

CAREER LINES OF CHIEF ACADEMIC OFFICERS
AT RURAL TWO-YEAR COLLEGES

by

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A DISSERTATION

IN

HIGHER EDUCATION

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty
of Texas Tech University in
Partial Fulfillment of
the Requirements for
the Degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to acknowledge the direction and support of my committee members: Dr. Brent Cejda, Dr. John Murray, and Dr. Bonita Butner. Without their contributions, the completion of this study and document would not have been possible. I offer a special thank you to Dr. Brent Cejda for his endless hours of guidance in this project. I would also like to acknowledge Dr. Phillip Barry and Dr. Dave Gallatin at Mesalands Community College for their encouragement to pursue this endeavor and to finish this project. I am also grateful to the Mesalands Community College Board of Trustees for allowing me the opportunity to pursue the doctorate.

Finally, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my family members. My wife, Krescene, and my two daughters, Tara and Brooke. Without their support, understanding, patience, and sacrifice, I would not have been able to complete this project. I am thankful to my parents, Gary and Su Allen, for their excitement and encouragement of this endeavor and instilling in me a sense of always wanting more.

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ABSTRACT

There is evidence in the literature that two-year colleges will be facing a significant shortage of administrative leaders in the next few years. While the chief academic officer (CAO) plays a significant role in the academic agenda of an institution, a number of CAOs are expected to move vertically to the chief executive officer (CEO) position, move laterally to another CAO position at another institution, or retire in the next few years. However, to date only a few national studies have been reported in the literature that focus on the career lines to the CAO position. Nationally, nearly 70% of two-year colleges are rural thus constituting a large portion of the population of two-year institutions. Yet, none of the studies in the literature have focused on the career lines to the CAO position at rural two-year colleges.

The purpose of this study was to examine the career lines of CAOs at rural two-year institutions, and the entry points and boundaries which shape those career lines. Four research questions were developed to investigate the entry points, job experiences, career lines, and boundaries of the rural CAOs. The data for this study was drawn from a larger study of CAOs conducted by the National Council of Instructional Administrators (NCIA). Career line data from 72 CAOs at rural two-year institutions was used for this study representing 63% of the CAOs in the NCIA database.

Although no single point of entry for the CAO career line was found in this study, a faculty position in higher education was identified as the most frequent

entry point. Additionally, division/department chair was identified as a common point of entry into higher education. Combined, faculty and division/department chair positions represented 52.1% of the CAO entry points.

CAOs have held a variety of positions in higher education prior to becoming a CAO. Two-thirds of CAOs at rural institutions (66.7%) have been a dean or director prior to becoming a CAO. Half of current CAOs (50%) have been the CAO at another institution and nearly one-third (31.9%) have held an associate or assistant chief academic officer position.

Seven career lines were found leading to the CAO position at rural two-year colleges. A total of only five positions were found in the seven career lines: CAO, associate academic officer, academic dean, division/department chair, and faculty. These seven career lines represented 73% of the population.

In this study, two types of boundaries were observable: single institution (firm) and two-year institution (occupational). Both types of boundary become increasingly narrower the closer one moves to the CAO position. Of the CAOs in this study, 69.6% moved to their current position within the same organization. Including those moving within the same institution, 91.3% moved from either within the same organization or another two-year institution.

While this study was the first study to focus on career lines of CAOs at rural two-year colleges, additional research is needed to fully understand the career paths to the CAO position.

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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

Two year colleges will be facing a shortage of administrative leaders in the near future. During the last decade, the number of vacancies in the chief executive officer (CEO) position at community colleges increased dramatically. In 1992, 12% of the CEOs in two-year institutions left office (Mooney, 1993). A more recent study on community college presidents indicates that 45% will retire by 2007 (Shults, 2001). Who will fill these vacancies? Several national studies have reported that chief academic officers (CAOs) are the most likely persons to fulfill the role of CEO (McKenney & Cejda, 2000; Ross & Green, 1998; Twombly, 1988; Vaughan, 1990). Table 1.1 shows the percent of CAOs that become community college presidents by study.

Table 1.1. Studies of CAOs who become CEOs.

Study	% of CAOs Who Become CEOs
McKenney and Cejda, 2000	30
Ross and Green, 1998	33
Twombly, 1988	27
Vaughan, 1990	50

Twombly (1988) provided three possible explanations on why two-year college CEOs come from the academic ranks: 1) they may be viewed as more effective in working with faculty, the most important employees of the institution; 2) the academic side of the institution has the most power and is able to control

position appointments within the institution; and 3) presidents with academic backgrounds may have more credibility with internal and external constituencies.

There is additional evidence that the percentage of CAOs moving to the presidency will continue at similar rates as it has been in the previous decade. In a study conducted by Murray, Murray, and Summar (2000), 34.2% of the respondents reported an interest in the presidency at their present institution and another 28.2% reported an interest in the presidency at another college.

Besides the CAOs having an interest in moving to the CEO position, a number of CAOs could leave their current institution to pursue other interests. In the study of Murray et al. (2000), it was revealed that 33.4% of CAO respondents indicated a moderate to high propensity to leave the institution they are currently located in; furthermore, nearly 38% of respondents indicated they would likely search for a new position in the next three to five years. Anderson, Murray, and Olivarez (2002) reported that over half of current CAOs are over 53 years old and will likely retire in high numbers in the next few years.

As a significant number of CAOs move into the role of CEO at two-year colleges, an equally large number of CAOs (30%) are moving laterally to CAO positions at other institutions (McKenney & Cejda, 2000). These lateral moves may be explained by increases in status through greater job responsibilities or increased resources at larger institutions. Caplow and McGee (2001) argued that prestige can be a motive for movement in higher education. Twombly (1988) also noted a high degree of lateral mobility in each of the four top administrative positions in higher education.

With some 60% of CAOs at two-year colleges either moving to the presidency, moving laterally or retiring, one must ask, who will fill these positions? Several studies suggest that many CAOs begin their careers as faculty (Boggs, 1988; Evelyn, 2001; Moden, Miller, & Williford, 1987; Moore, 1983; Reid & Rogers, 1981). Shults (2001) reported that 36% of two-year college presidents believe that one-fourth of their faculty will retire in the next five years. More faculty will then need to be recruited to fill these faculty vacancies while some of these new faculty hires will not make a faculty position their career since they may move up the ranks to the CAO and/or CEO position. Faculty shortages at community colleges then may open the labor market as institutions become more competitive in recruiting new faculty (Fugate & Amey, 2000). Shults (2001) also reported that 35% of the community college presidents surveyed indicated that 25% or more of their chief administrators will retire in the next five years. Two-year colleges could be facing a major staffing crisis in years to come.

The CAO is considered the individual responsible for the educational or academic component of the institution (Murray, et al., 2000; Vaughan, 1990). Although the CAO is the individual accountable for the academics and fulfillment of the mission of the institution, few studies have been conducted that provide in depth information about the professional and personal characteristics of chief academic officers until recently (McKenney & Cejda, 2000; Moden, et al., 1987; Walker, 2000).

Statement of the Problem

Several national studies have been conducted on the CAO (Amey, VanDerLinden, & Brown, 2002; Hawthorne, 1994; McKenney & Cejda, 2000; Moore, Twombly, & Martorana, 1985; Vaughan, 1990). Additional studies isolated to a specific state have been reported in Kansas (Parker & Parker, 1985), Michigan (Esmond, 1989), and North Carolina (Teague, 2000). However, only three studies have been reported in the literature that focuses on the career lines of CAOs (Amey, VanDerLinden, & Brown, 2002; Cejda, McKenney, & Burley, 2001; Twombly, 1988). Although these studies have focused on CAOs, none have focused on rural two-year colleges. Katsinas (2003) reported that of the 1,070 public two-year institutions in the United States, 736 are classified as rural. With nearly 70% of public two-year colleges found in a rural setting, the need to study rural two-year colleges as a distinct group is critical. No other studies to date have focused on rural two-year colleges. Even Katsinas's classification system incorporates only accredited two-year colleges. Of the 736 rural two-year colleges, 461 are considered small (under 2,499 students). The need to study how the CAOs arrive at their current position at rural two-year colleges is critical with the rapid turnover described in the literature.

As previously pointed out, the CAO is the individual responsible for the academic mission of the two-year institution (Murray, et al., 2000; Vaughan, 1990). The CAO as the lead person for the academic mission and reporting directly to the college president (CEO) plays a pivotal role in the direction of his/her college. Where did today's CAOs come from? How did they arrive

there? Do they move vertically from faculty positions to the CAO position within the same institution? Do they move laterally from other institutions? Do they come from institutions within the same state or region? Do they stay within the same type of institution as they progress? What positions does a CAO hold prior to becoming a CAO?

Most two-year colleges conduct a national search when their CAO position is vacant. National searches are expensive. Currently, an on-line ad in the Chronicle of Higher Education is \$205 and with print ads at an additional \$1.30 per word above the \$205 and display ads beginning at \$750 dollars (<http://chronicle.com/>, 2005). If it could be determined where CAOs move from, two-year colleges could focus their financial resources on the state(s) or region the future CAO is likely to move from (Cejda & McKenney, 2000).

