing, years ago, this project would not have been accomplished.

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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

'Would you tell me, please, which way I ought to go from here?' said Alice. 'That depends a good deal on where you want to get to,' said the Cheshire Cat. (Lewis Carroll, 1865)

Unlike university presidents at four-year institutions of higher education who, at minimum, work under an established set of guidelines, faculty association leaders (FALs) go about their duties with little background. Nevertheless, these individuals serve as agents to create and set the agenda for the faculty association (Saltz & Grenzke, 1999) and, accordingly, play a pivotal role in motivating faculty involvement in governance while also acting as a “hinge” between the faculty and administration (Miller, 1997). Bia Kang, Richard Newman, and Michael Miller (1998) noted that the effectiveness of a faculty association is often correlated to the performance of their leader and how they establish “the pace, tenor, and atmosphere of the [faculty] governance unit” (p. 31).

Although FALs represent the faculty and serve as a conduit between the faculty and administration, their primary responsibilities are those of a faculty member before ever appropriating time to address faculty association issues. For this reason, most faculty members decline to become involved in FALs’ positions given that their service would consume a great deal of personal time and effort, which many feel is unRewarding (Pope & Miller, 1999a). Occasionally, some faculty members take on this type of appointment believing it will serve as a pathway to a future administrative position (Miller & Pope, 2003). Martin Trow (1990) countered this proposal, concluding that a faculty association president’s job is not a precursor to an
administrative position because it lacks relevant experiences associated with administration leadership (i.e., alumni relations; research administration; fund raising; political analysis; and student services – financial aid, health care, remedial instruction, minority group support).

For a variety of reasons, however, there are those faculty members who agree to accept the responsibilities of a faculty association leader: one who serves in a formal position within and among collective bargaining groups (Nigro, 1978). Michael Miller and Myron Pope (2000) asserted that individuals who take on these leadership responsibilities are influenced by numerous intrinsic and extrinsic factors: the availability of time, personal conflicts, classroom teaching assignments, and research expectations. As clarified hereafter, FALs take on the presidential position due to their beliefs regarding the need to represent the faculty in a democratic way by defending the rights of the faculty. They function as communicators for the body’s collective voice. Exemplifying this notion, Miller, in three similar studies (Miller, 1996, 1997; Miller & Pope, 2000), summed up a reoccurring motivational theme regarding why faculty members yield themselves to fulfilling a governance leadership position: a quest for empowerment driven by a sense of responsibility.

Although FALs may possess the desire to admirably perform their duties, those who take on the responsibilities as a faculty association leader receive little, if any, training and generally only remain in the position for a short period of time (Miller & Pope, 2000). Available educational/training periodicals that might assist FALs in determining their roles are minimal. For these reasons, it is difficult for newly designated FALs to determine how to create a strong rapport with the faculty
they represent, establish an agenda (Miller & Pope, 2000), or effectively support or challenge administrative policy makers.

**Background**

Faculty participation in institutional decision-making has been described as an elemental component of the first colonial colleges (Baldridge, 1982); albeit, true faculty involvement at present-day American universities continues to be a challenge that is still in dispute (Redmond, 2007). Often, administrators view faculty participation in governance decision-making as a time-consuming task that overly burdens, slows, and diminishes their administrative authority in regard to executing the institution’s governance procedures (Bing & Dye, 1992). Indeed, as Miller (2001) discovered, college presidents do not universally support faculty involvement in governance. In his study, college presidents, did not see shared governance as an integral component of institutional decision-making and management. Similarly, in a second study identifying provosts’ views of the value of faculty led decision-making, Miller (2002) found provosts, like college presidents, believed the work of the faculty should be related to curriculum matters, and as such, rejected the notion of faculty governance in institutional management.

Paralleling administrators’ sentiments, faculty members may also hold resentment to becoming involved in governance because they feel they are doing the work of the administrative staff, instead of addressing their primary academic responsibilities (Pope & Miller, 1999a). Nevertheless, in a national survey of faculty members belonging to the National Education Association regarding attitudes toward participation in college or university governance, Gregory Saltzman and Janet
Grenske (1999) found that faculty members prioritized greater involvement in the allocation of the institution’s budget among the following major categories: salaries, buildings, and athletics. Divergent from the convictions of provosts regarding institutional roles of faculty members, faculty priority relating to curricular topics (i.e., addition or deletion of courses) had a substantially low rating. The most beneficial level of faculty involvement in university institutional decision-making is still yet to be determined (Miller, McCormack, Thomas, & Pope, 2000).

Despite these negative feelings and regardless of the level of faculty involvement in governance, few debate the positive benefits of the need for faculty inclusion to achieve a consensus among the various players involved in the decision-making process in higher education (Miller, McCormack, Maddox, & Seagren, 1996). The addition of faculty members in institutional decision-making has the potential to significantly increase the effectiveness, productivity, and quality of academic programs and business operations, and has been linked to more positive attitudes toward teaching responsibilities (Howell, 1982; Miller, Garavalia, & McCormack, 1996). Furthermore, this inclusion process promotes the likelihood of faculty acceptance of administrative decisions (Pope & Miller, 1999b). As Baum Howell earlier determined, faculty involvement in campus governance augments the effectiveness and productivity of universities by creating venues for a diversity of ideas to be proffered, and/or building consensus that allows faculty to gain a sense of ownership pertaining to campus governance. At some universities, one avenue for faculty to become involved in institutional decision-making is the faculty association, often referred to as the faculty union. Faculty associations are created at universities
when a simple majority of voting employees decide the outcome of an election to have a recognized legal union representative (e.g., IEA/NEA, IFT/AFT, UPI/AFT) negotiate wages, benefits, and working conditions for them.

Unionization of higher education faculty at Illinois public universities dates as far back as 1919, when both the Federation of Teachers of the University of Illinois (Local 41) and Illinois State Normal University Teachers’ Federation (Local 76) were founded. Not unlike today’s university professors, these faculty members desired to bring about change in the administration and create an identity for the teachers (Cain, 2010). “Through membership in the American Teachers Federation (AFT), these unionized faculty believed they could influence institutional governance, protect academic freedom, and improve faculty remuneration” (Cain, 2010, p. 879).

Until the 1960s, several researchers (Arnold, 2000; DeCew, 2003; Ladd & Lipset, 1973) asserted that faculty unions were insignificant, but then transpired to address changing employment and societal conditions through collective bargaining. Accordingly, collective bargaining became a momentous development, altering the nature of unionization (DeCew). Specifically in the state of Illinois, the Illinois Educational Labor Relations Act (IELRA) became effective January 1, 1984 to establish the following:

to promote orderly and constructive relationships between educational employees and their employers, recognizing that harmonious relationships are required between educational employees and their employers. The General Assembly stated that this policy is best accomplished by (a) granting educational employees the right to organize and freely choose their
representative; (b) requiring educational employers to negotiate and bargain with employees’ representatives and to enter into a written agreement with these representatives; and (c) establishing procedures which protect the rights of educational employees, their employers and the public. (115 ILCS 5/1)

With the establishment of the IELRA, the roles that unions play as faculty representatives in the collective bargaining process have become noteworthy, especially due to the exceptionally large number of educators that they represent. A recent review of the three major Illinois teacher/faculty labor union websites revealed the following membership populations: Illinois Education Association – 133,000 members (http://www.ieanea.org); Illinois Federation of Teachers – 103,000 members (http://www.ift-aft.org/home.aspx); Chicago Teachers Union – 32,000 (http://www.ctunet.com).

Today, at Illinois’ universities with faculty associations, the “Association” is the faculty’s exclusive legal representative and acts as the mechanism for faculty to come together to challenge, respond, or simply express their opinions to administrators regarding campus operations. For this reason, when a contractual issue is in dispute or of concern, a delegate from each group (i.e., administration, faculty) must come together to negotiate their constituents’ viewpoint.

Contingent upon the specific organizational issue to be addressed, a university’s representative may be any one of several administrators: chancellor, vice chancellor, provost, associate provost, or a delegate that represents the university. For the university’s faculty group, this individual is generally a faculty member, who must first fulfill their responsibilities as a professor, then subsequently fill the role of a
As such, given that a university’s faculty association is the legal representative for all faculty members, it would be advantageous for both parties, faculty association and university administration, to identify and establish essential roles and responsibilities of FALs. In doing so, any uncertainty regarding the appropriate governance involvement by a faculty association leader, which often leads to hostile feelings or resentment between faculty and administrators making the decisions, may be avoided, while serving to establish a meaningful dialogue (Carlisle & Miller, 1998). In this manner, a meritorious working relationship for the advancement of the institution may be fostered between the university’s administrative and faculty bodies that will create a harmonious working partnership, and not one of conflict wasting both time and resources (Kang, Newman, & Miller, 1998; Miller, McCormack, Maddox, & Seagren, 1996).

**Statement of the Problem**

Several researchers concur that there is a scarcity of empirically-based studies addressing the roles of FALs (Carlisle, Miller, 1998; Kang, Newman, & Miller, 1998; Miller, McCormack, Maddox, & Seagren, 1996; Neumann, 1987a). A review of the literature related to the roles, tasks, and skills of faculty leaders in higher education resulted in locating studies, articles, papers, and dissertations whose authors primarily presented the topic as an abstract idea or theme, not as a subject that is concrete and applicable at an operational level. Nearly all related literature described faculty leadership as a collective (i.e., unions, faculty senates, departmental), disregarding the concept and importance of individual faculty leader’s roles. As Anna Neumann (1987a) explained:
[few] writings consider the roles of individual faculty leaders and officers, focusing instead on the status or activities of faculty groupings or collectives such as academic departments, senates, unions, faculty committees, or the faculty as a body (p. 46). [Specifically], the literature on faculty leadership and the faculty role in college governance typically considers the faculty as collectively, giving little attention to the actions of individual faculty leaders as they exercise their roles. (Neumann, 1987a, p. 57)

Correspondingly, researchers Kang et al. discovered “little has been done to examine or explore the roles, dimensions, attributes, and functions of the leaders of these faculty advocacy groups” (Kang, Newman, & Miller, 1998, p. 31).

While little specific research has been completed regarding roles of FALs, several researchers (Kang, Newman, & Miller, 1998; Miller, 1997; Miller & Pope, 2000) have addressed the various personality traits, characteristics, and professional employment skills a faculty governance leader (i.e., faculty association, faculty senate, or departmental leader) must possess to be effective. Explicitly, Miller and Pope (2000) discovered that these leaders must possess the ability to negotiate, plan, analyze data, and above all, have the patience to allow colleagues the opportunity to express their views. Additionally, FALs, in regards to setting the agenda for the faculty association, must also possess interpretative abilities in comprehending the needs of the senior administration, while simultaneously encompassing how the role of the faculty association should or could accommodate these desires. When asked, FALs felt the most significant skills required of them involved the ability of critical
judgment, followed by oral communication, organizational ability, and written communication skills (Miller, 1997).

Therefore, taking into consideration the (a) recognition of FALs as the voice of the faculty they represent, (b) the divergent viewpoints of faculty involvement in governance and ambiguity as to the extent faculty should be involved in campus governance activities, and the (c) lack of clearly defined responsibilities of FALs, it can be established that vaguely defined roles of a faculty association leader only exacerbates animosity levels between a university’s administration and faculty body (Carlisle & Miller, 1998). The problem, as Neumann (1987a) distinctly stated is that “faculty leaders fill ill-defined roles” (p. 53).

Inarguably, a specific perspective of how FALs function at a tangible level with their constituents and campus administrators has yet to be presented. The accumulative number of past studies, as found in the review of literature, is insufficient for one to adequately identify direct roles or skills of FALs. In view that FALs are the voice of the faculty, who work at the “front line” engaging in activities to fulfill a university’s mission (i.e., providing quality instruction, research, and community service), faculty involvement in governance can provide more pragmatic ideas and solutions to a university organization than a solo administrative management. Hence, critical consideration should be given as to how faculty members are prepared to take on a faculty association leadership position. Failure to address this issue will only perpetuate a lack of respect between involved parties, thus, a dysfunctional relationship.
Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to identify the roles and skills of present-day faculty association leaders within Illinois’ public four-year universities with a collective bargaining unit. This study brings to light tangible actions of FALs as they exercise their everyday roles in this professional capacity. In particular, FALs’ perceptions of essential skills required of their position are identified.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided this study:

1. What are the roles and related experiences of current faculty association leaders at Illinois public four-year universities?

2. What skills do current faculty association leaders at Illinois public four-year universities perceive are essential for leading a faculty governance unit?

Significance of the Study

This study departs from past research by focusing upon the everyday roles and skills of faculty association leaders within Illinois public four-year universities. Accordingly, a study of FALs roles might identify minimum responsibilities, expectations, and professional skills required of a faculty association leader to effectively function. In this approach, current roles, expectations, and skills of faculty association leaders are distinguished so as to assist in the development of concrete and applicable best practice strategies. In doing so, the dialogue between university faculty and administrators, regarding faculty trust and responsibility, could move beyond the literature base and into the actual daily institutional decision-making processes.
Furthermore, as I earlier noted, there are over one-quarter million teaching professionals in Illinois who are represented by a faculty association. As established by the IELRA, it is the responsibility of their chosen representatives (faculty association leaders) to protect their rights through negotiation, bargaining, and the establishment of procedures with their employer. Therefore, it is crucial for faculty association leaders to clearly comprehend their roles and related essential skills. If not, unproductive practices and procedures may continue, which do not promote a benevolent utilization of human and financial resources.

**Delimitations of the Study**

The following boundaries were defined for this study: Data were collected from individuals who were currently holding, or held, the position of a faculty association president, grievance officer, or chief negotiator of tenured and tenure-track faculty within an Illinois four-year public university during the 2009-2010 school year. To ensure that participants’ perceptions of their experiences were rich and cogent, I chose a delimiting time frame of the current school year (McMillan, 1996). For this reason, when interviewed, participants were asked to relate their experiences to their most current school year (2009-2010). Substantive differences between the affiliated faculty union labor organizations at each institution (i.e., IEA/NEA, IFT/AFT, UPI/AFT) were not considered.

**Definitions**

For the purpose of this study, the following definitions were used:
Faculty Association Leaders – Those individuals who serve (or have served) in formal positions within and among collective bargaining units (e.g., presidents, grievance officers, chief negotiators).

Faculty Association President – An individual who is traditionally elected from faculty ranks to serve in a recognized head position within and among the faculty collective bargaining unit to represent faculty concerns to the institution’s community.

Faculty Collective Bargaining Unit/Faculty Association – The organization in a college or school district that is the legally recognized agent for collective negotiations with the employer (Nigro, 1978).

Governance – The continuous exercise of authority over and the performance of functions for a political unit (Merriam-Webster’s Collegiate Dictionary, 1993). Throughout this study, it could mean faculty governance, or it could mean institutional governance. I use it in this study to mean faculty governance.

Personal Skills – Interpersonal and listening skills.

Professional Skills – Skills related to completing job tasks.

Overview of this Dissertation

This chapter introduced the purpose of the study, stated the research questions that were used to guide the study, defined the significance and delimitations of the study, and provided definitions for key terms used in the study. Chapter 2 serves as a review of related literature. This second chapter presents predominate and emerging topics relative to faculty association leaders’ role perceptions, role expectations and experiences, and factors that affect role perceptions. Chapter 3 describes the research
methods and procedures used to conduct the study. This includes discussions around the rationale for the research design and theoretical framework; description of the research sample; instrumentation used; methods of data collection; analysis and synthesis of data; and issues of trustworthiness. The fourth chapter reports the results of the study and themes that emerged from the data analysis. The fifth and final chapter presents a brief summary of the study, conclusions drawn from the findings, a discussion of major themes that emerged from the study, and recommendations from the study and for further research.
CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter serves to synthesize prevailing literature pertinent to the research study; that is, faculty association leaders’ role perceptions, role expectations and experiences, and factors that affect role perceptions. The ensuing literature review presents predominate and/or emerging topics in five sections: faculty governance leaders’ roles, skills, and tasks; participation in faculty governance; attributes of faculty governance leaders; issues of gender and leadership in higher education; and environmental influences relative to educational leadership.

Faculty Governance Leadership Roles, Skills, and Tasks

Few studies have been completed that examine the roles, skills, and tasks of faculty leaders (Kang, Newman, & Miller, 1998). There are those researchers (Kang, Newman, & Miller, 1998; Miller 1996, 1997; Miller & Pope, 2000, 2003; Neumann, 1987a; Pope & Miller, 1999b), however, who in some manner have completed research that describes one or more of these attributes of faculty governance leaders.

Throughout 1986-1987, Neumann (1987a) conducted a notable comprehensive qualitative study to identify and compare how individuals employed on the same campus in two divergent institutional leadership roles, either college president or faculty officer, perceived “good faculty leadership.” Additionally, the researcher sought to establish if these leadership perceptions are more likely to be affiliated to one type of higher education institution.

