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Mailing Address:
The QUEST Journal Office
2901 Liberty Heights Avenue
Baltimore, Maryland 21215

E-Mail: TheQUEST@bccc.edu \hspace{1cm} Phone: 410.462.7745
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The QUEST: Journal of Higher Education Excellence

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The Editors are looking for manuscripts that take as their topic the full range of Interdisciplinary and Liberal Arts related issues in primary, secondary and higher education worldwide. It is the hope of the editorial board that reports of quality research and practice will be published from schools around the world. Submitted manuscripts might take the form of (but are not strictly limited to) original empirical articles, theoretical analyses, book reviews, commentaries, literature reviews/conceptual analysis and reports of successful practices in higher education. Theoretically driven studies of hypotheses that have implications for understanding and improving the study and practice of diverse educational communities are particularly encouraged. Authors of manuscripts examining basic theory and research should identify implications for more applied topics, and authors of manuscripts dealing with more applied topics should draw conclusions that are relevant to basic research and theory.

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Authors should follow the guidelines in the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (current ed.) when preparing manuscripts. Manuscripts must include an abstract of approximately 150 words (maximum of 1200 characters, including spaces) that succinctly summarizes the key points. Authors should avoid using abbreviations, symbols, and footnotes. Manuscripts cannot exceed 25 pages, including references, tables, and figures. All submitted manuscripts will be blind reviewed so that the author(s) cannot be identified. In addition to email addresses, web site address, and fax numbers if available, authors should include physical addresses and telephone numbers as well. Authors should also list two to five key words to identify the contents of their paper. Submit manuscripts in Microsoft Word format, via the manuscript submission email at TheQUEST@bcc.edu or mail to the address below.

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Welcome to the *QUEST: Journal of Higher Education Excellence* (QJHEE). QJHEE is a peer-reviewed, online published journal devoted to advancing scholarship and practice in the areas of Interdisciplinary Studies, Multicultural Education, and Minority Males in education with an emphasis on the African American and Hispanic male. QJHEE publishes research on a variety of educational issues. More so, QJHEE features articles that are grounded in research, theory and experiential knowledge, as well as, promote critical examination of issues facing minority males in education.
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Professor Vance, Executive Director of Journal Publications

*The QUEST: Journal of Higher Education Excellence*

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Baltimore, Maryland 21215
An Examination of Maryland Community College Trustees’ Intentions to Promote Succession Planning

Dr. Daphne Renee Snowden, Dean of Academic Operations and Services
Baltimore City Community College

Review of the Literature

The purpose of this study was to examine Maryland community college trustees’ intentions to promote succession planning. This study focused on community college trustees’ understandings of their roles and responsibilities related to sustainability of institutions, their knowledge of the leadership crisis, and their intentions to promote succession planning in Maryland community colleges. Two major concerns guided this research: (a) the projected large numbers of community college leaders and staff retiring and preparing for retirements and (b) the need to ensure that current employees are prepared to successfully transition into leadership positions while maintaining the stability and continuance of the institution.

Starting with the theory of planned behavior as the theoretical framework, a questionnaire was used to measure trustees’ knowledge of the leadership crisis, attitudes towards succession planning, subjective norms about succession planning, and perceived behavioral control of succession planning with trustees’ intentions to promote succession planning in Maryland community colleges. The study employed a quantitative research methodology to collect data from the community college trustees associated with the 16 public community colleges in Maryland.

The data suggested that Maryland community college trustees believe their primary role and responsibility is to appoint and evaluate the institution’s president. The study also revealed that trustees were aware of the pending leadership crisis. In examining succession planning through the lens of the theory of planned behavior, the results suggested that participating trustees had favorable attitudes towards succession planning, felt pressured from the faculty and staff (subjective norms) about succession planning, held favorable perceptions of their perceived behavioral control of succession planning; and indicated intentions to promote succession planning in Maryland community colleges. The data also supported the development of succession planning policies for presidential recruitment and succession planning practices for key positions throughout the institution. Recommendations included: (a) succession planning being incorporated in the institution’s strategic plan, (b) trustees participating in succession planning professional development training, and (c) recruitment practices throughout the institution that incorporated succession planning elements. The study concluded with future research recommendations to further enhance the literature about succession planning in community colleges.

Trustees’ intentions to promote succession planning served as the primary focus for the current study. Succession planning literature was outlined based on: (a) trustees’ attitudes towards succession planning, (b) trustees’ subjective norms about succession planning, and (c) trustees’ perceived behavioral control of succession planning. Other areas addressed in the review of
literature included community college trustees and the leadership crisis in community colleges which established a premise for the current research. The inquiry begins with the leadership crisis.

Due to the baby boomer mass departure from the labor market, a leadership crisis is predicted over the next 10 to 15 years to include the corporate sector, federal government, and higher education including community colleges (Amey & VanDeLinden, 2002; Shults, 2001; U.S. Census Bureau, 2005; Weisman & Vaughan, 2002). “In the first 58 years of their existence, the baby boomer generation has been extremely instrumental in changing every major social institution to include higher education to health care” (Kiyonage, 2004, p. 357). In community colleges the baby boomers represent those “people who helped open the doors of colleges . . . as leaders and presidents, transforming a unique American invention into premier education and training” (Shults, 2001, p. 2).

Community colleges began to evolve in the late 1960s and early 1970s, led by the same group of individuals who are now retiring or approaching retirement at an alarming rate, creating a leadership shortage and a need to hire new leaders (Shults, 2001). “An estimated 6,000 jobs in post-secondary-education administration will have to be filled annually between 2004 and 2014, the rest of the field’s growth and the retirement of current workers, according to the bureau of Labor Statistics” (Luebsdorf, 2006, p. 1). However, it is unknown how the anticipated national retirement trends will affect higher education, but Bowen (2008) concluded that it remains “astonishing the number of institutions which have no succession planning process in place” (p. A40).

One exception was Daytona Beach Community College (DBCC). DBCC successfully implemented a leadership development institute attached to a formalized succession planning process to address its ever evolving leadership retirements. Carroll (2004) reported that DBCC has positioned itself and is prepared to transition multiple employees in various leadership roles as they become available. Further, succession planning has become an ever evolving strategic initiative that impacts all employees at DBCC. Eddy (2010) acknowledged the potential leadership crisis and suggested that trustees consider succession planning practices as a corrective measure. Therefore, the current study examined trustees’ intentions to promote succession planning for community colleges in Maryland.

**Trustees and Governance**

Higher education trustee boards began with “boards of lay trustees as we know them in the United States originated in the Protestant Reformation, especially in Calvinist institutions” (Kerr & Gade, 1989, p. 17). The first higher education governing board of trustees in the United States was created in 1642 at Harvard College. The board was developed when the Massachusetts General Court appointed 12 men from the colony to serve as the board of overseers with full responsibility over the college’s governance and management structures (Kerr & Gade, 1989; Piland & Wolf, 2003; Taylor, 1987). Boards were also established to protect the college’s mission, serve as the institution’s leadership, and as service advocates to the community (Kerr & Gade, 1989; Vaughan, 1982).
Initially, higher education trustees were affiliated with four-year institutions and were comprised of clergy members. However, as higher education evolved the role of the trustees transitioned from clergy members to prominent citizens within the community (Burns, 1966). Consequently, clergy members gradually lost their role as college presidents and were less influential as members of the board of trustees. Clergy trustees were eventually replaced by “conservative men of wealth . . . where by the end of the American Revolution . . . the control of the new nation’s colleges and universities would lie in external hands” (Vaughan & Weisman, 1997, p. 4).

Nason (1982) suggested that higher educational “governing boards constitute an extraordinary group of approximately 38,000 men and women who, without compensation, devote time, intelligence, emotional energy, and money to the welfare of the 3,250 post-secondary institutions for which they are responsible” (p. 4). By 1997, Vaughan and Weisman estimated approximately 46,000 men and women were serving on higher education governing boards. Organizationally, the classic higher education governing board used a pyramid structure with the president at the apex, administrators and faculty in the middle, students at the bottom, and trustees positioned above the pyramid with complete oversight and legal authority over the institution (Nason, 1982).

Similar to four-year universities, two-year colleges were governed by local boards of trustees that incorporated similar values from four-year universities (Smith, 2000). Nason (1982) suggested that the primary difference between governance at universities and community colleges is that community colleges are more focused on establishing relationships and partnerships with K-12, business and industry, and the local community (Nason, 1982). Similarly, the Association of Community College Trustees (2009) suggested that the primary role of a community college trustee is to meet the changing needs of the institution while fulfilling the institution’s mission. Several authors have described the primary function of the board of trustees is to ensure institution consistency, policy development, leadership and resource management (Carver & Carver, 1997; Smith, 2000; Vaughan & Weisman, 1997). Zeiss (1995) suggested that trustees implement an institution’s mission, vision, goals, develop institution policies, and guarantee a strong learner-based environment. Smith (2000) concluded that trustees represent the surrounding community and public good; while ensuring that the institution’s mission, goals, and curricula are aligned to meet the needs of the community.

Vaughan and Weisman (1997) pointed out several facts about trustees. They concluded that trustees approved faculty appointments, promotions, tenure, and salaries. Smith (2000) declared that trustees were primarily responsible for the employment, support, and evaluation of the chief executive officer. Others scholars suggested that the role of the governing board was to service the people through the development of policies that met the needs of the community (Carver & Carver, 1997; Carver & Mayhem, 1994; Smith, 2000; Vaughan & Weisman, 1997).

The literature revealed multiple studies related to community college trustee roles and responsibilities, to include:

1. Trustees’ personal characteristics and attitudes towards institutional roles and governance (Sharrock, 1975);

2. Perceptions of community college trustees and presidents concerning trustee responsibility and effectiveness (Coleman, 1981);
3. Community college trustees’ demographic characteristics and views on selected policy making issues (Verner, 1985);

4. Appointed and elected trustees’ perceptions of important issues and demographics (Whitmore, 1987);

5. A profile of trustees based on characteristics, roles, and functions in a community college system (Hill, 1989);

6. Community college trustees’ perception of their involvement in the area of institution policy (Grabowski, 1994);

7. Trustees’ effectiveness of appointed and elected community college governing boards (Hernandez, 1998);

8. Trustees’ perception of institution mission and governance (Hutchins, 2002);

9. Trustees’ perception of the reasons why governing boards micromanage administrative affairs (Lampton, 2002);

10. The American community college trustees’ perceptions of community college decision process, community college important issues, trustee effectiveness, and collective bargaining (Peterson, 2002);

11. Appointed or elected community college trustees’ perception of community college mission and governance (Hendrix, 2004);

12. Trustees perceptions and preferences in the area of institutional governance activities (McKay, 2004);

13. Trustees’ perceptions of the community college and public engagement (Scott, 2007);

and

14. A profile of the trustees in the Ohio’s two-year college system to include trustees’ characteristics of their roles and responsibilities (Bontrager, 2008).

In Coleman’s (1981) research, *A Study of the Perceptions of Community College Trustees and Presidents Concerning Trustee Responsibility and Effectiveness*, community college trustees’ perceptions were compared to community college presidents’ perceptions in the areas of responsibilities and effectiveness. Findings suggested that trustees and presidents had identical views related to trustees’ responsibilities in the areas of finance, compliance, personnel actions, and collective bargaining. Other findings indicated that trustees and presidents had similar views in regards to trustee responsibilities in the areas of establishing policies, evaluation of the president, and public relations. However, trustees and presidents had strong disagreements in the areas of recruitment and termination of the president. Coleman’s study also concluded that trustees and presidents were in agreement that administration was the number one influence on the board,
but in disagreement on whether trustees should respond directly to student needs; which was ranked very high by trustees and very low by presidents.

In another study, Verner (1985) explored trustees’ demographic characteristics and how their demographics influenced their perceptions of policy development issues. The findings suggested that 77.9% of the trustees had strong involvement in the day-to-day administration of the institution and 90% suggested that the college president served as a mediator and not as a leader. Whitmore (1987) conducted a national study to examine appointed and elected trustees’ perceptions of important issues and demographics. Using the Association of Community College Trustees’ (ACCT) membership database as the research population, Whitmore concluded that trustees believed funding, program development, and admission policies were the most important issues for community college trustees.

In 1989, Hill studied, *A Profile of Trustees: Characteristics, Roles, and Functions in Ohio’s Two-Year College System*, to determine if there was a relationship between trustees’ perceptions of their roles and responsibilities and their demographic characteristics. The research correlated trustees’ personal characteristics with trustees’ perceptions of their roles, functions, and responsibilities; findings disclosed that 73% of Ohio’s community college trustees viewed the selection and appointment of the community college president as their primary responsibility; followed by policy development, assessing institutional performance, and collective bargaining. Hill’s study also revealed that women and minority trustee representation was increasing, but the greater trustee population continued to reflect males over 55 years of age. Furthermore, the study recommended further research in the areas of trustee preparedness, trustee turnover, and a review of the appointment and election process for trustees (Hill, 1989).

Similarly, Bontrager (2008) implemented *A Profile of Trustees Characteristics, Roles, and Responsibilities of Trustees in Ohio’s Two Year College System*; a replicate study of Hill’s research from 1989. Bontrager’s study was designed to:

- Gather information that included personal, career and educational characteristics of the trustees of Ohio’s two year college system,
- Explore trustee training and perceived needs for training,
- Investigate the self-reported perceptions of trustees as they understand the nature of their roles, the depth and breadth of their knowledge and responsibilities. (p. 24)

Findings disclosed that Bontrager’s (2008) and Hill’s (1989) data reflected very little differences in community college trustee profiles. Bontrager’s study concluded that trustees were made up of primarily white males, 50 years of age and over. The study further suggested that 85% of the trustee population held a bachelor’s degree or higher, with 16% at a doctorate or professional level. Additionally, Bontrager proposed that 40% of the participating trustees had not received any initial training or orientation prior to serving as a community college trustee. But, 90% indicated that outside training opportunities were available and that conferences for trustee members had proven to be beneficial training tools. In response to trustees’ knowledge of their roles and responsibilities, Bontrager’s study noted that “75% of the trustee population felt informed about higher education issues that would impact their institutions” (p. 135). The study also proposed that trustees needed to be knowledgeable of assessment measures and results; that ensured effective assessment practices for all operational functions throughout the institution. Also as it
related to trustees’ roles and responsibilities, Bontrager’s study indicated that trustees had limited participation in political advocacy.

In another study, *Perceptions of Community College Trustees on Selected Issues*, Peterson (2002) attempted to “determine if differences existed between the perceptions of appointed and elected community college trustees on factors that affect the decision making process, important issues, trustee effectiveness, and collective bargaining” (p. 62). As with many other trustee perception studies, Peterson also used the members of the Association of Community Colleges Trustees as the research population. Similar to the Hill’s (1989) research, Peterson concluded that trustees agreed that the appointment of the community college president was the primary responsibility of community college trustees. However, Peterson suggested that long-term planning was also viewed as a primary priority for trustees. Findings suggested that trustees should take an active role in maintaining institutional quality. Other findings identified a “statistically significant difference between appointed and elected trustees’ perceptions regarding policy making as an important issue for trustees; elected trustees indicated more interest in policy making than appointed trustees” (Peterson, 2002, p. 42).

Numerous studies concluded that trustees felt their primary responsibilities included institution policy development and the appointment and evaluation of the chief executive officer (Coleman, 1981; Hill, 1989; Peterson, 2002; Verner, 1985; Whitmore, 1987). The literature also revealed that community college trustees had the legal and ethical responsibility over academic programs, shaping long-term goals, institutional performance, and serving as an advocate on behalf of the institution (Nason, 1982; Smith, 2000; Vaughan, 1995; Vaughan & Weisman, 1997). While governing boards vary widely from state to state, college to college, centralized and decentralized, two-year and four-year institutions, appointed and elected, governing boards all share a common goal and obligation to represent the community and the public good (Smith, 2000).