Aspiring CAOs typically apply for several positions prior to obtaining a CAO position. If these future leaders know where and how to focus their efforts, they may be able to streamline the application process. This type of information would also be beneficial to leadership programs to assist them in efficiently preparing graduates.

National studies on either CEOs or CAOs have reported that CAOs often progress into the CEO position of two-year colleges causing a need for positions to be filled with other CAOs (lateral move) or new CAOs (vertical move) (McKenney & Cejda, 2000; Ross & Green, 1998; Twombly, 1988; Vaughan, 1990). Shults (2001) reported that 45% of the current community college CEOs will retire by 2007. Additionally, he also reported that 35% of the presidents he

surveyed indicated that at least 25% of their chief administrators will retire by 2006. Furthermore, Murray, et al. (2000) reported that 38% of CAOs could potentially leave their current position within the next year. Anderson, et al. (2002) reported over half of current CAOs are over 53 and will likely retire soon. With some 60% of CAOs at two-year colleges either moving to the CEO position, moving to another institution, or retiring, who will fill these positions and what previous positions and/or experiences will prepare them? The literature suggests that two-year colleges could be facing a major staffing crisis in the next few years.

Institutional leaders and individuals interested in becoming a two-year college CAO need to understand the current situation of administrative and faculty vacancies and now more than ever be conscious of the position of CAO and those individuals who will fill these vacancies. Authors have argued that institutions should develop and continually refine leadership training programs for individuals within their own institution (Evelyn, 2001). This argument has a solid foundation as studies have reported that many institutions hire CAOs from within the same institution (Cejda & McKenney, 2000; Clark, et al., 1990). However, is this true of rural two-year colleges?

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to examine the career lines and experiences of CAOs serving in rural two-year colleges. To accomplish this purpose, information obtained from a database gathered by the National Council of

Instructional Administrators (NCIA) during the 2002-2003 academic year will be used.

Theoretical Framework

Althauser and Kalleberg (1981) described two types of internal labor markets found in higher education: firm internal labor markets (FILM) and occupational internal labor markets (OILM). Firm internal labor markets are those labor markets within a single institution. Based on this theory, the primary mode of career mobility would be within a single institution. Twombly (1988) and Cejda et al. (2001) in their respective studies showed that career mobility not only occurs within institution but also between institutions. OILM then describes those labor markets which exist between similar types of institutions and similar positions to form a career line to a top-level administrative position (CEO, CAO, Chief Student Affairs Officer, or Chief Business Officer).

The theoretical framework for this study is that of OILM put forth by Althauser and Kalleberg (1981) and applied to higher education by Cejda, et al. (2001) and Twombly (1988). The OILM is used to describe a series of sequential positions (career line) or steps (career path) to a given administrative position. Higher education, like other types of labor markets in business and industry, have positions which require at a minimum a basic understanding of the field in which it exists. Hiring candidates with an educational background, specifically a post-secondary background, seems advantageous for most positions in higher education with the assumption that persons from within higher education have an

understanding of what occurs in higher education institutions. Two-year colleges appear to have formed their own internal labor markets as noted by job announcements listing preference to candidates having a certain number of years experience in two-year colleges. Perhaps even more specifically, experience at a specified type of two-year college (public vs. private) may be required.

Many OILMs exist within higher education. First, there can be a labor market within a specific type of institution like comprehensive community colleges. Labor markets can even be confined within a geographical region or state. Clark, Twombly, and Moore (1990) pointed out that state systems and multi-campus systems create labor markets of their own. Each of these administrative labor markets have been studied using the OILM model. What has not been studied is whether labor markets exist within a certain type of two-year college defined by community population, rural. Do individuals tend to stay within a certain type of institution in certain size communities?

As a result of her research, Twombly (1988) argued that OILMs may not be the best way to describe the labor markets found in two year colleges since it is difficult to determine a precise career path to the CAO position at two year colleges. Rather a set of skills and responsibilities acquired en route to the CAO position may be more important than a specific career line. She also admitted that it would be difficult to assess the exact set of skills and responsibilities necessary to meet the CAO qualifications and to identify any particular order in which they should be acquired. Although Twombly provided her own argument,

it is more common for persons in the CAO position to have two-year college experience prior to their current appointment than not. Most commonly, CAOs have been faculty during their trek to the CAO position (Murray et al., 2000). Twombly (1988) also pointed out that although the entry point for CAOs into two-year colleges is not exact, many enter as faculty members. To date, the literature suggests that the OILM is the strongest model to describe career lines of the CAO.

It would be difficult to discuss labor markets without describing boundaries which shape the labor markets. Clark et al. (1990) studied the four top level administrative positions at two-year colleges and determined that there are several factors which forge the boundaries of an administrative labor market. First, they concluded that both region (South, West, North, and Mid-west) and state form powerful boundaries. Even after state stayers were removed from the sample, many top administrators only moved within the region. Thirty percent of those leaving the state only moved to a neighboring state. Mission was also found to be a strong boundary for career progression. Administrators moving from two-year technical/vocational colleges either stayed within the same type of institution when they moved, or they moved to a comprehensive community college. Those at comprehensive community colleges did not move to technical/vocational two-year colleges. This may be explained by the large number of comprehensive community colleges today. More importantly, movement within same size institution did not seem to exist. Career moves seem to disregard institutional size. This could be explained by lateral moves

from a smaller institution to a larger institution with more resources resulting in career ascent. However, it was just as common to see individuals moving up the career ladder by moving from a larger institution to a smaller institution in order to gain a higher position. Sometimes individuals change institution size (large to small) in order to move to a higher position. These types of lateral moves and/or changes in job responsibilities as part of career mobility could be what led Twombly to question her own ideas regarding the OILM model.

Cejda and McKenney (2000) described geographical boundaries as one of the organizational boundaries associated with the CAO position. This study focused research on CAOs at public community colleges. Cejda and McKenney revealed that 55% of the CAOs they surveyed were individuals who did not venture outside the boundaries of the state in which they began their career. Furthermore, it was determined that another 21% of the respondents stayed in a particular state until obtaining a CAO position which required them to move outside the boundaries of the state in which they began. Still, no studies have focused on movement between institutional type in terms of rural vs. urban or suburban. Further discussion of career mobility can be found in chapter two.

Research Questions

To accomplish the purpose of this study, four primary research questions will be investigated:

1. What are the points of entry in higher education to begin a career as a CAO at a rural two-year college?

2. What positions have the CAOs at rural two-year colleges held prior to their current position?
3. Are there common career lines to the CAO position at rural two-year colleges?
4. Are there boundaries to the labor market within two-year colleges which affect the CAO position at rural colleges?

Need for the Study

Vaughan (1990) argued that in order for a community college to be outstanding, the college must have an outstanding dean of instruction (CAO). And in spite of the importance of the CAO position, little is known about the individuals who serve in this role. Robillard (2000) points out that since 1980, literature on the chief academic officer has increased somewhat, but this position is still under researched. Culbertson (1980) argued that due to the growth of higher education leadership programs designed to prepare future leaders, the need for further research on today's administrators becomes even more important to ensure curriculums are aligned with roles of these positions.

Upon initial query of Dissertation Abstracts International, 68 dissertations were found related to the position of CAO. After review of the titles, only three qualitative dissertations were found: one on selected CAOs in Kansas and Oklahoma (Eilerts, 1980); one on selected CAOs in Wyoming and Colorado (Johns, 1993); and one of selected CAOs in California (Lewis, 1992). Four additional dissertations were found to deal with CAOs, three on a national level

(Day, 1968; McKenney, 2000; Teague, 2000) and one on CAOs in Michigan (Esmond, 1989).

A query of ERIC documents produced 154 articles with CAO and 486 with Dean appearing somewhere in the article. After review of the titles, only 26 articles were found to relate directly to the CAO position at either two-year or four-year institutions. Additionally, 442 hits were found in a search for career mobility. Like the review of titles for CAO, only a very few articles were found related to the CAO position.

Although three national studies have been conducted that focus on career lines of CAOs, only one has taken a comprehensive approach to determining the organizational boundaries which influence career movement (Cejda and McKenney, 2000). Other studies have focused on the boundaries of administrative labor markets at two year colleges, as well (Clark, et al., 1990; Twombly, 1986). However, none of these studies have focused on career movement within a specific type of institution.

None of these studies have focused on rural two-year colleges. Nearly 70% of public two-year colleges are rural and 63% of those are classified as small (Katsinas, 2003). With a large percentage of two-year colleges being rural and small, they should be studied as a distinct group. Rural colleges have their own set of opportunities and challenges. As Katsinas (2003) points out, small rural two-year colleges face special problems in terms of economies of scale and geographical isolation. It costs more to provide a high quality education, and geographical challenges affects institutional planning and development.

Definitions

Chief Executive Officer (CEO) - The individual who has operational responsibilities for instruction, student affairs, business services, and campus operations for the college (Cohen, Brawer, & Associates, 1994).