For data collection, Neumann (1987a) conducted 96 days of interviews via three-day campus site visits. Her respondents included individuals holding a formal
leadership position in a national sample of 32 institutions involving eight entities from each of the following four categories: (a) major research/doctoral granting institutions, (b) state colleges and universities, (c) independent colleges, and (d) community colleges. These interviews, lasting from one to three hours, included 31 college presidents and 29 faculty union leaders. The specific data collected consisted of college presidents’ and faculty officers’ responses to the following interview question: “There has been a lot of talk lately about the need for good faculty leadership on college campuses. How would you describe ‘good faculty leadership?’” (Neumann, 1987a, p. 47).

Neumann (1987b) discovered that “few [college presidents or faculty leaders] saw the academic department or division as the locus of faculty leadership” (p. 12). College presidents felt that good faculty leadership was equivalent to dedicating a large amount of attention to academic activities. They perceived an exemplar faculty leader as one who was an outstanding academic model and influenced others to academic success. Very few presidents linked good faculty leadership with concern for the faculty’s welfare or rights. “In contrast [due to the small percentage of faculty officers’ perceptions in agreement with college presidents’ perceptions], only one-fifth of the sample’s faculty officers described good faculty leadership as attending to the traditional academic arenas of teaching and research” (Neumann, 1987b, p. 13). Faculty leaders believed their primary responsibilities and agendas should concentrate on the rights, needs, interests, and general welfare of the faculty. They desired to be cognizant of all faculty members’ concerns and to authenticate a consensus, thus, providing leadership in this manner.
Regarding the congruency of leadership perceptions at different classifications of higher educational institutes, Neumann (1987a) discovered that a president and faculty officer at a unionized college are as likely to agree upon the meaning of good faculty leadership as those individuals in similar positions at a non-unionized college. Unionization did not affect respondents’ perceptions of good faculty leadership. Neumann deduced from her study’s findings that presidents and chief faculty officers at community or state colleges, however, might be less likely to hold similar conceptions and expectations of faculty leaders than those at major research universities. Overall, Neumann’s research findings support that college presidents and faculty officers possess diverging conceptions of good faculty; that is, the beliefs of good faculty leadership vary dramatically between presidents and faculty leaders and “administrators and faculty leaders will also differ in what they expect a faculty leader to do, and not to do” (Neumann, 1987b, p. 19).

In three interconnected studies, researchers Miller and Pope (Miller, 1996; Miller & Pope, 2000; Pope & Miller, 1999b) examined role orientations and essential leadership skills of faculty governance leaders. All three studies involved data collection for the National Database in Faculty Involvement in Governance (NDBFIG) project at the University of Alabama.

Throughout the initial study, Miller (1996) endeavored “to identify the primary orientation of faculty governance unit leaders, and utilize this orientation as a basis for comparison of motivations for involvement and the skills required to serve as faculty leader” (p. 6). Miller classified his subjects’ role orientations into one of two categories: process oriented or task oriented. Miller surmised that process oriented
leaders consider themselves accountable for allowing faculty members the means to freely express their opinions. Task oriented leaders perceive themselves as ones who are primarily concerned with leadership tasks; for instance, arranging and conducting meetings, calling for votes, distributing information, or contacting personnel (Miller, 1996).

Through data analysis of 100 researcher-designed questionnaires mailed to a random sample of faculty governance leaders at Carnegie research and doctoral granting universities, Miller (1996) determined that the majority of faculty governance leaders (51%) perceived their role as process oriented. Regardless of role orientations, the respondents perceived the same leadership skills necessary for effective leadership. They “agreed” to “strongly agreed” with nine of the 11 researcher-established skills. Skills with the highest mean score included judgment, oral communications, organizational ability, written communication, and leadership (Miller, 1996).

The second research project associated with the University of Alabama’s ongoing NDBFIG research initiative encompassed Pope and Miller (1999b) conducting a national study to establish baseline data that distinguishes essential skills required of faculty governance leaders. In this study, a faculty governance leader was one who held a position as a president or chair of the academic senate, the head of a faculty union committee, or of an equivalent position. The population of the study included faculty governance leaders from all classifications of universities (i.e., doctoral/research, comprehensive universities and liberal arts colleges, community/junior colleges). Using a survey instrument, Pope and Miller (1999b)
gathered data pertaining to (a) demographics, (b) perceptions of the extent to which specific skills are required of faculty members who are leaders of college/university governance units, (c) perceptions of the importance of specific tasks for successful leadership of faculty governance units, and (d) role orientations as faculty leaders.

Pope and Miller’s (1999b) respondents, who were primarily male (n=64; 77%), believed faculty governance leaders should prominently possess skills of (a) organizational ability, (b) leadership, (c) written communication, and (d) judgment. Required skills rated lowest included (a) range of interest, (b) decisiveness, and (c) problem analysis. When ranking associated leadership tasks, respondents most highly rated the tasks of (a) developing networks and linkages and (b) developing databases for governance unit decision-making. The least agreed upon task was developing a sense of direction for the governance unit (Pope & Miller, 1999b).

“The majority [of respondents] rated themselves as process oriented (n=47; 56%); less than half rated themselves as task oriented (n=36; 43%)” (Pope & Miller, 1999b, p. 9). Almost all female respondents rated themselves as process oriented (17 of 19), while 53% (n=34) of male respondents identified themselves as task oriented. Inferring that a large percentage (i.e., Pope & Miller’s interpretation of 19%) of faculty leaders held assistant professor positions, Pope and Miller deduced that either several opportunities are available for new faculty members to develop leadership skills early in their careers, or that senior faculty members do not want to concern themselves with faculty leadership.

The third and final research project from Miller and Pope (2000) on this topic associated with NDBIG profiled role orientations of faculty governance unit leaders.
The researchers proposed to determine if identified role orientations differed under conditions of communication apprehension (i.e., one’s fear of communication or anticipated communication) or were dependent upon the type of institution. As their previous study, Miller and Pope gathered data using a survey instrument. Their respondents again consisted of faculty governance leaders from all classifications of universities (i.e., doctoral/research, comprehensive universities and liberal arts colleges, community/junior colleges).

Miller and Pope discovered that the “majority of faculty governance unit leaders perceived themselves to be process oriented \(n=145; 65\%\) as compared to task oriented \(n=78; 35\%\)” (2000, p. 8). All three institute-types of college faculty governance leaders were identified as having “moderate, situational apprehension about oral communication encounters and writing episodes” (Miller & Pope, 2000, p. 8).

Similar to Miller and Pope’s (2000) study, Kang, Newman, and Miller (1998) conducted a research project focused upon faculty leaders’ roles and communication tendencies. Their respondents included faculty leaders serving at a Carnegie Classification Research, Doctoral, or Comprehensive type university. Using a self-developed survey, Kang et al. discovered that 57% \(n=39\) of their respondents “viewed their task as being responsible for all aspects of sharing governance” (p. 33) and had a “moderate” level of communication apprehension.

To identify critical skills required to effectively manage a faculty governance body, Miller (1997), employing a survey instrument adapted from the NDBFIG initiative at the University of Alabama, completed a national research study of four-
year college and university faculty governance leaders. Selection for the sample included no more than two four-year college or university institutions from each state to insure a diverse geographic sample.

Miller (1997) discovered that regardless of whether these leaders were process or task oriented, in scope to their leadership position, they perceived the need to master nine skills for effective leadership. Respective to their level of importance, these perceived essential leadership skills include (a) expertise of judgment, (b) oral communication, (c) organizational ability, (d) written communication, (e) leadership, (f) educational value, (g) stress tolerance, (h) problem analysis, and (i) sensitivity. Based on personal experiences and beliefs, the respondents rated the task of “developing a sense of direction” as the most important, followed by the tasks of (a) developing networks and linkages, (b) taking care of details, (c) developing a sense of pride, (d) obtaining and allocating resources, and (e) creating databases. When ranking characteristics of an ideal governance process, respondents indicated the “strongest agreement” with institutional procedures involving early faculty input into decision-making processes and the facilitation of faculty advisory boards as paths for faculty participation (Miller, 1997).

On the subject of essential skills for effective faculty leadership, faculty leaders participating in a later study, again by Miller and Pope (2003), in which the researchers tried to determine if involvement in a faculty governance unit is perceived to be important in the ascension of the community college presidency, perceived two skills significant for success as a faculty leader: oral communication and problem analysis. In comparison, community college presidents participating in the study
perceived eight leadership skills to be of importance to their position: (a) stress tolerance, (b) problem analysis, (c) personal motivation, (d) organizational ability, (e) written communication, (f) educational values, (g) oral communication skills, and (h) judgment skills. A combined group response prioritized four skills to be of importance pertaining to faculty leadership: problem analysis, educational values, oral communication, and personal motivation. The least important skill, ranked by a combined response, was the sensitivity of personal feelings when working with others (Miller & Pope, 2003). This analysis most certainly has relevance to the study at hand.

In summation, the aforementioned literature within this section, (i.e., faculty governance leadership roles, skills, and tasks) includes differing perceptions of what constitutes good faculty leadership. From an administrator’s view, good faculty leadership concerns an individual who is a model academician and influences others to academic success (Neumann, 1987a). From a faculty leader’s view, good faculty leaders are those who focus upon the general welfare of the faculty they represent (Kang, Newman, & Miller, 1998; Miller & Pope, 2000; Neumann, 1987a; Pope & Miller, 1999b). Correspondingly, most faculty leaders perceived that they were process oriented; that is, they considered themselves accountable for allowing faculty members avenues to express their opinions (Miller, 1996; Miller & Pope, 2000, Pope & Miller, 1999b). The foremost essential skills required of faculty governance leaders, as perceived from their viewpoint, involves (a) the ability to communicate well, both orally and written; (b) organizational ability; (c) expertise of judgment; (d)
capacity to provide leadership; and the (e) ability to quickly and effectively analyze problems (Miller, 1997; Miller & Pope, 2003; Pope & Miller, 1999b).

**Participation in Faculty Governance**

Embodied within this literature review segment are studies relating to faculty participation in institutional governance. The leading study (Carlisle & Miller, 1998) describes the then current (1994-1997) state of affairs concerning faculty involvement in governance. Next, two specific studies (Maloney, 2003; Saltaman & Grenzke, 1999) analyze relationships pertaining to (a) attitudes regarding participation in college or university governance and actual participation by faculty, and the (b) correlation between participation in the governance decision-making process and job satisfaction. In the next segment, the nature and degree to which faculty should be allowed to participate in institutional governance, as determined by both faculty and administrators, is examined (Riess, 1970). Following, through a review of collective bargaining agreements (Kater, 2003), a formally recognized list of faculty participation activities is established. The concluding portion of this section then sheds light upon “why one becomes a faculty leader.”

In 1998, Brian Carlisle and Michael Miller completed a historical research project. The study involved reviewing over 130 issues of *The Chronicle of Education* published between August 10, 1994, and November 21, 1997, with the objective of identifying incidents or trends regarding faculty participation within institutional governance, particularly issues involving faculty decision-making units. Embracing the humanistic view – when workers are involved within the decision-making process or operation of an organization worker performance improves or is enhanced – the
researchers worked off the fundamental belief that “group decision-making has positive residual benefits for the overall organization” (Carlisle & Miller, 1998, p. 5).

Following chronological order, Carlisle and Miller (1998) discovered a similar theme for each year of *The Chronicle of Education* they reviewed. In 1994, it was found that faculty strikes or walkouts frequently occurred, and faculty perceived administrators as “overbearing.” In 1995, the central theme was the distrust of overpowering administrators…. [The following year, faculty members felt that] they were being shut out of the decision-making process by dominating administrators…. [And in the same manner, throughout 1997, the emerging theme concerned] administrators with too much power and influence. (Carlisle & Miller, 1998, p. 10)

From their findings, the Carlisle and Miller concluded “that faculty are most often dissatisfied with issues involving the appropriation of power” (Carlisle & Miller, 1998, p. 13). They believed that disagreements over role responsibilities often lead to increased levels of animosity between faculty governance leaders and administrators (Carlisle & Miller).

In a different initiative, to analyze the relationship between attitudes towards participation in unionized college and university governance and the actual extent of governance participation by university employees, Saltzman and Grenzke (1999) produced a study entitled *Faculty and Staff Look at their Roles in Governance*. For data collection, the researchers developed a Likert scale telephone survey. The study’s sample (n=746) included 146 current or recent leaders of National Education...
Association (NEA) higher education local chapters; the remainder of the sample (n=600) included NEA faculty and support personnel.

Specific to the study’s NEA leaders, Saltzman and Grenzke (1999) discovered a strong correlation between the desire for more faculty involvement in policymaking and the perception that faculty involvement was low. Surveyed NEA leaders expressed three priorities for greater governance involvement: (a) budget allocations, (b) the percentage of employed part-time as well as non-tenure-track faculty, and (c) the distribution of salary merit and equity pay. The study’s findings support that collective bargaining increased the actual level of faculty involvement in governance with the exception of two policy areas: setting the percentage of part-time and non-tenure-track faculty, and making decisions related to merit and equity pay. In addition, quantifiable levels of participation in governance were lower for leaders at institutions that had experienced budget problems and cutbacks, and institutions that had facilitated “consensus bargaining” as an alternative to “traditional bargaining” during contract negotiations (Saltzman & Grenzke, 1999).

Further exploring outcomes of faculty participation, for her dissertation, Maureen Maloney (2003) completed a study examining issues of full-time community college faculty participation in the decision-making process and its impact on job satisfaction. She discovered that a significant relationship existed in the level of faculty participation and their job satisfaction. Furthermore, tenured faculty participated more in the decision-making process than non-tenured faculty members; although, non-tenured faculty desired to participate more than tenured faculty. Through the support of the study’s findings, Maloney discovered a significant
relationship between (a) participation status in the decision-making process and job satisfaction, and (b) satisfaction of participation level and tenure status. At all age intervals, there was a highly significant finding that faculty were not participating in the decision making process as much as they desired (Maloney, 2003).

In a much earlier study, Louis Riess (1970) examined the degree and nature of faculty participation in decision-making within California Community Colleges, as perceived by faculty members and administrators. A random sampling of the staff of 81 community colleges resulted in the completion of a questionnaire asking respondents to indicate current and recommended degrees of faculty participation for 23 decision-making items. When comparing faculty with administrators regarding “current” participation, Riess discovered that the faculty perceived less participation than that of the administrators. The faculty also indicated a higher degree of “recommended” participation than the administrators; however, both the faculty and administrators supported a broad and significant increase in faculty participation in decision-making with the differences being in degree, not direction (Riess, 1970).

Unlike previous studies addressing participation in faculty governance, in regard to the methodology used to collect data, Susan Kater (2003) created an inventory of formally recognized faculty participation activities in governance through a document analysis of collective bargaining agreements from community colleges across 22 states. Kater discovered 16 defined decision-making governance areas within 238 collective bargaining agreements, of which administrators expected faculty to partake in a participatory role. Specifically, and cited as percentages of contracts reviewed, the researcher acknowledged the most common themes of faculty
participation in the areas of (a) grievance (93%), (b) curriculum (56%), (c) faculty evaluation processes (52%), (d) sabbatical recommendations (48%), (e) retrenchment (47%), and the (f) college calendar (42%) (Kater, 2003, p. 80).

Kater (2003) also revealed, in areas pertaining to academic governance and management, that more than 50% of the reviewed collective bargaining agreements do not stipulate faculty participation. Overall, the findings supported that there are both community colleges heavily oriented to management rights that exclude faculty participation and like institutes where faculty involvement extend well into areas institutional governance. Kater concluded that although there are numerous examples of faculty involvement, there are many more examples of noninvolvement.

Focusing directly on instructional faculty within the University of Kentucky Community College System, Joan Dupont (2000) conducted her dissertation study to assess perceptions regarding participation in decision-making and the degree to, and areas in which, faculty felt they influenced key college decisions. Dupont used a personally designed survey instrument with open-ended questions at the end, which supplemented the quantitative results by providing the researcher with a greater depth of understanding to draw conclusions relative to participants’ perceptions.

Dupont (2000) found the study’s respondents to be generally satisfied with their level of input in decision-making. The respondents perceived that they had the greatest influence in division decisions and academic affairs issues; however, they felt they had the least influence in areas of (a) financial affairs, (b) student affairs, and (c) system decision making. Academic rank was the primary predictor of faculty’s present level of participation in decision-making processes. A positive relationship
existed between the number of committees a faculty member served on and the perceived degree of influence they had in the decision-making process, even though faculty often believed committee work was unproductive (Dupont).

The work of Miller continued to address faculty governance and leadership throughout the 1990s. To determine why one becomes a faculty leader, Miller (1997) developed and mailed 100 questionnaires to faculty governance leaders at research and doctoral institutions to examine their attitudes concerning the role of faculty in university governance. Overwhelmingly, respondents indicated they chose to become involved as a governance leader to achieve a sense of empowerment; thus, holding the position out of a sense of responsibility and because they were asked to serve. When ranking characteristics of an ideal governance process, respondents indicated the “strongest agreement” with institutional policies allowing faculty participation in decision-making processes and the inclusion of faculty advisory boards (Miller, 1997).