Table 1 provides a community college governance profile for the trustee population in the United States (Smith, 2000). The table shows the number of public community and tribal colleges per state. Delaware has one existing community college, indicating that it is the state with the least number of community colleges and California, with 108 community colleges is the state with the most community colleges. The table also reflects the number of community college boards of trustees throughout the United States, indicating that many community colleges do not have a local board of trustees and others range from 1-73 boards of trustees within a designated state. The table also shows whether trustees were appointed or elected to serve at a community college. Nationally, 23 states have appointed boards and 13 states have elected boards of trustees. (d) Lastly, the table summarized the various sizes of community college boards of trustees throughout the United States. Some community college boards have as few as five trustees and other community colleges have as many as 30 trustees.
Table 1

_Governance Systems by State_

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Number of public &amp; tribal colleges</th>
<th>(#) of Boards</th>
<th>Appointed or Elected</th>
<th>Size of Board</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alabama</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>None</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alaska</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Appointed</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arizona</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Elected</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Appointed</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Technical colleges appointed by governor.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>California</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>Elected</td>
<td>5 or 7</td>
<td>1 college has a board of 9 members.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colorado</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Elected</td>
<td>5-7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Connecticut</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>None</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delaware</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>None</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>Appointed</td>
<td>7-11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>Appointed</td>
<td>6-11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idaho</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Elected</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indiana</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Appointed</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iowa</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Elected</td>
<td>7-9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kansas</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Elected</td>
<td>5-8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kentucky</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Appointed</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State</td>
<td>Number of public &amp; tribal colleges</td>
<td>(#) of Boards</td>
<td>Appointed or Elected</td>
<td>Size of Board</td>
<td>Notes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>----------------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Louisiana</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>None</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maine</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>None</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Number of public &amp; tribal colleges</th>
<th>Appointed or Elected</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Maryland</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Appointed</td>
<td>7-10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*Currently has 16 community colleges with 16 individual boards.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Massachusetts</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Appointed</td>
<td>7-12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Michigan</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>Elected</td>
<td>6-8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minnesota</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Minnesota 30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missouri</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>Elected</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Montana</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Elected</td>
<td>6-7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nebraska</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Elected</td>
<td>8-12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nevada</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>None</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Hampshire</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>None</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Jersey</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Appointed</td>
<td>9-14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Mexico</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Appointed</td>
<td>5-10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New York</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>Appointed</td>
<td>8-15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Carolina</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>Appointed</td>
<td>9-17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Average: 12 member boards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Dakota</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Appointed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ohio</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>Appointed</td>
<td>6-10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State</td>
<td>Appointed Elected</td>
<td>Appointed Elected</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oklahoma</td>
<td>17 12 Appointed</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oregon</td>
<td>17 15 Elected</td>
<td>7-8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pennsylvania</td>
<td>18 18 Appointed</td>
<td>14-16</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhode Island</td>
<td>1 None</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Carolina</td>
<td>17 16 Appointed</td>
<td>7-15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Dakota</td>
<td>7 None</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennessee</td>
<td>14 None</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texas</td>
<td>68 56 Elected</td>
<td>5-11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utah</td>
<td>5 5 Appointed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vermont</td>
<td>2 None</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginia</td>
<td>23 23 Appointed</td>
<td>11-14</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Washington</td>
<td>33 31 Appointed</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Virginia</td>
<td>11 1 Appointed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wisconsin</td>
<td>18 17 Appointed</td>
<td>7-16</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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*Currently in Maryland there are 16 community colleges with 16 individual community college trustee boards. As noted in Table 1, Maryland identified 18 community colleges that included Essex Community College, Catonsville Community College, and Dundalk Community Colleges as independent institutions. In 1998 the three colleges merged to form one college: Community College of Baltimore County (Smith, 2000).

In academia, governing boards serve as the highest level of authority where decisions are made, usually in the format of institution policies (Vaughan, 1995). Nason (1982) suggested that “no one should enter into trusteeship lightly. It is an honor to be invited to serve on a college board... and service can be very rewarding” (p. 19). Trustees are responsible for ensuring that institutions are essential components that meet the changing needs in their communities (Smith, 2000). The most direct way that trustees can ensure that community colleges continue to meet the needs of their communities is through the selection, appointment, support, and development of the leadership of their institutions.
LEADERSHIP CRISIS IN COMMUNITY COLLEGES

The literature has suggested that an impending leadership crisis is approaching in community colleges due to the shortage of prepared leaders and administrators ready to step up as the baby boomer retirements take place at all levels throughout institutions (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002; Evelyn, 2001; Shults, 2001; Weisman & Vaughan, 2002). Little (2002) recognized the potential for significant leadership changes with the baby boomers retiring and suggested that trustees take responsibility for their own workforce needs. Given the predictable retirement rates in higher education, trustees are urged to respond quickly (Little, 2002). Shults (2001) suggested that large numbers of executive level administrators and presidents would be retiring during the next decade and for many years thereafter. Likewise, the traditional leadership pipeline of instructional vice presidents and deans are also retiring or preparing for retirements (Shults, 2001; Vaughan & Weisman, 1997). Leubsdorf (2006) concluded that “many colleges expect to lose large chunks of their senior faculty and staff over the next decade” (p. 1). Tenured faculty, who serve as essential personnel that retain institution culture and history will be retiring or planning retirements (Shults, 2001).

Multiple scholars have studied the leadership crisis and their ideas are summarized in the following list:

1. A case study of the leadership crisis and changes in community colleges (Brigham-Sprague, 2001).
2. A retirement crisis in community college leadership, a study of leadership profiles of community college presidents (Freeze, 2005).
3. The impending retirements of community college presidents: a higher education leadership crisis (Vanderwoude, 2005).
4. A perceived crisis in leaders, a case study of women executives (Altman, 2006).
5. Community college leadership in the 21st century (VanDusen, 2006).

In the study, A Case Study of Crisis, Leadership, and Change in the Community College, Brigham-Sprague (2001) examined the relationship between crisis, leadership, and organizational change in American higher education. The research identified the meaning of a governance crisis and how a governance crisis influenced organizational long term goals. Brigham-Sprague conducted a case study of an urban community college where a crisis occurred as a result of the termination of the chief executive officer, forced trustee resignations, loss of state funding, and imposition of institution probationary accreditation status.

Brigham-Sprague’s findings were best described in two categories: governance crisis and leadership transition from crisis to change. The study concluded that: (a) the college had survived and evolved through one complete cycle and that the college needed to transition into another cycle of development; (b) the crisis represented a turning point for the institution that could be favorable or unfavorable; and (c) the crisis was a major factor in the institution’s long term development. The study further suggested that: (d) a governance crisis is more severe than a normal crisis; (e) the crisis served as the motivating factor to recruit new leadership and the development of a new
board of trustees; and (f) new leadership would serve not just as the corrective measure for the current crisis, but as an organizational change unit for the institution.

In another study *A Perceived Crisis in Leadership: A Case Study Related to Women Executives*, Altman (2006) explored how organizations outside of higher education were affected by the perceived leadership crisis. Altman examined whether processes were established to increase women in executive positions as organizations prepared for the leadership crisis. The research addressed five research questions.

1. How will the leadership crisis impact organizations?
2. What succession planning and management tools are being used?
3. How are organizations identifying potential leaders, assessing their skills, and developing those individuals?
4. What are organizations doing to identify and develop women for leadership positions?
5. How is knowledge management approached with succession planning? (Altman, 2006, p. 91)

Altman’s research concluded that all organizations will be impacted by the baby boomer retirements and the extent of the impact will depend on the number of baby boomers retiring, the number who continued to work beyond the normal retirement age, and the number who returned to the workforce after retirement. Findings suggested that individuals were continuing to work; but organizations were not implementing processes to retain retirement eligible employees (Altman, 2006).

The study revealed that one of the five larger participating organizations had a formal succession planning process and three of the five recognized and were developing succession plans. The study also concluded that informal processes were normally used to identify potential leaders; where a manager within the organization informally identified an employee with leadership potential and provided leadership opportunities. Altman observed that smaller organizations utilized informal leadership development programs and larger organizations used formal leadership development programs designed specifically for executive staff.

Overall, the literature indicated that a potential leadership crisis is approaching that will impact all employers, including academia; therefore, increasing the need for leadership development programs for all employees (Altman, 2006; Brigham-Sprague, 2001; Freeze, 2005; Little, 2002; VanDusen, 2006). Shults (2001) concluded that higher education continued to be minimally prepared for the leadership crisis. Little (2002) suggested that trustees be proactive in preparing leaders for the 21st century through leadership training and advancement opportunities for administrators on and off campuses. Institutions need to nurture and “grow their own future leaders, if not for their individual campuses, then for the community college movement as a whole” (Little, 2002, p. 33). Thus, the current study was designed to measure community college trustees’ intentions to promote succession planning using the theory of planned behavior, an extension of the theory of reasoned action.
In 1975, Fishbein and Ajzen collaborated and co-authored the book, *Belief Attitude, Intention and Behavior: An Introduction to Theory and Research*; collectively the authors developed the theory of reasoned action. The theory of reasoned action (TRA) was derived from previous research; research designed to determine and estimate discrepancies between attitudes and behaviors. Researchers have suggested that the theory was, “born largely out of frustration with traditional attitude-behavior research, much of which found weak correlations between attitude measures and performance of volitional behaviors” (Hale, Householder, & Greene, 2003, p. 259).

The primary function of the theory of reasoned action was to determine predictions of behavioral intentions (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). The theory suggested that behavior was determined by a person’s intentions to perform the behavior. Lezin (2007) suggested that “to understand behavior intent, which was seen as the main determinant of behavior, the theory looks at a person’s attitudes towards that behavior as well as the subjective norm of influential people and groups that could influence those attitudes” (p.1). Likewise, intentions were recognized as the precursor to behaviors (Francis, Eccles, Johnston, Walker, Grimshaw, Foy, Kaner, Smith, & Bonetti, 2004). The best predictor of a behavior is explained as a person’s intentions to exhibit the behavior and intention is the cognitive representation of a person's readiness to perform the behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).

Since its inception, the theory of reasoned action has evolved and become a popular research tool to understand human behavior. Sheppard, Hartwick, and Warshaw (1988) insisted the theory of reasoned action be tested and from such, it was determined that the theory had strong predictive effectiveness. However, other scholars including Ajzen questioned whether TRA remained deficient in explaining human behaviors. Thus, Ajzen added a new construct to the theory; he added perceived behavioral control and changed the name from the theory of reasoned action to the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991).

Figure 3 illustrated the theory of reasoned action model and the connection between attitudes and behaviors. According to the theory, attitudes towards the act or behavior combine with the individual’s perceptions of the subjective norm of influential people and groups to influence the person’s intentions to exhibit the behavior. The resulting behavior is dependent upon the person’s intentions to exhibit the behavior.
Theory of Reasoned actions (TRA)

![Diagram of TRA model]

**Figure 3.** A model of theory of reasoned action (TRA), a theory designed to measure correlations between attitudes and subjective norms with behavioral intentions, followed by the correlations between intentions and behaviors (Hale, Householder & Greene, 2003; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).

**THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOR (TpB)**

The theory of planned behavior (TpB) “is an extension of the widely applied theory of reasoned action” (Conner, Povey, Sparks, James, & Shepherd, 2003, p. 76).

This extension involves the addition of one major predictor, perceived behavioral control, to the model. This addition was made to account for times when people have the intention of carrying out a behavior, but the actual behavior is thwarted because they lack confidence or control over behavior. (Miller, 2005, p. 127)

An individual’s intentions to implement a behavior is said to be driven by three factors: (a) an individual’s attitude toward the specific behavior, (b) the individual’s subjective norms surrounding the performance of the behavior, and (c) the individual’s perceived behavioral control over the outcomes of the behavior. Figure 4 depicts the theory of planned behavior model, illustrating the insertion of perceived behavioral control.
Theory of Planned Behavior

![Diagram of Theory of Planned Behavior]

Figure 4. A model of the theory of planned behavior, an extension of the theory of reasoned action. The model depicts the correlations between attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control to intentions, followed by the correlation between intentions and behaviors. The broken line from perceived behavior control to behaviors demonstrates a weak but direct relation between the two. Ajzen (1991). The Theory of Planned Behavior. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Process, 50(2), p. 179-211.

The theory of planned behavior suggested that attitude served as the first antecedent of behavior intentions. Francis et al. (2004) concluded that “attitude towards the behavior is a person’s overall evaluation of the behavior” (p. 9). Attitude referred to an individual’s positive and negative feelings about performing a behavior, whereas attitudes can be positive, negative, or neutral (Lezin, 2007). Accordingly, the theory implied that an individual will more likely exhibit a behavior if that individual has positive feelings about the behavior. Attitudes are formulated through the assessment of beliefs and feelings; surrounded by consequences and the desire to endure those consequences as a result of performing a behavior.

The theory of planned behavior suggested that subjective norms were recognized as the second predictor to behavior intentions. “Subjective norms are a person’s own estimate of the social pressure to perform or not perform the target behavior” (Francis et al., 2004, p. 9). Lezin (2007) concluded that “subjective norms are influenced by our perceptions of those beliefs of those around us: parents, friends, colleagues, partners, etc.” (p. 1). If an individual believed people of value supported the performance of a behavior the intention to perform the behavior would be very high. Conversely, if an individual believed important people would not approve performing a behavior the intention to perform the behavior would be very low. “Generally speaking, people who believe that most referents with whom they are motivated to comply think they should perform the behavior will perceive social pressure to do so” (Ajzen, 1988, p. 121).
Perceived behavioral control, the third antecedent to behavioral intentions as outlined in the theory, referred to an individual’s perceived control over the outcomes of performing a behavior (Ajzen, 1985). Francis et al. (2004) defined perceived behavioral control as “the extent to which a person feels able to enact the behavior” (p. 9). This construct of the theory referenced an individual’s thoughts related to how easy or difficult it may be to perform a behavior and whether a person feels some degree of control over the outcomes of the behavior (Ajzen, 1985; Zint, 2002). Bandura and Shunk (1981) suggested that elevated confidence in an individual’s ability to perform a behavior translated into stronger intentions to exhibit the behavior. The assumption was the more favorable the attitude and the subjective norm, the greater the perceived control; consequently, the stronger the intentions to perform the behavior. Applying the theory of planned behavior, the current study will explore community college trustees’ attitudes toward succession planning, perceptions of the beliefs of influential groups and outcomes of succession planning (subjective norms and perceived behavioral control) to examine trustees’ behavioral intentions to support succession planning.

QUEST FOR SUCCESSION PLANNING

Henri Fayol (1841-1925) was one of the first scholars to recognize universal organizational needs and championed the use of succession planning. He suggested that leadership replacement planning was a necessity and the only way to avoid organizational failures that resulted from recruiting unprepared individuals to fill key positions. Fayol understood the importance of planning and the need for organizations to invest in its internal personnel through training and professional leadership development programs, which ultimately led to the birth of succession planning (Rothwell, 1994, 2001, 2005).

Historically, succession planning was described as a mechanism to ensure that pools of qualified leaders were available for future leadership vacancies (Levit & Gikakis, 1994). Charan, Drotter, and Noel (2001) defined succession planning as a process of “perpetuating the enterprise by filling the pipeline with high performing people to assure that every leadership level has an abundance of these performers to draw from, both now and in the future” (p. 167). Other scholars have viewed succession planning as a strategic process by which an organization ensured the stability of tenured personnel; through the internal identification of candidates to transition into a selected position. Succession planning is better understood as a practice designed to identify talent and ensure organization continuance and provisions for the development and replacement of key personnel (Carroll, 2004; Carter, 1986; Caudron, 1999; Levit & Gikakis, 1994; Rothwell, 1994). The primary objective of succession planning was described as being positioned to get the right person with “the right skills in the right place” at the right time (Fulmer & Conger, 2004, p. 39).

Carroll (2004) defined succession planning as “a systematic process whereby professional and personal development is blended with a strategic plan to ensure that the organization is prepared to fill any position that becomes vacant, with the right person who possesses the right skills and attributes, at the right time” (p. 3). Levit and Gikakis (1994) suggested that a formal succession plan includes the development of a written strategic plan supported by charts and graphs, while an informal succession plan merely identified positions and managers for upward mobility opportunities. They also concluded that succession planning had become stagnant, dormant or
inactive; however, given today’s highly competitive and volatile business climate, increasing leadership complexities, and the anticipated leadership gap, succession planning has experienced rebirth. Succession planning has become an evolving concept impacting the entire organization and employees at all levels (Rothwell, 1994, 2001, 2005). The upcoming retirements of the baby boomer generation has forced everyone to reconsider succession planning as a management tool to address the leadership crisis (Shults, 2001). Succession planning has become a strategic initiative used to ensure sustainability (Carroll, 2004; Levit & Gikakis, 1994; Rothwell, 1994, 2001, 2005).

Today, succession planning is prevalent and continually evolving in business and industry, with limited usage in higher education, especially in community colleges, leaving a huge gap in the literature. However, a few studies have advanced the literature and understanding of:

1. Executive succession of the community college presidents (Emery, 1984);
2. Presidential succession and modes of departure in higher education (Henck, 1996);
3. Presidential succession and organizational change in the community college (Levin, 1996);
4. Succession planning for key administrators at Ivy-plus universities (Heuer, 2003);
5. Daytona Beach Community College succession planning model (Carroll, 2004);
6. Building a talent pool in student affairs through the formation of a professional development model for succession planning (Geller, 2004);
7. The factors that contribute to career succession of African American women executive leaders in community and technical colleges (Thomas, 2004);
8. Succession planning: A tool for integrating emerging leaders in learning organizations (Chartrand, 2005);
9. Learning how to grow your own: a study of succession planning at Douglas College (Christie, 2005);
10. Managing succession and developing tomorrow’s leaders today (Kolla, 2005);
11. Developing leadership capacity through the development of a succession management system (Weigel, 2006);
12. Identifying and preparing future leaders in the Colorado community college system (Carlson, 2007);
13. Succession planning: A necessity for community colleges strategies for developing new leaders (Negrea, 2008);
14. Succession planning in a two-year technical college system (Neefe, 2009);
15. A new paradigm: Strategies for succession planning in higher education (Richards, 2009); and
16. Community college succession planning preparing the next generation of women for leadership roles (Luzbetak, 2010).

Using the available succession planning literature in higher education, the current study will use the theory of planned behavior as a theoretical framework to guide the study. The theory of planned suggested that attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control influence intentions. In Partnering for Success: How to Build Strong Internal Collaboration in Higher Education, Harvey-Smith (2006) described a similar concept. She suggested that in the early stages of collaborations, we recognized our beliefs (attitude), then established internal partnerships (subjective norms), followed by outlining detailed outcomes (perceived behavior control), and concluded with the establishment of a statement of intent to delineate strategies (sustainability).