Community College - A public two-year college offering curricular options in academic transfer preparation, vocational/technical education, continuing education, remedial education, and community service (Cohen & Brawer, 1996).

Labor Market – Arenas in which one or more of the following are similarly structured: employment, movement between jobs, development and differentiation of job skills, or wages (in their own right or as functions of skills, social status, experience, and other determinants) (Althausser and Kalleberg, 1981).

Organizational Career – Sequence of related positions that are common to a portion of the labor force and for which there is a high probability of movement from one position to another (Spilerman, 1977).

Rural – Any institution with a physical address outside the hundred largest standard or consolidated metropolitan statistical areas (Katsinas, 2003).

Technical/Vocational College - A public two-year college offering vocational/technical education courses but no offerings in academic transfer preparation (A. A. degrees) (Cohen & Brawer, 1996).

The following position titles were grouped according to Higher Education General Information Survey (HEGIS) classifications:

Chief Academic Officer (CAO) - Directs the academic program of the institution.

Chair or Head - Responsible for a specific course of study (department, program) under the direction of either the Primary Academic Officer or the Chief Academic Officer.

Faculty - Responsible for delivering the academic program.

K-12 - Positions in educational institutions serving students from kindergarten through the 12th grade.

Other - Positions held outside of educational organizations.

Other Higher Education - Administrative position within an institution of higher education that does not fit any of the classifications listed.

Primary Academic Officer - Responsible for a specific component of the organization (college, division) or a specific function or operation (associate provost for technology) under the direction of the Chief Academic Officer.

Vice-President - Responsible for all or most functions and operations of an institution under the direction of the CEO.

Assumptions

1. As with any survey, the author assumes survey participants will respond to the survey and return it.
2. The author assumes that the person the survey is mailed to is in fact the CAO at the institution.

3. The author assumes survey respondents will answer all the questions on the survey.
4. The author assumes survey respondents will answer all the questions accurately.

Delimitations

1. This study will include only CAOs at rural two-year colleges in regions six and seven of the NCIA.
2. Data was obtained by a survey with close-ended questions to prevent respondents from self-interpreting questions.
3. Not all institutions have the position title of CAO, so the position title most closely related was solicited.
4. Only first previously held positions with a minimum of 10% of the population sample will be used along with a minimum of 5% of responses for second previously held positions will be used to constitute a career line.

Limitations

1. The method of data collection was a mail survey which relies on respondents for accuracy and completeness of responses.
2. Only the author will interpret the data obtained from the surveys.
3. The results of this study will not be able to be generalized to CAOs beyond those at rural two-year institutions.

Summary

There is evidence in the literature that two-year colleges will be facing a shortage of administrative leaders in the next few years. Shults (2001) reported that 45% of the current community college CEOs will retire by 2007. Several national studies have reported that CAOs are the most likely persons to assume the position of CEO at two-year colleges (McKenney & Cejda, 2000; Ross & Green, 1998; Twombly, 1988; Vaughan, 1990). Additionally, Shults reported that 35% of the presidents he surveyed indicated that at least 25% of their chief administrators will retire by 2006. Furthermore, Murray, et al. (2000) reported that 38% of CAOs could potentially leave their current position within the next year. Anderson et al. (2002) revealed that over 50% of current CAOs are over the age of 53 and will likely reach retirement age soon.

After some calculations, it is quite possible that as many as 60% of current CAOs at two-year colleges could either move to the CEO position, move to another institution, or retire in the next few years. One must ask the questions, who will fill these positions and where will they come from? The literature strongly suggests that two-year colleges could experience a number of vacant CAO positions in the years to come.

Only three national studies have been reported in the literature which focus on career lines to the CAO position (Amey, VanDerLinden, & Brown, 2002; Cejda, McKenney, & Burley, 2001; Twombly, 1988). Only one study has limited its focus to CAOs at comprehensive community colleges (Cejda, et. al., 2000). Additional studies have focused on demographics of CAOs at the national or

state level. However, none of the studies have focused on career lines to the CAO position at rural two-year colleges. As Katsinas (2003) pointed out, nearly 70% of two-year colleges are rural, and these institutions have their own set of opportunities and challenges due to their geographic isolation and economies of scale.

The purpose of this study is to examine the career lines and experiences of CAOs at rural two-year colleges. The focus of the study will be on career lines leading to the current CAO position. The data used in this study will be obtained from a database of the National Council of Instructional Administrators (NCIA).

Althausser and Kalleberg (1981) discussed the occupational internal labor market (OILM) which is one of two types of administrative labor markets found in higher education. The other being firm internal labor markets (FILM) which is limited to career mobility within a single organization. OILMs fit higher education more accurately since individuals move between institutions, as well as positions. The theoretical framework for this study will be guided by OILMs.

This study will add to the body of knowledge of one of the top four administrative positions at two year colleges, the CAO. By focusing on rural two-year colleges, this study will shed light on differences that may exist between career lines to the CAO position at rural two-year colleges and that of community colleges in general. Boundaries to the career lines of the CAO position at rural two year colleges will also be explored.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter begins with a description of the chief academic officer (CAO). The roles and responsibilities of the CAO found in the literature, as well as a summary of findings from studies that have provided a description of personal and professional characteristics of the CAO is detailed in this chapter. A discussion of labor market types and labor markets which have been used to describe career mobility patterns of CAOs will be presented. Career lines of administrative positions in higher education will be explored and studies which have focused on the CAO will be described. This chapter also includes a discussion of the various models presented in the literature to classify the largest group of colleges, two-year colleges. The chapter concludes with a summary of the literature review.

Defining the Chief Academic Officer

The term chief academic officer (CAO) of a college or university has been referred to with a number of differing titles (Moden, Miller, & Williford, 1987; Vaughan, 1990). Moden et al. identified seven common names for the CAO: academic dean, vice-president for academic affairs, dean of instruction, provost, vice-president, vice-president instructor, and vice-chancellor. The title used for CAO appears to vary by institution type, size, and whether the institution is independent, branch campus, or a multi-district institution. Vaughan (1990)

found three common names for CAO: dean of instruction, academic dean, and academic vice-president.

Roles and Functions of the Chief Academic Officer

The Roles and functions of the CAO may be even more diverse than the titles used for CAO. Day (1968) of Texas Tech University, then Texas Technological College, developed a list of 168 duties of academic deans (CAOs) at public junior colleges. He condensed the list to the following: 1) search and recommendation of new faculty; 2) administering new teacher orientation programs; 3) evaluating faculty performance; 4) assisting the president in activities such as - budgeting, long-range planning, and development of educational policies; 5) development of faculty; 6) engaging in consultation with the president; 7) leadership at professional meetings; 8) extensive professional reading; 9) visitations to other college campuses. He concluded that the role of the CAO is not clearly defined.

In 1968, Dupont outlined the research of Reeves and Russell from 1929-1932 and similar roles and responsibilities of the academic dean (CAO) at Methodist Episcopal Church colleges were reported. Thirteen reoccurring functions were found relating to the educational component of the institution and the CAO.

Robin (1974) further adds the following functions: 1) curriculum planning; 2) staff selection; 3) collective bargaining (those with faculty unions); 4) supervise division/department chairs; 5) evaluation; 6) staff development; 7) external liaison; 8) instructional budget management; 9) assistant to the president.

Robillard (2000) also reported a variety of duties associated with the position of CAO: 1) works closely with and provides leadership of faculty; 2) manages the college's academic programs; 3) curriculum planning and development; 4) staffing; 5) evaluation of faculty; 6) budgetary administration; 7) program assessment; 8) fosters partnerships; 9) manages conflicts; 10) implements and manages instructional technology. Robillard provides an explanation for the enormous amount of responsibilities of the CAO, "the position is still evolving" (p. 3).

A great deal of ambiguity exists for CAOs (Moden, et. al, 1987; Reid & Rogers, 1981). A study of some 253 search committee members, 31 successful job candidates, and 25 department heads at 45 participating colleges revealed that these three groups do not see the primary reasons for selection of CAOs the same. For example, committee chairs and committee members viewed experience the most important criteria while successful candidates ranked experience seventh. The ability to communicate was viewed most important by successful candidates, but committee chairs and members did not even rank communication in the top eight criteria. Academic credentials were the second highest rated criteria for committee chairs while committee members and successful candidates did not even rank credentials in the top eight criteria. The last example demonstrates that not only do successful candidates not agree on hiring criteria, committee chairs and committee members do not agree either. One explanation may be that the committee chairs are the division or department

chairs (administrators) and value certain criteria differently than the committee members (faculty).

Murray, Murray, and Summar (2000) reported that CAOs in their study had a low level (78.5%) of role ambiguity but medium to high levels (70.7%) of role conflict. Role conflict is defined as individuals handling duties that appear to be in conflict with their own perception of job responsibilities. As Murray et al. pointed out, several studies have documented that there is a strong inverse relationship between job satisfaction and stress from role conflict.