Again, regarding why one becomes a faculty leader, Miller discovered an analogous theme in two other studies he completed (Miller, 1996; Miller & Pope, 2000). While conducting research to determine process and task orientations of faculty governance leaders, participants described their motivation for involvement as a faculty leader “as being a quest for empowerment and to fulfill a sense of responsibility” (Miller 1996, p. 12). In a later research project that involved determining role orientations and communication behaviors of faculty governance leaders, key findings once more supported that many faculty governance leaders serve
out of a sense of responsibility and/or professionalism rather than for a desire to pursue a specific agenda (Miller & Pope, 2000).

In sum, when assessing faculty involvement in institutional governance, one quickly comprehends that divergent aspects of the topic emerge. In review of the previous studies, Carlisle and Miller (1998) discovered during the mid 1990s that university faculty in the United States were dissatisfied with issues involving the appropriations of power and role responsibilities between faculty governance leaders and university administrators, which they believed often led to increased levels of animosity between the two parties. Saltaman and Grenzke (1999) similarly coincided that a strong correlation existed between the aspirations of faculty at universities in the United States for increased policymaking power and their perception that their involvement in institutional governance was low. Additionally, Malony (2003) found a significant relationship between faculty participation in institutional decision-making process and their job satisfaction; that is, faculty expressed that they were not participating in institutional governance as much as they desired.

When seeking to determine the degree and nature to which faculty should participate in institutional governance, Riess (1970) discovered that faculty recommended a higher degree of participation than administrators; although administrators supported the idea of increased faculty participation in institutional decision-making, they did not embrace it to the same extent as faculty. When reviewing formally recognized participation activities in governance that faculty are allowed to participate in, Kater (2003) discovered reoccurring themes of faculty participation in the areas of (a) grievance, (b) curriculum, (c) faculty evaluation
processes, (d) sabbatical recommendations, (e) retrenchment, and the (f) college calendar.

Although female faculty were found to possess a greater desire to participate in institutional decision-making, Dupont (2000) discovered equal opportunities for both men and women to serve in campus leadership positions, and that their academic rank was the primary predictor to determine their level of participation in decision-making processes. As previously expounded upon in the introduction of this research project, when determining “why” one desires to become a faculty leader, several studies revealed that, when asked to serve, a faculty member is driven by a sense of responsibility rather than to pursue a specific agenda (Miller, 1996, 1997; Miller & Pope, 2000).

**Attributes of Faculty Governance Leaders**

For his dissertation, Dominick Nigro (1978) explored active faculty governance leaders’ attributes and satisfaction levels. He conducted a study to acquire an understanding about faculty members who become active leaders of a collective bargaining unit and to determine if this group possessed common identifiable qualities or characteristics. Two faculty member groups participated in the study: “leaders” and “non-leaders.” Participants identified as leaders were faculty members associated with the New Jersey Education Association and held, or had held, at least one of the following faculty association leadership positions: president, negotiations chairperson, grievance chairperson, or negotiation consultant. Non-leaders included faculty members who had never served in any elected or appointed association office. Using a survey instrument that combined elements from Holland’s
(1975) Vocational Preference Inventory and Porter’s (1961) Perceived Need-Deficiency Scale, Nigro discovered that (a) leaders had significantly greater amounts of enterprising attributes than non-leaders, and (b) leaders had less job-related need satisfaction than non leaders.

In 1976, Charles Skipper conducted a study to differentiate the personal characteristics of effective and ineffective university leaders as judged by their administrative colleagues. Twenty university administrators who were American Council on Education Fellows in the Academic Internship Program served as respondents. To describe leadership behavior in his study, Skipper embraced John Hemphill and Alvin Coons’ (1957) and Andrew Halpin’s leadership constructs “initiating structure” and “consideration.” Halpin (as cited in Skipper, 1976) defined the terms as follows:

‘Initiating Structure’ refers to the behavior of a leader in delineating the relationship between himself and the members of a group, and in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and ways of getting the job done. ‘Consideration’ refers to behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, trust, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and members of the group. (Skipper, 1976, p. 139)

Using these established leadership constructs, Skipper subsequently defined “Most Effective” administrators as those who develop well-defined patterns of organization, open channels of communication, articulate goals, maintain high morale, and whose relationships with others exemplify mutual respect and warmth. These individuals rate high in both initiating structure and consideration. “Least Effective”
administrators are those who rate low in initiating structure and consideration; specifically, individuals inferior in defining patterns of organization, do not operate with open channels of communication, negatively influence morale, and are not trusted by colleagues or subordinates (Skipper, 1976).

Calculating statistically significant differences between Most Effective and Least Effective administrators, Skipper (1976) found that the Most Effective administrators are those who “tend to be more ethical, honest, calm, alert, and insightful compared to the Least Effective administrators. Further, they were judged to be more tolerant, confident, goal oriented, willing to make decisions, and inventive than the Least Effective group” (Skipper, 1976, p. 141). In contrast, the Least Effective administrators were those who were “more undependable, deceitful, irritable and impulsive, and defensive and stereotyped in their thinking compared to administrators judged Most Effective” (Skipper, 1976 p. 141). Respondents, (i.e., university administrators who were American Council on Education Fellows in the Academic Internship Program administrators) also rated Least Effective administrators as those who were are rigid, sarcastic, retiring, lacking ambition, inclined to put off difficult decisions, and create fewer ideas (Skipper, 1976).

Hal Knight and Michael Holen (1985), using data from the Department Evaluation of Chairperson Activities for Development at Kansas State University (which commissioned a study completed by Hoyt, 1976), conducted a study to determine if significant relationships exist between departmental leadership and faculty’s perceptions of the quality of their chairperson’s performance of typical responsibilities. The researchers defined “departmental leadership” as faculty’s
perception of their chairperson’s “initiating structure” and “consideration.” At the
time of their study, no substantial examination yet existed associating departmental
chairperson’s performance and its relationship to characteristics as leaders.

Although a casual relationship could not be inferred from their data,
paralleling Skipper’s (1976) earlier findings, Knight and Holen (1985) found that
effective department chairpersons reveal levels of initiating structure and
consideration higher than those of ineffective chairpersons. Those chairpersons, who
maintained high levels of initiating structure, were more effective and received higher
performance ratings on items such as development of a sound organizational plan and
maintaining faculty morale. Chairpersons who ranked high on consideration also
rated positive on maintaining faculty morale and fostering the development of
faculty’s special talents. Considerably less anticipated, these same chairpersons also
rated high on the development of sound procedures and arranging effective and
equitable allocations of faculty responsibilities. Knight and Holen concluded that
effective administrative leaders exhibit levels of initiating structure and consideration
that are higher than those of ineffective leaders.

The studies presented in this section underscore research findings that support
the premise that faculty members who become leaders of a collective bargaining unit
have mutually significantly greater amounts of enterprising attributes and less job-
related need satisfaction than non-leaders (Nigro, 1978). Skipper (1976) noted that
effective university administrative leaders were ethical, honest, calm, and with a keen
alertness in comparison to least effective administrators. Least effective leaders were
found to be rigid individuals, lacking ambition, and inclined to procrastinate making
difficult decisions (Skipper). Comparably, Knight and Holen (1985) discovered that effective university department chairpersons were detected to have higher levels of initiating structure and consideration than ineffective chairpersons, denoting that these individuals desired to establish well defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and task completion in a friendly respectful manner.

**Issues of Gender and Leadership in Higher Education**

Although aspects of gender and how they might influence faculty governance leadership has yet to be directly studied, several issues of gender in relation to leadership in higher education have come to be examined through research. As noted in an American Psychological Association report (2000), female gender discriminatory practices might be less obvious today than in the past, especially concerning matters such as: funding “gender-equitable” faculty hiring practices, unfavorable bias against certain types of research, overburdening women with committee and related service obligations, and the under representation of women in senior administration positions. As Linda Carli (1998) submitted, women are often cognizant of this discrimination, but it often takes forms so subtle that it is difficult to redress. Nonetheless, as Margaret Madden (2005) noted, current literature addressing women leaders in higher education is more anecdotal than empirical.

In the past, the shortage of women working in influential positions had been interpreted as a “pipeline problem”—the acceptance that women appropriately qualified for leadership positions were unavailable. Two researchers I previously mentioned, Pope and Miller (1999b), completed a national study to establish baseline data associated with skills required of faculty governance leaders and found that only
23% of his study’s respondents were female, suggested that “male dominance still persists within faculty group leadership” (Miller & Pope, 1999b, p. 10). Other researchers (Carli & Eagly, 2001), however, finding an ample supply of qualified women for like positions held by men and dramatic increases in women employment as managers, have subsequently inferred that the “pipeline” premise has fallen to a new principle described as the “glass ceiling:” a metaphor for prejudice and discrimination against women leaders by employers, clientele, and voters.

Further endorsing the premise of a sufficient supply of qualified women for faculty leadership, Dupont (2000), in the study I mentioned regarding participation in faculty governance, found that men and women generally had equal opportunities to serve in campus leadership positions. Female faculty, however, expressed a significantly greater desire to participate in institutional decision-making. Dupont also discovered that male faculty were more likely to express a desire to serve on college-level committees at institutions with a male president and male academic dean. In the same manner, at institutions with a female president, the selection of female faculty were significantly more likely than male faculty to serve as committee leaders (Dupont, 2000).

Similarly, Darla Twale and David Shannon (1996) compared male and female faculty governance leaders regarding involvement in, and perceptions of, their participation in campus service governance and policy-making activities. Their study encompassed two research areas: (a) whether or not gender differences existed according to demographics such as age, rank, status, and administrative position and (b) whether or not one’s range and type of involvement, level of satisfaction,
experiences associated with involvement and individual perceptions of personal power in campus governance differed by gender. Drawing from educational administration departments holding membership in the University Council for Educational Administrators, all women faculty at these member departments who instructed a course in educational administration or higher education administration were asked to participate. Next, male faculty were identified in equal numbers in the same departments from which their female colleagues were drawn and invited to participate. A number of educational administration departments did not employ any women as full-time faculty, other departments employed more women than men. A sample was established consisting of 57 females (53%) and 36 males (35%).

Twale and Shannon’s research study did not present a statistical difference between men and women regarding perceived satisfaction with on-campus roles or committee involvement. Their data supported the notion that female faculty at universities were, at minimum, as involved as male faculty in campus service leadership, governance, and policy-making activities; even though, additional data suggested that male faculty served on committees with more authority offering them greater capacity to have more impact in key policy areas than female faculty. Correspondingly, in terms of greater perceived levels of power and autonomy in campus governance, male faculty indicated higher positive perception levels and perceived their committee appointments as more critical to major policy and decision-making areas than female faculty (Twale & Shannon, 1996).

Regarding faculty demographics, Twale and Shannon’s findings supported the concept that a greater portion of male faculty members were over 50 years of age,
held rank of full professor, and were tenured. Male faculty indicated a greater sum of administrative experiences, possessed more than twice the related professional experiences as women, and about three times the number of years at their current employing institute. On the contrary, women were younger and more likely to be at the non-tenured, assistant professor ranks (Twale & Shannon, 1996).

In brief, abundant literature deeming gender to be a status characteristic in American culture exists (Carli & Engly, 1999). Male managers, as seen by their male cohorts, are viewed to more likely facilitate inspiration, delegation, intellectual stimulation, and problem solving than female managers (Martell & DeSet, 2001). Carli and Engly (1999) noted that women are more constrained in the kinds of leadership styles they can engage in and still perform effectively. Because of the context in which they work, women often adopt leadership strategies that embody gender expectation others have for them (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001).

Several researchers (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Eagly, Karau, Miner, & Johnston 1994) found women’s leadership styles to be distinguishably similar to transformational leadership; foremost, being a visionary and motivating others to follow. In Pope and Miller’s (1999b) study of role orientations (i.e., process or task oriented) of faculty governance leaders, almost all female respondents (17 of 19) rated themselves as process oriented. In contrast, 53% (34 of 64) of the male respondents acknowledged themselves as task oriented (Pope & Miller, 1999b, p. 9).

Dominant studies within this section present conflicting findings. Twale and Shannon (1996) first documented that female faculty were as involved in campus service leadership, governance, and policy-making as their male counterparts, but not
to the same degree of authority. Carli (1998) theorized that women are often aware of this discrimination, but it often takes forms so subtle that it is difficult to negate. Discordantly, Miller and Pope (1999b) put forward that men dominated faculty group leadership, finding that only 23% of their study’s respondents were female. Later studies (Dupont, 2000; Madden, 2005) found discriminatory practices against women less obvious than in the past and equal opportunities existed for females to serve in campus leadership positions. Although academic research may assert conflicting findings in relation to if there are sufficient quantities of qualified women for faculty leadership positions, it has been found that since 2004, “the percentage of women in senior managerial positions globally has [only] grown slightly from 19% to 22%” (Grant Thornton International, 2007, p. 1).

**Environmental Influences Relative to Educational Leadership**

Two principal studies (Groner, 1978; Joyce, 2000) specifically advanced the understanding of issues related to authority, responsibility, and attributes that are linked to leadership situations within higher educational settings. To begin, utilizing data from earlier correlation studies (Allen, 1972; Fiedler & Gillo, 1974; Gillo, Landerholm, & Goldsmith, 1974), Norman Groner (1978) conducted a study that theoretically and empirically related measures of attributes involving leadership situations faced by chairpersons in two educational settings: a large public university and community colleges. Interpreting his findings, Groner posited that increased task structure results in better leader-member relations and makes interaction more pleasant and rewarding among chairpersons and faculty members. This, in turn, facilitates a willingness of faculty to interact on administrative matters. For these
reasons, Groner concluded: “For administrators who must deal with large heterogeneous groups, or when the academic tasks are ambiguous, administrative skills that foster friendly cooperation among faculty should be emphasized” (Groner, 1978, p. 141).

Teddi Joyce examined perceptions of shared governance at four-year public and private colleges and universities throughout the United States. Joyce subscribed to the submission, as did James Roach (1976), that department chairs played a major leadership role within higher education. Roach estimated that 80% of all university decisions occurred at the departmental level (Roach, 1976, p. 21).

In completing her study, Joyce (2000) purposefully focused upon issues of authority and responsibility inherent to shared governance to establish if perceptual differences existed between two groups: departmental chairs and academic administrators. Through data collected with a self-developed survey, Joyce discovered that both groups shared the same perception relating to the principal communicative activity for implementing shared governance – faculty must have input into institutional decisions through an open honest dialogue. In contrast, Joyce found significant differences between the two groups regarding the right of decision-making power in the areas of faculty salaries, benefits and workloads, establishing the academic calendar, campus renovations, general institutional academic policies, and major gift allocations (Joyce, 2000).

In summation, Joyce’s (2000) study supported the proposal that both administrators and faculty perceived the need for faculty input into institutional decision-making; although, it is unclear to the permissible areas and power level to
which they are allowed. Groner’s (1978) study supported the proposal that increased
task structure augments leader-member relationships and therefore motivates faculty
to interact on administrative business. Both studies (Groner, 1978; Joyce, 2000)
reinforced the concept that administrators should foster friendly cooperation among
faculty with open honest dialogue.

Conclusion

Role perceptions of faculty leadership vary greatly among the actors in higher
education. Some administrators believe good faculty leadership involves individuals
who display outstanding academic traits and possess the ability to influence others to
academic success. Some faculty leaders believe good faculty leadership relates to
being primarily focused upon the general welfare of the faculty they represent. At this
time, little data exists that accurately identifies the roles and skills of present-day
faculty association leaders. By listening and documenting life experiences of FALs, I
desire to gather data where little exists.

Past research (Miller, 1996; Miller & Pope, 2000, Pope & Miller, 1999b)
found that most faculty leaders perceived that they were process oriented — meaning
that they considered themselves accountable for allowing faculty members an avenue
to freely express their opinion. Researchers Kater (2003) and Riess (1970) studied the
degree and nature of governance activities that faculty are allowed to participate in.
Riess found that administrators did not support faculty participation in institutional
governance at the same level as faculty desired. Kater discovered that grievance
issues were the most recognized participation activity in governance that faculty were
allowed to participate in. Several studies (Miller, 1996, 1997; Miller & Pope, 2000)
revealed that, when asked to serve as a faculty governance officer, a faculty member is driven by a sense of responsibility rather than to pursue a specific agenda. These past research studies inspired me to ask the question: What are the roles and related experiences of current faculty association leaders at Illinois public four-year universities?

Once again, little data exists relative to the skills required of faculty association leaders. At this time, only three studies describe the foremost skills required of a faculty governance leader (Miller, 1997; Miller & Pope, 2003; Pope & Miller, 1999b). Given the lack of rich qualitative data on the skills of present-day faculty association leaders, I designed the following research question to establish qualitative data where none exists: What skills do current faculty association leaders at Illinois public four-year universities perceive are essential for leading a faculty governance unit? In the next chapter, I describe the research methods and procedures used to conduct the study.
CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES

The objective of this study was to explore and identify the roles and skills of faculty association leaders (FALs) within Illinois public four-year universities. I believed that a better understanding of this topic would reveal FALs’ tangible actions and perceptions of essential skills required of them as they complete their daily roles in this professional capacity. In seeking to understand the experiences and perceptions of the research participants, I posed two research questions: (a) What are the roles and related experiences of current FALs at Illinois public four-year universities? (b) What professional skills do current FALs at Illinois public four-year universities perceive are essential for leading a faculty governance unit?