The current study is the first study to explore succession planning through the lens of the theory of planned behavior. The researcher will attempt to explore: (a) trustees’ attitude towards succession planning, (b) trustees’ subjective norms related to succession planning, and (c) trustees’ perceived behavioral control over the outcomes of succession planning to determine if the constructs of a TpB model influence trustees’ intentions to promote succession planning programs in community colleges.

**Attitudes towards Succession Planning**

The theory of planned behavior began with the concept, attitude towards a behavior. Attitudes were described as learned predispositions that respond favorably or unfavorably to thoughts that impact and influence behaviors (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). The current study will measure trustees’ attitudes to determine if their attitudes influence their intentions to promote succession planning. Currently there is a small depository of succession planning studies in higher education that assessed individual’s attitudes, thoughts, and beliefs about succession planning.

**Four-year institutions.** In the Succession Planning for Key Administrators at Ivy-Plus Universities study, Heuer (2003) examined executive succession planning practices at seven private higher education institutions. The study was guided by three research questions.

1. Why is succession planning important?
2. Since it is not occurring, what are the impediments of succession planning in higher education administrative positions?
3. If it could occur in higher education what models fit higher education generically and can be utilized by individual institutions specifically? (Heuer, 2003, p. 2)
Heuer’s study concluded that the participating universities did not have formalized succession planning processes, but deemed succession planning as an important topic, suggesting favorable attitudes towards succession planning. Additionally, the participants developed an emerging definition of succession planning that also supported a favorable attitude towards the implementation of succession planning processes. Heuer’s study also suggested that formal succession planning processes are not occurring at the participating institutions, but some of the institutions have developed programs that incorporated components of a formalized succession planning program. Components that included: (a) talent planning, (b) school-based training, (c) rigid performance appraisal processes, (d) a network of problem solvers to address management issues and program development, (e) a sounding board to implement policies and processes, (f) a leadership series, (g) a program designed to analyze the 400 top positions and their roles, (h) a 360-degree evaluation feedback program, (i) a leader-to-leader program, (j) leadership development programs, (k) career center and career coaching programs, and (l) and more professional development programs across the institution.

Richards (2009) implemented a grounded theory study that examined succession planning efforts in higher education. Richards explored succession planning efforts at six colleges to include 2-year colleges, technical colleges, 4-year public research and private universities. The study sought to explore institutional approaches to succession planning and organization cultures and governance in higher education. Richard’s study revealed that leadership development practices were important but few institutions had formal succession plans. The study also suggested that academic governance may have an influence on institutional approaches to succession planning.

Richards’s study also revealed that the participants were in favor of higher education institutions incorporating succession planning in the governance culture; utilizing deliberate systematic succession planning strategies in the academic environment. Strategies to include: (a) securing executive leadership that champion succession planning practices; (b) ensuring that the succession plans are aligned with the institutional culture, mission, vision, and goals; (c) that the succession planning process utilized a strategic planning approach; (d) effective communication plans that embraced talent development without implying entitlement to participating employees; and (e) the implementation of continuous evaluation of all components of the succession planning process (Richards, 2009).

In another study, Mateso (2010) examined succession planning management efforts at Midwestern universities to understand how succession planning was perceived by full-time administrative staff. Mateso implemented a triangulation mixed method study that examined succession planning and management efforts at Midwestern universities as perceived by fulltime faculty and administrators. Mateso’s study revealed that the subject universities utilized informal succession planning practices; however, current informal practices are inadequate. Participants indicated a need for improved succession planning management practices through the introduction of a systematic succession planning management program. Unlike other studies, Mateso’s study revealed that although succession planning was a favorable practice, academia may not contain a suitable organizational structure to support the practice of succession planning management.

Two-year institutions. Technical and community colleges have seen studies on succession planning as well, including: Succession Planning: Identifying and Preparing Future Leaders in the Colorado Community College System (Carlson, 2007), which explored current and future
succession leadership practices in the Colorado Community College System. Carlson’s study suggested that 21% of the respondents were interested in becoming senior administrators; 24% were undecided; and 8% were currently in senior level positions. Findings revealed that opportunities were available to train and recruit internal employees for future leadership positions. Carlson’s research further concluded that college presidents agreed that professional development opportunities had not readily been available to all employees.

Carlson (2007) also suggested that community colleges needed to grow their own leaders, identify strategic processes to identify future leaders, and incorporate succession leadership models for community colleges. The study suggested a “need for succession planning or structured career developmental plans for management staff to achieve ongoing learning and growth for themselves and for the organization,” suggesting favorable support of succession planning (Carlson, 2007, p. 11).

In an earlier study, Cembrowski and Da Costa (1998) sought to understand how managerial personnel perceived career development and succession planning at a postsecondary technical institute in Canada. In regards to attitude, the study revealed that management staff felt “they needed a formalized development plan to assist them in progressing to other positions within the organization” where succession planning could serve as a potential management model (Cembrowski & Da Costa, 1998, p. 11).

In Succession Planning in a Two-year Technical College, Neefe (2009) investigated the relationships between organizational characteristics of strategic and succession planning and the impact of the two processes on career management of academic leaders in two-year technical colleges. Luzbetak (2010) explored community college succession planning in preparing the next generation of women leaders. The study sought to develop and cultivate women leaders in middle management positions that were preparing for advanced senior level positions within their community college utilizing a succession planning approach. While both studies revealed favorable attitudes towards succession planning, Neefe concluded that succession planning was an effective strategy to address leadership succession and Luzbetak suggested that succession planning could serve as an effective new strategy for community college leadership succession. Luzbetak’s study revealed favorable attitudes towards succession planning and concluded that succession planning provided an opportunity to create a pipeline of opportunities to train individuals capable to fill vacancies as they arise.

Although, Carroll, Luzbetak, and other scholars do not use the theory of planned behavior as the theoretical framework to guide their studies; their studies revealed favorable attitudes towards succession planning processes and their studies suggested that community colleges had implemented succession planning programs. However, according to the theory of planned behavior (TpB), attitudes alone represented only the first phase of a theory of planned behavior approach and other stages must be considered to examine the TpB model as a whole; stages that included subjective norms and perceived behavioral control. Researcher must consider the other constructs of the TpB model (subjective norms and perceived behavior control) to use the TpB model as the theoretical framework to guide the current research.
Subjective Norms About Succession Planning

The theory of planned behavior transitioned from attitudes to subjective norms. “Subjective norms are a person’s own estimate of the social pressure to perform or not perform the target behavior” (Francis et al., 2004, p. 9). Subjective norms had two components: (a) beliefs about how people viewed as important would favor an individual to perform a behavior and (b) the positive and negative judgments about beliefs (Fishein & Ajzen, 1975). Subjective norms were identified as an individual’s perceived expectations from valuable peers with regards to performing behaviors (Sutton, 1998).

The current study will examine trustees’ subjective norms to determine if internal and external community college constituents influenced trustees’ intentions to promote succession planning. In the DBCC case study, Carroll (2004) revealed that a task force of community college constituents concluded that it was imperative that Daytona Beach Community College introduced a leadership development institute and succession planning program to ensure future success of the community college. Luzbetak’s (2010) study concluded that there had to be a shared vision regarding succession planning among community college presidents, administrators, and trustees. Thomas’s (2004) study suggested that family members and external role models served as career succession motivators for African American executive women in technical community colleges.

There is limited research related to succession planning and subjective norms; therefore, it is difficult to determine from existing literature if subjective norms influence intentions to promote succession planning. However, the TpB model suggested that subjective norms and perceived behavioral control, collectively, have the potential to influence behavioral intentions.

Perceived Behavioral Control of Succession Planning

The theory of planned behavior suggested that perceived behavior control is the third antecedent of behavior intentions. Perceived behavior control is described as the extent to which a person feels comfortable and confident that he or she can perform the behavior. “Perceived behavior control has two aspects: how much a person has control over the outcomes of the behavior . . . and how confident a person feels about being able to perform or not perform a behavior” (Francis, et al., 2004, p. 9). Sutton (1998) suggested that perceived behavior control referred to an individual’s perceptions of whether he or she has control over the results of performing the behavior. The current study will examine trustees’ perceived behavior control (PBC) over the outcomes of succession planning to determine if trustees’ PBC influenced their intentions to implement succession planning programs.

Four-year institutions. In four-year institutions and universities, Heuer (2003) implemented a Succession Planning for Key Administrators at Ivy Plus University study. The study suggested that succession planning is not occurring because succession planning is not embedded in the institution’s strategic plan. Findings also revealed that institutions of higher education continue to experience difficulties moving forward strategically, due to constant staff replacements and numerous unfavorable hiring decisions. Unfavorable hiring decisions were due, in part, to the lack of formalized succession planning processes. Other findings suggested that higher education
institutions should begin to identify successors for current leadership vacancies (Heuer, 2003). The study also outlined impediments of succession planning:

1. Succession planning requires planning and planning is difficult in higher education;
2. Succession planning requires thorough analyses and predictions;
3. Succession planning may be difficult in higher education due to hierarchy and organizational structure;
4. Succession planning is a foreign concept to faculty;
5. Higher education administrators are critical of internal candidates and not interested in training and mentoring new faculty;
6. Staff functions and recruiting are taken for granted in higher education;
7. Administrations in higher education are accustomed to functioning in a reactive mode vs. proactive mode;
8. Faculty searches only recruit faculty candidates at the top of their careers with subject matter expertise vs. candidates with growth potential;
9. In higher education programs operate in silos;
10. Succession planning has cost implications and resources in higher education may be limited;
11. Higher educational institutions, normally are under staffed with low morale;
12. Higher education leaders are not willing to train staff to relocate to other institutions;
13. Higher education institutions lack business acumen and lag behind the corporate sector; and
14. Succession planning is not embedded in the strategic planning process which guides institutions (Heuer, 2003).

In another study, understanding succession planning and management efforts at Midwestern universities, Mateso (2010) revealed that universities utilized succession planning practices in certain administrative units and colleges, but the succession planning efforts were inadequate. Richard’s (2009) study, Strategies for Succession Planning in Higher Education revealed that many colleges responded affirmative to succession planning practices, but the findings proposed that most participating colleges were practicing leadership development programs and not succession planning programs. Findings outlined that two of the participating institutions responded that their institutions had formal succession planning programs. However, Richard’s study revealed an emerging definition of succession planning. Succession planning was defined as a written personnel document and policy that was widely understood across the institution; whereby based on the study’s definition of succession planning, it was determined that only one
of the participating institutions had a formal succession planning program and the other institutions had leadership development programs.

**Two-year institution.** In two-year community and technical colleges, Carlson’s (2007) study concluded that middle-manager community college administrators may not be prepared to fill vacancies of upper level administrators, including the presidency due to lack of succession planning. The study suggested that participating colleges were deliberately not preparing potential leaders; colleges did not have formalized succession plans that were incorporated in the colleges’ strategic plans; colleges were not providing succession leadership opportunities; and current leadership could not identify one internal candidate that was prepared to serve as a successor.

In another study, Luzbetak’s (2010) revealed that over time succession planning has the potential to unveil large pools of qualified applicants for senior level administrators. Cembrowski and Da Costa’s (1998) study suggested that there are five effective forms of succession planning practices that would reveal positive results. The study identified the seven forms of succession planning as: (a) job rotation, (b) formal training programs, (c) mentorship, (d) secondments, (e) employee exchange, (f) internships (identified as the most effective form of succession planning) and (g) job movements (identified as the least effective form of succession planning). The study also suggested that “it was important in planning that there be substantial, well thought out organized learning that fit the individual and the organization” (Cembrowski & Da Costa, 1998, p. 12).

Overall, the literature reflected multiple views, related to the outcomes of succession planning or the perceived behavior control over succession planning as outlined in the theory of planned behavior. The literature also revealed that researchers had positive and negative perceptions over the outcomes of succession planning. Heuer (2003) concluded that there were multiple impediments, related to the use succession planning. Contrary, Carlson’s (2007) study revealed that community college administrators were not prepared for leadership advancement opportunities due to lack of succession planning. In another study, Luzbetak (2010) suggested that over time succession planning, potentially could result positively in producing large quantities of qualified administrators for future vacancies. While succession planning literature in higher education is evolving, the literature remains minimal when viewed through the lens of a TpB model. Using a theory of planned behavior approach, the researcher identified studies that supported each construct (attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavior control) of the theory, which led to the final construct: behavioral intentions.

**Intentions to Promote Succession Planning**

Agnes, Goldman, and Soltis (2002) defined intentions as a purpose or something that is intended. Similarly, the theory of planned behavior referred to intentions as the intent to exhibit behaviors. The theory of planned behavior declared that intentions can be influenced by attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavior control (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). The current study explored intentions as it related to trustees’ intentions to promote succession planning in community colleges. The researcher of the current study examined: (a) trustees’ attitudes towards succession planning, (b) trustees’ subjective norms about succession planning, and (c) trustees’ perceived behavior control over the outcomes of succession planning to determine if the three components influenced trustees’ intentions to promote succession planning in Maryland community colleges.
(Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Thus, the current study examined multiple succession planning studies to determine if existing literature supported the implementation of succession planning programs viewed through the lens of the theory of planned behavior.

In the study, *Learning to Grow Your Own: A Study of Succession Planning at Douglas College*, Christie (2005) “emphasized the importance of developing succession planning programs” (p. 77). Christie’s study concluded that “succession planning creates a comprehensive human resource planning system” (p. 77). The study suggested that the “development of a succession plan needs to be a high priority for the college and implemented across the college in all employee groups” (p. 77).

Christie identified five approaches to succession planning that can be employed when linking succession planning to strategic planning (see Table 2). The five approaches were (a) top-down, (b) market-driven, (c) career planning, (d) future, and (e) rifle. The top-down approach is driven by corporate strategies. Market driving approaches are governed by marketplace needs and requirements. The career planning approach ties strategic plans through career planning processes. Future approaches allow succession planning to become a vehicle for anticipating talent needs stemming from corporate strategies. The rifle approach focuses on solving specific identifiable staffing problems confronting the organization as they arise.

**Table 2**

*Succession Planning Approaches*

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Approach</th>
<th>How Succession Planning is Positioned</th>
<th>How Succession Planning is Linked to Strategic Planning</th>
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<tr>
<td>Top-down approach</td>
<td>Driven by corporate strategy.</td>
<td>Leaders identified through a systematic succession planning process support the successful implementation strategy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market-driven approach</td>
<td>Governed by marketplace needs and requirements.</td>
<td>Necessary talent is sought as required to deal with competitive pressures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career planning approach</td>
<td>Tied to strategic plans through career planning processes.</td>
<td>In consultation with organization supervisors and others, individuals examine their own career goals in light of the organization’s strategy.</td>
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Future approach | Becomes a vehicle for anticipating talent needs stemming from corporate strategy. | Is viewed as a way to scan external environmental conditions and match the organization’s talent to the demands created by those conditions.

Rifle approach | Focused on solving specific identifiable problems confronting the organizations. | Realignment strategies often relate to shifting organizational culture or improving employee morale.


Lastly, in the noteworthy Daytona Beach Community College succession planning case study, Carroll and Phillips (2004) addressed the education leadership development paradigm shift in higher education. Daytona Beach Community College (DBCC) located in Florida, is a multi-campus institution with a student enrollment of over 35,000 unduplicated student headcount and 800 plus full-time employees. After experiencing a decrease in enrollments in the late 1990s and a high employee turnover, DBCC recognized the need for a systematic approach to general leadership development practices. DBCC acknowledged the necessity to develop a specific plan to ensure a smooth transition as current administrators retired and new leaders transitioned into those roles (Carroll, 2004; Carroll & Phillips, 2004).

DBCC strategically evaluated the college’s most valuable asset, its human capital and attempted to address the leadership crisis. The college identified a college wide task force to represent the views of the internal and external community. The task force concluded that the college was in need of a comprehensive leadership development initiative (LDI) attached to a formalized succession planning program. The Leadership Development Institute was developed to ensure: (a) that leadership development correlated to relationship development, (b) that leadership opportunities existed throughout the institution, not just in leadership positions, (c) that leadership development was connected to organizational development, (d) that the leadership program invested time and resources, and (e) that the leadership development program was an essential component of college’s succession planning program. The leadership development institute included four tracks: leadership knowledge and skills, formal credit instructional education, job intensive training, and practical experiences (Carroll & Phillips, 2004).

As recommended by the task force, DBCC developed a formalized succession planning program. The succession planning program provided a systematic organizational development program that identified leadership gaps. The program provided an avenue for employees to express aspirations.
for career advancements in a safe, positive, and comfortable environment. Carroll and Phillips suggested that the DBCC succession planning process utilized a strategic approach. The succession planning program used a formal structure to identify and address the basic needs of college leadership and employees (Carroll, 2004; Carroll & Phillips, 2004).

During the 2003-2004 school years, 97 employees participated in the DBCC Leadership Development Institute, where three employees earned master’s degrees and 12 employees enrolled in doctoral programs. Additionally, 85 employees participated in various combinations of internal leadership seminars, mentoring, job shadowing, and other experimental activities. The case study also suggested that college wide participation resulted in the DBCC employees having a high appreciation for the college and the college’s leadership development institute and succession planning processes (Carroll, 2004). According to Carroll, the leadership development institute and succession planning program successfully prepared Daytona Beach Community College for the baby boomer exodus. The DBCC case study supported the need for other institutions to implement succession planning models to ensure leadership preparedness and institution sustainability.