Anderson, Murray, and Olivarez (2002) determined that CAOs place more weight on three roles: leader, liaison, and disseminator. Consequently, CAOs must be able to effectively gather and analyze information and then communicate it. They must be good communicators both verbally and in writing.

Profile of the Chief Academic Officer

Recently, McKenney and Cejda (2000) described the typical CAO at a public, comprehensive community college as a white man, 52 years old and married with a doctorate. He has been in his current CAO position for more than six years.

Several studies have reported the average age of CAOs. Since Moore, et al. (1985) study which reported an average age of CAOs as 49, there has only been a slight increase in the mean age of CAOs. Moden et al. (1987) and Vaughan (1990) reported the same average age as Moore et al. Hawthorne showed a bit of an increase (50) in 1994 while McKenney and Cejda (2000)

showed another increase in the mean age (52.5) with their national study. The most recent data by Amey et al. (2002) shows the mean CAO age to be 54.

Most studies show an average tenure in the current CAO position to be 5-7 years (Hawthorne, 1994; McKenney & Cejda, 2000; Moore, et al., 1985; Murray, et al., 2000; Vaughan, 1990). The majority of CAOs hold a doctorate (62-76%). The lowest percentage holding the doctorate was reported by Townsend and Bassoppo-Moyo (1997) while the highest percentage was reported by McKenney and Cejda (2000) from their national study. About an equal percentage of CAOs holding the doctorate has either a Ph.D. or Ed.D.

Women Chief Academic Officers

McKenney (2000) in a national study of CAOs in public, comprehensive community colleges developed a profile of women CAOs. She is Caucasian, married, and 51 years old. She has a Ph.D. and has been in her current position slightly more than five years (about one less than her male counterpart); furthermore, she has held three positions in higher education (two in administration and one as faculty). The average number of years in their careers is slightly over 28 for women CAOs.

Several authors have reported gender of CAOs in higher education. In 1985, Moore et al. found from the sample of 271 CAOs in both two-year and four-year colleges that only 16% were women. Moden et al. (1987) reported a similar number of women CAOs (19%). In 1990, Vaughan found 21% of CAOs to be women. Hawthorne found a higher percentage in 1994 (26%). Just three years

later, Townsend and Bassoppo-Moyo (1997) in their mostly qualitative study reported women CAOs at a much higher 38%. In the last five years, the percentage of women has only increased a small amount: 38% to 42% (Amey, et al., 2002; McKenney & Cejda, 2000; Murray et al., 2000; Teague, 2000).

Opp and Gosetti (2002) reviewed Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS) data for two-year colleges and found that the percentage of all women administrators increased from 35.5% in 1991 to 42.9% in 1997 which parallels the percentage of women CAOs. The number of women administrators has increased in both public and private two-year colleges with public growth of women the greatest. Additionally, women administrators have increased the most in large institutions while numbers of women have increased in medium and small two-year colleges, as well. Urban, suburban, and rural have all seen growth in percentage of women administrators with rural colleges experiencing the most growth. Geographically, the number of women administrators has increased in every region while the greatest growth has been in the Southwest, Southeast, and Great Lakes areas.

McKenney and Cejda (2000) found that most women CAOs are Caucasian (84.4%). Of the remaining 15.6%, 8.2% of those are African American, and 3.3% each are American Indian and Hispanic. It was also determined that women CAOs come from the same previous positions as that of all community college CAOs: PAO 32.6%, CAO - 25.5%, other higher education positions - 13.5%, and chair or head - 10.6%. 41.4% of women CAOs at

community colleges hold a Ph.D. while another 34.9% hold an Ed.D. The remaining 22.6% hold a masters or professional degree as their highest degree.

National studies have been conducted on women in higher education as far back as 1952. Steinmetz, Goodykoontz, Chase, and Holt (1952) reported that two out of every ten administrators in higher education were women. Only 19.2% of administrators in the Far West region of the United States were women, while 29.2% of administrators were women in the Mid-Atlantic area. As one might expect, women administrators are the majority at women's colleges. Women administrators tend to be more dominate in the student services division of colleges and universities.

Giannini (2001) argued that due to the increasing demands of higher education, women in leadership roles are transforming into greater decision makers and change agents. Giannini summarized a study of Carolyn Desjardins, former director of the National Institute for Leadership Development, and reported that care/connected and justice/rights are two modes of leadership used by 72 community college CEO's. Not surprisingly, 67% of women operated in the care/connected mode while 50% of men operated in the justice/rights mode. Giannini also cautioned women leaders to not be threatened by their male counterparts while not becoming overconfident which may threaten their success. Naturally, one would wonder if women CAOs operate in the same level of care/connected mode as women CEO's.

In a previous qualitative study, 30 women (24 Caucasian, six African American) holding senior-level administrative positions (including CAOs) in

community colleges were found to employ one or more of three styles of leadership: adaptive, reconciling, and resistance (Tedrow & Rhoads, 1999). Of the nine women who use the adaptive leadership style, they tend to duplicate their male colleagues' behaviors. Thirteen women followed the reconciliation pattern and identify with male or female expectations using each when appropriate. The resistance style of leadership was employed by eight women who defined the ideal atmosphere as one where they could be change agents and transformative leaders.

Minority Chief Academic Officers

Moore et al. (1985) reported that 95% of CAOs were Caucasian. Vaughan (1990) observed a small amount of improvement in minority representation with 7% total racial/ethnic minorities. African Americans accounted for 3.2%, Hispanics 1.8%, and other minority groups 2.0%. Just four years later, Hawthorne (1994) observed a lower percentage of Caucasians (88%). Most recently, Amey et al. (2002) reported a similar representation of Caucasian CAOs (89%).

McKenney and Cejda (2000) also found the same low representation of minorities in CAO positions at public, comprehensive community colleges belonging to the American Association of Community Colleges (AACC). Specifically, their national study showed that 6.3% of CAOs were African American, 3.2% were Hispanic, 2.2% were Native American, and 0.3% was

Asian while 88% were Caucasian. They also noted that there were a higher percentage of women CAOs in each of the ethnic groups except Caucasian.

Vaughan (1990) said, "If the community college is to achieve its potential in service to the nation in the 1990's and beyond, its leaders must increasingly come from women and ethnic and racial minority groups" (p. 61). The number of women and minorities in leadership positions in community colleges has become important enough that programs have been formed to allow participants the opportunity to attend monthly seminars and complete related projects on local, state, and national issues (Ebbers, Gallisath, Rockel, & Coyan, 2000). The Iowa State University Higher Education Program in conjunction with the Iowa Association of Community College Presidents and Iowa Association of Community College Trustees developed the Leadership Institute for a New Century (LINC). LINC allows participants (women and minorities) nominated from Iowa community colleges the opportunity to develop leadership skills in administration. Since its inception, the program has assisted nearly 70% of the participants in a leadership promotion or advancement.

Labor Markets

Labor markets have been both described and debated by economists and sociologists. Economists have suggested three perspectives on labor markets: labor productivity, supply, and demand (Sorenson & Kalleberg, 1981). The neoclassical theory accounts for wage determination and labor supply. Marginal productivity theory describes labor markets from the demand side while human

capital theory accounts for the supply side. Economics has largely over time focused on those same three factors in describing most any type of labor market.

Conversely to the arguably cold shouldered economists, sociologists have viewed labor markets through a lens which focuses on describing socioeconomic achievement and the process of social mobility for various population groups (Sorenson & Kalleberg, 1981). Furthermore, sociological research has measured status attainment not through company productivity but rather achievements measured by: education, occupation, and income levels (Breneman & Youn, 1988). While human capital theory of economics looks past occupation and institutional structures as intervening variables in productivity, occupations are the key to understanding earnings and other personal achievements within a labor market from the sociological views.

Berg (1981) suggested that three factors contribute to earned income based on the work of Granovetter: characteristics of the job and employer, characteristics of the individual who occupies the job, and a matching process where by the other two characteristics become linked. Perhaps as important, productivity level which is important to economists, may in fact be more controlled by informal agreements among certain groups of workers based on the hours people are willing to work and the amount of effort expended. Simple economics does not account for these types of relationships among workers both within organizations and between organizations.

Economists Doeringer and Piore introduced the theory of internal labor markets. They were convinced that wages are mainly based on job

characteristics with a series of jobs arranged in a hierarchical chain or “line of progression” (1971, p. 3). Internal labor markets have been described as any cluster of jobs that have three basic structures: a job ladder, entry only at the bottom of the ladder, and progression up the ladder (Spilerman, 1977).

The scope and structure of labor markets themselves may well vary considerably among industries and occupations. For example, steel plants tend to have limited entry ports for careers within the market with lengthy promotion lines thus forming a sequence of jobs in the form of a career ladder with promotion preference given almost exclusively to internal employees.

Conversely, manufacturing industries including garment factories have many entry ports. As a result, multiple “lines of progression” are formed; however, hiring preference is still given to those employees now inside the company or least the industry. Doeringer and Piore ascertained that the strength of these internal labor markets appears to be connected to three workplace phenomena: the investment in human capital, on-the-job training, and role of labor as a fixed factor of production. Sociologists contest economists that not only do the interactions of people, but the specifics of an industry or series of occupations can determine output levels.