This chapter describes the study’s research methodology and includes discussions around the following areas: rationale for the research design and theoretical framework; description of the research sample; instrumentation, pilot study, and demographic data; methods of data collection; analysis and synthesis of data; and issues of trustworthiness. The chapter culminates with a brief concluding summary.

Rationale for Qualitative Research Design and Theoretical Framework

There are several key characteristics that constitute what it takes to proceed through a qualitative research investigation that are most befitting to this study. Accepting postpositivism as the epistemological doctrine, I concur with the ideology that social reality is created and that it is constructed differently by each individual. Distinguished qualitative research assumptions and features that this researcher felt
were essential to obtaining prolific data include: (a) the assumption that social reality is constructed by the participants in it, (b) the assumption that social reality is continuously constructed in local situations, (c) the idea of comprehending the processes by which events and actions take place to then develop a contextual understanding (i.e., use of analytic induction to analyze data); and (d) the generation of verbal data to represent the social environment (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003). I did not desire nor design an investigation to study a sample of individuals to generate numerical data to represent the social environment of a larger population (e.g., quantitative research), but rather to study and discover the meanings that individuals create, making holistic observations of a small social society to determine a sense of their world, then using analytical induction to produce verbal data to represent their social environment.

Within the framework of a qualitative approach, this study most often utilized principles that resemble “grounded theory.” Originally, grounded theory was a research approach Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss developed while conducting research on dying patients in 1967, and as Glaser stated, it “was discovered, not invented” (Glaser & Holton, 2004, p. 20). This theory is also referred to as the “classic” or “Glaserian” theory (Glaser & Holton, 2004, p. 1).

Today, the term grounded theory methodology “is often used in a nonspecific manner to refer to any approach to developing theoretical ideas (concepts, models, and formal theories) that begins with data” (Schwandt, 2001, p. 110).

What most differentiates grounded theory from much other research is that it is explicitly emergent. It does not test hypothesis. It sets out to find what theory
accounts for the research situation as it is. In this respect it is like action research: the aim is to understand the research situation. The aim, as Glaser in particular states it, is to discover the theory implicit in the data.

(Dick, 2005, p. 4)

In addition to Glaser’s grounded theory, a second variant of grounded theory was embraced — constructivist grounded theory. Brought to the forefront by a former student of Glaser’s, Kathy Charmaz has emerged as the leading proponent of this theory (Mills, Bonner, & Francis, 2006). Charmaz’s constructivist grounded theory perspective advocates for a social constructivist perspective that includes emphasizing diverse local worlds, multiple realities, and the complexities of particular worlds, views, and actions…. [This] lies squarely within the interpretive approach to qualitative research with flexible guidelines, a focus on theory developed that depends on the researcher’s view, learning about the experience within embedded, hidden networks, situations, and relationships, and making visible hierarchies of power, communication, and opportunity.

(Creswell, 2007, p. 65)

Although Charmaz (2000, 2005, 2006) emphasized the use of coding data, memos, and using theoretical sampling, she underscored the strategy of a writing style that is more literary than scientific, an approach which expresses participants’ views, values, beliefs, feelings, and assumptions. She has argued that constructivist grounded theorists should be compelled to be analytical in their writing, and their style of
writing needs to be suggestive of the experiences of the participants (Charmaz as cited by Mills, Bonner, & Francis, 2006, p. 7).

Although grounded theory methods consist of flexible guidelines to allow the researcher the ability to focus upon and expedite qualitative data collection, these methods also provide an inductive set of steps to direct the research process from concrete realities to a conceptual comprehension (Charmaz, 2002). Charmaz (2002) explained that to reach a conceptual understanding that researchers… need to be constantly reflexive about the nature of their [interview] questions and whether they work for the specific participants… (p. 681) [Therefore,] grounded theorists narrow the range of interview topics to gather specific data for their theoretical frameworks…(p. 676), [and in doing so,] grounded theory analysis attempts to move inductively upward from data to theoretical rendering. (p. 681)

Consequently, using Charmaz’s (2002) grounded theory analysis strategy as a theoretical framework, I took the following steps in my research design and data collection:

Step 1 – To identify, focus, and explore areas of interest, I developed preliminary interview questions during the month of March 2010.

Step 2 – To determine participants’ story and the current state of affairs relative to the study, I co-constructed interview questions with nonactive FALs during the last two weeks of May 2010.

Step 3 – To answer analytic questions and fill conceptual gaps, I reflected upon the nature of the co-constructed interview questions as to whether they extracted
rich data that told the participants’ story. I then returned to the field with new interview questions to complete further reflective work with nonactive FALs in this co-constructive process of developing interview questions. A pilot study was then conducted at the conclusion of this step on June 16, 2010.

Step 4 – Using sensitizing concepts — concepts which “gives the user a general sense of reference and guidance in approaching empirical instances…and merely suggest directions along which to look” (Blumer, 1954, p. 7) — I analyzed data from the pilot study for emerging theoretical themes (e.g., motivation, needs hierarchy, negotiation).

Step 5 – Drawing upon the identified theoretical emerging themes, I again developed new research questions that addressed related conceptual analysis of participants’ experiences. The pilot study then proceeded until the interview questions elicited data associated to the identified theoretical themes. The final pilot study was conducted on June 22, 2010.

Step 6 – Ultimately, my objective was to bring forward interview data, by means of this analytic process, which integrates earlier identified theoretical themes throughout both the data collection and analysis processes.

In summary, embracing the rationale for a qualitative research design for this study, it was always the researcher’s contention that the use of qualitative research methods was most fitting to bring forth the rich data necessary to address the purpose of the study. Divergent from this idea and in contrast to qualitative research, quantitative research is characterized by the use of large samples, standardized
measures, and highly structured data collection instruments for hypothesis testing (Marlow, 1993). Qualitative research involves an interpretive naturalistic approach (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994) and “is an inquiry process of understanding based on distinct methodological traditions of inquiry that explore a social or human problem” (Creswell, 1998, p. 15). As I earlier noted, qualitative research interviews can be understood as an attempt to comprehend the world from the subjects’ viewpoint, so to unfold the meaning of peoples’ experiences, therefore exposing their lived world prior to scientific explanations (Kvale, 1996). While quantitative research might best be employed in a confirmatory role to validate themes and relationships in samples and populations, qualitative research may best be utilized in a discovery role to investigate themes and relationships (Biddle & Anderson, 1986). In my judgment, the aforementioned key features of qualitative research methodology suited this research study most applicably, primarily due to the desire to investigate a small sample to comprehend a situation, rather than to validate a hypothesis and to apply to a larger population.

Sample

To attain a comprehensive understanding of the roles and skills of faculty association leaders within Illinois public four-year universities with collective bargaining units, purposeful sampling was employed to select cases that were rich with information relative to the questions under study (Patton, 2002). As Michael Patton stated, “purposeful samples should be judged according to the purpose and rationale of the study: Does the sample strategy support the study’s purpose?” (Patton, 2002, p. 245). As Meredith Gall, Joyce Gall, and Walter Borg (2003) suggested,
subjects were purposefully selected, not to achieve any population validity, but based on their perceptions of specific experiences.

Through the use of these guidelines the researcher sought to locate subjects that met the following criteria: A faculty member, designated by election or appointment, at Illinois four-year public universities with collective bargaining who holds, or had held, one of the following faculty association leadership positions:

1. president
2. grievance officer
3. chief negotiator

To ensure that participants’ perceptions of their experiences were rich and cogent, I chose a delimiting time frame of the current school year (2009-2010) (McMillan, 1996). This was achieved by selecting participants who held one of the above listed faculty association leadership positions during the current school year (2009-2010). Furthermore, when interviewed, participants were asked to relate their experiences to their most current school year (2009-2010).

Six Illinois four-year public universities with collective bargaining were identified as a match to the selection criterion by contacting the IELRB, the National Center for the Study of Collective Bargaining, the American Association of University Professors, and/or by reviewing the universities’ current faculty contracts. Included in the sample were FALs from the following six Illinois universities: (a) Chicago State University, (b) Eastern Illinois University, (c) Governors State University, (d) Southern Illinois University Carbondale, (e) Northeastern Illinois University, and (f) Western Illinois University. For purposeful sampling across
various locations in Illinois, this study focused upon responses from 12 faculty association leaders, two participants from each prequalified institution during the spring and summer of 2010.

Next, respondent participant selection was determined by employing the following steps:

1. For each university in the sample, resident FALs were identified through the assistance of a university’s faculty association website or a university’s affiliated faculty union association local chapter website. Simultaneously, related contact information was also noted.

2. A faculty association leader directory for each university (i.e., six directories) was developed distinguishing applicable FALs (i.e., president, grievance officer, chief negotiator) and their contact information.

3. Referring to the created directories, I contacted the faculty association leaders at each university by telephone identifying myself, describing the purpose of the study, and inviting their participation.

**Instrumentation**

In keeping with qualitative research methodology, the researcher felt the interview method of data collection to be most appropriate to elicit data embodying rich, thick descriptions; thus, I developed an interview guide. Using the study’s research questions as a framework, I constructed a matrix to illustrate a relationship between the study’s research questions and the interview questions being developed. Next, I developed five or more questions for each research question using the following guidelines: (a) questions should be clear and meaningful to the participant,
(b) leading questions should be avoided, (c) researcher must specify the frame of reference that the participant should use in answering the question, and (d) wording should be used that is open ended and as neutral as possible (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003; Patton, 2002). To test a potential interview question, I reviewed the question and attempted to determine if any off-topic or possible problem responses by a research participant might occur. Each interview question was then either eliminated or refined until the researcher was satisfied that the query would evoke a response that would refer directly to the research question it was to address.

**Pilot Study**

Prior to the recruitment of participants and administrating of this study, an Application for Approval to Conduct Research Involving Human Subjects was submitted and approved. Subsequent to my development of interview questions, three faculty association leaders examined my interview questions for appropriateness in content format and face validity — validating using common-sense rules (Kaplan & Saccuzzo, 2001). These three individuals possessed the following positions and backgrounds: a nonactive faculty association leader at an Illinois public four-year university with past experience as a faculty association president, chief negotiator, and grievance chairperson; two faculty members at an Illinois two-year community college with a collective bargaining unit. Related experiences of the two individuals at the community college consist of one individual currently acting as an active faculty association president with past experience as a chief negotiator, and the second faculty member with past experience as a faculty association president and chief negotiator. Key informants (Schwandt, 2001) within this continuous design (Rubin &
Rubin, 1995) of questions made recommendations regarding whether an interview question should be retained, modified, or eliminated, and the corresponding modifications were made.

A pilot study was conducted to provide feedback and determine how the protocol and instrument worked under realistic conditions (Fowler, 1993). The interview guide was field tested via an interview process with two previously uninterviewed individuals: one with past experience as a former faculty association president at an Illinois public four-year university, and the other, a former faculty association president, chief negotiator, and grievance chairperson at an Illinois two-year community college with a collective bargaining unit. As the interview was being conducted, I asked the test participants to “think out loud” regarding how s/he understood the interview questions. Using this format, I discovered if the participant comprehended the questions as I intended, so as effectively to acquire specific data pertaining each research question (Fowler, 1993). The researcher found that by subjecting the interview questions and answers to an actual in-depth interview process, potential problems and shortcomings that might not have surfaced until the time of data collection were minimized.

The pilot study specifically revealed that researcher needed to allow the respondents adequate time to express their thoughts without interruptions. Initially, I was trying to gather too much data at one time, which led to frustration between the parties and a display of impatience by the researcher. Overall, the pilot study taught me that patience was needed to hear what the participants were saying. I also determined that the data collection instrument (i.e., interview guide) was effective and
significantly assisted the researcher in completing a fluent and productive interview.

Data collected during the pilot study was not included in the study’s final findings.

**Demographic Data**

To assist in explaining any similarities or differences in perceptions among participants, demographic information (Appendix A) was gathered using a personal data sheet that included the following: age, gender, faculty classification, length of time in currently held faculty association leader position, length of time and title of any previously held faculty association leader position(s), and academic discipline. If the personal data sheet was not completed prior to an interview, I again asked the participant to complete it at the end of each interview for two reasons: respondents are more likely to answer these questions since they have already invested time in the interview, and if time runs short or the participant is unwilling to complete a personal information sheet, the critical interview data has already been collected and the demographic data is not as essential to the study (Brody & Stone, 1989).

**Data Collection**

Participant recruitment began spring and summer of 2010. Once contact was made with a faculty association leader who agreed to be a participant, depending upon the participant’s preference, a consent letter for participation in the interview research, including permission to audio tape (Appendix B), and the personal data sheet (Appendix A) were either mailed along with a pre-addressed, postal-paid envelop; faxed; or e-mailed to each participant. At this time, confidentiality assurances were made to each participant confirming that pseudonyms would be utilized to identify the respondents. Additionally, to avoid identifying participants responsible for any given
After a signed consent letter was returned, participant contact was again made via either e-mail or telephone requesting a convenient date, time, and location for a personal interview.

Using the interview guide (Appendix C), I conducted each interview with prepared questions to gather relevant information directly pertaining to the research questions and to avoid inflicting researcher bias or leading questions (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003). Follow-up questions were used for clarification purposes or to probe for additional data relating to the original interview guide question posed. As previously stated, if the participant had not already completed and returned the personal information sheet (i.e., demographic data), a request was again made at the conclusion of the interview.

In cases where a telephone interview was conducted, the personal data sheet (Appendix A) was either mailed with the consent letter for participation along with a pre-addressed, postal-paid return envelop; faxed; or e-mailed to the participant, or sent after the completion of the interview. As put forward on the consent form, each interview was recorded using an electronic audio recorder. Telephone interviews were recorded using a speakerphone and electronic audio recorder.

Each interview was approximately 60 minutes in length. During and directly after the in-person interviews, I took notes of interests that included (a) a description of the setting and interviewee, (b) the interviewee’s behavior during the interview, (c), the interviewee’s word phrasing or emphasis upon a particular topic, and (d) any reflective thoughts.
Data Analysis

As Thomas Schwandt stated, “analysis in qualitative inquiry is recursive and begins almost at the outset of generating data” (2001, p. 7). Thus, the challenge throughout the process of data collection is to develop a logical analysis procedure that will identify significant patterns, issues, and themes common to the participants and construct a framework for communicating the essence of what the data reveals (Patton, 1990). This being said, the process of qualitative data analysis generally involves two courses of actions: the identification of themes and writing (Lewins, Taylor, & Gibbs, 2005).

Throughout this research study, two sets of data were collected during each interview – participants’ responses and researcher’s field notes. At the onset of the interviews, through field notes, I annotated specific data, as previously described, and began coding common reoccurring themes between participants. To organize the participant response data, I used the qualitative analysis software program ATLAS.ti. ATLAS.ti is an electronic software tool that can assist a qualitative researcher in proficiently exploring, extracting, and comparing themes from multiple data sources. This data analysis system was crucial in providing me the capacity to repetitively go back into the data and quickly locate themes and voices of the participants. In no manner does this software analyze qualitative data for a researcher; however, it is an effective tool that can assist in the task of managing and organizing qualitative data.

Following John Creswell’s (2007) procedures, both data sets were analyzed and reported as follows:
1. **Organization of data.** The participant responses were recorded and transcribed by a professional transcriber. To assure accuracy, the transcriptions were read and corrected as I listened to the interview recordings. The transcribed interview data text was then loaded into the qualitative data program ATLAS.ti.

2. **Categorization of data.**

   (a) Participant response data - The data were clustered into meaningful groups of themes (i.e., coded) using ATLAS.ti as the organizational tool.

   (b) Field note data - Using a constructivist grounded theology and John Siedel’s (1998) data analysis process (see figure 1), I worked inductively to allow themes to emerge from the data.

   (c) When coding the field note data and combining the participant response data, I also relied upon Seidel’s (1998) qualitative data analysis model (see figure 1). This process involves three primary components: noticing, collecting, and thinking about topics of related interest. Seidel proposed that when a researcher notices something interesting in the data and assigns them a code, based on a topic or theme, the data is then broken down into fragments; thus, codes are assigned to the data that act as sorting and collection devices. In a continuous cycle, the researcher thinks about the codes, notices and collects data. This process proceeds until the data are broken down and the cycle ceases, due to a lack of emerging codes or themes.
Using this method, I combined categories and codes across participants to create common emergent themes. Throughout the process, the researcher continually reviewed the interview transcripts and field notes to ensure the themes were grounded in the participants’ perceptions.