Table 3 provided a schematic representation of the higher education succession planning literature viewed through the lens of a theory of planned behavior. The table outlined how each construct (attitude towards a behavior, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control) of the theory of planned behavior can be translated to demonstrate intentions to promote succession planning in higher education. When viewed through a TpB approach, Neefe’s study only supported knowledge of the leadership crisis and Heuer’s study only supported a favorable attitude towards succession planning. But, Carroll, Carlson, and Richards’ studies supported the use of a complete TpB approach, which incorporated all constructs of the theory: (a) favorable attitudes towards succession planning, (b) subjective norms about succession planning, (c) perceived behavioral control of succession planning, and (d) intentions to promote succession planning in higher education.
Table 3

*Succession planning viewed through the lens of the theory of planned behavior*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Title of Study</th>
<th>Purpose of Study</th>
<th>Research Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Heuer</td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>Succession planning for key administrators at ivy plus universities</td>
<td>The focus of the study is on succession planning for top administrators at the richest private universities nationally, Ivy-Plus group.</td>
<td>Human Resource Officers</td>
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<tr>
<td>Carroll</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>Daytona Beach Community College succession planning case study</td>
<td>The purpose of the DBCC case study was designed to address the leadership development paradigm shift in higher and to implement a strategic review of the college’s most valuable resource: its personnel.</td>
<td>Faculty, administrators and staff</td>
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<tr>
<td>Van Dusen</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>Community college leadership in the 21st century</td>
<td>The purpose of the study was to explore community college presidents’ perceptions of: (1) current leadership styles required in the performance of presidential duties; (2) how professional development was used to identify and develop future leaders; and (3) to determine if community college leadership succession planning occurred.</td>
<td>Presiding community college presidents</td>
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</table>
Table 3. (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
<th>Research Sample</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Carlson</td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>Succession Planning Identifying and preparing future leaders in the Colorado community college system</td>
<td>As a result of the impeding vacancies in community college the study will addressed issues related to the need of succession planning and what constitutes an effective plan.</td>
<td>Full-time faculty and college administrators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neefe</td>
<td>2009</td>
<td>Succession planning in a two year technical college</td>
<td>The purpose of the research was to investigate the relationship between organizational characteristics of strategic and succession planning processes on career management of academic leaders in a two year technical colleges.</td>
<td>Chief Academic Officers, Academic Vice Presidents, Provost, Deans, Associate and Assistant Deans</td>
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<tr>
<td>Richards</td>
<td>2009</td>
<td>Strategies for succession planning in higher education</td>
<td>Grounded theory study sought to explore succession planning efforts in 6 colleges (community colleges, university, technical college, private university), to examine how organizational culture and governance impact succession planning.</td>
<td>Senior Executives</td>
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Table 3. (continued)

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<th>Author</th>
<th>Title</th>
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<tr>
<td>Luzbetak 2010</td>
<td>Community college succession planning prepare next generation of women</td>
<td>To develop and cultivate women leaders currently in middle management for advancement senior leadership roles through succession planning.</td>
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<td>Chief Executive Staff in academics, student services, and finance at Illinois community</td>
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<th>Author</th>
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<th>Purpose</th>
<th>Research Sample</th>
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<tr>
<td>Mateso 2010</td>
<td>Understanding succession planning and management efforts at Midwestern universities: A mixed method study</td>
<td>The purpose of the study was to understand the status of succession planning and management efforts by full-time academic and administrative personnel at a university.</td>
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Note.  
K = Knowledge of the leadership crisis;  
A = Attitude toward succession planning;  
SN = Subjective norms about succession planning;  
PBC = Perceived behavioral control of succession planning;  
I = Intentions to promote succession planning.

**SUMMARY**

Multiple studies suggested that a potential community college leadership crisis is approaching and succession planning is an effective strategic management tool to address the crisis (Brigham-Sprague, 2001; Carlson, 2007; Christie, 2005; Freeze, 2005; Heuer, 2003; Maliszewski, 1985; VanDusen, 2006). The literature also revealed that higher educational institutions, primarily community colleges continue to minimize the use of succession planning (Carlson, 2007; Heuer, 2003; VanDusen, 2006). As a result of the leadership crisis, Little (2002) concluded that trustees must take a proactive approach to prepare academic leaders for the future. Using the theory of
planned behavior, the investigator for the current study attempted to measure and understand how community college trustees perceived the leadership crisis. Precisely, the investigator used knowledge of the leadership crisis and the elements of the theory of planned behavior to explain the variations in trustees’ intentions to promote succession planning in community colleges.
References


BUILDING STRENGTH THROUGH HUMAN RESOURCES

Talil Hanna Abrhiem, Ph.D.
Strayer University

ABSTRACT

This study explains how to maintain constructive employee relations help a company can achieve superior efficiency, quality, innovation, and customer responsiveness, leading to a competitive advantage. This study based on the principles, experience, research, and engagement in corporate level strategies. This remarkable research of training management is filled with common sense lessons about learning the truth and teaching the principles of great service. Managers, through their choices related to business strategies, can build resources that enhance a company’s distinctive competencies. Distinctive competencies will shape the company strategies. To achieve superior responsiveness to customers, a manager must give customer what they want, which can be attained by; training employees to think like customers and help a company lower its costs, differentiate its product, and achieve superior innovation. The purpose of this article is to achieve the projected management performance level; the company needs to formulate well-structured and formulated business objectives that would involve the operational, financial and human resource aspects of business management.

Keywords: Business Strategy, Organizational Behavior, Vision, Responsiveness to Customers, Management Performance, Quality Management, and Communication Skills.

Human resource management is an important function in every organization. It is the driving force which provides a foundation for successful business practices in companies. There are many key functional areas of human resources management which contributes to the overall performance of an organization. The federal equal employment opportunity laws influence fair employment practices which also contribute to the success of many organizations. Organizations frequently experience changes and must be flexible in order to adapt to specific trends which affect diversity, age and skill deficiencies of their employees.

In today’s economy most organizations are moving away from the traditional workplace. According to my research the new ways of working most organizations are formalizing themselves to an alternative workplace. With trends in the workplace employers and employees both are benefiting in many ways. In an organization employees should be able to adjust to the changes that are coming about day to day and in the near future. Organizations are now moving to designing jobs that are motivating their employees.

Corporations and individuals are faced with difficult challenges and choices every day. In this global economy, it is important to not only follow a set of rules, but maintain a set of values with
high-integrity behavior. Organization’s need good values to link their mission and define their company’s culture. These values can be translated by behavior which can be observed, communicated, taught, measured, and rewarded. An organization that understands the benefits of values linked tightly to a mission will be able to transmit those values to their employees and help to create a competitive advantage.

Many companies realize the importance of providing high-quality products and services to their consumer base (Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart & Wright, 2014); if companies are unable to adhere to these standards, they will experience difficulty in many aspects of managing their business. For this reason, and to affect high sales levels to their consumer base many companies have turned to a form of total quality management (TQM). This particular style of holistic management represents the continuous, company-wide effort to improve the ways people, machines and systems accomplish work (Noe, et. al., 2014).

Two trends that affect the way companies do business include globalization and off-shore competition. These external factors are forcing management to institute new methods for improving business and manufacturing functions (Duchessi, Schaninger, & Hobbs, 1989). Implementing a materials resource planning (MRP) system is just one of the ways companies are implementing and practicing TQM initiatives as well as addressing the external factors that influence the way business is conducted.

The implementation of a MRP system requires significant understanding of work flow in organizations as well as the human resource (HR) planning process and can best be approached from a total quality management (TQM) perspective; this particular approach is highly practical since it has entrenched and extremely effective methods and processes that are designed to meet the needs of both external and internal customers (Noe, et. al., 2014). “To promote quality, organizations need an environment that supports innovation, creativity, and risk-taking to meet customer demands” (Noe, et. al., 2014). The best way to implement a MRP is using an action plan identified in 1982 by Mehra and Reid and specifies six key areas of impact: Organization, purchasing, inventory function, forecasting, scheduling, and engineering change.

Organizational Structure

One of the key areas carefully analyzed was the organizational structure, specifically the structure related to staffing or human resource management. According to the authors, successful implementation of a MRP requires review of not just expertise of the existing staff, but also the organizational structure and staffing changes that will be necessary in light of the implementation of the new system. Coupled with the key areas identified by Mehta & Reid (1982) above, three human resource functions likely to be affected by the implementation of a MRP include human resource planning, recruiting and training and development.

HR managers have to be fully aware of the needs of the organization as well as both external and internal factors that affect the workforce. In order to effectively recruit a highly skilled workforce, HR managers have to be vigilant about learning about and understanding the needs of their organization and the organization’s people. The implementation of a new technological aspect of management will bring with it the need to learn and understand how the system works and how
the system will make work simpler and more productive, from all management aspects. This is why training and development is one the key function areas of HR management that will contribute to the successful implementation of a MRP system.

“From the day cavemen used the first chisel, technology has had an enormous impact on the nature of work” (O’Toole & Lawler, 2007) and is just one of the trends driving organizations to change the way they do business and thus change the way human capital is managed. “The TQM system …influences the nature of work…a method designed to facilitate employee problem-solving related to the development and implementation of the quality processes” (p. 51). Two ways in which the HR Manager can help the organization carry out these changes successfully include the ability to conduct an operational analysis and encourage total quality management. Conducting an Operational Analysis should include surveys of employees as well as customers. This will determine whether the implementation has been successful in meeting consumer demand; a survey of employees can determine whether they are confident in their abilities related to the MRP system and whether they are motivated to continue using the system.

**Total Quality Management**

Encouraging Total Quality Management (TQM) is especially useful in performance measurement (Noe, et. al., p. 241). This includes training and development, particularly with managers of line staff so that energy levels are maintained and employees not only feel motivated to do the work they’ve been tasked with, but also to encourage connection to the work that has to be done. Setting clear expectations and ensuring people feel recognized when they uphold high standards is one of the simplest ways to positively influence employee behavior (Gostick & Elton, 2012).

As early as 1984, it was determined that the nature of management commitment in the company and the implementation process used primarily distinguished success from failure in implementing MRP systems; “MRP is a concept of management which must focus on the need to change the way decisions are made and the resulting manufacturing philosophy (Anderson & Schroeder, 1984). Likewise, Cox and Clark assert that one reason the implementation of MRP systems have failed across specific industries is because companies have not acknowledged a transition to an automated system requires a complete change in organization procedures, discipline and focus (1984). Perhaps this is the reason why HR managers have to remain knowledgeable of workforce trends and improve or enhance their skill set as needed. Three human resource management skills that would be especially important for success in leveraging the new MRP system (in a high performance work system) include research, planning and prioritizing tasks, and communication skills.

Research or the ability to gather and process information is essential to evaluate the recommended consumer and employee surveys. In addition, according to Cox and Clark (1984), a requirement for the success of the system is for all levels of the organization to understand the system and to actively participate in its design. Research is also an important aspect of the recruiting process, and good research skills can help minimize the real time spent sourcing qualified candidates.
Organizational Change: Communication Skill

The ability to plan and prioritize tasks is especially important, particularly when attempting to implement organizational change. People are resistant to change, especially if they do not understand the reason for the change and how the change benefits their role within the organizational structure. The common misbelieve is that technological implementations result in downsizing. The implementation of the MRP system is primarily to increase the efficiency with which small orders are placed. By focusing on small orders, the company can effectively learn how to manage larger orders, thereby stimulating significant increase in sales.

Communication skills, including negotiation skills are essential to informing the organization’s human capital about how and why a MRP system is to be used. Again, it is the nature of people to be resistant to change, especially if they do not understand the reason for the change. Proactively, it should be the nature of human resource managers to effectively communicate the need for the change, involve key aspects of the organization’s management in the decision-making process, and inform all users of the system on how to effectively use the system for their particular needs.

This communication skill does not limit itself to the verbal form, but also expands to written and electronic forms of communication. The change should be openly communicated to the management team and employees through multiple channels including memos, emails, posting on the company’s intranet and during daily meetings. This will provide the management team and employees the opportunity to ask questions through different channels, depending on which method they feel most comfortable.

Complex problem solving is a vital skill for a human resource professional to process during a change process, such as implementing a materials resource planning system, because it will assist in overcoming obstacles that may hinder a successful change. In order to guarantee organizational effectiveness, the company’s human resource strategy must align and work together with its business strategy.

The organization may face a limited labor market depending on location and the increased need for employees. This limited labor market could be due to an inadequate number of unskilled workers that are in the location near the manufacturing company. The organization can provide additional training to these potential employees who lack the technical skills needed to perform the job; however, this would create an additional factor related to the extra cost involved.

As a result of the planned growth of the organization, the human resource department will need to develop advanced training for new employees who may not possess the technical skills needed to perform the job required. This is because the labor market in the area near the manufacturing company may be limited; therefore, the organization may need to hire employees who do not possess all of the desired skills needed to successfully perform their job.

Imagine that you are the HR manager for a retail store. Your store sells clothing, shoes, handbags, linens, etc. The company recently had its worst quarter, and you want to improve employee performance through sales of the merchandise and through offering excellent customer service. The employees are less motivated, due to the recent negative media attention the company has
been getting about its earnings. You want to implement a new performance management system, modify the employees’ current behavior, and link compensation directly to performance.

There are employees that believe that reward systems in general and incentive systems in particular influence performance. In some recent studies it was noted that many workers prefer that pay be linked to performance, reinforcing the motivation to use such reward systems. When pay is contingent on performance, individual and group performance are consistently higher than when this contingency is not present.

**Job Description**

To create a retail sales associate job description there are many elements needed. First is the location for the job. A Retail Sales Associate works in a retail store, assisting customers in the selection of products. This position can be found at any retail outlet from chain stores to boutique stores and across a large variety of products. In most job descriptions, the next element normally details the salary or hourly rate for this position.

As the HR manager, there will be changes in these salary requirements to include pay for performance measures that will be detailed further in this paper. A Retail Sales Associate hourly and overtime rates are in the range of $8 to $12 and $12 to $18 respectively. Annual salaries usually are between $15,000 and $30,000 for employees that high performers and work more than 32 hours per week. All retail sales associates report to a department manager, who is responsible for establishing their weekly schedule as well as conducting performance based evaluations.

Next are the specific job duties and knowledge needed to perform the job of a retail sales associate? General duties include greeting customers at the store and offering them assistance, Judging whether a customer prefers to be waited on or to shop by themselves, Guiding customers who know what they want to correct section of the store or make suggestions to customers who are not completely sure what they want from the store, Offer suggestions on color, sizes, etc. depending on the customer’s requirements and requests, and provide information on the store’s products, including any warranties and return policy on merchandise sold.

A retail sales associate should also be able to receive cash and credit card payments and bag the products and goods sold. There is also specific knowledge needed to be a retail sales associate, those include knowledge of the particular products that they are selling and an interest/initiative to learn more about it and similar products offered by our competitors, an affection for interacting with a variety of people, a patient and professional manner to assist customers throughout the entire process of purchasing products, the ability to speak another language is an added bonus, and a working knowledge of computers and ability to work with most billing systems (Jean M. Phillips, 2009).

Another important element of the job description for a retail sales associate is the educational requirements. Most in this position require at least a high school diploma or general educational equivalent like a GED. As the HR manager, we are adding the additional element of 1-2 years’ experience working in this area.
The last element of the job description for a retail sales associate is the phrase “other duties as assigned.” This statement will accommodate any special projects or changes in the current job duties.

In the creation of the organizational behavior modification (OBM) plan, we have to define the key behaviors that are necessary for job performance.

The first key behavior is a willingness to learn. All of the products that we sell will not be familiar to a retail sales associate. However we want them to have a willingness to learn about the product and how we compare to our competitor. Another key behavior is the ability to work well with others. As noted in the abstract, we are suffering some significant losses and we must all work as a team in order to overcome the deficits. No one individual will help us get there; it will take all sales associates, supervisors, and managers to help us meet this goal. The last key behavior needed to do this job as a retail sales associate is motivation. Motivation is essential because the associate must see the need for new skills and understand how they can be successful in this job. (Fisher, Schoenfeldt, & Shaw, 2006).

There are many ways that an HR manager can measure whether the prospective retail sales associates exhibit the key job performance behaviors we just discussed. The first way is by observation from supervisors and managers. The supervisors and managers will have direct contact with the associate to determine if they have a willingness to learn, work well with others and have the motivation to perform this job in accordance with organization/company standards. Another method of measuring the key job performance behaviors is guest surveys. Each guest will be given a survey on the receipt to rate the performance of the sales associate that either provided assistance or processed their payment when they purchased goods from the stores. These results will be shared with the sales associates during a performance evaluation or depending on the severity of the comments, immediately.

We must establish the new performance standards and inform our employees in a manner that sparks interest and enthusiasm. One way to inform the employees is by sparking a competition between departments. This will be shared in a company meeting prior to opening of the store. Each department will have a product of the week that has traditionally been a low selling item, they will earn a point and the department that earns the most, earns prizes and additional discounts off goods and services at the store. Another way to inform them is during their evaluations with managers and supervisors. Each retail associate will receive a sales goal for the week. Those associates that have higher sales will earn more hours on the schedule for that week. As a consequence, those who have lower sales will not be scheduled for as many hours on the schedule and if no progress is made, will eventually be terminated. We cannot afford to continue have low sales from our associates.