Althauser and Kalleberg (1981) took internal labor market theory one step farther and identified two types of internal labor markets which in effect Doeringer and Piore eluded to: firm internal labor markets (FILM) and occupational internal labor markets (OILM). FILM’s are those internal labor markets confined within a

particular firm or company (steel plants). OILM's are those internal labor markets confined to a specific occupation or craft (manufacturing crafts).

Both FILM's and OILM's have been used to describe the labor markets found in higher education. Twombly (1988) and Cejda and McKenney (2000) in their respective studies showed that career mobility not only occurs between institutions (OILM) but also within institutions (FILM). Specific types of institutions such as two-year colleges appear to have their own labor market (McKenney, 2000; Twombly, 1986b). Labor markets can exist within a state or within a region. Clark et al. (1990) pointed out that state systems and multi-campus systems create labor markets of their own. Each of the top administrative positions in higher education (chief executive officer, chief academic officer, chief student affairs officer, and chief business officer) has been studied using these labor market models (Hawthorne, 1994; McKenney & Cejda, 2000; Moore, et al., 1985; Vaughan, 1990).

Internal labor markets may be comprised of enterprise markets in general and then be divided into submarkets (Althausar & Kalleberg, 1981). More specifically, the labor markets within the internal market have been described as primary and secondary (Wallace & Kalleberg, 1981). Rosenblum and Rosenblum (1996) questioned the permeability of internal labor markets in academia by secondary or external markets. They determined that not only were internal faculty appointments twice as likely to be made in Canadian universities, but internal appointments were three times as likely to be at the same institution seven years later. Organizations and firms appear to generate their own internal

labor market and impose bureaucratic modes of social control over employees, while external labor markets regulate competition among various organizations or firms (Breneman & Youn, 1988). Others have suggested that boundaries of labor markets such as geography not only shape the markets themselves, but they also limit the control of the external markets (Cejda & McKenney, 2000; Clark, et al., 1990).

Career opportunities may in fact be set beyond internal control (Breneman & Youn, 1988). It has also been suggested that internal labor markets are segmented into upper and lower tiers with the upper market providing more personal autonomy (Wallace & Kalleberg, 1981). Brown (2001) suggested that not only are there two segments within the internal labor markets, but their structures are significantly different. The lower tier or blue-collar workers are described as a bureaucratic labor market where technical competence is required to perform routine tasks. Additionally, the stronger the bureaucratic structure the greater the need for compliance or loyalty. In the upper tier, resides a professional labor market with both self-recruitment of generalists with liberal arts degrees and self-regulation. As a result, professional mobility may be more of a collective than an individual pursuit.

Career Mobility

Vardi (1980) extended the work of economists and sociologists by organizing the research and theories of career mobility into two dimensions: the level of analysis (individual or organizational) and the nature of the phenomenon

(perceptual or actual). From his investigation, Vardi identified four cells or approaches to study career mobility. The sociological concept is based on the individual level of analysis and the actual changes in a career that occur to study career mobility. The psychological concept also uses the individual level of analysis; however, this view is combined with the perceptual aspects of career mobility. The economic concept uses the organizational view of career mobility combined with actual changes in careers to study career mobility. The administrative concept also uses the organizational view but ties it to perceptual aspects of career mobility. Understanding Vardi's classifications allows us to see differences in studies between the individual and organizational perspectives. Most of the research reported in this chapter focuses on actual changes that occur in careers as the basis to study career mobility. It will be evident in this chapter that studies prior to 1970 primarily used the individual perspective to study career mobility while more recent studies have shifted to the organizational perspective.

Career mobility is greatly influenced by the labor markets that exist within a firm or an occupation. As previously discussed, Doeringer and Piore (1971) introduced the theory of internal labor markets. They described internal labor markets as a series of jobs in a hierarchical chain. Althauser and Kalleberg (1981) advanced Doeringer and Piore's original thoughts on internal labor markets by identifying two types of internal labor markets: firm internal labor markets (FILM) and occupational internal labor markets (OILM). FILM's are those internal labor markets confined within a particular firm or company (steel

plants). OILM's are those internal labor markets confined to a specific occupation or craft. Twombly (1988) and Cejda and McKenney (2000) in their respective studies showed that career mobility in higher education not only occurs within an institution (FILM) but also between institutions (OILM). Additionally, internal labor markets can be influenced by external labor markets (individuals moving into higher education from another level of education or industry).

Career mobility, also described as a career line or path from an individual's perspective, consists of point of entry, career development (career ladder), and exit point. March and March (1977) from an individual perspective suggested that a job is merely a point in a career, in other words waypoints. The career is then a sequential list of organizations managed by the individual. There are parameters or boundaries which shape the particular path an individual's career takes (Scott, 1998). It has been suggested that career mobility is influenced by at least four factors: education, age, gender, and ethnicity (Twombly, 1990). The level of education an individual has influences the type of jobs they are eligible for in higher education. For example, doctorates are preferred in most of the top-level administrative positions in higher education. Age may be a factor, and it has been suggested that there is a preference for youth. Gender tends to be a factor as noted by a national study on colleges and universities conducted in 1981 where less than 25% of all administrators in higher education were women. Ethnicity is also viewed as a factor since only 8%

of all administrators in higher education were found to be of color (Twombly, 1990).

Based on factors that influence career paths, like Vardi (1980), Twombly (1990) proposed two perspectives in which entry points for positions in higher education could be studied: individual and institutional. Furthermore, entry positions serve a greater control function as a labor market becomes more closed. Entry positions for many careers tend to be low level positions that serve as gateways to job ladders found within internal labor markets. However, Twombly discovered that entry positions to administrative careers in two-year colleges are not necessarily low, which would suggest that the market is not necessarily closed. Breneman and Youn (1988) proposed that points of entry become stronger later in careers and as a result, exit points are greatly influenced by entry points.

Twombly compared career paths to highways, "Like cities, states, and nations that have highway systems to direct the flow of traffic, colleges and universities have career systems to guide the flow of individuals through administrative positions" (1990, p. 6). People seem to move naturally from less to more desirable positions, and the flow is often related to age (Becker & Strauss, 1968). Increased skill and desire for increased responsibility tend to push men in particular in the desired direction and often within the same organization. Becker and Strauss pointed out that career moves can be up or down (vertical), and sideways (lateral). March and March (1977) suggested that not unlike other positions school superintendents are relatively indistinguishable

from one another because the paths they have ridden to arrive at the superintendent's office: educational setting, educational activities and organization, and educational institutions that have been attended. In other words, similar paths produce similar individuals and the institutional perspective may in fact be more influential than the individuals who ride those paths.

Kornhauser (1968) compared the professional and economic incentives found in various settings which progress careers. Careers in industry are driven by economic incentives from companies. Research at universities which is often guided by the scientific community is driven by professional incentives. Government shows signs of both. While professional incentives are stronger in government than those found in industry, government also has stronger organizational incentives than those found in universities. Larger corporations exhibit higher turnover rates and thus shorter tenures of personnel in both public health and mental health agencies. People trained as practitioners who move up the career ladder typically move from within while those trained as administrators tend to move across institutional lines (Kriesberg, 1962).

Career mobility has been studied in a number of professions ranging from fortune 500 companies (Grusky, 1961) to police departments (Maniha, 1975). Advancement in a St. Louis police department is based on both merit and seniority. Independently, either one can lead to promotion. Grusky determined within successful companies succession or advancement is related to both size of the firm and leadership. Larger, more bureaucratic organizations have more

succession as does a change in leadership. By bringing a new leader in, more replacing or succession begins to occur.

Turner (1960) proposed two types of mobility: sponsored and contest mobility. Contest mobility is that system in which mobility to elite status is an open contest and is earned by the aspirants' own efforts. Conversely, sponsored mobility is the recruitment of the chosen elite. Regardless of the perspective in which career mobility is studied, both organizational and individual perspectives are evident.

Roberson (1998) studied the career paths of women as senior administrators in higher education. She determined that women administrators are selected within the higher education market. All classes of women enter higher education through a faculty position except minority women who were more likely to enter through an associate, assistant, staff, or chair position. A terminal degree was determined to be a necessity by all women who aspired to senior administrative positions.

While the focus of this study is on career mobility of CAOs, a number of studies have been completed to examine the career lines of each of the top-level administrative positions in higher education with the CEO position receiving the most attention. The next section addresses those career line studies of the top-level administrative positions in higher education followed by a section on the career lines of CAOs.

Career Lines of Other Administrative Positions

Like Roberson, Twombly (1990) demonstrated that career paths to the top-level administrative positions in both two-year and four-year colleges are relatively unstructured and there are multiple pathways to nearly all the top-level positions. Of the four top-level administrative positions, chief executive officer (CEO or president), CAO, chief student affairs officer (CSAO), and chief business or financial officer (CBO), the president has been studied the most. One might assume this since this position is the apex of the pyramid and the most recognizable position of all the administrators in higher education.