Figure 1. Qualitative Data Analysis


3. Identification of patterns. The coded data (i.e., participants’ responses and researcher’s field notes) and their interpretations were examined for patterns that characterized perceptions of FALs and promoted the researcher’s capacity to draw conclusions relating to their roles and essential skills. To complete this step, first, the previously coded data were broken into one of two categories – descriptive or
interpretive. As Norman Denzin (1989) explained, descriptions and interpretations must be separated so that interpretivism maintains its credibility by asking questions that unearth discoveries, detect meaning in results, and connect individual pieces of information through investigation. On the other hand, descriptions involve little interpretation (Miles & Huberman, 1994), but instead, present solid descriptive data in a manner that conclusions can easily be drawn by other parties (Denzin, 1989).

Second, to interpret emerging themes, pattern codes were created. Pattern codes “identify an emergent theme, configuration, or explanation. They pull together a lot of material into more meaningful and parsimonious units of analysis” (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 69). Using pattern coding to combine emerging themes across participants (e.g., number of occurrences, patterns, and relationships), I created connections and broader themes. Throughout these steps, the study’s research questions were frequently reviewed. This promoted two positive outcomes: organization and focus upon the information sought (Patton, 1990). I persistently assessed the interview transcriptions to ensure the researchers interpretations were grounded in the participants’ perceptions and experiences.
4. **Synthesis.** An overall representation of participants’ responses was created where conclusions and recommendations based on the data were drawn and presented.

**Trustworthiness**

“How can an inquirer persuade his or her audiences that the research findings of an inquiry are worth paying attention to?” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 290). When judging the quality of a study, Patton (2002) stressed that validity and reliability are two factors that all qualitative researchers should be concerned with. Some researchers (Seale, 1999; Lincoln & Guba, 1985) postulated that “trustworthiness…lies at the heart of issues conventionally discussed as validity and reliability” (Seale, 1999 p. 266). Therefore, to access the quality and worth of a study in qualitative paradigms, researchers Yvonna Lincoln and Egon Guba developed and presented the “trustworthiness criteria,” which established four strategies to judge the quality or goodness of qualitative research. The following discussion focuses upon how the researcher initiated procedures within the study to address these four strategies: creditability, dependability, confirmability, and transferability.

Creditability of a study suggests that the findings accurately and truthfully represent the perceptions of the participants. One strategy some researchers suggest “is the most important criterion in establishing creditability” (Mertens & McLaughlin, 2004, p. 106) is member checks. Member-checking is a technique to verify with participants that the researcher’s constructs, which result from data collection and interpretations, are accurately reflecting their perceptions and viewpoints (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). To meet this criterion, at the end of each interview, I informally
summarized the data that had been collected to the interviewee and inquired if these notes appropriately reflected their previous responses. If not, corrections were made. In addition, to accurately gather data, a considerable amount of time in field was completed with appropriately selected participants using an interview instrument that was developed by means of peer examination and testing practices (i.e., pilot study). And last, to address creditability, data triangulation was achieved through the review of field notes alongside interview transcriptions.

Dependability focuses on the process of the inquiry and the inquirer’s responsibility for insuring the process was logical, traceable, and documented (Schwandt, 2001). In meeting this requirement, I created a dense description of the research methods including: sample selection, data collection, instrument development, and data analysis. Throughout the completion of the study, through the assistance of the researcher’s committee chairperson, peer examination assured that the study was conducted competently and ethically.

Confirmability of a qualitative study establishes if the researcher’s data and interpretations are accurate, or simply figments of the researcher’s imagination (Schwandt, 2001). To assure accurate interpretations of the interview data, I completed multiple sessions involving listening to the audio tapes while simultaneously reading the interview transcripts. To help control researcher bias and present accurate descriptions of participants’ perceptions, triangulation was carried out through the assessment of multiple data sources (field notes and interview transcripts). Using this method, collaborating themes were confirmed. Furthermore, using ATLAS.ti to organize and analyze data, I began to identify a data theme,
different units of language or observations were categorized under this theme. As new themes emerged, the data were then reorganized consistently by the software. In this manner, a record of evolving decisions about themes and classifications of data were maintained, which ensured that I was consistent in data analysis of all data and assisted in maintaining an “audit trial.” As researchers Carol Macnee and Susan McCabe stated: “An audit trial is an ongoing document regarding the researcher’s decision about the data analysis and collection processes” (2008, p. 171).

Lincoln and Guba’s (1985) transferability strategy focuses upon the researcher’s responsibility to provide other readers or researchers adequate information on the case studied so that they might establish a degree of similarity between the case studied and the case to which findings might be transferred (Schwandt, 2001). Transferability in a qualitative study can be difficult to achieve, since the objective of a qualitative inquiry is not to validate a hypothesis to then apply to a larger population, but to investigate a small sample to comprehend a situation. Nevertheless, I attempted to address this issue through the use of thick, rich descriptions of the participants and the context. In this manner, I, like Thomas Schram (2003), believe a detailed description provides the basis for a reader to determine similarities of relevance in some broader context.

Summary

As established in the literature review, very little research to date has been conducted to explore and to identify the roles and skills of faculty association leaders and their perceptions of essential skills required of them as they complete their daily roles in this capacity. Hence, this research project endeavors to address this
shortcoming. As rationalized earlier in this chapter, the naturalistic approach of a qualitative research project allows the researcher the ability to interpret local meanings of social actions for the actors involved in them (Erickson, 1985); therefore, the qualities of this research methodology are befitting for this inquiry. In the remainder of the study, I report the results from the analysis of data, provide conclusions from the findings, discuss the major themes that emerged from the data, and conclude with recommendations for practice and further study.
CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter reports the results of a qualitative research study that was designed and completed to identify the roles and skills of present-day faculty association leaders (FALs) within Illinois’ public four-year universities with a collective bargaining unit. Two research questions were used to guide this study:

1. What are the roles and related experiences of current faculty association leaders at Illinois public four-year universities?

2. What skills do current faculty association leaders at Illinois public four-year universities perceive are essential for leading a faculty governance unit?

The data presented in this chapter were collected between July 29, 2010, and October 6, 2010, through interviews with FALs who were currently working at an Illinois’ public four-year university with collective bargaining. Interviews were completed via the telephone \((n = 9)\) or face-to-face \((n = 3)\) with the assistance of an interview guide (Appendix C). Prior to each interview, a demographic data sheet (Appendix A) was completed by each participant and returned to me. All interviews were electronically recorded, professionally transcribed, and then reviewed for accuracy.

Once confirmability of the transcripts was established, the FALs responses were analyzed manually with the assistance of ATLAS.ti, a data analysis computer program. As aforesaid, the research questions guided the researcher’s course of action by providing a theoretical framework to work within while canvassing the data for themes – common qualities, experiences, or concerns of participants. ATLAS.ti
further allowed the researcher the ability to efficiently (a) organize, (b) manage, (c) explore, (d) identify, (e) extract, and (f) compare data, and subsequently, (g) reassemble common pieces of data into meaningful themes.

This chapter identifies and defines these themes through participants’ narrations of the world they lived in. To complete this endeavor, the remainder of this chapter has been divided into the following five major topic headings. The opening topic, (a) Demographic Profile, provides an overview of the individuals who participated in this study. The second topic, (b) Why Become a Faculty Association Leader, describes motivational factors pertaining to why participants undertook their faculty association leadership positions. The third topic, (c) Role Perceptions of Faculty Association Leaders, distinctly reports what the data reflected regarding participants’ perceptions of the roles that they fill as FALs. The fourth topic, (d) Experiences of Faculty Association Leaders, reveals participants’ mutually shared experiences with regard to their lives as faculty association leaders. The fifth and final topic, (e) Essential Skills of Faculty Association Leaders, distinguishes participants shared perceptions of skills they deemed to be essential for leading a faculty governance unit. Each topic section is introduced by a defining quotation from participants.

**Demographic Profile**

The individual faculty association leaders (FALs) interviewed for this study were responsible for representing tenure-track faculty at Illinois public four-year universities with a faculty association, the faculty’s exclusive legal representative for collective negotiations with the employer. Within Illinois, six four-year public
universities met this criterion. By virtue of their association leaders, the universities represented throughout this study are: (a) Chicago State University, (b) Eastern Illinois University, (c) Governors State University, (d) Southern Illinois University Carbondale, (e) Northeastern Illinois University, and (f) Western Illinois University.

Seven males and five females participated in this study. Participants’ age ranged between 41 to 62 years. With the exception of one assistant professor, all interviewees held a tenured faculty rank of associate professor ($n = 7$) or full professor ($n = 4$). The largest portion ($n = 7$) of those interviewed were novice FALs, possessing no more than two years experience. Four participants were identified as veteran FALs, due to having held one or more faculty association leadership positions (i.e., president, chief negotiator, grievance officer) for 10 years or more. Of the 12 FALs interviewed, there was even representation ($n = 4$) of participants who were holding, or had recently held, a faculty leadership position in one of the following offices: (a) president, (b) grievance officer, or (c) chief negotiation officer. To protect participants’ identity, pseudonyms were assigned.

While academic disciplines varied, two fields of study in higher education were shared by those interviewed: biology ($n = 3$) and psychology ($n = 2$). Only two participants possessed a history of educational administrative experience at some time in their careers. These positions, both interim appointments, included a departmental chairperson and a college dean. Two participants possessed associated nonacademic experience in the field of political campaign management. Table 1 offers additional participant demographic data.
Table 1

Participant Demographic Information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pseudonyms</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Faculty Rank</th>
<th>Sum of years holding FAL position(s)</th>
<th>Academic Discipline</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Eric</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>Asst. Prof.</td>
<td>1 year</td>
<td>Natural Sciences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brian</td>
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<td>41</td>
<td>Assoc. Prof.</td>
<td>1 year</td>
<td>Professional &amp; Applied Sciences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travis</td>
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<td>2 years</td>
<td>Social Sciences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mary</td>
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<td>48</td>
<td>Assoc. Prof.</td>
<td>2 years</td>
<td>Professional &amp; Applied Sciences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhonda</td>
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<td>Assoc. Prof.</td>
<td>3 years</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karen</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Formal Sciences</td>
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<td>Joy</td>
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<td>12 years</td>
<td>Natural Sciences</td>
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<tr>
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<td>10 years</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Why Become a Faculty Association Leader

“I wanted to hear what people...were saying and what they were doing, and I just kind of got sucked into it.” – Rob

Why become a faculty association leader? “That’s a good question. I ask myself that a lot,” Karen opined when first addressing why she took on the responsibilities of a faculty association leader. Like Karen, other participants initially laughed and approached this topic in jest. However, when earnestly responding, half ($n = 6; 50\%$) of all FALs mentioned that they were “encouraged” by their colleagues to become more involved. As Jake put it simply, “I was talked into it.” Brian too
expressed that his primary reason for becoming involved as a faculty association leader was due to the encouragement he received from his faculty cohorts; be that as it may, he also expressed a strong conviction to do something that “would help the organization.”

Like Brian, Rhonda first and foremost attributed her involvement with the faculty association to the encouragement of others; nevertheless, once holding a presidential position, she further disclosed that she enjoyed the prestige and social status her position offered. She revealed the following:

I like being seen, even occasionally by myself, as a player in the campus community, as somebody important, as someone who matters. Though I’m always surprised that somebody can look at me that way, but I rather value it.

(Rhonda)

Similar to other participants’ experiences, Joy and Rob also disclosed why they began their tenure as a faculty association leader. Joy explained that she initially became involved with her faculty union when needing personal assistance to resolve a contractual issue. Through this relationship, she grew aware of the functions and purposes of her university’s faculty union, and thus, continued her involvement. Rob found that he was drawn to the position because he was “frustrated with the existing [faculty] leadership…[due to that they] were putting their own personal agenda ahead of the union’s.” Through a sense of personal responsibility and need for change, he desired to represent all faculty members equally.
Role Perceptions of Faculty Association Leaders

“Oh, well, sometimes I wonder about that myself, what it is I am suppose to be doing.”
– Lori

When interviewees were asked to describe the roles that they filled, most responded with speculative indeterminate replies, suggesting a lack of grounded sophistication to the understanding of their roles. A case in point, Rob, an association president, when directly asked to identify the roles that he filled, bobbled along and replied:

Well, I basically do everything. So I do everything. I just finished a negotiating contract. I do any and all personnel in terms of – I don't, well, I don’t – I have a grievance officer who does all the grievances for me, but I play a very close role in that. I do lots of problem solving for the union constantly with the administration. I've become an advocate for faculty on personnel issues, all those type of things. (Rob)

As with most participants, Rob’s response to my inquiry regarding his roles as a faculty association leader was lacking of clarity. Rob, like most other participants, was unable to conceptualize and articulate his roles. It was apparent that he, like other participants, had never before been asked this question or ever previously considered exactly what his roles were as a faculty governance leader.

Notably divergent from all other FALs, only one faculty association leader identified her role as that of a leadership role; that is, one that involves a “process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal” (Northouse, 2007, p. 3). Lori, a negotiation officer, who previously had also served
as grievance officer and faculty union president, straightforwardly described her role as such:

As a leader, I tried to not be a manager. I think the manager tries to get things done on time and everything else. The leader…wants to…direct the people and the ideas. So I was more into…thinking about ideas. And I find out it’s the people [that] made the team, that they would [be] much better at doing the managing part. So, I think it's very important, because it's a little bit different between a manager and a leader…. It has a lot to do with convincing people about what the goal is, rather than forcing the goal. So it is a big difference!

(Lori)

Contrary to Lori’s leadership role description, this investigation into faculty association leaders’ roles and related experiences exposed themes engaging FALs as contract managers. These themes were derived solely from FALs’ understanding of their social reality; and as such, are embodied in the following participants’ narrations of interactions with their social environment. To assist in conveying a contextual understanding of participants’ described experiences, the remainder of this section, *Roles Perceptions of Faculty Association Leaders*, has been segmented into three theme areas. These theme areas are as follows: *contract manager*, *contractual management tasks*, and *governance responsibilities*.

Linked to the second theme area, *contractual management tasks*, are sub-issues that I initially thought would stand alone as themes; however, after a detailed analysis, I found them to be contributory sub-issues. These sub-issues specifically depict FALs’ experiences regarding two commonly described contractual
management tasks: *communicator*, and *faculty representative*. Those themes and sub-issues within this section are presented in Table 2.

Table 2

*Section: Role Perceptions of Faculty Association Leaders*

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<th>Themes</th>
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**Contract Manager**

“All we’re here for is to make sure that the contract is followed.” – Travis

When asked to describe the role in which they filled, as a faculty association leader, three quarters of all respondents (*n* = 9; 75%) distinguished contractual related issues to their role responsibilities. These FALs viewed their role as that of a “contract manager;” to be precise, they meant one who interprets, negotiates, and defends the faculty contract, in conjunction with informing their constituents to contractual matters of concern. Travis, a grievance officer, proclaimed, “My job really involved…just knowing the contract inside out, and then also just dealing with people.” Larry, also a grievance officer, discovered he first had to interpret the contract prior to completing any other roles as a faculty association leader. He explained:
I wind up answering a lot of just quick questions, or sometimes, a little more detailed questions when people just have a concern and they are not sure if its contract related…. Sometimes, you know, [I] tell them that really is a problem, but not about your contract with the university…. A lot of times I’m just giving guidance on contractual matters that are sometimes pretty simple. (Larry)

In consequence to contract negotiations, FALs believed it was their role to be “an advocate for the faculty” (Rob). Mary, a chief negotiation officer, and Rob, a faculty association president who recently “finished negotiating the contract” both shared this perspective. Mary stated that:

The idea is to have the ability to take on the perspective of the constituency to weigh in on issues in negotiations. So, you know, that's – I see my role as – important in negotiations…representing the faculty perspective. (Mary)

Several FALs felt it was their role to inform or, as Adam said, “communicate with members.” Lori, a negotiation officer, explained: “Very early on I became the explainer, I guess you’d call it, and did a number of talks…to either general membership meetings or around campus.” Similarly, to communicate with union members, Adam, a grievance officer, recalled having “tables set up in the union to communicate with members, and…on average, would spend four to five hours a week sitting at those.” When describing his roles, Jake, a faculty association president, reflected this same sentiment; he identified his role as one who communicates and informs the faculty to contractual issues.
I’m just trying to keep track and taking notes, and alerting people to things that are coming up. Other times, I feel that I need to speak out at those [faculty], because something comes that impacts upon the contract, and I need to remind people that, well, this is a contractual matter or how the contract looks at that.

(Jake)

Throughout the interviews, it became obvious that the role of “defending” the faculty contract is of substantial importance to faculty association leaders; particularly to those such as Larry and Karen who act as faculty grievance officers. Larry exclaimed that FALs “absolutely have to support the contract.” Further advocating this position, Karen passionately asserted that she makes sure “the contract is enforced for all the tenured faculty…[taking] complaints from those people in which they feel a contract had been violated regarding pay, or working conditions, or hours, or what have you.”

Several times, FALs tied the role of defending the contract to issues related to contractual grievance procedures. Akin to an attorney at law, Travis explained his role in grievance procedures: “My basic role was to serve as – serve almost like a defense lawyer – basically, for faculty members that have some sort of grievance or some sort of trouble with administration.” Further substantiating this viewpoint, grievance officer Larry clarified:

And that’s part of the role certainly, and that’s taking someone who’s got a contract violation and helping, you know, file the grievance, helping them represent themselves…working with the contract administrator to either
resolve the grievance or, you know, bring it to the next step and eventually get,

you know, a settlement of some kind. (Larry)

Regarding her role description, Lori made a short and to-the-point statement that
reflected the tone of several FALs. Lori straightforwardly stated: “Defending the
contract is what I do.”