Performance Evaluations

The first method of providing feedback to employees is performance evaluations. Many organizations wait until 90 days has passed before completing an initial evaluation. Since we are a crucial time, we must change this to a review after training has been completed, and every 30 days until the 90 days have been achieved. As the HR manager, there will be many that will not
exhibit these key behaviors after training. It is better that we terminate the employment of those associates at this point than continue with them and cost the store more losses in revenue. Once a successful 90 days has been achieved, performance will be measured semi-annually unless behaviors or lack of sales warrant immediate attention. (Milkovich & Newman, 2008)

Another method of providing feedback to employees is to have a formal meeting with the sales associate, their direct supervisor and the HR manager will act as a mediator. This will allow the employee to get direct feedback from their supervisor and also understand that there are consequences to poor behavior and the HR manager can ensure that all appropriate information is given during this meeting.

Leaders should always reinforce positive behaviors from its employees. Direct supervisors should provide immediate praise when an employee is exhibiting a behavior that leads to great sales. One method is by attaching a bonus to a particular item that is sold. This will allow the leaders of the organization to give a bonus to employees such as earning one dollar for each unit or product sold and this allows the employee to get a bonus in their pay.

A leader could also reinforce the positive behaviors by allowing an employee more hours on the schedule or being able to have an extended break time or lunch paid for by the store. As noted in an interview with a former store manager for a major department store, positive reinforcement can also be given by gathering all associates for a group meeting and making a public acknowledgement of the positive behaviors and also giving them a pin signifying that they exhibit this behavior (Preston MBA, 2014).

It has been noted that the first step in using the OBM approach, is the organization’s objectives have to identify from the strategic plan of the company. Each successively lower level in the organizational hierarchy is charged with identifying work objectives that will support the attainment of organizational goals (Milkovich & Newman, 2008).

There are benefits that the organization will gain by using the OBM approach. OBM can encourage innovation and creativity because the employees are free to determine how they will meet their goals. Such a process can be valuable in gaining the commitment of employees because they are actively involved in setting goals.

The organization will also empower employees because they have a degree of latitude in deciding how to meet their goals. Management by objective can lead to performance improvement, predominantly if goals are specific, moderately difficult and accepted by the employees and if the procedure has top management commitment (Fisher, Schoenfeldt, & Shaw, 2006).

**Pay For Performance Plans**

Although some pay for performance plans can be problematic, there are some reasons to align pay to performance. The first reason is to provoke motivation in the employees or sales associates. The employee should feel that he or she can influence the results of their performance and control the performance that the organization is measuring (Fisher, Schoenfeldt, & Shaw, 2006). Another reason to align pay to performance is to reduce costs.
Many organizations maintain employees who are low performing and not reaching established sales goals. Some employees need the motivation or added incentive to perform well and managers need the assurance of knowing that the payout to the employee was truly earned.

If the store wants to make a profit, aligning pay to performance of its sales associates can be an effective tool.

The HR department has the added task of ensuring that all current sales associates meet the job descriptions and new performance management goals. Success may be made difficult by the nature of the task ahead for the organization. However, using the performance management objectives, ensuring the employees truly earn the payout received, could save the store from closing and/or having massive layoffs.

Successful Business Practices

Human resource management is an important function in every organization. It is the driving force which provides a foundation for successful business practices in companies. There are many key functional areas of human resources management which contributes to the overall performance of an organization.

The federal equal employment opportunity laws influence fair employment practices which also contribute to the success of many organizations. Organizations frequently experience changes and must be flexible in order to adapt to specific trends which affect diversity, age and skill deficiencies of their employees. In today’s economy most organizations are moving away from the traditional workplace.

According to this study the new ways of working most organizations are formalizing themselves to an alternative workplace. With trends in the workplace employers and employees both are benefiting in many ways. In an organization employees should be able to adjust to the changes that are coming about day to day and in the near future. Organizations are now moving to designing jobs that are motivating their employees.

In planning employee job descriptions, Human Resources Management (HRM) evaluates the needs of the business immediately and in long-term strategic planning. Along with executive leadership, HRM develops positions that increase productivity and functionality. For example, in consideration for a management position, should the expectation be that the newly hired manager be responsible for administrative as well as leadership functions? Or would it be more beneficial to the business to incorporate an administrative assistant position as well? An administrative position would increase productivity and functionality for the newly hired manager.

According to Becker & Grove (2011), a socially responsible human resource management hires, develops, and manage employees while valuing them as investments. Research has shown that hiring employees on the basis of cognitive ability results in employees who more rapidly acquire job knowledge and have higher job performance (Becker & Grove, 2011). Hiring and retaining knowledge workers on the basis of ability to learn and contribution has a higher payoff than solely based upon labor costs (Becker & Grove, 2011).
In reality, HRM may not be to recruit and select the “best and the brightest” for its entire workforce. Recruitment and selection of employees has to be a balance between hiring those with high performance skills at the onset and those that have high potential, whether in cognition and skill to be beneficial to the company over time.

Practice has proven that the success of an organization lies in its people (Anca-Ioana, 2013). Employees represent capacity for development and growth (Becker & Grove, 2011). An organization's objectives can be met only if it has the necessary human resources and competencies (Anca-Ioana, 2013). Employees that are well trained and developed increase the intellectual and proprietary value of the company (Becker & Grove, 2011). Many new employees come equipped with most of the knowledge, skills, and abilities needed to start work while others require extensive training before they are ready to make a significant contribution to the organization (Massey & Campbell, 2013). Training is a continual strategic process that works increases competences and deters performance problems for the organization (Massey & Campbell, 2013).

**Providing Constructive Feedback**

Human resource management plays a critical role in shaping people and their activities to achieve maximum performance (Anca-Ioana, 2013). One goal of human resource management should be providing constructive feedback that motivates employees to want their organization as well as developing the type of organization that the employees want in order to achieve its goals (Anca-Ioana, 2013). HRM works with executive leadership to ensure that employees who continue on the job are productively and safely performing their job responsibilities as well as contributing to the overall growth of the company.

Management of employee performance is usually assessed through a standardized, as created by the company, performance review form which is completed by the employee’s direct supervisor and other designated stakeholders. Based upon the result of the evaluation, the executive leadership and HRM make a decision as to whether to continue to invest in the employee or “cut their losses” for the good of the company.

HRM works with executive leadership to determine the most competitive, and yet budget conscious, compensation and benefits for each position. The employee expects that the value of the work of the position is demonstrated through the amount of compensation offered. It has been found that cost-of-living increases, promotion possibilities, and having the HR manager evaluate job applicants lead to higher retention rates (Massey & Campbell, 2013). In this economy, health care benefits are valued equally, if not higher, than monetary compensation. HRM management has to consider the cost of rising healthcare costs, as well, in compensating employees.

According to Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart & Wright, (2014), human resource management includes “the policies, practices and systems that influence employees’ behavior, attitudes, and performance” (p.3). Human resource departments have many functional areas that attribute to the success of an organization such as job design, recruiting and selection, training and development, managing performance, compensation and benefits, employee relations and labor laws. All of these functions overlap within one another to move the business forward and create an environment of profit.
Recruiting and Selection

Job design focuses on what a job entails and the requirements needed to complete a job. Organizations must set clear expectations on what a job is about so that the additional functions of human resource management can follow such as recruiting and selection. Recruiting and selection can begin after a job has been established. This function involves seeking applicants and identifying applicants based on certain skills, knowledge and abilities (Noe et al., 2014). For example, a human resource department will post their position to bring in resumes and then select people to interview.

Organizations are seeking to obtain the right candidate that meets certain criteria and it is necessary to go through the recruiting and selection process. Similarly, training and development is important once a candidate has obtained a position in an organization.

This function focuses on strengthening the knowledge and skills of employees so that they can fully integrate into the organization. For instance, many employers have their employees go through compliance and systems trainings as things change. In addition, organizations integrate development in order to “improve employees’ ability to meet the challenges of a variety of new or existing jobs, including the client and customer demands of those jobs” (Noe et al., 2014, p. 8). Nevertheless, performance management is also important to management favorable and unfavorable behaviors. Favorable behaviors typically yield a positive result for employees such as bonuses, increases and promotions. Unfavorable behaviors typically yield corrective action procedures. These are both measured through job appraisals and evaluations.

Compensation and Benefits

The human resource department is necessary in order to support managers through delivering a fair and concise message on performance. Compensation and benefits is easily equated to a major function of human resource management. Typically when an employee has questions about their compensation or benefits, the function of human resource management is immediately leveraged. Human resources professionals are involved with establishing the proper compensation structure and benefit packages for employees. These professionals also must do research to ensure they are fair and equitable in the pay scales available for certain positions. Employee relations inside an organization include everything involved with creating a positive work environment which empowers employees to reach out to their human resource department for assistance.

This is subject to but not limited to personnel policies and fostering a positive work environment. Human resource management plays an important role in being the mediator for these matters. Labor laws are important for all organizations to maintain in order to avoid legal action. These laws oversee issues of safety, health and employment rights. For example, there are many federal laws that have been enacted to protect employees in the workplace from anti-discrimination, sexual harassment and work hazards.

All of these functions play a critical role in the realm of human resource management. Human resource management is responsible for many activities of an organization. Thus, effective human
resource management is the start for an organization to have a strong advantage over their industry competitors.

**Equal Employment Opportunity**

Equal employment opportunity is the federal government’s approach to providing individuals with an equal change for employment regardless of their race, religion, sex, age, national origin, sex and color. The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) was established from Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and signed into law in 1964 by President Johnson (Noe et al., 2014).

Federal equal employment opportunity laws were established to protect employees in the workplace and provide fair practices. Civil Rights Act of 1991 (CRA 1991) was an amendment to multiple statues enforced by the EEOC. A major change of the CRA 1991 was the allowance of compensatory and punitive damages which includes elements of monetary losses and pain and suffering over and above the actual losses.

The purpose of awarding these damages is to discourage repeat offenders in other organizations. Organization handbook provides the basic source of human resource information for the company. It describes all of the key associate policies, procedures and guidelines for U.S. associates. Within the firm handbook, there is a section which focuses on the values and commitment to diversity within the organization.

The company states that workplace diversity contributes to the firm’s reputation to achieve competitive advantage. There is also an insert that states all associates are expect to comply with the spirit and intent of the Equal Employment Opportunity Policy and that there is fair treatment of all associates and applicants for employments without regard to race, religion, sex, age, national origin, marital status, genetic information or any other classification protected by law.

**American with Disabilities**

American with Disabilities Act (ADA) was created to protect employees from being discriminated based on a disability. The ADA has worked to ensure fair practices by first defining what is considered a disability. Under the ADA act, a disability is defined “as a physical or mental impairment that substantially limits one or more major life activities, a record of having such an impairment, or being regarded as having such an impairment” (Noe et al, 2014, p.69). Within the guidelines of this definition, the ADA further details each part of the definition in order to provide transparency on what each item means.

The ADA also mandates employers to provide reasonable accommodations. The Equal Pay Act of 1963 requires employers to provide equal pay for equal work in an organization. Employees would need to prove unequal pay by showing that the effort, responsibility and skills of the job and the other person are all not equal (Himmelberg, 1996). A discrepancy in these guidelines would allow legal recourse for an employee based on the Act.
The burden of proof on these cases falls in the hand of the plaintiff and sometimes it may be difficult to incriminate an organization if there are fair practices. Typically, women are discriminated against and incur a lower salary than their men counterparts. Back in the late nineties, many U.S. women made around 85-95 cents on the dollar compared to men (Himmelberg, 1996). Organization focuses on a pay philosophy that ensures eternal market competitiveness, internal equity and a link between pay and performance. The company frequently participates in numerous salary surveys and compensation roundtables to gather market data. There are annual merit increases and bonus award programs awarded based on performance.

The company has frequently sought out employee feedback by doing associate surveys and asking about what employees want in regards to their compensation structure. For example, there was need for more transparency on grade levels and ranges and as a result most company now has this information posted on the intranet website. The website provides minimum, midpoint and maximum salary ranges for a given grade level. In conclusion, employees have a right to work in their organizations with fairness and freedom from improper treatment. These laws provide a baseline on what rights employees have to pursue their potential for life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness. Other the other hand, employers needs to protect themselves from lawsuits and negative publicity due to unfair treatment. It’s also important that they are able to operate in a free market while still being fair to their human capital which is their employees.

The labor workforce in the United States

The labor workforce in the United States is constantly changing. Due to these changes, organizations must adapt to the trends that affect their labor force. One major trend that is affecting the workforce is the aging workforce. According to Noe et al. (2014), the older population is currently not in a hurry to retire while the younger generation is starting in the workforce. Within my organization, we have seen an influx of college graduates applying for careers. One thing that the organization has done to bridge the gap in the age differences is offering a generational differences training which discusses the differences between Traditionalist, Baby Boomers, Generation X and Millennial.

This training has bridged the gap in allowing each generation to understand what motivates one another. Most organization has also revamped health benefits which now mandate associates to get biometric screenings to lower healthcare costs. In addition, there are healthy incentives such as reduced pedometers, gym memberships and webinars on healthy living. All of these incentives are to promote a more healthy work environment for associates. This positively impacts employees by fostering a healthy worker who can be productive at work despite getting older. The next major trend affecting organizations is diversity.

This organization has conducted a lot of diversity roundtable discussions specifically with women in the workplace. This roundtable discussion involved women coming together to discuss trends and challenges faced in the workplace. Every year, there is also a diversity and inclusion web-based training that talks about how the company is building a brand around diversity and inclusion. It offers role plays on how to work with others and how to lead conversations. Another major trend is skills deficiencies in the workplace.
Continuous Learning

At most organization, we will foster an environment of continuous learning. There is a corporate learning and development department whose sole purpose is to develop continuing education for the organization. There are management workshops, delivering and receiving feedback classes and consultative coaching trainings.

We also utilize a web-based learning system in which associates frequently complete self-study programs to stay abreast of changes. For example, every year associates are required to complete an annual Code of Ethics training. Associates who have financial licenses are also required to do continuing education trainings which are required by the Securities and Exchange Commission. A large amount company is very aware of the trends that are impacting the labor force and they have continued to foster growth and changes to keep up with the need. They have positioned themselves by having a department that ensures skill deficiencies are avoided.

According to Halzack (2013), 88 percent of workers in the Washington area region said that workplace flexibility was important to them. Flexibility with work life balance seems to be important with Americans today so that they can spend time with their families. The majority organization stresses the importance of work life balance and they provide a work environment to do so. It’s not just indicated in benefits and time away from work but it is also included with flexible work schedules and telecommuting.

The largest part organization is made up of many departments such as call centers, technical support, and back office processing departments. Many of the positions in these roles do not operate of a standard eight-to-five shift. There are night shifts which range from 12pm – 9am as well as four ten hour work days including working on Saturdays and Sundays.

The ability to offer flexible work schedules seems to work with individuals who have other priorities that cannot fit into the typical eight-to-shift. Many employers feel that accommodating their employees allows them to be competitive from a talent perspective and retain strong employees (Halzack, 2013). Telecommuting has also been popular nearly all organization.

The company has been able to deliver this effectively to their employees by providing the software and email applications necessary to work from home. The technical support department is also very helpful in making the transition easy for associates. It’s also helpful when associates cannot make it to the office or they are working part-time. In conclusion, flexible work conditions make it easier for employees to enjoy their work.
References


FACULTY DEVELOPMENT

Author: Dr. Mary E. Robinson, Chair of English and Reading
Montgomery College

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REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The purpose of this study was to examine faculty development practices at public community colleges. This chapter provides a review of relevant literature, which is divided into three major categories. The literature discussed in the first category examined the historical perspective of faculty development in higher education. The second category is a review of the three theoretical foundations of the components of Gaff’s (1975) faculty development model: faculty development, instructional development, and organizational development. The third and final review category explores the scholarship of community college faculty development.

FACULTY DEVELOPMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION

In the 1900s, Harvard University began offering faculty development to support faculty personal development and professional growth, which took shape in the form of sabbaticals to provide release time for respite (Eble & McKeachie, 1985; Schuster & Finklestein, 2006). As such, sabbaticals are considered the earliest form of faculty development in higher education (Sorcinelli, 2006).

Between the end of World War II and the early 1970s, the number of college and university professors tripled (Schuster & Finklestein, 2006). As the number of professors increased, the significance and purpose of faculty development programs were questioned (Eble & McKeachie, 1985). The changes in higher education produced new types of faculty development programs. In 70 years, faculty development programs transitioned from sabbaticals as respite to include a variety of activities and special programs that attempted to improve institutional effectiveness (Alstete, 2000; Eble & McKeachie, 1985; Schuster & Finklestein, 2006).

Researchers observed that the expansion from a focus on sabbaticals to a focus on instruction was done to address the disciplinary expertise and pedagogical skills of faculty (Alstete, 2000; Centra, 1978; Nelsen & Siegel, 1980). According to Nelsen and Siegel (1980), in the early 1970s, American higher education shifted from a focus on students to a focus on faculty. They provided three important factors which drove the change in faculty development: (a) administrators concerned about decline in faculty turnover, (b) student involvement in faculty and teaching, and (c) faculty personal interests. Ten years later Gaff and Simpson (1994) claimed:

At a more conceptual level, faculty development has moved slowly from a fragmented, often misunderstood, and peripheral position to an integrated, better understood, and more centrally located position of importance within the institution. It is on the verge of becoming fully institutionalized in American higher education. (p. 173)

In the changing environment of higher education the premium placed on quality teaching continued to grow, and the need to fully utilize skills and talents of faculty increased (Caldwell &
Sorcinelli, 1997; Lail, 2009); hence, researchers sought to identify ways to characterize faculty development in higher education (Amey, 1999; Bergquist & Phillips, 1975a; Centra, 1975; Brancato, 2003; Diamond, 2002; Nelsen & Siegel, 1980; Toombs, 1975).