From the national study of academic leaders, Twombly (1990) reported two-year college presidents enter higher education through different positions. By grouping those entry positions as either administration or faculty, presidents who enter as administrators take less time to attain the presidency. Administrative positions accounted for 54% of the entry points, while faculty accounted for the other 46%. More specifically, Vaughan (1986) found from his national study that 38% of two-year college CEOs were most recently CAOs. Another 12.2% were vice-presidents prior to the CEO position. Vaughan's findings are similar to Twombly's results of administrative starts for CEOs. Vaughan also found CEOs came from other educational positions (>15%), outside education (<12%), student services (7.8%), public school superintendent positions (7%), and dean of community services (4.6%). Boggs (1988) found that 26% of CEOs held the position of CAO prior to becoming the CEO.

Additionally, another 24% held the title of vice-president prior to becoming the CEO.

Viewed from a slightly different perspective, there may still be two primary doors to the CEO position. Moore (1998) describe these two doors as internal (within the same institution) and external (from outside the institution). Amey et al. (2002) replicated the national study of Moore, et al. and discovered that 22% of current CEOs at two-year colleges moved from within their present institution. Another 66% moved from another institution and the remaining 12% came from outside the two-year college market. Of the current CEOs, 25% were presidents at another two-year college, 37% moved from the provost position, and another 15% were either academic deans or associate or assistant deans. Nearly 1/3 of the current CEOs held a position at a four-year institution earlier in their career while 17% had a public school background. The data reported by Amey et. al. clearly demonstrates that while internal labor markets exist within higher education and more specifically two-year institutions the market is certainly not closed for CEOs and confirms what Twombly reported several years earlier.

In 1985, Moore et al. reported that 44% of the CEOs at two-year colleges had been in their current position less than five years. Another 26.2% had held their current position for 6-10 years, 13.6% for 11-15 years, and 13.1% for 16-20 years with a mean of 8 years. In 1983, Moore reported from their national academic leader study that 51% of CEOs and 59% of provosts at four-year institutions had been in the current position for less than five years. It appears in

the 1980's that CEOs at four-year institutions were no more stable than their counter-parts in two-year colleges.

McFarlin, Crittenden, and Ebbers (1999) reported that outstanding two-year college CEO's tended to hold their present position four years longer on average than normative presidents as identified through a peer selection process. Additionally, the outstanding group of CEO's had been CEO's five years longer than the normative group. However, the mean age of the outstanding group of CEOs compared to the normative group was nearly identical (55 and 54.5 years, respectively). This might be explained by the fact that the outstanding group of CEOs obtained their first presidency at the age of 41 compared to normative group who became CEO for the first time at the age of 45.

The chief student affairs officer (CSAO) has also been studied in higher education (Moore, et al., 1985 and Amey, et al., 2002). Moore et al. found that 40% of current CSAOs at two-year colleges held their current position for less than five years, while another 28.2% held their current position for 6-10 years. Another 18.2% and 12.3% held their current office for 11-15 and 16-20 years, respectively. The mean years in the current office was eight like that of the CEOs. Amey, et al. in 2002 found a much higher rate of mobility in the CSAO position at two-year colleges with 62% of current CSAOs holding their immediate position for less than five years and 67% held their second previous position less than five years.

Moore et al. (1985) demonstrated that lateral moves do occur in higher education with current CSAOs having been a CSAO at another institution most recently. While a variety of student affairs positions were held prior to the CSAO position, 1/3 of CSAOs were counselors at one time. Initially upon review of career mobility to the CSAO position, Amey et al. (2002) found a much more open market in terms of previous positions held with only 16% coming directly from a counselor position. Another 25% came from associate, assistant dean or vice-president position. However, when viewed from an institutional perspective, 70% of current CSAOs moved within the same institution. This would indicate a much more closed FILM. Comparatively, only 22% of CEO's were promoted into the presidency from within the same institution.

The same two groups of authors also studied chief business officers (CBO) at two-year colleges and reported that individuals in this position have a great chance of coming from a market external to higher education. Moore et al. (1985) found that 17.2% of CBOs came to their current position from outside higher education while Amey, et al. (2002) found a similar number (13%) coming from the private sector. Perhaps even more importantly, 44% of CBOs held at least one position in the private sector previously and 18% had worked in public schools. Furthermore, 55% of current CBOs were new to the position (three years or less) in the 2002 study. Moore's, et al. (1985) study showed very similar findings with 51.2% in office less than five years with a mean tenure of 7.5 slightly lower than CEO's and CSAOs. Amey et al. (2002) also revealed that

over 60% of CBOs came from within two-year colleges to their current position with 2/3 of those coming from within the same institution.

Career Lines of Chief Academic Officers

Like the CEO, CSAO, and CBO positions, career lines to the CAO position have been studied in higher education. Esmond (1989) in a study of CAOs in Michigan found the majority of CAOs before 1974 began their careers in K-12 education or as faculty in higher education. CAOs since 1974 began as faculty in higher education. Although Teague (2000) found no specific career path, the majority of CAOs in her national study began as faculty members. McKenney and Cejda (2000) also found in their national study the majority of CAOs (51%) entered higher education as a faculty member. Cejda et al. (2001) further reported from the same study that 54.3% of CAOs held a faculty position previously at some point in their career.

Amey et al. (2002) found 52% of CAOs were promoted from within the same institution while another 28% came from another community college. McKenney and Cejda (2000) determined that 25% of CAOs entered as primary academic officers or deans and another 11% entered as division/department chairs while 29% were the CAO at another institution. Amey et al. (2002) reported that 8% of CAOs moved to their current position from another similarly titled senior-level position (lateral move). Additionally, 8% moved from an associate, assistant, or interim CAO position while 31% moved from associate, assistant or academic dean position. Thus, a total of 51% of the moves were

from academic administration positions. Dean of continuing education and other administrative positions accounted for another 28% of the positions previously held. Only 7% came directly from faculty positions. Twombly (1988) had similar findings in that 20% of current CAOs came from another CAO position, 26% were previously PAOs or Deans, and another 12% were division or department chairs.

Cejda et al. (2001) found from their national study of 368 CAOs at public, comprehensive community colleges that five different positions which were held two positions prior to the current CAO position comprised 10% or more of the sample: faculty - 20.7%, PAO - 20.7%, CAO at another institution - 14.9%, other higher education position - 13%, and chair or head - 10.1%. Cejda et al. further reported that six, three-sequence career lines representing 43.9% of their study sample (n = 368) were found to be followed to the position of CAO. In all, 18 three-sequenced career lines lead to the CAO position. Furthermore, the authors argued that these findings support the notion of experiences gained from community college jobs are more important than positions previously held or titles themselves.

Twombly (1988) reported from her national study of community college CAOs that there was little commonality in careers prior to the position held previous to the current CAO title. By using her specified criteria of classifying a career path, only one career sequence was found: faculty to department head to CAO. This sequence has commonly been termed the traditional path to the CAO office.

Esmond (1989) found in her study that CAOs who have been in office in Michigan since 1974 followed the traditional career path to the CAO position (faculty to department/division chair to dean or vice-president to CAO).

McKenney (2000) found in their national study several career paths or lines are followed to the office of CAO:

- 10.3% CAO - Chair - Faculty (traditional career path)
- 8.9% CAO - PAO – Faculty
- 1.1% CAO - PAO - Chair - Faculty
- 7.0% CAO - PAO - Chair
- 6.5% CAO - PAO - Other Higher Education Position
- 6.2% CAO - CAO - PAO
- 5.4% CAO - Faculty - Other Higher Education Position
- 5.1% CAO - PAO – CAO

Moden et al. (1987) found a number of previous positions were held by CAOs at some point in their career:

- 52% were faculty members at current institution
- 68% were faculty members at another institution
- 31% were deans at current institution
- 22% were deans at another institution
- 29% were department chairs at current institution
- 23% were department chairs at another institution

Twombly (1986b) using the model of internal labor markets discovered in a national study of two-year colleges that 80% of CAOs came from the two-year

college labor market. She also found that 9% of CAOs came from four-year institutions and 11% came from outside higher education. In other words, two-year colleges are more likely to hire someone as a CAO with two-year college experience rather than hire someone from a four-year institution or from outside higher education. She also determined that mobility does not necessarily mean upward mobility, rather mobility can be lateral, downward, or upward. Cejda and McKenney (2000) supported these findings by reporting that 30% of CAOs at public, comprehensive community colleges had undergone a lateral move in their most recent career move.

Twombly (1986c) concluded that 89% of two-year college CAOs came from post-secondary education in their most recent previously held position. Of those coming from post-secondary education, 89% came from two-year institutions. A total of 94% had post-secondary experience somewhere in their career.