**Contractual Management Tasks**

“*Members call with questions or I get questions from administrators about what’s the
unions take on this, or can we do this. Or other times, unfortunately, I don’t get
questions and they just do something to which I have to react to.*” – Jake

By nature of the position, either by election or appointment, faculty
association leaders are not afforded the luxury of entering their positions with a
detailed job description or inventory of recognized job tasks to perform. Yet, as FALs
identified their primary role as a contract manager, they simultaneously recognized
several job tasks they performed to meet the obligations of this role. Accordingly,
respondents commonly tied the following job tasks to their contract manager
experiences: *communicator* and *faculty representative*.

**Communicator.** As contract managers, FALs repetitively reported the task of
responding to faculty and administration queries to establish if, or how, an issue
concerned the union, and what constituted a contract violation; more specifically,
something that was actually grievable. Like many FALs, Karen described her
participation in several informal dialogues with faculty members regarding union
issues on a daily basis. She said that there were “lots of hallway conversations where
people [faculty members] stopped and asked: what's happening with this and what's
happening with that. Most of it was very informal.” However, as a grievance officer,
Karen also described spending “an hour or two at a time meeting with individual faculty and listening to their cases…and explaining what is a grievance and what isn’t.” Frequently, Karen would have to clarify to a faculty member that the dilemma they were having was a problem with their department chairperson, or a problem that their “department needed to resolve [and]…not a contract violation.” Working as a faculty association president, Jake described a similar circumstance. He pointed out that

> Members call with questions and they’re not necessarily things that are going to be grievable, per the contract. But, you know, how should they approach this, or can they use the union to help them with this…. Also, I do get questions from administrators about, you know, what’s the union take on this, or can we do this. (Jake)

As a communicator, FALs spoke of having to “educate the faculty” (Rhonda), to “make them aware of what they are entitled to under the contract” (Adam). To carry out this task, FALs would reach members by “getting a newsletter out...[or by] setting up a meeting with the faculty member [that needs assistance] to talk about what they are dealing with” (Brain). Rhonda, a faculty association president, commented that she would send “out an email to the faculty saying if this occurred then you’re entitled to...[this] compensation.”

**Faculty representative.** When defending the faculty contract, often times a faculty association leader would find himself/herself representing a “faculty member who was going to have a possible sanction” (Rhonda) imposed upon them by the
university’s administration. Performing his duties as a grievance officer, Travis briefly described just this scenario.

I met with people [i.e., faculty member and a university administrator] who were asked to sit down with their supervisor regarding a possible sanction.

They were in trouble for something they did and the union would go with them to – [act] as an advisory role. (Jake)

If a faculty association leader determined that the university administration had violated the faculty contract language in some manner, and prohibited actions were being decreed against a faculty member, steps were then taken by FALs to act not only in an advisory role but also as a legal representative for the faculty member.

Travis went on to explain the next step he would complete in an attempt to avoid formal grievance proceedings.

I would meet with was the associate provost. [He] was the person in charge of that, the contract related items…. It was our understanding that with most all cases we would try to settle them informally. If that, in fact, didn't work out, or if we'd just reached the point where we couldn't reach any type of agreement, then we would move on to a formal setting. But, yeah, I would say over half of the cases that came across my desk were settled informally and typically with this person. (Travis)

A consensus of those interviewed indicated a like perception regarding the large amount of time required of them when acting as a faculty representative and addressing grievance related issues. Brian, a faculty association president, denoted this point when he exclaimed: “more of my time than anything else. Really, the
majority of my time…it’s [i.e., grievance issues] a substantial component.” Larry also signified that the largest amount of his time, as a faculty association president, was exhausted to grievance related meetings. He recounted:

[I attended] one to two meetings a week with the contract administrator to discuss grievance related issues…[and then] three meetings a month where it might be you'd sit down with the contract administrator to talk about, you know, the problems that we're seeing in one department, or supervisors…to let her know, I'm hearing from people with, that have this concern. (Larry)

Participants who dealt with formal grievance proceedings correspondingly acknowledged a common set of issues that they addressed. Functioning as a grievance officer, Adam identified these prevalent issues as he spoke to me about his experiences when dealing with formal grievance proceedings.

Most of the issues were…things like people that were non-retained or had received a negative evaluation from their supervisor…. Other cases were just things where generally people, where somebody's supervisor, they had treated them in a way that they weren't pleased about. We also have a promotion type of scale here where people can earn like merit increases on an annual basis. And a lot of times things would involve those, people that didn't feel they were – their activities were being, you know – adequately counted towards these merit based promotions. So I would have to argue on their behalf sometimes. (Adam)

Although participants repeatedly described that grievance issues required the largest proportion of their time, as a group, FALs also expressed the desire to resolve
these issues with the university’s administration through informal meetings. Lori explained that

conflicts can be resolved based on…good faith effort. [However,] the moment one of the sides [faculty association verses university administration] starts to become stubborn about it, then that becomes a grievance: if it is a violation of the contract. And I’m very, very, careful about that. (Lori)

The general feeling among all FALs interviewed, in respect to resolving grievance related issues, was reflected by Larry: “I’d rather just like to solve things as conveniently as we can.”

**Faculty Association Operational Responsibilities**

“I go to a lot of meetings. This is not necessarily the more pleasant part of it.”

– Brain

While all FALs affirmed that almost all of their time was spent addressing contractual and/or grievance related issues, several interviewees disclosed how they frequently attended a large number of meetings to address faculty association governance issues. Rob, a faculty association president, described how he engaged governance issues amid a routine day.

I try to meet with chairs, deans, unit directors at least one a day, sometimes throughout the course of the day, to keep pressure and to keep my ear and hear what's going on. I'll probably meet with faculty throughout the day, staff throughout the day as well, a lot of email, a lot of phone calling, [and] a lot of meetings. I will attend a lot of university meetings that may not have anything directly to do with the union, but has – but indirectly does. (Rob)
Karen described routine association executive board meetings where she would meet “on a monthly basis with all the executive officers…[to] look over the current issues, [develop] strategies, and review what sort of grievances seem[ed] to be fueling up.” Identical to Karen’s executive board meeting experiences, but more frequently occurring and at a different university, Larry similarly described how his executive board would “meet once a week, sometimes it’s more like two…and go around the table and give quick reports” to review governance issues and determine how to address them.

During faculty contract negotiations with the university, when some FALs function as a faculty bargaining representative, participants distinguished additional union governance tasks at hand. Adam, a chief negotiator, stated that during this process his team “would have weekly negotiating meetings lasting two to three hours.” After a negotiation meeting with the university’s administration, FALs would next meet to “craft a strategy together” (Jake). If the university had presented a proposal for their acceptance, Adam went on to explain that his team would then spend “at least a couple hours of going through the proposal [to determine what] to counter with, and then...write language.”

In summation, I found that most participants could not conceptualize or define their roles as FALs. Yet, as participants’ described their social environment, I repetitively heard FALs relating contractual issues to their role responsibilities and discovered that FALs distinguished themselves as contract managers. As contract managers, FALs described being involved with job tasks associated with acting as communicators and faculty representatives. As communicators, FALs responded to
faculty and administration queries to establish if, or how, an issue concerned the union, and what constituted a contract violation. As faculty representatives, FALs represented faculty members when sanctions were being imposed upon them by the university’s administration. Similarly, when contractual prohibited actions were being decreed against a faculty member by the administration, FALs acted as legal representatives.

Furthermore, as contract managers, FALs recounted having to address faculty association governance issues. When addressing these issues participants revealed having to attend faculty association executive board meetings where they would review current issues of concern and develop counter strategies. Throughout faculty contract negotiations some FALs functioned as faculty bargaining representatives, on taking additional union governance duties. Acting in this capacity, these FALs were required to meet and negotiate with administration representatives, then afterwards convene with faculty association executive officers to craft negotiation strategies, develop contract language, and create contract proposals.

**Experiences of Faculty Association Leaders**

“God, I didn’t really know much about the role before I started doing it.” – Larry

*Experiences of Faculty Association Leaders* explicitly reports what the data reflected regarding experiences of current faculty association leaders at Illinois public four-year universities. To assist the reader, this section has been broken into five topic areas. In the first topic area, *learning the ropes*, participants divulge their perceptions of formal union related training and recount how they actually learned to perform their faculty association job duties. Throughout the second topic area,
balance of responsibilities, participants disclose how they dealt with their additional faculty association leadership responsibilities in conjunction with their traditional faculty responsibilities. Within the third topic area, challenging experiences, portrayals of participants’ greatest challenges are relayed. The forth topic area describes participants’ most commonly shared negative experiences. And the concluding topic area, rewarding/devastating experiences, exposes how participants’ most rewarding and most devastating experiences intertwine through one core issue.

Learning the Ropes

Although all FALs described attending, or having the opportunity to attend, some type of union affiliated training, participants resoundingly reported learning how to perform their related job tasks through on-the-job training (OJT) experiences. Specifically, respondents described their participation within the following classifications of OJT activities: self-execution of job tasks, mentoring, and job shadowing.

Larry, a grievance officer, explained: “You know, the whole process has been more fly by the seat of your pants than I would have ever expected…. I think it’s learning by doing…[and] shadowing people that have experience, in which I did for about a year.” Other participants echoed this same sentiment: Joy, a negotiation consultant, found that she “just learned by doing.” Likewise, Rhonda, a faculty association president, confirmed that she “learned by trial and error;” Eric, a negotiation consultant, acknowledged that he did a lot of “learning on his own.”

Although most FALs reported that they fundamentally learned to perform their job tasks by “just doing them,” a number of participants also recounted having the
opportunity to work with a mentor, or job shadow their predecessor. According to Karen, “there was no formal training process...[and it was] more or less just mentoring the former grievance officer.” When asked to describe how he learned to carry out his associated job tasks, Travis replied: “I learned from the previous grievance officers and other union representatives how to handle certain situations, write the contract, things like that.”

Having a slightly different perspective, due to having the opportunity to initially learn his related job duties prior to his installation as a faculty association president, Rob recounted his informal training process. “You kind of follow people and that kind of stuff.... I was kind of mentored.... I knew I was going to take office, [so] I shadowed the current, the current chapter president” (Rob). Rob enjoyed the opportunity to job shadow his predecessor prior to being installed as a faculty union president. He felt this experience was invaluable to preparing him for his new responsibilities as a faculty leader.

While FALs generally rated the formal training provided by their university’s affiliated faculty association as “good,” they also found this training to be “a little uneven” (Karen); explicitly meaning, that the training was “not as specific to higher education, as the [actual] issues in higher education [are]” (Rob). Larry discovered, when he sat in on six training sessions at a recent conference offered by his university’s state-affiliated faculty association, “that really only two [training sessions] may have [had] any kind of direct application” to his position as a grievance officer or to higher education in general. Elaborating on her past attendance at a union affiliated workshop, Mary articulated a commonly held perception among
participants:

So, we were in that workshop with, gosh, a lot of K through 12 educators. And it was informative and useful, so it wasn’t a waste of time certainly by any means [I] considered it a positive experience, but it – wasn’t as well tailored. Yeah, I guess that’s a good way to say it. (Mary)

As a faculty association president, Jake’s perspective on the value of formal training verses OJT experiences appropriately sums up the general feelings of most participants. Jake said the following:

Basically [I learned] from asking people more experienced than I…. There had been some opportunities [i.e., union affiliated training sessions], particularly early on, not so much U. P. I. itself, but its parent unions, the Illinois Federation of Teachers, the American Federation of Teachers, that sort of thing. Personally, I didn’t find those very useful and I don’t mean it because there was anything wrong with those trainings, but truly, they’re excellent. They seem to do a lot for other people. I think for me, I have the feeling that I could not learn these things in theory. Umm, what I needed was, you might say, on-the-job training, which is what I feel I’m still getting…because things still come up that I ask people questions about. So, what I’d say is that for some people those workshops on leadership institutes and things are extremely helpful, I just don’t feel they were for me. But I’ve really had to learn on the job. (Jake)

Balance of Responsibilities – Faculty versus Faculty Association

To provide faculty members who serve as faculty association leaders
adequate time to address their additional duties, five out of the six Illinois public four-year universities represented in this study supported some type of official release time for this activity. As a result, nine of the 12 interviewees in this study were granted a reduction in their faculty workload to specifically attend to faculty association issues. These individuals believed that this arrangement was “sufficient” (Karen) and “fair” (Rhonda). However, several FALs still found that achieving a sense of balance between their faculty responsibilities and faculty association business concerns was nonetheless “quite difficult” (Joy) and “just hard to achieve” (Larry). Lori recounted her circumstances:

> It’s really mixed up, I guess. I mean, there are times I’m sitting at home and thinking about the association stuff, there are times that I am sitting at home thinking about my research stuff. So, there’s really no separation, there’s no – I can’t – you know, I don’t have a switch to turn it off. (Lori)

Like Lori, most FALs discovered that from their teaching, research, and service responsibilities, “research is probably what suffers the most” (Rob). Rob noted that every time he tried “to get into doing research…something else popped up” and he had to turn his attention back to union issues. Similarly, Brian described how “time consuming” his faculty association presidential responsibilities were, specifically articulating that the “only place to ‘give’ [was a] cut into the actual assignment for research.” Brian proposed that this situation was a “factor which tend[ed] to limit the ability [i.e., research capacity]” of a faculty member, and as a result, was the root cause why nearly all faculty association presidents at his university did not hold the position for more than two terms.
When discussing how he balanced his responsibilities as a faculty member and grievance officer, Larry shared the following with me:

It kind of stinks! The balance didn’t use to be so bad, it wasn’t, you know, it wasn’t as large a role as it in now…. The balance isn’t good. I wind up doing most of my…research…you know, what I consider my work, during the summers, which is, you know, which is fine. But it’s very hard to get good research time in during the school year, and this role has just killed it…. You cannot stop your other responsibilities, you know, and I wouldn’t want to. I mean, I don’t – I feel like the balance is—is wrong. You know, I want to, I want to be faculty first, and it gets, it gets, complicated. (Larry)

In relation to what his faculty association position has done to his research related activities, Larry proclaimed a universal sentiment shared by nearly all FALs when he vented, “This role has just killed it.”

**Challenging Experiences**

Although an adversarial relationship may exist at times between the university’s administrative staff and FALs, participants overwhelmingly articulated that they experienced “no real repercussions” (Brian) from their employer. In fact, most participants felt they were “treated very fairly by the administration” (Travis) and, as Joy and Lori both independently stated, the university’s administration always kept their relationship on a “professional” level.

However, when working with some faculty members that they represented, participants portrayed a much different scenario. Joy, a chief negotiator who had previously held a faculty association presidential position, told me the following: “I
suppose the most challenging [aspect] would probably have to be working with some faculty members who really make it difficult for you to help them.” When asked for further clarification as to why these individuals posed her such difficulties, Joy responded: “Let’s put it this way…there’s some faculty members who repeatedly have issues that they seem to exacerbate on their own, and so it becomes increasingly harder to find ways to work out resolutions.” Similar to Joy’s experiences and sharing the opinion of other participants, Karen made the following commentary:

The only position that I found challenging is actually dealing with the faculty. The faculty think that anytime it comes to the union that we can do anything for them, that we can resolve all of their problems, that even if they’ve done something egregiously wrong, that we’ll take care of them and there’s nothing to worry about…. And sometimes they seem upset. They think I ought to be able to solve all of their problems. (Karen)

While some FALs felt that dealing with faculty members, who held unrealistic expectations of them, was their most substantial challenge; others found it monumentally challenging to appropriately serve and represent their constituents. Jake thought that “trying to strike the right balance…in terms of serving the members [and] doing the right thing—not overselling what we [the faculty association] can do for somebody, but doing as much as we can for them” was his biggest challenge as a faculty association president. Similarly, Lori desired to equitably represent all of her members, but, found this to be a considerable undertaking. She added: “When I do something for one person, you kind of mess up the situation for a lot of other individuals, and the difficulty of that is that you’re really dealing with [given number
of faculty association/union memberships at her university] different kind of opinions.”

Unfortunately, several FALs found it difficult to disconnect emotionally from their faculty association leadership position. Rob, a faculty association president, explained: “The biggest challenge is to try not to get emotionally involved so that I can stay objective and...be an advocate for them [union members].” Karen’s remarks corresponded to Rob’s: as the “union’s representative, I have to do certain things that I may not always agree with...[and] it puts you in those positions where your [association’s] principles may not align with – your personal principles…. That becomes a real problem.” As a chief negotiator, Eric described circumstances when “keeping personal emotional control” was extremely difficulty for him. So difficult, that he recalled situations where he physically “wanted to just shake somebody” (Eric) until they came to agreement with him.