Sorcinelli (2006) categorized the history of faculty development in higher education by decades which they called “The Five Ages” (p. 2). They proposed that faculty development was a key strategic lever for ensuring institutional quality and supporting institutional change. They observed that within the context of today’s higher education environment, faculty development was essential to both the individual faculty member and the higher education institution as a whole. The authors explained that faculty development is an emerging issue for colleges and universities:

To meet shifting expectation for which they may not be fully prepared faculty may need academic support systems and professional learning opportunities beyond those traditionally offered. Providing institutional support for faculty facing changing contexts and new demands becomes an essential strategic choice. We believe that the contours of change require us to rethink how we approach, organize, and support faculty development. (Sorcinelli, 2006, pp. xvii-xviii)

The “Five Ages” of faculty development serve as a framework to examine historical direction for faculty development. Table 2 displays the basic characteristics of the “Five Ages” of Faculty Development.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1950 to 1960s</td>
<td>Age of the Scholar</td>
<td>Few colleges and universities had formal programs aimed at promoting faculty members professional development, and there were few studies of faculty development efforts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid 1960s through 1970s</td>
<td>Age of the Teacher</td>
<td>Foundation support spurred campuses to create faculty development programs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980s</td>
<td>Age of the Developer</td>
<td>External funding heightens interest in measuring the outcomes of teaching and faculty development efforts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990s</td>
<td>Age of the Learner</td>
<td>Faculty development proposals and recognition were created within education associations, professional societies, and internal consortia.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Early twenty-first century</td>
<td>Age of the Network</td>
<td>Faculty developers were charged with task to enhance the purpose of faculty development.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Sorcinelli et al., 2006

McGriff’s (2000) perspective on faculty development was slightly different from Sorcinelli’s. McGriff stated, “The key concept to faculty development as a transforming agent of colleges and universities is accepting, understanding, and managing dynamic changes brought about by external an internal factors” (p. 35). Furthermore, he identified four areas that heightened the ongoing need
for faculty development in the twenty-first century: (a) the changing socio-demographics of students, (b) faculty and administration, (c) the effect of societal demands for graduates, and (d) the need to adapt technology to meet current instructional practices. Other contemporary researchers, Murray, 1995; Schuster, Wheeler, & Associates, 1990, have found that faculty development has been on the higher education scene for several decades; however, its impact in the classroom is not readily apparent (Murray, 1999, para. 2).

Theoretical Underpinnings of Faculty Development Practices

Simply describing the many sources of faculty development does not fully convey the scope of the program goals or complexity of the decisions why institutions of higher education design, develop, and deliver faculty development programs. Knowledge of the theoretical underpinnings of faculty development programs provides support for program goals and purposes of faculty development practices at community colleges.

Over the past 30 years, researchers have offered several theoretical frameworks for the nature and scope of faculty development in higher education (Bergquist & Phillips, 1975b; Diamond, 2002; Gaff, 1975; Sorcinelli, 2006; Sprouse et al. 2008). These researchers found that faculty development, instructional development, and organizational development are the major theoretical frameworks that guide faculty development practices. Millis (1994) explained:

Faculty development can take many guises. Distinctions have traditionally been made between three terms: (a) faculty development (activities such as classroom visits or one-on-one counseling intended to improve the teaching skills of an individual faculty member); (b) instructional development (activities such as media support or curriculum design focused on the student, the course, or the curriculum); and (c) organizational development (activities such as campus wide retreats intended to improve institutional resources or climate). In practice, however, these definitions overlap, and virtually all activities affect the individual faculty member. (p. 454)

Faculty Development

The theoretical perspective of faculty development is rooted in human development (Gaff, 1975; McAfee, 2008; Merriam & Clark, 2006). According to Knowles (1990), adults in all professions have an internal desire for continued learning. He observed that adult learners are self-directed, and adults are motivated to learn as they experience needs and interests.

Community colleges respond to the long-term, ongoing training needs of their faculty by offering program and services to promote faculty growth (Cohen & Brawer, 2008; Rouseff-Baker, 2002; Sydnow, 2000; Welch, 2002). Gaff (1975) said, “Substantial numbers of faculty will accept when offered opportunities to improve personal development” (p. 17). There are many programs offered at community colleges in which faculty can receive training. Watts and Hammons (2002) stated “A key challenge for faculty developers is to recognize that professional development should be to improve the faculty individual performance by focusing on the whole individual and not just the part that relates to his or her job” (p. 25).
Diamond (2002) identified four major outcomes of faculty development: (a) demonstration of the institutions’ concern for the individual; (b) improvement in the productivity of individual faculty members through improvement of their teaching effectiveness; (c) facilitation of focused change with more emphasis on what students learn and less on what the faculty member covers; and (d) improvement of faculty attitudes toward teaching. Although it is important to focus on the development of the individual faculty, it is equally important for community colleges to recognize the important role that instruction plays in meeting the learning needs of a diverse student population (Barr & Tagg, 1995; Lail, 2009; McLenney, 2004; McPhail & McPhail, 1999; Mueller, 1991).

**Instructional Development**

According to Merriam et al. (2007), instructional development is anchored in learning theory. Hill (2002) advanced the notion that learning theories have two major values: (a) language and conceptual frameworks to interpret and explain the learning that takes place and (b) frameworks to look for solutions to problems associated with learning. O’Banion (1973) noted the formal preparation of community college faculty appeared to be a missing link in the community college. He critiqued that these programs were "grossly inadequate" and taught by "narrow, subject-matter specialists" (p. 84). O’Banion’s critique is supported by community college scholars who have suggested that instruction can be improved by creating faculty development programs to assist faculty in developing new teaching skills and strategies (Burnstad, 1994; McAfee, 2008; Murray, 2002; Van Ast, 1999). Gaff (1975) concluded, “If faculty development focuses on faculty, instructional development focuses on the conditions of learning, particularly courses and curricula” (p. 10). He defined instructional development as “the systematic and continuous application of learning principles and educational technology to develop the most effective and efficient learning experiences of students” (p. 47).

The POD Network (2007) depicted instructional development as a three-pronged approach for improving instruction. Based on their framework, instructional development focused on the course, the curriculum, and student learning. In this context, instructional development is different from faculty development in that the intent is to engage faculty in redesigning and developing curriculum and identifying new teaching strategies (POD Network, 2007, para. 1). The intent behind instructional development is to encourage faculty to work together to advance instructional accountability and institutional goals (Murray, 2002; POD Network, 2007).

America is undergoing an economic, political, and social revolution that will require transformation in traditional educational delivery systems at community colleges (Bailey & Smith, 2006). This transformation includes changes in the way community college faculty teach and the way students learn (Carter, 1998; Cox, 2009; McGriff, 2001). Previous studies have indicated that the traditional graduate school program curriculum does not adequately prepare individuals to pedagogically respond as faculty to the teaching and learning challenges brought on by the open-door policy and mission of the community college (Amey, 1999; Austin, 2002a, 2002b; Lail, 2009; Pollard, 2005; Sprouse et al. 2008). Faculty and administrators generally concur that understanding what and how faculty are teaching can strengthen the community college mission (Gaff, 2007; McPhail & McPhail, 2006; Townsend & Twombly, 2007). With demands on community college faculty to be accountable for student success, there is also increased pressure to improve teaching
practices at community colleges (Bragg, Kim, Barnett, 2006; Cambridge, 2005; Hunt, 1993; Miles & Wilson, 2004; Romano, Gallagher, & Shugart; 2010; Simpson, 2002; Syed & Mock, 2008). Developing a cadre of professionally trained faculty for their new roles and responsibilities in the community college classroom requires ongoing faculty development (Austin, 2002a, 2002b; Cambridge, 2002; Smith, 2007). In review of the changing roles of faculty and the changing and increasing diversity of student populations at community colleges, it is apparent that classroom practices must adapt to the varied interests and learning styles of students to improve student learning outcomes (Syed & Mock, 2008).

Amey (1999) argued that because faculty must use different teaching and learning approaches to meet the needs of today’s diverse learners, instructional development is a key component of faculty development practices. For example, faculty must determine ways to improve instruction through the use of technology (Amey, 1999; Cohen & Brawer, 2008; Floyd, 2003; Foote, 1997; Keengwe, Kidd, & Kyei-Blankson, 2009; Medlin, 2001; Waiwaiole & Noonan-Terry, 2008). According to these scholars, faculty must be provided avenues to explore and integrate the newest technologies into their courses. In addition, Cohen and Brawer (2008) identified instructional media training as a current practice in instructional development for assisting faculty to meet the needs of the nontraditional classroom environment. Medlin (2001) contended that strategies to enhance instructional development practices with the use of technology will continue to plague higher education, as institutions struggle to answer the question, How do institutions develop course materials inclusive of the needs of the current diverse student population? The answer to faculty resistance to the adoption and integration of technology into lectures continues to be an ongoing discussion of faculty developers (Keengwe, Kidd, & Kyei-Blankson, 2008; McGriff, 2001).

Organizational Development

Organizational development is derived from organizational theory (Priem & Rosenstein, 2000). According to Jones (2004), organizational theory describes how a company operates in the environment (i.e., self-impact) and how the environment affects the company’s operational agenda. French and Bell (1990) proposed that organizational development transitions over a period of time. Murray (2002) observed that some faculty development programs have made little progress in connecting their organizational development program goals to the community college mission. Priem and Rosenstein (2000) called for creating an effective institutional atmosphere in which faculty and faculty development personnel jointly link the mission to faculty development practices. Moore (1997) found that there was little evidence that faculty development programs were a major instrument for institutional change or improvement that was linked to the accomplishment factors that are consistent with the college mission and goals. Organizational development strategies can be beneficial toward the enhancement of faculty development programs at community colleges. Although virtually every community college has some mechanism in place that might be called faculty development, the program goals and purposes vary widely in type and resources (O’Banion, 1994). Murray (2002) stated, “The most common thread running through the literature is that most faculty development programs lack goals—especially goals that are tied to the institutional mission” (p. 91). To date, the literature suggests that much of the efforts to promote faculty development have targeted the personal and professional growth of faculty, but such programs fall short, because they do not connect these
programs to organizational development strategies (Laursen & Roueche, 2009; McAlpine, Amundsen, Clement, & Light, 2009).

The American Community College

According to Cohen and Brawer (2008), one of the strengths of the American higher education system is the community college, defined as “any institution regionally accredited to award the Associate’s degree in Arts or the Associate’s degree in Science as its highest degree” (p. 5). The origin of the American community college dates back to Joliet College, in 1901. William Rainey Harper, president of the University of Chicago, is credited with creating the first two-year college in America in response to the increasing number of underprepared students who were entering higher education (Deegan & Tillery, 1985; Piland & Wolf, 2003; Vaughan, 2000).

In 1947, a seminal report from President Truman’s Commission on Higher Education recommended that a network of low-cost, public, comprehensive two-year colleges be established (Boggs & Carter, 1994; Quigley & Bailey, 2003). This landmark report identified the role for community colleges in higher education. Quigley and Bailey (2003) indicated that the Truman Commission Report reexamined the higher education system, recommending the removal of any barriers to attaining a college education, such as denying admission based on race or sex. They suggest that the Truman Commission Report led to the open-door policy of the American community college and provided access to all those seeking admission to public colleges. Miller, Finley, and Vancko (2000) contended that the report was integral to the development of the community college, as a segment of the U.S higher education system. In a short period of time, community colleges became a dynamic force by making significant contributions toward meeting the needs of diverse student populations within local communities (Quigley & Bailey, 2003).

According to the American Association of Community Colleges (AACC, 2008a), there are over 1,173 two-year colleges in the U.S., 987 of which are considered to be public institutions. Within the U.S., most urban, rural, or suburban residents have a community college, branch campus, or extension center that is an hour’s drive or less from their homes (AACC, 2008a). Katinsas (2003) stated, “Community colleges have distinct characteristics that vary based on control, type, and location which tell a unique story of the significant contribution that community colleges make to the American Higher Education system” (p. 7). Hardy and Katinsas (2006) posited that a classification system for two-year institutions provided a way for community colleges to demonstrate their diversity in enrollment and location.

With community colleges’ open-door mission and their location in local communities, there are major differences between community colleges and four-year colleges and universities. Dougherty (1994) explained the difference between community colleges and four-year colleges and universities this way:

Several key features of community colleges apparently lead them to provide greater access to college than do four-year colleges. Typically, community colleges are closer by, whereas many four-year colleges are located in distant rural areas. They are cheaper to attend, if only because they are commuter schools. And because of their open-door admissions ideal, they are more willing to take non-traditional students: high school dropouts, the academically deficient, vocational aspirants, and adults interested in leisure education. (p. 35)
As the mission of the community college changes and adapts, so too should community college faculty have opportunities to change and adapt their approaches to teaching (Sell, 1982). Further, faculty development can help provide training opportunities for faculty renewal, while simultaneously meeting demands of accountability and fostering curriculum and instructional innovation (Sell, 1982). The unique mission and evolution of the community college provides an essential context to better understand faculty development practices in that setting (Grant & Keim, 2002).

Faculty Development at Community Colleges

The response to the need for faculty development at community colleges began in the 1970s (Murray, 1999; O’Banion, 1973; Watts & Hammons, 2002). Cohen and Brawer (2008) indicated that the demand for in-service training reached its peak in the 1970s as the expansion of community colleges subsided. Many scholars have expressed several viewpoints about how community colleges have responded to the need for faculty development. In 1995, Murray surveyed faculty development at Ohio community colleges to examine the relation, if any, between professional development and reward structures. He later replicated the same study for community colleges in the State of New York in 1998. In 2002, Murray expanded his study to include a broader population of public community colleges. Hasting-Taylor (2006) conducted a study to assess the goals and influences, challenges, of faculty development practices at Wisconsin community and technical colleges.

O’Banion (1981) wrote that the purview of faculty development expanded from just a focus on instruction to a focus on organizational development. Watts and Hammons (2002) argued that the overall effectiveness of community colleges could be enhanced through its faculty development programs. Fugate and Amey (2000) contended that a change in the increased diversity of students entering community colleges called for new instructional practices tailored to meet the needs of the ever increasing student populations. These findings suggest that demographic changes were factors contributing to increased attention to faculty development.

According to Watts and Hammons (2002) faculty development at the community college became crucial as this sector of higher education was faced with challenges of public accountability, teaching high risk students, changes in institutional governance, and the need for faculty to embrace technology to improve their instructional strategies. Moreover, Watts and Hammons’s (2002) observations about faculty development practices was expressed this way, “No singular event heralded the start of the movement; it simply developed out of the rapid growth that community colleges were experiencing at the time” (p. 5). Wesley (2005) cited several factors that contributed to the need for faculty development at community colleges: (a) the graying factor (b) need for enhanced technological skills, (c) heterogeneity and under preparedness of students, and (d) a shift in pedagogy practices.

By their history and tradition, community colleges are committed to serving a broad range of students of all races and typically have support programs to help these students (AACC, 2010; Cox, 2009; McClennen, 2004; Rendon & Valadez, 1994; Townsend & Twombly, 2007). Trained and talented faculty members have played a major role in the college’s ability to respond to
students’ needs (Austin, 2002a). More than in the past, some scholars argue that expanding the role of faculty development is not optional for community colleges, but integral in the overall development of faculty to meet the needs of a diverse student population, and contribute to institutional effectiveness (Community College Survey of Student Engagement [CCCSE], 201; Grant & Keim, 2002; Murray, 2000, 2002).

**FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE FACULTY DEVELOPMENT**

Several contributing factors (e.g., mission, diverse student populations, and the changing role of community college faculty) propelled faculty development into the forefront of a nationwide discussion among community college educators (Barr & Tagg, 1995; Bellanca, 2002; Bettinger, & Long, 2009; Bragg, Kim, Barnett, 2006; Eddy & Beach, 2005; Grant & Keim, 2005; McPhail & McPhail, 2006; Murray, 2002; O’Banion, 1981, 2003; Toombs, 1975; Wallin & Smith, 2005). These forces influenced the current process of teaching and framed the key basis for designing and implementing faculty development.