Cejda and McKenney (2000) further supported the concept of internal labor markets by reporting that 90% of CAOs from their national study came from two-year colleges to their most recent position. 96% of the respondents held at least one position at a two-year institution during their career. These findings certainly support the notion of internal labor markets. They also revealed that 61% of CAOs came from within the institution they are currently located at supporting the concept of "FILMS." All but 18% came from within the state they are currently located in. This finding supports an additional state or regional

labor market or at least boundaries existing along state perimeters for CAOs in public, comprehensive community colleges.

Clark, et al. (1990) were interested in the relationship of administrator mobility and variables such as state, region, mission, size and resource level at community colleges. From 256 usable cases, they determined that community college administrators tend to move from one institution to another when they are located in the same geographic region, particularly when they are located in the same state (54%). Specifically, chief academic officers (69%) tended to move within a given region (North, South, West, Mid-West). The South and West regions were found to be the strongest boundaries for all administrators. Little support was provided for administrators staying at the same size and type of institution with the exception that community college administrators did not move to technical/vocational colleges.

Youn (1988) argued that age-specific and organization-specific career lines exist within academia and that the first job in higher education could affect where one finishes in higher education. He used the example of a research faculty member may become a teaching faculty member, but it was less likely that a teaching faculty member could move into a research role.

Twombly (1988) introduced the concept of "portfolio model careers" (p. 686). This model provides an explanation that experiences are more important to CAOs than previously held positions and titles. Cejda and McKenney (2000) argued the same concept of experiences being more valuable than previous

positions. What experiences are necessary to become a CAO at any two-year college?

Studies have shown that CAOs are hired from within the institution. Cejda and McKenney (2000) questioned why national searches are conducted when hiring data of CAOs show they are hired from the regional area and particularly from within state and even within institution. For small, rural two-year colleges, it would be both financially and practically beneficial to gain a greater understanding of the profile and career lines that lead to the CAO position. Time, money, and other resources could be better spent where they could obtain their biggest bang.

Programs to develop community college leaders including CAOs have been in place since 1960 (Vaughan, 1986). The first grants were funded by the W. K. Kellogg Foundation. Since that time, other institutions have found the need to develop leadership programs for potential leaders within their own institution. Universities with Higher Education programs have held leadership conferences like the National Institute for Staff and Organizational Development (NISOD) hosted annually in May by the University of Texas at Austin.

Classification of Two-Year Colleges

The mostly widely used system of classifying institutions of higher education is the Carnegie classification originally developed in 1973. This classification has seen been revised four times with 2000 being the most recent. Currently, this system classifies all two-year institutions together into one class

which results in almost 1,700 institutions in one category. This one category for two-year institutions includes more institutions than the number of institutions combined from the six other categories used to differentiate doctoral, master, and baccalaureate institutions.

Without a doubt, a more explicit method of classifying two-year colleges needs to be considered for usefulness to practitioners, policymakers, and researchers (Katsinas, 2003). McCormick and Cox (2003) point out that two-year colleges serve a multiplicity of functions which while complicating the development of a new classification system dually demonstrates the need for a new method of differentiating the vast array of today's two-year institutions. Furthermore, two-year colleges need to be further divided into smaller groups or classes based on common characteristics. According to Bailey (2003, p.93), "The diversity of community colleges justifies a more subtle system of categorization than the traditional Carnegie system, but the large number of missions taken on by community colleges complicates this goal."

Schuyler (2003) through doctoral studies in 2000 set out to develop a new classification system for two-year institutions based on curriculum. More specifically, the amount of the curriculum revolving around liberal arts courses versus occupational programs. Schuyler believed that identifying institutions based on the primary type of curriculum offered from data collected through the Center for the Study of Community Colleges (CSCC) that a classification model could be developed and applied to the data collected through the National Center of Education Statistics (NCES) Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System

(IPEDS). As a result of the research, Schulyer's classification model resulted into dividing two-year institutions into two categories: occupational community colleges (less than 50% of the total curriculum is in the liberal arts) and liberal arts community colleges (50% or more of the total curriculum is in the liberal arts). Through correlation and regression analysis, it was determined that there is a high correlation between large institutions and large offerings of liberal arts courses like English, math, and humanities. This step was needed since IPEDS does not report data for specific curriculum offerings. Although the correlation was relatively high for institution size and curriculum type, especially when small and medium size institutions are grouped together, this classification method only differentiates between institutions based on size (enrollment). Although enrollments are arguably the most important difference between large and small institutions, it is likely not the only significant difference among the nearly 1,700 two-year college currently found in the single Carnegie classification.

Like Schuyler, Cohen (2003) proposed a classification model for two-year institutions based on institutional size but took the data a step farther by linking four factors to college size: percentage of college income derived from federal government grants and contracts (FGGC), expenditures on instruction as a percentage of total education and general expenditure (TEGE), percentage of part-time students, and percentage of auxiliary revenue. As Phillippe and Boggs (2003) point out, since the actual factors Cohen suggests are readily available through IPEDS, it may be more accurate to classify two-year colleges by each

factor than merely equally dividing two-year institutions into three categories (small, medium, and large) which still leaves 300 plus institutions per category.

Merisotis and Shedd (2003) took a different approach to classifying two-year institutions than Schuyler and Cohen who focused on institutional size. Merisotis and Shedd after applying a series of variables to IPEDS data determined that institutional control had the greatest merit in determining a classification system. Through their statistical analysis, three categories of institutional control were established: public institutions (n = 1,029), private not-for-profit institutions (n = 309), and private for-profit institutions (n = 730). They discovered several interesting findings through their research. Public institutions had higher median enrollments and percentage of part-time students while having lower median percentages of first time degree seekers and awards granted as certificates. Private not-for-profit institutions had the smallest median enrollment, median of 100% for the percentage of awards granted as certificates, percentage of awards granted that are in occupationally specific programs, and percentage of awards granted in allied health fields. Private for-profit institutions had the lowest median percentage of part-time students, medium sized enrollments, and they tend to be located in urban, mid-sized cities.

The second stage of classification by Merisotis and Shedd (2003) divided each of the previous three categories based on institutional control into smaller groupings. The public institutions were further divided into three classes (community development and career, community connector, community mega connector) based on institutional size or enrollment which resulted in the largest

classification of 505 institutions (community connector). Private not-for-profit institutions were further separated into allied health institutions (n = 165) and connector institutions (n = 128). Private for-profit institutions were divided into two groups, career connector (n = 367) and certificate (n = 333).

As with the models proposed by Cohen and Schuyler, Merisotis and Shedd use institutional enrollment to differentiate the public controlled institutions, while using function in terms of awards granted as the primary distinguishing factor for the two private institution categories. While much more complete and comprehensive than the two previously discussed models, the primary challenge with Merisotis and Shedd's model of classification is that while enrollments may change and move an institution into a different classification within publicly controlled, it must be assumed that one or more of the other variables used to classify them in the first place must also change (Phillippe & Boggs, 2003).

Shaman and Zemsky (2003) took an entirely different approach with their proposed classification system of two-year colleges. The fundamental determinate from categorization was markets or price. While data was not complete for privately controlled institutions from IPEDS, their model is focused solely on publicly controlled two-year colleges which creates the first inherent problem. While their model has been applied to four-year institutions, they had to modify it for two-year colleges. They proposed that by subtracting institutional financial expenditures from tuition and fee revenue and dividing the sum by institutional full-time equivalent (FTE) enrollment a net price of an institution

could be calculated. The authors while admitting that convenient location of a community college largely affects where students enroll, they argued that their model took factors considered by prospective students into consideration including final selection based financial considerations. Cohen (2003) previously argued that a classification system must be based on useable criteria for practitioners and researchers to use such a model and that degree completion which is found in Shaman and Zemsky's model is not an accurate measure of the role of community colleges.

Katsinas (2003) model for two-year college classification is based on a variety of factors and incorporates many of the previously mentioned criteria in the other proposed models. Broadly, Katsinas's model takes into consideration institutional control, geography, governance, and institutional size. He points out that nearly every top-level administrative job announcement lists type of control, geography, governance type and size of the college since most institutions are concerned with hiring people or least giving preference to candidates from similar type institutions.

Like Merisotis and Shedd's model, institutional control was the first criteria used to differentiate two-year colleges by Katsinas (2003). He divided institutions into public, private, or special use and federally chartered institutions. Next, based on geography and size of the community the institution served, public two-year colleges were subdivided into rural, suburban, or urban. Private institutions were designated as either private nonprofit or proprietary. Subsequently, suburban and urban institutions were separated into multi-campus

or single campus (governance). Finally, public rural institutions which comprised the largest group (736) were subdivided into either large or small based on enrollment (institutional size) similar to the models proposed by Schuyler and Cohen. With regards to the study in this paper, Katsinas found 461 two-year colleges to be public, rural, and small (less than 2,500 students).

All of the models neglect to account for regional accreditation as a measure of quality and non-credit education was not factored into any of the models (Phillippe & Boggs, 2003). On the other hand, in order for community colleges like other types of higher education institutions to see a classification system as valid classifications should differentiate two-year colleges but not rank them (Cohen, 2003). Although Katsinas's model on two-year college classification is not perfect, it perhaps provides the most complete analysis of the many factors that could be used to differentiate two-year colleges. Upon appraisal of the proposed methods of classification for two-year colleges, De Los Santos, Jr. (2003) is quoted, "Of the schemes described and proposed in this volume, the one suggested by Katsinas meets the largest number of criteria I used to vet the systems."