**Negative Experiences**

Coinciding with the aforesaid challenges of working with and adequately serving faculty members, participants reported negative experiences relative to the indignant conduct of their disgruntled colleagues. Travis commented: “The only...negative part about the job...as that, you know, a few times the people that I was representing...if their case didn’t turn out the way they wanted, they turned very negative and angry against me.” Like Travis, Joy mentioned that she had seen “more fallout with faculty members” than with university administrators. She explained:

There’s always going to be some faculty members who aren’t happy with work the union does and may criticize, for instance, contract negotiations.
They feel that you didn’t do a good enough job on this, or you sold out….

There’s certain faculty members who will then run around the university and talk badly about the union in general, or about specific people in the union, and say so-and-so really didn’t do a good job, that kind of thing. (Joy)

**Rewarding/Devastating Experiences**

While participants identified working with and adequately representing faculty members as their primary challenges, these same participants repeatedly related both their most rewarding and devastating experiences to their ability to resolve issues that would “help save someone’s job” (Joy). Travis, when commenting on his most rewarding experiences as a grievance officer, recounted the following: “The most rewarding cases were clearly cases where I was able to get people’s jobs back. I was able to argue on their behalf…and I was able to get their jobs back.” Similarly, Jake described the “terrible feeling” he experienced when several faculty members within his union were laid off.

They’re a few people [faculty members] who are literally out of a job that we were not able to save [in] any way, shape, or form. And that is a terrible feeling. I mean, I said to people at the time, survivor’s guilt really is bad. But, I said, if you’re the survivor who’s supposed to be doing something about it, it’s even worse. So, you know, saving someone’s job is really satisfying and, and, not saving or being able to save someone’s job is really devastating.

(Jake)

Rob echoed Jake’s sentiment as well when he described a similar layoff situation at his university. As a faculty association president, Rob affirmed that his
most rewarding experience was “literally saving people’s job…. That was really kind of cool.” However, Rob, like other FALs, discovered it was equally “disappointing and really frustrating [when others were] laid off in the end, no matter what.”

In brief, this section revealed that FALs learned how to perform their related job tasks through OJT experiences. Although participants rated the formal training provided by their university’s affiliated faculty association as “good,” they believed it did not adequately address issues specific to higher education. In addition, FALs found that attaining a sense of balance between their faculty responsibilities and faculty association business concerns was difficult to achieve, and for this reason, experienced a reduction in their faculty research productivity during their tenure as a faculty association leader.

In regard to FALs most challenging and negative experiences they faced, respectively, participants identified that working with and effectively representing faculty members as their primary challenge and divulged that having to deal with disgruntled faculty members was the most negative aspect of their position. FALs associated both their most rewarding and devastating experiences to their ability, or inability, to resolve issues that would save a faculty member’s job. FALs felt devastated when they could not prevent faculty layoffs.

**Essential Skills of Faculty Association Leaders**

“And so the patience, the flexibility, the literacy, the human qualities to be able to speak to the people who are distraught…all those things are important factors for the job.” – Karen

This section of chapter four, *Essential Skills of Faculty Association Leaders*, directly responds to research question number two: What skills do current faculty
association leaders at Illinois public four-year universities perceive are essential for leading a faculty governance unit? FALs identified and described skills within two categorical classifications: professional skills and personal skills. For this reason, participants’ perceptions of essential skills for leading a faculty governance unit are presented using this format.

**Professional Skills**

Critical to the success of their position, participants identified the ability to communicate effectively as the primary professional skill a faculty association leader must possess to competently carry out his/her duties. FALs believed that to effectively respond to questions from the university’s faculty, or administrative branch, that one must possess an intellectual capacity and command of quality communication skills. Joy found that having exemplary “communication skills, both verbal and written…made a difference” in her ability to establish a “good rapport” with administrators and her constituents. Jake too shared this opinion and told me:

> It helps if you can speak well, including extemporaneously, like if something comes up at one of these meeting that you need to make a brief speech. You need to be able to speak well off-the-cuff. It helps if you can write well and craft a memo, a handout that goes to the membership, or something like that. (Jake)

Unlike Jake, Mary’s idea of indispensable communication skills focused narrowly upon verbal communications. Mary exclusively identified verbal communication skills as most important. Acting as a chief negotiator, Mary summarized that her communication tasks involved “simple things, like being able to
construct an argument…and being able to communicate with members.”

In contrast, Brian and Adam uniquely acknowledged the importance of written communication skills. Brian, a faculty association president, found that “being a good writer” was essential to his success, while Adam, a grievance officer, opined that “there’s a huge amount of reading and writing…[and a] lot of it is, surprisingly, just proper grammar.” Appropriately summarizing participants’ mutually shared perceptions regarding essential professional skills most required of their position, Larry elaborated: “It’s all about communication; that’s really the bottom line.”

**Personal Skills**

In regard to personal attributes and/or skills that FALs found advantageous to possess, only half of the participants’ responses brought forth a common theme. These six participants perceived that individuals who are empathetic listeners, in conjunction with having the capacity to be open-minded and flexible to circumstances on-hand, are best suited in a faculty association leadership position.

As a faculty association president, Rhonda believed “listening…[and having] empathy in a way for both sides [i.e., administration and faculty members]” served her well in her position. Sharing a similar opinion, Mary, a chief negotiator, commented that a faculty association leader should possess “the ability to feel [or] understand what other faculty…daily lives are like.” In her position as a grievance officer, Karen not only noted the necessity for one to possess the ability to empathetically understand what others feel, but also pointed out the need for flexibility. She remarked:

You have to be flexible, that is…to speak to the people that are distraught, they are upset…and they have to view you as someone they can trust…. You
have to be a person who can understand and empathize with other
people…that ability to share someone’s feelings, their angst, their anxiety,
[and] all that sort of stuff. (Karen)

Paralleling Rhonda’s aforementioned theme of shared empathy “for both sides
[i.e., administration and faculty members],” Travis described “flexibility” as the
ability “to see both sides” simultaneously. Brian proposed that flexibility and open
mindedness worked hand-in-hand. He noted that “it’s very important to get outside
of…the single mindset or, you know, you have to be able to adapt to – to do such a
basic thing as being able to adapt to the situation” (Brian).

Although only half of the participants shared a common perception regarding
personal skills that are most befitting to possess when leading a faculty governance
unit, these participants also shared the common belief that empathetic listeners who
possess the ability to understand others feelings “by placing yourself in others shoes”
(Travis) are most befitting as a faculty association leader.

This section presented research findings relative to the skills FALs perceived
are essential for leading a faculty governance unit. FALs identified and described two
categorical classifications of skills: professional skills and personal skills.
Professional skills relate to the competencies necessary for completing job tasks.
Personal skills relate to interpersonal and listening characteristics of an individual. It
was discovered that the most essential professional skill a faculty association leader
needs to possess is the ability to communicate effectively. In regard to personal skills
most befitting for a faculty association leader, participants perceived that FALs should
possess the ability to be an open-minded empathetic listener.
Summary

This chapter reported the findings of a qualitative study with the purpose of identifying the roles and skills of present-day faculty association leaders within Illinois’ public four-year universities with a collective bargaining unit. The perceptions and life experiences of 12 faculty association leaders participating in this study were revealed through the analysis of interview data and a demographic data sheet. Major themes included: demographic profile, why become a faculty association leader, role perceptions of faculty association leaders, experiences of faculty association leaders, and essential skills of faculty association leaders.

Overall, the underlying reason most participants became involved as FALs was due to the encouragement they received from their colleagues. With the exception of only one participant, those interviewed did not view their role as that of a leader but instead that of a contract manager. As contract managers, participants primarily acted as communicators and faculty representatives. As communicators, FALs found themselves involved with tasks relating to answering faculty and administration queries regarding union related issues. As a faculty representative, participants’ revealed that their responsibilities mainly focused upon faculty association governance issues, including faculty grievance related tasks and contract negotiations.

Although FALs classified their union affiliated training as “good,” most felt it did not adequately or properly address post-secondary governance issues. Instead, participants described on-the-job training as their primary learning method regarding how they gained the necessary knowledge to perform their faculty association duties.
Due to what they perceived as a drastic reduction of available time, participants found it difficult to strike a balance between their faculty association duties and traditional faculty duties. And for this reason, participants’ acknowledged that the research component of their faculty responsibilities was the area most negatively affected by their additional faculty association duties.

When recounting their most challenging experiences as FALs, participants commonly exposed three issues: dealing with faculty members, particularly those who repeatedly had issues that seemed to exacerbate on their own; trying to appropriately serve and represent their constituents; and learning to disconnect emotionally from their faculty association position. Participants related their most negative experiences to the indignant conduct of disgruntled faculty members they represented; but on the contrary, portrayed both their most rewarding and devastating experiences to their ability/inability to resolve issues that resulted in saving/loosing a faculty member’s job.

Overwhelmingly, participants believed that the most essential professional skill a faculty association leader should possess is the ability to communicate effectively through both verbal and written communication skills. In regard to the most beneficial personal attribute and/or skill that a faculty association leader should possess, half of the participants responded that those who are empathetic listeners with the capacity to be open-minded and flexible to circumstances on-hand would be best suited in their position. In Chapter 5, I present a summary of the study, conclusions, discussion of emerging themes, and recommendations.
CHAPTER 5
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study investigated the role perceptions and essential skills of faculty association leaders (FALs) at Illinois public four-year universities with collective bargaining. Chapter one introduced the framework for discussing role perceptions and essential skills of FALs. Chapter two served to review related literature. Chapter three explained the research methodology and procedures that were employed in this study. Chapter four presented the results of the study. This final chapter presents a brief summary of the study, conclusions drawn from the findings, a discussion of major themes that emerged from the study, and recommendations from the study and for further research.

Summary

Faculty association leaders perform their duties under the realm of undefined roles. A review of related literature provided the researcher with prevailing literature on faculty leaders’ role perceptions, role expectations and experiences, and factors that affect role perceptions. Nevertheless, very few of these studies addressed the roles and skills of FALs at an operational level. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to identify the roles and skills of present-day FALs within Illinois’ public four-year universities with a collective bargaining unit and distinguish tangible actions of these individuals as they exercised their everyday roles in this professional capacity. Furthermore, FALs’ perceptions of essential skills required of their positions were identified.
To address the purpose of the study, the researcher explored perceptions and life experiences of 12 faculty association leaders at the 6 Illinois public 4-year universities with collective bargaining units. These participants provided data that exposed a perspective in answering the research questions regarding the roles, skills, and related experiences of FALs at these Illinois public four-year universities.

Qualitative data were collected through recorded telephone and personal interviews between July 29, 2010, and October 6, 2010, with the assistance of a researcher designed interview guide (Appendix C). Prior to each interview, additional demographic data were collected by means of a researcher designed demographic data sheet (Appendix A). The data were analyzed manually with the assistance of ATLAS.ti, a qualitative data management computer program. The following section presents conclusions, which are supported by the findings and results of the data analysis.

**Conclusions**

Conclusions are drawn from the emerging themes of the the qualitative data analysis and results of the study. The two research questions that guided this study focused upon the roles and skills of present-day FALs within Illinois’ public four-year universities with a collective bargaining unit. These research questions brought forth data that exposed tangible actions of FALs as they exercised their everyday roles in this professional capacity. The following conclusions are discussed according to their relationship to prior research, participants’ viewpoints, and prominent themes that emerged throughout the study.
Conclusions for Research Question 1

What are the roles and related experiences of current faculty association leaders at Illinois public four-year universities?

Tenure status of faculty association leaders. Eleven of the 12 participants held the faculty rank of associate or full professor. From this finding, a conclusion can be drawn that new (i.e., assistant professors) faculty members do not become as involved as faculty association leaders as do senior faculty members (i.e., tenured faculty members). This conclusion is contrary to a research study completed by Pope and Miller’s (1999b), where they deduced that senior faculty members do not to care to concern themselves with faculty leadership.

Role perceptions of faculty association leaders. Few participants described their faculty association role as one with leadership standing, that is, a role that allowed them to personally influence others to achieve a common goal that would not otherwise be reached without them. Alternately, most participants tied their leadership roles to tasks primarily associated to that of a contract manager (i.e., task oriented). As earlier defined by Miller (1996), task oriented leaders perceive themselves as ones who are primarily concerned with leadership tasks such as conducting meetings, distributing information to their constituents, or contacting personal. Process oriented leaders are those who primarily consider themselves accountable for allowing faculty members the avenues to feely express their opinions. In relationship to Miller’s faculty governance leaders’ role orientation classifications, all respondents participating in my study have clearly established themselves as task oriented. This is of significance, due that this finding is contrary to the results of
several earlier quantitative studies (Miller, 1996; Miller & Pope, 2000, Pope & Miller, 1999b) where participants were asked how they “perceived” their faculty leadership roles. In these studies, Miller and Pope determined that the majority of their participants (i.e., faculty leaders) perceived themselves to be process oriented – not task oriented – and unlike my participants, were therefore primarily concerned with creating avenues for faculty members to freely speak out.

As aforementioned, throughout this study FALs described their roles as those relating to a contract manager, that is, one who primarily interprets, negotiates, and defends the faculty contract, in conjunction with informing their constituents to contractual matters of concern. Replicating the findings found in Neumann’s (1987b) study, by means of these role descriptors, FALs inadvertently authenticated an agenda that focuses upon defending the rights, needs, and general welfare of the faculty. Prior to defending the faculty contract and faculty rights, FALs recognized the significance of first possessing the capacity to accurately interpret the faculty contract before proceeding with other union duties. Subsequently, this act allows them the ability to respond to faculty and administration quires to establish if, or how, an issue may be of concern to the union and what constitutes a contract violation. Therefore, acting as contract managers, FALs watch over the rights, needs, and general welfare of the faculty body.

Communicators and representatives. As advocates for the faculty, FALs primarily act as communicators and faculty representatives. In the role of a communicator, FALs often listen to constituents’ concerns to establish if an issue is of contractual relevance. If so, they offer union assistance. If not, then acting as a
communicator, they inform faculty members to what the faculty contract does or does not entitle them to.

Likewise, FALs frequently communicate with the faculty body to alert them to current contractual issues being addressed with the university’s administration. Through meetings and email correspondences, FALs inform the faculty body to the union’s position on matters at hand; the union’s interpretation of the faculty contract, in regard to current issues of concern; and the impact of how these issues may affect faculty employment at the university.

When representing faculty in times of disputes, FALs defend the faculty contract and therefore the rights of the faculty. Throughout the interviews, faculty association presidents and grievance officers clearly signified that grievance related issues consumed the largest portion of their position’s time. Predominately, FALs deal with grievance issues linked to negative evaluations faculty members receive from their supervisors. These negative evaluations consequently create additional grievance issues associated with poor merit based promotions and the possibility of a faculty member not being granted tenure or retained. This finding is similar to a conclusion reached by Kater (2003), where she identified grievance related issues as the most common area of formally recognized faculty participation activities in governance.

Faculty association leaders generally desire to settle grievance disputes informally with the university’s administration. This conclusion is supported through participants’ stories, which detailed that more than half of all grievance disputes they dealt with were resolved in this manner. Often, FALs act in an advisory role for
faculty members who are having administrative sanctions imposed against them. In this role, and also when FALs act as legal representatives for a faculty member during grievance proceedings, FALs protect the rights and needs of the faculty by establishing and informing them of their contractual rights.

Participants’ descriptions of their experiences suggest that beyond addressing contractual and grievance related issues, FALs routinely attend union executive board meetings to address governance issues. Executive board meetings provide FALs with opportunities to review current matters of business, including active and impending grievance issues, and develop strategies to address them. When contract negotiations take place with the university’s administration, FALs meet often (i.e., weekly) to review proposals made by the administration, develop counter offers, and write applicable responses.

Learning roles and performance of duties. To a small extent, formal training opportunities are available for FALs and consist of workshops, training sessions, and/or conferences offered by their university’s faculty affiliated union (e.g., IEA/NEA, IFT/AFT). Although FALs rated this formal training as “good,” not one participant described any union affiliated training experience to be of great personal value or critical to their success as a faculty governance leader. Essentially, FALs believe that union affiliated training is not well tailored or specific enough to higher education governance issues. Contrary to formal training, all participants described learning their roles and related performance of duties informally through one, or a combination, of the following on-the-job training activities: self-execution of job tasks, mentoring, and job shadowing.
Experiences of faculty association leaders. From participants’ life stories, this study demonstrates that the foremost reason a faculty member becomes involved as a faculty association leader is due to the encouragement they receive from colleagues. In addition, and concurring with several earlier studies (Miller, 1996, 1997; Miller & Pope, 2000), the findings also support that FALs choose to on take additional union duties to fulfill personal desires. FALs are motivated by a sense of personal responsibility, to serve and equitably represent the faculty body by defending faculty rights.

Although five out of six Illinois public four-year universities with a faculty collective bargaining unit provide FALs some type of official release time to attend to their official duties, participants found it quite difficult to achieve a sense of balance between their responsibilities as a faculty member and a faculty governance officer. Participants’ descriptions suggest that FALs are unable to achieve this balance due to time constraints caused from their devotion to faculty association issues. As a result, FALs asserted that out of their official faculty responsibilities (i.e., teaching, research, service), time constraints most negatively affected their ability to attend to their research related activities. Thus, this study supports the conclusion that a faculty member’s research agenda is the area of their faculty responsibilities most negatively affected when holding a faculty association leadership position.