First, it is evident that the mission of the community college is expanding. If the mission of the community college shapes the programs and services of the institutions, then community colleges may want to better understand the need and impact for faculty development to assist faculty in individual professional growth (Alfano, 1994; Grant & Keim, 2002; McPhail & McPhail, 2006; Murray, 2002; Wallin & Smith, 2005; Watson, 2005). Faculty development activities may ensure that faculty remain current in their disciplines and create an effective environment for faculty to remain aware of institutional policies and procedures (Grant & Keim, 2002; Oromaner, 1998). Murray (2002) postulated that community colleges must connect faculty development to the mission of the community college. Murray stated:

The menu of choices should be tied directly to the institutional mission. Faculty should be allowed to select from a menu of activities that meet their goals and the institutional goals. In this way, both the institutions and faculty can grow in ways that ultimately benefit the students they serve. (p. 92)

Grant and Keim (2002) argued for the development of a comprehensive approach to faculty development: “In essence, if community colleges are to recruit and retain quality faculty, a formal, comprehensive development program to orient, enculturate, renew, and develop all faculty is crucial to the success of institutional missions and individual faculty goals” (p. 805). In other words, faculty development has emerged as an important issue in the community college. Alfano (1994) posited:

Community colleges currently face some the most difficult challenges in their history. Increases in student enrollment, budgets and heavy workloads, have created tremendous pressures on the faculty, staff, and administrators of community colleges. Faculty and staff development projects are sometimes the only avenue to relieve pressures by allowing community college faculty to link with professional colleagues, to modify and improve instructional material and delivery, and to keep the spark of creativity and enthusiasm alive for themselves and their students. (Summary, para. 1)
Second, the ever-increasing diversity of the student population at community colleges has brought an unprecedented number of nontraditional students to their doors (McClenney, 2004; Miller, Finley, & Vancko, 2000; Murray, 1999; Kim, 2002; Townsend & Twombly, 2007). Due to the increase in student diversity, the contemporary community college now enrolls many students who are underprepared for college level courses (Berg, 1999; Bettinger & Long, 2009; Cox, 2009; McClenney, 2004). Although many community college educators are very proud of the open-door policy, established by the Truman Commission Report of 1947, today the open-door mission brings new and different challenges to teaching a non-traditional student population (Bueschel & Venezia, 2006; Brown, 2003; Gerardi, 1990; Levin, 2004; McPhail & McPhail, 1999; Murray, 1999; Rendon & Valadez, 1994; Sanchez, 2000).

Record numbers of first-year students at public community colleges are required to take remedial courses (Cox, 2009; Shults, 2000; Wright, 1985; Young, 2002). For example, Gilroy (2010) found that 63% of first-year community college students enroll in remedial education courses. Rendon and Valedez (1994) and Miller and Kissing (2007) observed that diverse student demographics challenges community colleges to provide programs and services that incorporate the diverse learning styles of students. Sanchez (2000) posited that the current composition of the community college student body is represented by increased numbers of minority students, English as Second Language (ESL) students, immigrants, and first-generation students. This change will require that the teaching environment for community college faculty must adapt to meet their needs (Cox, 2009; Lail, 2005; Van Ast, 1999).

The student demographics have not only changed the faces inside the classrooms, but these demographics have also placed a different set of faculty and institutional expectations on community colleges (Chen, 2009; CCCSE, 2010; Kiefer, 1997; Outcalt, 2000; Waiwaiole & Noonan-Terry, 2008; Windham, & O., 1996). In describing the contemporary community college Quigley and Bailey (2003) noted:

After several decades of growth, community colleges now face a particularly challenging environment. All of the following factors are threatening established patterns of community college-activities and potentially altering the role of the college within the wider landscape of higher education: changes in pedagogic and production technology, state funding policies, the expectation of students, parents, policymaking, demographic trends, and the growth of new types of educational institutions and providers. (p. 70)

Laursen and Rocque (2009) claimed that faculty development can address first-and second-tier needs of the learner by providing opportunities for ongoing career and professional growth for faculty. Faculty development shows significant promise as a means to improve student success as a response to calls for increased accountability at community colleges (CCCSE, 2010; Diaz-Lefebvre, 2006; Laanan, 2002; Judd, 2006. Given the increased attention to faculty engagement and outcomes assessment at community colleges, faculty development may even help community colleges attract resources necessary to promote higher levels of student success (Laanan, 2001; Layne, Fryod, Simpson, Caso & Merton, 2004; Rendon & Valadez, 1994). Despite the recent interest in faculty development programs, some researchers found that pedagogical changes in programs and practices have not been sustained (Diamond, 2002; Gillespie et al. 2002).
Third, few community college faculty have been trained to teach at the college level (Fugate & Amey, 1999; Lail, 2009; Sprouse et al. 2008). Fewer yet have been formally engaged in curriculum development; consequently, community colleges have found it necessary to implement faculty development to address changes in instructional delivery modalities (Amey, 2000; Cross, 1986; Rafkin, 2000). Schrum et al. (2005) noted that faculty development can be a means to assist faculty in remaining current in their discipline to meet the diverse needs of students at the community college.

According to Murray (1999), community college faculty are faced with many instructional and organizational challenges, but none more difficult than tailoring instructional pedagogy to a diverse student population with individuals from different ethnic, cultural, socioeconomic, and academic backgrounds. Twombly (2004) raised a similar argument by suggesting that community college faculty are challenged to provide instruction for an increasingly diverse student population with broader ranges of academic preparation. Although this diversity is welcomed by the community college, diversity sometimes creates a unique pedagogical challenge for community college faculty (Mueller, 1991; Murray, 1999’ Waiwaiole & Noonan-Terry, 2008; Young, 2008). Twombly (2004) provided the rationale that a community college faculty must employ flexible and creative teaching methods to reach the diverse learning styles and interests of its students. In addition, she argued that internal and external demands are required major changes in the community college curriculum.

Many community colleges are responding to the calls for curriculum redesign, by providing a wide range of faculty development programs, such as the Professional Development Program for New Faculty (PDP-NF) at Montgomery College in Maryland. These three-session workshops provide professional development activities in the topical areas, such as infusing technology and curriculum, assessment, classroom management, culturally responsive pedagogy, and adult learning models (M. Newman, personal communication, September 27, 2010). Stern (2003) highlighted the online faculty development program offered at Valencia Community College in Florida, where asynchronous online format captures the participation of full-time and part-time faculty. She explained that an online option for faculty development activities provides a flexible schedule for faculty to enhance their pedagogical skills. According to Smith (2007) faculty development program at North Shore Community College, provides a range of faculty development activities linked monthly two-hour faculty/staff meetings. Ongoing faculty development activities sponsored by individual colleges are frequently viewed as a means to help faculty, especially full-time faculty—become more effective teachers (McElhany, 2007; Townsend & Twombly, 2007).

It is essential that community colleges undertake aggressive efforts to ensure that qualified faculty development coordinators are in place to design, implement, and evaluate faculty development programs (Lieberman, & Guskin, 2003). The literature suggests that at many community colleges, faculty development is left in the hands of senior level academic administrators (Murray, 1998; Nwagwu, 1998; Sorcinelli, 2006; Sydow, 2000).

**FACULTY DEVELOPMENT COORDINATORS**

Cohen and Brawer (2008) claimed that the greatest need in the area of faculty development was for faculty to emerge as specialists in the areas of curriculum development and assessment. Their
hunch was that these leaders would come from within the ranks of practicing instructors. They
stated, “Few individuals [faculty developers] with those instructional skills can be expected to
appear as new employees” (p. 457). Gaff and Simpson (1994) emphasized that typically faculty
development coordinators were drawn from a pool of faculty who took on the assignment in
addition to maintaining their teaching role. More specifically, Nwagwu (1998) and Sydow (2000)
indicated that faculty development coordinators serve dual roles—that of faculty developer and
that of senior-level administrator. Contemporary researchers (Murray, 1998; Nwagwu, 1998;
Sydow, 2000) considered faculty development to be more effective when chief academic officers
or deans of instruction are involved.

Lieberman and Guskin (2003) argued that as the role of faculty changes the role of faculty
developers’ changes as well. They noted:

Much like librarians, faculty developers will have to shift their thinking from being providers of
good and important technical services to professionals whose work is critical for the transformation
of the institution . . . To accomplish these critical functions faculty developers must perceive
themselves as change agents. Rather than directing support activities to individual faculty, faculty
developers will also need to take responsibility for supporting administrators and faculty leaders,
who have some sense that significant change is needed, by providing access to new conceptions
of educating students, new institutional forms to enable them to occur, and the change process
needed to accomplish both. (p. 263)

Hopple (1991) examined the effectiveness of professional development at community colleges.
Hopple found that 45% of 281 reporting community colleges and 34% of 156 reporting technical
colleges indicated the title of faculty developer varied and fell under the auspices of development
coordinator, director, or development committee which reported to the chief instructional officer.
Grant and Keim (2002) in their investigation, Faculty Development in Publicly Supported Two-
Year Colleges, found that at least 52% of faculty development coordinators were senior-level
administrators.

The findings from the Sorcinelli’s (2006) study revealed that 60% of the study’s participants
reported that they served in dual roles of director and faculty member. They explained:

It is not unusual for individuals responsible for faculty development at their institutions to hold
more than one position. Those with faculty status as well as an administrative title may be
perceived as more credible on issues of teaching and learning because of their direct involvement
in the classroom. (p. 32)

Watts and Hammonds (2002) suggested that the length of service of faculty development
coordinators was typically two or three years; however, they argued that the length of service of a
faculty development coordinator is not as important as the instructional and organizational skill
sets to implement change. Most recently, Eddy and Beach (2005) examined the length of service
of faculty developers, which they divided into three categories: (a) new professionals (i.e., less
than four years); (b) established developers (i.e., four to nine years); and (c) experienced
professionals with over 10 years in the field. The gaps continue to exist in the literature pertaining
to the exact number of year’s faculty development coordinators were employed in their position
and the impact that the number of years as a coordinator has on faculty development programs and services at their institutions.

Watts and Hammons (2002) stated:

The coordinator of professional development whether full time or part time, is obviously a key person in the success of the program and should be selected with certain skills and attributes in mind . . . He or she should also have a nonthreatening personality, an understanding of adult learning, and some training or expertise in human relations, group process, instructional design, organizational development, and strategies for implementing change. (p. 9)

Graf, Albright, and Wheeler (1992) listed seven abilities faculty development coordinators should possess to be effective. They included these abilities: (a) to engage in needs assessment activities; (b) to design and develop strategies that promote individual, pedagogical, curricular, and organizational growth; (c) to organize and implement specific programs, projects, and studies; (d) to plan and deliver oral presentations; (e) to conduct research about teaching and learning and the evaluation of instruction; (f) to produce print and non-print communications; and (g) to establish and maintain consulting relationships.

FACULTY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM BUDGETS

When Roueche and Roueche (1993) examined funding for faculty development programs their research revealed that funding to support faculty development remains one of the least prominent budget items at the majority of higher education institutions. The authors stated, “It is clear that faculty development has not been featured prominently in the budgets of the majority of American colleges and universities” (p.114). McClenney’s (2007) study, Faculty development getting results, indicated that adequate funding was crucial for the sustainability of faculty development programs. McClenney’s comments echoed Eison and Sorcinelli’s (1999) observation that applying for grants for faculty development efforts is both timely and competitive. Sorcinelli (2002) expressed ideas about funding and teaching learning centers. She stated the following:

A related issue that merits discussion is funding for the center…while centers can get started with modest funding (I opened the Center for Teaching with an operating budget of $5,000), improving teaching costs [sic] money. Funds for orientations, conferences, teaching technologies, faculty release time, and outside speakers can quickly add up . . . We find that funds readily come our way if we continually build a track record of quality programming in areas that are deemed important by students, faculty, and academic leaders. (p. 17)

Grant and Keim (2002) found that faculty development programs appear to be reasonably well-funded. Their findings indicated that more than 90% of two-year colleges received financial support for faculty development from multiple funding sources, including state funds, grants, and local budgets. Forty-three percent allocated more than 1% of their total budget on faculty development (Grant & Keim, 2002, p. 803). Funding to support faculty development continues to be an ongoing discussion in higher education (Sorcinelli, 2006).
A variety of faculty development models have been proposed over the years (Bergquist & Phillips, 1975a, 1975b; Cohen & Brawer, 2008; Murray, 2002; Stern, 2003; Wach, 2007). Bergquist and Phillips (1975a) were among the first to offer some conceptual ideas about faculty development. Their model delineated three components of faculty development: (a) instructional development, (b) personal development, and (c) organizational development. The authors reported that instructional development was a primary dimension, and personal and organizational development together constituted a secondary dimension. During the past several decades, faculty development programs at community colleges have taken the form of several different models. In addition, Brown, Hugstad, and Hugstad (1991) highlighted seven key faculty development program attributes. They suggest an effective faculty development program must be educational, comprehensive, goal-oriented, flexible, varied in approaches, linked with personnel, and continuous.

Cranton’s (1996) perspective of faculty development models was different from the Brown, Hugstad, and Hugstad’s (1991) model. Cranton stated, “Faculty or professional development must include reflective practice to guide the educator along a path to insightful decision making” (p. 25). Cranton further proposed that classroom action research projects and collaboration across disciplines were critical elements of faculty development activities.

Sides-Gonzales and Byrd’s (2002) study Pathways to Excellence examined the goals of faculty development programs at community colleges using four distinct components: (a) teaching and learning, (b) technical skill-building, (c) leadership development, and (d) personal growth. They concluded that the overall goal was to provide an in-service faculty development program with a venue for employee growth and achievement.

Schrum et al. (2005) explored the benefits of online faculty development training models for community college faculty. They pointed out that faculty development models, with an online option, may motivate faculty and increase faculty participation. Fulton, Noonan, and Dorris (2004) conducted a study to identify the effectiveness of a web-based faculty development module. Based on their contention, web-based learning existed not just to meet the needs of students, but also to facilitate pedagogical strategies for faculty. They concluded:

Web-mediated professional development is pedagogically promising in that faculty can work together to explore issues over time, access internet resources, observe and participate in mentors’ and peers’ virtual classrooms, and work with international experts. Participants can be more active and more reflective in conversations, which is helpful to all and especially significant for new or introspective staff members. (para. 2)

The researchers observed that online faculty development can be both inexpensive and effective as it meets a faculty’s needs at times and locations that are convenient for participants (Summary, para. 3).
Faculty Development Activities

It is clear that until the most recent decade, faculty development was synonymous with in-service workshops for individual teachers to enhance personal interests (Cohen & Brawer, 2008). Gaff and Simpson (1994) argued that one of the main reasons for in-service activities was to upgrade each participant’s knowledge about the curriculum and to study the psychology of her or his teaching and counseling skills. In examining the reasons faculty attend professional development programs, Schmuck and Runkel (1994) noted that faculty chose the workshops they wished to attend and went to them as free agents in search of professional development. Roueche, Roueche, and Milron (1993) identified faculty development activities as “activities (e.g., regularly scheduled formal and informal interactive events, and independent reading) that should be continuous throughout the academic year for all faculty” (p. 116). In addition the authors suggested that “for faculty development efforts to be effective, there must be ‘something in it for faculty’—that is, there must be mechanisms by which faculty are motivated by, involved in, and enthusiastic about their effort” (Roueche, Roueche, & Milron, 1993, p. 117).

Millis (1994) offered a narrower view of faculty development by proposing that faculty development efforts should be coordinated by faculty and should not include activities for entire staff and administrators. He advised a faculty development approach could include faculty newsletters, faculty discussion groups, individual consultation opportunities, workshops or seminars, mentoring programs, classroom observations, career counseling, research assistance, and sabbaticals. Grubb and associates (1999) maintained faculty is most concerned about faculty development activities which benefit faculty personal growth. In contrast, Diamond (2002) pointed out that faculty development activities can expand from just focusing on faculty personal interests to include instructional and organizational development activities. Moreover, Diamond noted that faculty development should also focus on improving the teaching skills of individual faculty and not limited to his or her personal growth. Diamond (2002), developed a model gleaned from the POD Network (2007) to identify the content of faculty development areas that focus on personal growth, instructional development activities, and organizational development activities (see Table 3). Table 3 illustrates Diamond’s model of faculty development, instructional development, and organizational development activities.
Table 2

Faculty, Instructional, and Organizational Development Activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Faculty Development Activities</th>
<th>Instructional Development Activities</th>
<th>Organizational Development Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>classroom visits by professional development staff</td>
<td>course and curriculum design</td>
<td>workshops and seminars</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>personal consultation</td>
<td>implementation and evaluation</td>
<td>individual consultation with administrators and faculty members</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>workshops and seminars</td>
<td>incorporation of information and educational technologies into coursework</td>
<td>use of video to analyze teaching styles and techniques</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Diamond, 2002

Chism, Lees, and Evenbeck (2002) determined that faculty development has not risen to the forefront of priorities at community colleges as a necessary requirement for faculty. They concluded:

Effective faculty development involves working with the natural cycle of teaching change that characterizes faculty growth. Through providing activities, support, challenges, and resources at critical intervals, facilitators of faculty development can maximize their potential to foster change. . . When faculty development is successful in this way; informed innovation in teaching becomes part of the fabric of the institution. (Summary section, para.1)

CHALLENGES FOR FACULTY MEMBERS AND FACULTY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

According to the findings from the Sorcinelli (2006) study, challenges facing faculty and faculty development programs included, balancing multiple roles, changing faculty roles, and student-centered teaching at all institutional types, with the exception of community colleges, who indicated that teaching underprepared students was the top challenge facing faculty and faculty development programs.