Overall, FALs described being treated fairly and professionally by the university’s administrative staff and had not experienced any tangible repercussions from their employers for their involvement with the union. FALs’ most negative experiences involved working with malcontent faculty members who displayed...
unprofessional conduct due to feeling treated unfairly by the faculty association and/or university’s administration. In regards to resolving employment disputes with the administration, FALs feel many times faculty members hold unrealistic expectations to what they can do for them. For this reason, FALs felt challenged not to oversell what they could do for their constituents, but still to do as much as they are contractually allowed. Dealing with disgruntled faculty members was classified by participants as a “most challenging” aspect of their faculty association position.

At times, FALs face situations where they might be required to represent a faculty member in a manner that might not align with their personal principles, or similarly, to negotiate contractual matters of concern with university administrators who hold a different ideology of faculty governance than they do. Their role as a faculty association leader necessitates the need to stay objective in order to act as an advocate for the faculty. During these times of conflict and personal stress, FALs found it challenging not to become emotionally involved.

One issue equates to both FALs most rewarding and most devastating experiences: The most rewarding and devastating experiences that FALs endure are related to their ability, or inability, to save a faculty member’s job. When unable to save a faculty member’s job, participants described disappointment and a terrible feeling of frustration and guilt. For several FALs, these feelings even led to “survivor’s guilt” over remaining gainfully employed after other faculty members had lost their jobs. Nonetheless, FALs overwhelmingly related their most rewarding experiences as saving faculty members jobs, describing how rewarding and “really
cool” it was to represent a faculty member on their behalf to prevent the loss of their faculty position.

Conclusions for Research Question 2

What skills do current faculty leaders at Illinois public four-year universities perceive are essential for leading a faculty governance unit?

Professional Skills. The findings of this study clearly support the conclusion that the foremost professional skill faculty association leaders perceive as essential for leading a faculty governance unit is the ability to communicate effectively. This conclusion directly parallels researchers Miller and Pope’s (Miller, 1997; Miller & Pope, 2003; Pope & Miller, 1999b) findings in three of their studies where they discovered that faculty governance leaders (i.e., four-year college and university faculty governance leaders, community college presidents) perceived communication skills as a vital component to possess for effective leadership of a faculty governance unit.

As I previously described, FALs act as contract managers who negotiate and defend the contract in conjunction with informing faculty members to contractual matters of concern. Accordingly, FALs’ duties necessitate communication skills that allow them the capacity to effectively respond to inquiries from university faculty and/or administrators. Both verbal and written communication skills are of equal significance to FALs. For example: grievance officers verbally construct arguments to defend faculty members, faculty presidents partake in speeches to inform the faculty to matters of concern, chief negotiators write contract proposals and/or present them verbally to the administration. Thus, quality communication skills open
pathways for FALs, promote a rapport with faculty members and university
administrators, and provide a means for FALs to complete their duties. All of these
actions are critical to the success of a faculty association leader.

**Personal Skills.** From the reflections of half of the participants, a common
theme emerged regarding personal skills and/or attributes they perceived as
advantageous for faculty association leaders to possess. FALs believe that those who
are empathetic listeners – and who have the capacity to be open-minded and flexible
to circumstances on-hand – possess the personal skills best suited for a faculty
governance leader. This conclusion starkly disagrees with Pope and Miller’s (2003)
research results; as a combined group response, Pope and Miller found their
participants (i.e., faculty governance leaders and college presidents at community
colleges), perceived the least important skill for faculty leadership was sensitivity of
personal feelings when working with others.

Unlike Pope and Miller’s (2003) research, some participants in this study
believed that when working with distraught faculty members a faculty association
leader should above all possess the ability to empathetically understand what others
are feeling – to hypothetically have the ability to place themselves into others shoes.
Similarly, FALs felt to equitably represent the faculty body that they must acquire the
ability to “feel” what other faculty members’ lives are about.

Along with possessing the ability to empathetically understand what others are
feeling, FALs noted the personal need to be open minded and flexible. This aspect
was deemed essential to promoting their capacity to comprehend all facets of any
given situation. FALs need to remain open to seeing all sides of an issue (e.g., faculty, administration) in order to offer possible solutions to a particular issue.

**Discussion**

What are the roles of FALs at four year public universities with a collective bargaining unit? Where are these roles clearly distinguished? These are the questions to bear in mind because the respondents themselves cannot answer these questions. When asked to identify their roles as FALs, most (n=10; 83%) participants could not. Instead, participants immediately redirected their replies to descriptions of related job tasks they performed as FALs. To clarify this point with a hypothetical scenario: If one were to ask a police officer to identify his/her role, one might hear the response, “I protect and serve the public.” A citizen would not expect a police officer to describe his/her role as specific job tasks such as “I chase criminals and write speeding tickets.” Unfortunately, when FALs in this study were asked to identify their roles, almost all reverted to descriptions of job tasks they performed as FALs.

Without a strong sense of role clarity FALs are unclear to the behaviors that are expected of them. Role clarity provides a clear vision to the job tasks that must be performed and how they should be performed. Without role clarity, FALs pursue their job tasks in an inefficient manner; only to then later possibly gain an awareness of their roles, if ever at all. Until FALs possess a strong sense of role clarity they are unable to proactively establish an agenda for the faculty association, create an effective rapport with the administration and faculty they represent, or develop a consensus among their constituents to effectively support or challenge administrative
policy makers. A lack of role clarity leads to unproductive practices and procedures that do not promote a resourceful use of human and financial resources.

Why could FALs not definitively describe their roles? I believe the answer is twofold. First, the roles of FALs at four-year public universities have never been clearly established or identified. Second, FALs receive little, if any, orientation to the leadership positions they fill. Like a child learning to swim who should first receive basic swimming lessons but is nonetheless thrown head first into a body of water, FALs enter their union positions without any preparatory training. And like an untrained child thrown in the body of water, they either “sink or swim.”

Without exception, FALs identified communication skills as the foremost essential skill needed for leading a faculty governance group. Related literature (Miller, 1997; Miller & Pope, 2003; Pope & Miller, 1999b) bolsters this finding. In all of Miller and Pope’s studies, their respondents (i.e., faculty governance leaders) perceived that the ability to communicate well, through both oral and written processes, was a cardinal skill required of faculty governance leaders. Considering that all actions taken by FALs involve some type of communication, FALs realize that their true success is dependent upon their ability to successfully interact with faculty members, various constituencies, and particularly university administrators. Effective communication is beneficial skill that can assist in bringing down barriers between factions. In view of the recent poor relationships between some faculty unions and university administrations at Illinois public four-year universities with collective bargaining, one can easily comprehend that effective communication between factions is critical to the elimination of this barrier.
Recommendations from the Study

Based on the results of the study, faculty members become involved as faculty association leaders due to the encouragement they receive from their faculty colleagues. This finding implies that any recruitment strategy developed to enlist new faculty union officers should include the promotion of a good rapport with faculty, and more significantly, be highly inclusive of the use of “encouragement” by faculty members and current FALs.

FALs fill undefined roles and thus naively step into their faculty association leadership positions. For this reason, university affiliated faculty unions, or campus chapters, need to seriously consider how they operate and prepare future FALs. There is a fundamental need to develop faculty union based leadership with at least the same virtue as new faculty members receive when entering their teaching positions. One consideration should involve the development of orientation materials applicable to faculty leadership positions and formal orientation sessions for new FALs. These functions should minimally identify the mission of the faculty association, related roles, and duties expected of FALs. Of further consideration should be the establishment of an overlapping time period between incoming and outgoing FALs. Prior to their installation, this time overlap would allow new FALs the opportunity to learn about the roles and duties of their new position by working with faculty association officers.

Although affiliated union training offered to FALs was rated as “good,” FALs did not consider it to be appropriately applicable to unique post-secondary institutional issues. Considering that FALs primarily learned to perform their faculty
governance duties through on-the-job training experiences, relevant training opportunities should be developed by the university’s affiliated union to specifically address the needs of FALs at Illinois public four-year universities. Furthermore, seeing that the largest portion of a faculty association leader’s time is spent addressing grievance-related issues, specific training should be offered to address these issues appropriately.

As communicators and faculty representatives, FAL frequently reply to faculty and administration queries. To effectively put forward their unions’ agendas, FALs must possess the ability to communicate with their faculty members, administrators, and other constituents without fear of being scrutinized because of poor communication skills. Therefore, faculty members who are considering a faculty association leadership position should be made aware by veteran FALs that they must possess exceptional communication skills. If incoming or veteran FALs neglect or are unwilling to develop quality communication skills, their success as a faculty association leader will be compromised.

**Recommendations for Further Study**

Based on the experience of this study, the following recommendations are made for further research. Future research on the topic of roles of faculty association leaders should include an in-depth study of the perceptions of higher education administrators at Illinois public four-year universities with a collective bargaining unit on the roles they perceive that faculty association leaders should fill. A study of this sort would present an additional perspective to those described in this study. Additionally, a study of this kind might promote a dialogue between factions (i.e.,
faculty and administration) in support of establishing mutually recognized roles for FALs.

Data collected from faculty association leaders indicated that union affiliated training does not adequately address the needs of post-secondary university FALs. Further study needs to be completed to determine the explicit subject matter that should be addressed and integrated into union affiliated curriculum and instructional workshops. These studies should be inclusive to the education of the roles of FALs, preparations for the roles, and actual training for the identified tasks of the roles. Similarly, a specific study determining job tasks at the micro level for each faculty association leadership position would be of substantial value to the development of related job training materials.

Although the skill of problem analysis did not rise to thematic prominence in this study, it was perceived as an essential leadership skill in previous studies (Miller, 1997; Pope & Miller, 1999b; Miller & Pope, 2003). For this reason, the skill of problem analysis needs to be further understood as part of FALs professional skills. Additional research needs to address this issue.

This study exposed that successful FALs negotiate multiple aspects of their roles. At times, FALs must be able to fill the role of a leader, manager, negotiator, communicator, educator, representative, and advocate. Therefore, further research should be conducted to identify the context of how FALs view and negotiate their roles. In doing so, a more complete understanding of how FALs fulfill their roles at an operational level may be reached.
In conclusion, a study of this nature should also be replicated in the future at public four-year universities with a collective bargaining in other states to further validate the results of this study. This is of particular importance, seeing that the conclusions of this study are both supported and rejected by earlier related research.
References


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Nigro, D. D. (1978). Faculty association collective bargaining leaders: Types and needs (Doctoral dissertation, Rutgers University The State University of New


APPENDICES
APPENDIX A

Demographic Data

Gender: ____ Male _____ Female

Age: ____________

Faculty Classification: _________________________________________________

Length of time in current faculty association leadership position: ____________

Length of time and title of any previously held faculty association leadership position(s): ____________________________________________________________

Academic Discipline: _________________________________________________
APPENDIX B

Consent Letter for Participation and Audio Taping

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH AND TO ALLOW AUDIO TAPING

May 2010

Thank you for your agreeing to participate in this research project being conducted by Keith Reinhardt, doctoral candidate in the Department of Educational Administration at Southern Illinois University Carbondale. Your participation is strictly voluntary and you may refuse to answer any question at any time during the interview without penalty. You may also conclude your participation at any time during the interview without penalty. Your responses to the questions will be audio taped, and the tape will be transcribed. Once the tape has been transcribed, it will be erased. A code number on the tape and transcription will identify you. The list of code numbers will be kept separate from the tapes in a locked file cabinet. Only the researcher and his advisor will have access to the code and tapes. All reasonable steps will be taken to protect your identity.

I have read the information above, and any questions I asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in this activity and know that my responses will be taped recorded. I understand a copy of this form will be made available to me for the relevant information and phone numbers.

________________________________________  __________________
Signature of participant                         Date

CONSENT TO ALLOW QUOTING:

I consent to _____ I do not consent to_____ allow Keith Reinhardt to quote me in his paper.

________________________________________  __________________
Signature of participant                         Date

Notes: This study has been reviewed and approved by the SIUC Human Subjects Committee. Questions concerning your rights as a participant in this research may be addressed to the Committee Chairperson, Office of Research Development and Administration, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, IL. 62901-4707. Phone (618) 453-4533 or e-mail siuhsc@siu.edu

William Bradley Colwell, Associate Dean
Southern Illinois University
College of Education and Human Services-SIUC
Mailcode: 4624
Carbondale, IL 62901
APPENDIX C

Interview Guide

1) Your current faculty association leadership position is that of (position of interviewee). Could you tell me about any other related past or present roles or positions you have held simultaneously?

2) So you have held some type of faculty association office for a total of how many years? Follow-up: Previous to this, did you ever hold an administrative position?

3) Please tell me about the roles you currently fill.

4) Linked to the performance of the roles you just described, how did you learn to carry out the associated job tasks? Were there any type of training opportunities offered to you, and if so, how would you rate the value of these experiences?

5) To meet the obligations of this position, please describe to me a typical day in your life as a (position of interviewee).

6) How do you balance your faculty responsibilities – teaching, research, and service – with your faculty association responsibilities?

7) What elements of this position have you found to be the most challenging?

8) What negative aspects or repercussions you have experienced while holding this position?

9) Please describe two of your most rewarding experiences, and likewise, two of your most disappointing experiences?

10) Now that you have been in this position for _____ years, tell me, what professional skills do you feel are essential for successfully leading a faculty association?

11) Are there any specific personal skills or personal attributes that you believe are most suitable for this position? Follow up: Do you believe these skills and/or attributes can be learned, and if so, how?

12) If a close cohort was considering a faculty association position, such as yours, what advise would you give to them to prepare them for this new experience?
APPENDIX D

Delivered-To: kreinhardt@roe30.roe30.k12.il.us
Delivered-To: alias-localdelivery-kreinhardt@roe30.org
X-Virus-Checked: Checked by ClamAV on roe30.k12.il.us
X-Spam-Status: No, hits=0.0 required=5.0
tests=HTML_MESSAGE,SPF_PASS
X-Spam-Check-By: roe30.k12.il.us
Date: Thu, 05 Nov 2009 16:30:15 -0700
From: Qualis Research <info@qualisresearch.com>
User-Agent: Thunderbird 2.0.0.23 (Windows/20090812)
To: "Reinhardt, Keith" <kreinhardt@roe30.org>
Subject: Re: Permission of Author

Keith,

Yes. Here is a link to a suggested citation for the paper.

http://www.qualisresearch.com/qda_paper.htm

What is your research about?

John Seidel, Ph.D

Reinhardt, Keith wrote:
Sirs;

I am requesting your help. As a graduate student at Southern Illinois University Carbondale in the
Department of Educational Administration I am completing my doctoral research project. The purpose
of my contacting you is to ask if I may include in my dissertation Figure 1 - The Data Analysis Process
on page two of Appendix E: Qualitative Data Analysis by Mr. John V. Seidel. Of course, full credit will
be given as per your instructions.

Thank you for your time and consideration in this matter.

Respectfully,

Keith B. Reinhardt

Keith Reinhardt
Jackson/Perry Counties Regional
Career & Technical Education Director
Perry County Government Building
P.O. Box 285
Pinckneyville, IL. 62274
Office (618) 357-9822
Fax (618) 357-2828
Appendix E

Telephone Recruitment Script

To Selected Faculty Association Leaders:

Because you are a faculty association leader at an Illinois public four-year university with a collective bargaining unit, I am requesting your assistance. My name is Keith Reinhardt. I am a graduate student at Southern Illinois University Carbondale in the Department of Educational Administration. I am conducting a doctoral research study entitled “Perceptions of Faculty Association Leaders: Roles and Essential Skills.” The purpose of my study is to identify the roles and skills of faculty association leaders within Illinois’ public four-year universities with a collective bargaining unit.

Because of your current status as a faculty association leader in Illinois, you have met the participant criterion for this study and have been identified as a potential interview candidate. I would greatly appreciate your participation in this study. If you choose to participate in the study, the personal or telephone interview process would take approximately 60 minutes and would be conducted at your convenience between May 2010 and July 2010.

The interview questions do not ask for identification of specific respondents and the confidentiality of the records will be maintained within legal limits. No personal information (i.e., name, institution, e-mail address) will be identified with the responses.

If you agree to participate in this study, I will mail, fax, or e-mail you a copy of a consent to interview and interview protocol. After I receive your signed permission to interview and tape record, I will again call or e-mail you to arrange a time for a telephone interview, or a time and location for a personal interview, whichever best fits your schedule.

Your participation in this study will be greatly appreciated. With your assistance, we can gain valuable knowledge about roles and essential skills of faculty association leaders as they carry-out their duties.

Notes: This study has been reviewed and approved by the SIUC Human Subjects Committee. Questions concerning your rights as a participant in this research may be addressed to the Committee Chairperson, Office of Research Development and Administration, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, IL. 62901-4707. Phone (618) 453-4533 or e-mail siuhsc@siu.edu
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