Brancato (2003) noted that higher education has faced numerous challenges, resulting in a sense of unpredictability and uncertainty among educators, and these challenges ultimately pressure institutions to address the demands of students, society, and organizations. The author said, “Faculty is challenged to confront demands and reflect on their current practices, knowledge, and skills to enhance students’ learning” (p. 24). Wetherill, Burton, Calhoun, and Thomas (2002) identified similar challenges in reference to teaching and learning, stating, “A critical challenge to improving the quality of teaching and student performance outcomes is to reconsider how faculty are initially trained and provided opportunities for professional renewal and retooling throughout their career” (p. 54).
Stolzenberg (2002) indicated that community colleges are challenged with identifying faculty development activities on an ongoing basis. Over 25 years ago, Eash and Lane (1985) reported in their overview, *Evaluation of a model of faculty development: Implications for educational policy*, that one major challenge of faculty development was identifying a means to motivate faculty to attend and participate. In addition, the authors outlined four additional challenges that hinder the ongoing daily operations of faculty development activities:

- a socialized professoriate that has fixed attitudes of performance expectations and responsibilities;
- weak program planning systems of the responsible academic administrators, which are haphazard and short ranged;
- lack of development capital and fiscal incentives for programs; and resistance of traditional structure (e.g., departments and colleges) to overall academic planning. (p. 134)

Eash and Lane’s (1985) findings have been supported by contemporary researchers as well. For example, Smith (2007) described several challenges community colleges face when attempting to involve faculty in faculty development. Smith determined that time and resources continued to be significant influencers of faculty development programs. Smith advised the following:

- Faculty workload of five courses plus advising and community service raises questions about when faculty can fit it into their schedules.
- Meeting time is difficult to fit into teaching schedules. Faculty members who must attend a meeting and cannot find someone to cover their course are left with few options.
- Cost to attend conferences can be prohibitive, especially if the college does not reimburse for travel, meals and/or transportation; compensation or stipends for attending a session are not always available, making it impractical for faculty to attend professional development sessions.
- Over the course of a year, there may be multiple opportunities to attend a conference or workshop. Having multiple options and then deciding which session to attend can be complicated and confusing. (p. 35)

Notably, Smith mentioned barriers related to adjunct faculty engagement in faculty development activities; he found that adjunct faculty:

- are not integrated into the life of the college and therefore they are not aware of faculty development offering;
- may not be on the college e-mail directory or the regular phone system, so it can be difficult to contact them;
- don't receive the college newsletter; and most work full-or part-time in another career, and scheduling sessions can be difficult. (p.25)

Laanan (2001) asserted that simply providing faculty development programs was not enough; community colleges must respond to the call of accountability by implementing strategies for faculty development practices. If the goal is not to simply provide faculty development activities
but to facilitate faculty development to promote student success and other institutional effectiveness, it is crucial for community colleges to become more strategic about their faculty development offerings (Bailey, 2003; Watts & Hammons, 2002). For example, what are the goals of faculty development programs? What types of outcomes assessments are assigned to the faculty development programs? Community college faculty development programs can be a pivotal force in helping to create ways for faculty to work with students to promote student success (CCCSE, 2010; Syed & Mojock, 2008). Levine (2004) viewed faculty development programs as a challenge for community colleges. He speculated:

The demand for professional development programs can be expected to soar in an information economy in which the half-life of knowledge is growing shorter and shorter and workers are required to continually upgrade their skills and knowledge. Two-year colleges will be seen as a particularly good source for professional development in technical, vocational, and service fields. Beyond individuals seeking instruction, business, government, and the not-for-profit sector also will ask two-year colleges, which have earned a reputation for social responsiveness and speedy action, to assist them in creating contract programs for their workers. (p. 2)

Grahek (2007) argued for the need to incorporate global pedagogy into the curriculum, especially because accrediting organizations are rapidly transforming the concept of faculty development in higher education by requiring institutions to identify and measure teaching effectiveness; however, Carducii (2002) presented a compelling argument against a one-size-fits-all approach to faculty development initiatives, noting that such programs ignored the unique challenges, needs, and goals found among community college faculty members (Conclusion, para. 14). These challenges place pressures on administrators to identify and implement strategies and tactics necessary to make available, promote, and reward successful completion of faculty development opportunities (Murray, 1995).

**Current Practices and Emergent Directions of Faculty Development Programs**

Recently, faculty development coordinators identified several factors driving change and shaping the future of faculty development. Among the factors noted were developing and sustaining the vitality of all faculty members: newcomers, mid-career, seniors, and part-timers; the increasingly diverse student body (Burnstad, 2002; Lail, 2009; Rendon & Valezde, 1994). Another factor is the changing paradigm for teaching, learning, and scholarly pursuits (Barr & Tagg, 1995; O’Banion, 2003; Van Ast, 1999). Lail (2005) expanded on earlier comments by Barr and Tagg, (1995) and Van Ast, (1999) as discussed in her article, Are new faculty prepared to teach diverse learner? She explained:

Yet a major curricular revolution has emerged. We have certainly heard a call for the pivotal shift from teacher-centered instruction to learner-centered learning, which is generating new teaching-learning models. With this call comes urgency—that all community college faculty become as skilled in the detection, identification, and implementation of diverse student-learning styles and challenges as they are in their discipline contents. (p. 32)

O’Banion (1994) identified seven interrelated trends that created opportunities that made the 1990s a promising time for faculty development at community colleges: (a) continuing public and
political pressures to improve the quality of higher education, (b) an increasing level of competition for funding, (c) a rise in educational consumerism, (d) changing faculty demographics, growing diversity in the student body, (e) an expanding base of useful, relevant research about college teaching and learning, and (f) a rising level of faculty development expertise.

Fulton, Noonan, and Dorris (2004) observed the literature regarding the role of faculty professional development was clear. They concluded that a quality faculty development program ought to improve a faculty members’ ability to (a) facilitate student learning, (b) build a community of education professionals, and (c) help faculty assess their teaching outcomes and their students’ learning outcomes. Watts and Hammons (2002) argued that change was a major force in shaping the focus of faculty development. They found the following:

Community colleges are continuing to change in response to community and societal changes and those who lead, teach, and provide support in those colleges will need to continually grow and change as well. Professional development has provided and will continue to provide the necessary programs to meet those growth needs. Although there are challenges and although its form and substance may change, professional development appears to be a permanent fixture in community colleges. (p. 10)

Rouseff-Baker (2002) asserted that ongoing faculty development programs, faculty leadership teams, and a supportive administration will help manage many challenges community colleges faced in the twenty-first century. A later study conducted by McElhany (2007) indicated a widespread concern from faculty regarding the need to embrace web-based course delivery. She suggests faculty are reluctant to teach online. Faculty development can be one venue to provide faculty with strategies to teach online, as well as to provide a means to train faculty on pedagogical strategies to infuse technology into the lecture.

Gappa, Austin, and Trice (2007) observed that many institutions are taking innovative approaches to faculty development. The authors suggests that a dual access approach, both on and off campus, and allows faculty to participate in faculty development activities that best match their interests and their circumstances. Dusick and Yildirim (2000) noted that an online mode, as well as face-to-face workshops, provides a flexible approach to increase access for faculty to participate in faculty development activities.

**SUMMARY**

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine faculty development practices at public community colleges. The literature review summarized and explained faculty development in higher education. The chapter summarized the three contemporary theories which undergirded faculty development practices in this study: faculty development, instructional development, and organizational development.
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St. Louis University

Justin Hampton
M.S., Atmospheric Science
University of Illinois UC

ABSTRACT
Operation Calculus is a program designed to close the achievement gap in honors mathematics courses between African-American students and Caucasian students at Eisenhower High School. In Decatur Public School (DPS) District 61, there is a significant academic achievement disparity between African American and Caucasian students in many subject areas, most noticeably in mathematics. To address this issue, Operation Calculus provides a four-week summer instructional session to pre-teach students the math class in which they are enrolled for the upcoming academic school year. Students receive instruction in the following courses: Honors Algebra II, Pre-Calculus, and AP Calculus. In addition to summer instructional sessions, Operation Calculus provides students with continuous instruction throughout the school year, individualized tutoring, and specialized ACT prep instruction. Lastly, the program’s effectiveness can be linked to the student-teacher relationship building practices, which creates a positive impact on the current outlook of the possibility of attending an institute of higher learning.

INTRODUCTION
Operation Calculus was established July 1st 2013. Mrs. Laura Anderson and Mrs. Amy Zahm, assistant principals at Eisenhower High School, established the program. Before the pilot program was initiated, students were given a survey in which many answers indicated that honors math courses proved most difficult. Previous data revealed a large number of African-American students dropping out of honors math courses; also a large number of African-American students failing such courses. The program was devised around the concept of pre-teaching students their honors math course over the summer before the academic school year began. The conclusion was drawn that due to the pre-exposure of the course material, students will have a greater understanding of the material, which will foster a better academic performance.

After the surveys were reviewed, prospective students were identified and invited to take part in the program. The summer instructional sessions were divided into two cohorts: Honors Algebra II and Pre-Calculus. Students were to meet five days a week for three hours a day. In total, 22 students participated in the program. The most important aspect about the program’s participation is that all of the students are volunteers. Each student committed to the instructional schedule without receiving academic credit. This type of student commitment is necessary to achieve the
desired results in such programs designed to improve academic performance. The correlation between student achievement and relationship building has been well documented. In this age of high stakes testing and accountability for both students and teachers, it is important to examine the evidence to determine if these relationships are indeed a factor in raising student achievement. Advocates for the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act assert that the way to improve student achievement is to focus on test scores. However, learning is a process that involves cognitive and social psychological dimensions, and both processes should be considered if academic achievement is to be maximized (Hallinan, 2008). Regardless if a teacher-student relationship is close or fraught with conflict, that relationship seems to both contribute to, and be an indicator of, a child’s adjustment to school and academic success (Pianta & Stuhlman, 2004).

A program such as Operation Calculus can provide the necessary resources that could potentially make the difference in students attending college. Operation Calculus provides students with instruction, tutoring, academic support, and positive reinforcement that will help them gain confidence in their own academic capabilities. As our society and workforce evolves and becomes more technologically advanced, those who possess strong mathematical skills are becoming a high commodity among STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering, and Math) businesses, an infrastructure where minorities are highly underrepresented.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The Algebra Project, founded by Dr. Robert P Moses, is a national organization committed to developing mathematical literacy as a tool for civic and economic inclusion for inner-city and low-income students. Drawing on almost 30 years of experience working with low-performing students in schools with high minority populations, the Algebra Project is designed to address student success in mathematics. Despite improvements in academic performance in certain areas, it appears advanced math classes are one of the most segregated places on college and university campuses in the United States (Walker 2007).

Contrary to persistent myth, it is not a discernible conclusion that minority students lack interest in math, or do not have high educational aspirations (Walker 2007). In fact, several studies document that minority students sometimes have more positive attitudes toward mathematics and higher educational aspirations than their Caucasian counterparts, especially in early years of secondary education (Goldsmith, 2004; Strutchens & Silver, 2000). Yet, students from these minority groups are less likely than Asian American and Caucasian students to complete advanced mathematics classes (National Center for Education Statistics, 2004: Teitelbaum 2003). Although schools have achieved greater parity for some college-prep courses – algebra and geometry, for example – there are still ethnicity gaps in enrollments in courses like trigonometry and calculus. These gaps have profound implications on student achievement (Teitelbaum, 2003). Despite the curricular reforms of the 1980’s, the “algebra for all” movements of the 1990’s, and the advent of No Child Left Behind in the 2000’s, there is still great variability in opportunities to learn higher mathematics in schools across the United States. Students attending predominantly minority schools still receive fewer opportunities to learn rigorous mathematics (Darling-Hammond, 2004; Tate, 1997).

Brookline High School in Brookline, MA created a similar program entitled African-American Scholars, designed to address the academic performance of minority students. A subsidiary
program within African American Scholars entitled the Calculus Project was designed to increase scholastic performance, specifically in math. The key component of the Calculus Project is to pre-teach students math courses before they entered the academic year. Operation Calculus adopted this method, however, other practices were developed during the pilot year to provide the program with a level of authenticity.

The effectiveness of programs designed to raise academic achievement is dependent on the ability of students and teachers to build positive relationships. Adults often assume that children like school due to the opportunities it offers for peer interaction. Although previous studies support that notion, research also indicates that certain teacher traits serve as strong indicators of students’ like or dislike for school (Montalvo, Mansfield, & Miller, 2007). Research by Montalvo et al. (2007) has shown that students will put forth greater effort and demonstrate a higher degree of persistence if they like their teachers. In addition, findings indicate that students attain better grades in classes taught by teachers they like (Montalvo et al., 2007). The evidence linking student-teacher relationships with student achievement has been consistent across grade levels. Given these findings, it is important for all students and teachers to have equal access to establishing positive relationships with their teachers.

**METHODOLDY**

The most common question asked about Operation Calculus is why does it only target African-American students? This decision was based on the performance data of the student body. All data indicated that there is a large disparity in the academic performance between African-American and Caucasian students. For example, if the data showed that female students displayed a low academic performance in mathematics, the program would target females.

Operation Calculus was developed around a similar project designed by Brookline High School. Academic evaluation of the student body revealed similar data with poor mathematical performances amongst minority students. The program Brookline High School instituted focused on pre-teaching math courses to students. Operation Calculus decided to take its efforts a few steps further by continuing its pre-teaching throughout the school year, along with an intensive tutoring schedule, and specialized ACT prep courses under the direction of the Huntington Learning Institute.

In the process of constructing the curriculum of Operation Calculus, a list of goals was formulated to measure its success. After devising the program, the main goals were as follows: to show improvement in analytical math skills during the pre-teaching instructional sessions during the summer, increase the retention rate for African-American students enrolled in honors math courses, decrease the number of African-American student failures in honors math courses, increase the number of African-American students to meet/exceed the state standards of the PSAE/ACT exams, increase the number of African-American students taking Advanced Placement Calculus, and increase the number of African American students eligible to be inducted into the National Honor Society. During the pilot year, Operation Calculus has successfully met and exceeded the goals outlined in its initial proposal. Eisenhower High School is currently awaiting the results of the PSAE/ACT exams.

In order to truly enhance a student’s academic experience, he or she must be challenged. Without the daily challenge and constant stimulation, students become lackadaisical about the progress of
their education. Operation Calculus provides students the opportunity to take Advanced Placement Calculus in their senior year, which can prove to be the most challenging class in any high school curriculum. In addition, Operation Calculus can also provide students with the necessary preparation and means of self-confidence to successfully complete AP Calculus. Given the early success of the program’s pilot year, others within the student body recognize the commitment to education that members of Operation Calculus continue to display. As other students work with members of Operation Calculus, the improved positive attitude towards education becomes infectious, therefore, improving the overall academic performance of the student body, and increasing the number of college-bound students.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

During the organization and initiation of Operation Calculus, African-American and disadvantaged students were invited to take part in the program. Over the past 10 years, Eisenhower High School has seen a significant academic achievement disparity between African-American and Caucasian students. This gap is the widest in mathematics. 2012-13 course enrollment data reflects that 49 African-American students dropped an honors math class, 42 failed during the first semester, and 21 during second semester. In 2013, 9% of African-American students met or exceeded state requirements on the Prairie State Achievement Exam. These statistics are dramatically worse than those of Caucasian classmates.

During the summer pre-teaching instructional sessions, students were given a pre-test on the first day and a post-test on the last day. This was done to measure the growth of retained knowledge over the course of the instructional sessions. Divided into two cohorts, the Algebra II cohort on average improved 18% on the post-examination. The Pre-Calculus cohort on average improved 22.8%. Every student member of the Operation Calculus program showed improvement from the pre-test to the post-test.

In the methodology section are the outlined goals of the Operation Calculus program. After the first semester of the 2013-14 school year, Operation Calculus is on pace to meet and exceed every goal.

1. GOAL: Less than 29% of African-American Students will fail 1st semester honors math course.
   RESULT: 9% of African-American students failed their honors math course.

2. GOAL: Less than 15% of Operation Calculus students will fail 1st semester honors math course.
   RESULT: 0% of Operation Calculus students failed their honors math course.

3. GOAL: Less than 39% of African-American students will drop 2013-14 honors math course.
   RESULT: 7% of African-American students dropped an honors math course.

4. GOAL: Less than 15% of Operation Calculus students will drop 2013-14 honors math course.
   RESULT: 0% of Operation Calculus students dropped an honors math course. *NOTE:
four Operation Calculus students are taking two honors math courses to put them on track to take Advanced Placement Calculus during their senior year.

5. **GOAL:** Increase the number of African-American students taking advanced math courses (Pre-Calculus and Advanced Placement Calculus).

**RESULTS:** Pre Calculus Enrollment:

- 2012-13 – 15 African-American Students
- 2013-14 – 12 African-American Students
- 2014-15 – 19 African American Students scheduled

AP Calculus Enrollment:

- 2012-13 – 2 African American Students
- 2013-14 – 4 African American Students
- 2014-15 – 9 African-American Students scheduled

**CONCLUSION**

In accordance with DPS district, this program will improve the culture amongst its students, during and outside of school. It will also create a climate that fosters achievement through small group discussions that are centered on topics such as: STEM careers, education, college, and society. Through the Operation Calculus program the community will be improved. The program will support, promote, celebrate, and foster an environment of high achievement and expectations. When students have a positive teacher-student relationship, they adjust to school more easily, view school as a positive experience, exhibit fewer behavior difficulties, display better social skills, and demonstrate higher academic achievement (Buyse et al., 2009). They are also more active participants in class, express a greater interest in college, and maintain higher grade point averages (Hallinan, 2008). Students will have the drive to stay in school and achieve to their highest potential because of the ongoing support from peers and staff members. Furthermore, high achieving students are better prepared to be successful in post-secondary education, and will become more active and productive citizens in the community.
References


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