Summary

The CAO at two-year colleges maintains a variety of titles. The roles, functions, and responsibilities of the CAO are perhaps even more diverse than the titles used for this individual. The profile of the CAO at a public, comprehensive community college belonging to the AACC is a 52 year old Caucasian man that is married and has a doctorate (McKenney & Cejda, 2000).

He has been in his current CAO position for more than six years. Women and minority representation in the CAO position at all types of institutions has been a concern for sometime (Steinmetz, et al., 1952). Although the number of minority CAOs has only increased to about 12%, the number of women CAOs is on the rise (42%).

Two primary types of internal labor markets have been used to describe the administrative markets of higher education: firm internal labor market (FILM) and occupational internal labor market (OILM). FILMs describe internal markets limited to mobility within one firm or institution. OILMs describe career mobility based on movement within a particular set of occupations and encompasses more than one institution. OILMs appear to be more common among the top-level administrative positions in higher education. Career mobility consists of entry point, movement up or around the ladder, and exit point. Thus career mobility is greatly influenced by the type of labor market.

Career lines of each top-level administrative position in higher education have been studied with the greatest attention directed toward CEOs or presidents. Of particular interest to this paper are career lines of CAOs. Only two national studies have focused on the career lines of CAOs. Although there have been many career lines or paths discovered that lead to the CAO position, the majority of CAOs still come from academics than any other place and most CAOs have been faculty members at some point in their career.

The current and most widely used classification system for two-year colleges is the Carnegie classification system. Unfortunately from a practitioner's

and researcher's perspectives, the 1,700 plus two-year institutions grouped together into one category is this system is more than the six other categories used to differentiate doctoral, masters, and baccalaureate combined. Several new methods have been proposed; however, the method of Katsina's seems to be the best in terms of differentiating institutions based on institutional control, geography, governance, and institutional size. Katsina's model clearly demonstrates that rural two-year colleges constitute a significant size group of two-year colleges. Consequently, due to no focus in the literature on CAOs at rural two-year colleges and the significance of the large amount of rural two-year colleges there needs to be more research conducted.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The introductory chapter of this study framed the limited research on chief academic officers (CAOs) at rural two-year colleges. A query of ERIC documents produced 154 articles with CAO and 486 with Dean appearing somewhere in the article. After review of the titles, only 26 articles were found to relate directly to the CAO position at either two-year or four-year institutions.

Furthermore, only three studies have been reported in the literature that focus on the career lines of CAOs at two-year colleges (Amey, VanDerLinden, & Brown, 2002; Cejda, McKenney, & Burley, 2001; Twombly, 1988). Although these three studies have focused on career lines of CAOs at two-year institutions, neither of them has focused on rural two-year colleges.

Katsinas (2003) reported that of the 1,070 public two-year institutions in the United States, 736 are could be classified as rural. With nearly 70% of public two-year colleges found in a rural setting, the need to study rural two-year colleges as a distinct group is critical. No other studies to date have focused on rural two-year colleges. More specifically, no other studies have focused on the career lines of CAOs in rural two year colleges.

The methodology section describes how the database from which the data in this study was obtained, as well as the methods used to answer the research questions. This chapter describes the following aspects of the process: research design, sample and population selection, instrumentation and materials,

procedures for data collection, procedures for data analysis, and expected findings.

Research Design

The purpose of this study was to determine patterns of careers, career lines, and boundaries which affect mobility among CAOs at rural two-year colleges. The data for the study will be obtained from a database of information obtained from a nine state area. A cross-sectional study at one point in time was used (Creswell, 2002). The use of a cross-sectional study was necessary for this study since a longitudinal study would take too long to complete.

In order to obtain a representative sample from respondents that are neither readily accessible or observable, it was necessary to utilize cross-sectional survey research (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003). This method of research allows a larger amount of data from a greater number of respondents to be obtained in a highly structured, standardized, and cost effective way. Furthermore, survey research provides anonymity to the respondents. As with any method of data collection, there are drawbacks. Survey research does not allow for deep probing questions, nor does it provide for follow-up questioning. Survey research unlike interviews limits the questionnaire responses to those provided. However, by using a survey to collect the data, the data can be collected in a more systematic way that is much more cost effective than conducting interviews. Additionally, survey research allows respondents to answer questions at their convenience and the opportunity read and re-read

questions prior to answering which gives the best opportunity for accurate answers.

Sample and Population Selection

As described in chapter one, this study uses a database developed by the National Council of Instructional Administrators (NCIA). The database contains information obtained from a survey administered from November 2002 to February 2003. The NCIA database was not only developed to establish a pool of information which could be used to understand the past, present, and future of CAOs at two-year institutions, but it was also established to provide a database to be used by doctoral students in the Texas Tech University Higher Education program who have a research interest in CAOs.

The survey population was developed from a list of CAOs from two-year colleges obtained from the Higher Education Directory for the following states: Arkansas, Arizona, Colorado, Louisiana, New Mexico, Oklahoma, Texas, Utah, and Wyoming. These nine states represent regions six and seven of the NCIA. CAOs from both single campus and multi-campus systems were surveyed. CAOs in multi-campus systems from both centralized (one CAO for the system or district) and decentralized (a CAO located at each institution in the system or district) community college systems were identified and included in the survey. In all, 202 surveys were mailed to CAOs in regions six and seven of NCIA. This included all CAOs in regions six and seven thus the entire population of CAOs was surveyed.

Instrumentation and Materials

In order to establish the database, the executive director of the NCIA developed a three part survey that contained 204 closed-ended questions along with three additional open-ended questions. Part I of the survey consisted of a series of questions designed to elicit responses regarding institutional size and type for current position, career preparation, career progression, and the last four career positions held prior to the current CAO position, as well as institutional type for each of the four previously held positions. Part II of the survey contained questions addressing external professional activities, external community activities, internal professional activities, and professional mentorships, as well as future internal, external, and technology issues facing community colleges. Part III of the survey contained three open-ended questions designed to gain data regarding exemplary community college administrators. For purposes of this study, questions from Part I of the survey related to institutional demographics/type, previously held positions, and career lines will be analyzed. Questions relating to this study can be found in the Appendix.

“Today’s Academic Leader” survey used in two different studies along with the “Chief Academic Officer Community College Study,” drawn from the survey used for the American Council on Education (ACE) Presidential studies, were used in the development of Part I of the survey for this study. “Today’s Academic Leader” survey was used in studies conducted by Amey et al. (2002) and Moore, Twombly, and Martorana (1985) which investigated career lines of administrators at two-year colleges. McKenney (2000) used the “Chief Academic Officer

Community College Study” survey to investigate the career lines of CAOs at public, comprehensive community colleges, as well as their personal and professional attributes. The survey used by McKenney was modified from the ACE Presidential survey which was administered five times (1986, 1990, 1995, 1998, and 2002). The ACE Presidential survey was designed to study background, career paths and experiences of college and university presidents.

Procedures for Data Collection

The survey instrument was mailed to every CAO (202) in regions six and seven of the NCIA (Arkansas, Arizona, Colorado, Louisiana, New Mexico, Oklahoma, Texas, Utah, and Wyoming) along with a cover letter containing the explanation of the study, scantron answer sheet, and a postage-paid return envelope in November 2002. Labels for the CAOs in regions six and seven were obtained from the current Higher Education Directory. Seventy-five responses were obtained from the initial mailing. A second mailing was sent in January 2003 to those CAOs who had not yet responded. The second mailing produced an additional 40 responses resulting in a total of 115 responses. I worked with the staff of the NCIA to collect the responses and review the surveys. One of the surveys was incomplete and therefore not useable yielding 114 useable surveys from CAOs and a 56% response rate. Of the 114 total respondents, 72 (63%) useable surveys from CAOs at rural two-year colleges were obtained.

Confidentiality

The information collected in this study is sensitive in nature. Thus, steps were taken to ensure the rights and privacy of all participants in the study. The researcher was the only person to fully examine the returned surveys. Participant names and the names of their institutions will only be used for mailing purposes to maintain confidentiality. All data collected was grouped so that specific respondents and institutions can not be identified. Additionally, participant names and institutional names will be left off all printouts of the data. A description of the research proposal, the initial cover letter, the reminder letter, and a copy of the survey instrument were submitted and approved by the University Human Subjects Committee.

Validity and Reliability

The validity and reliability of the survey instrument used to collect information for the NCIA database is based on the integrity of the three survey instruments used to develop the current survey. As previously discussed, “Today’s Academic Leader” survey used by Amey et al. (2002), which was sponsored by the American Association of Community Colleges (AACC), and Moore et al. (1985) along with the “Chief Academic Officer Community College Study” survey used by McKenney (2000) were used to develop the survey instrument used to establish the database for NCIA from which the data for this study was obtained. Furthermore, the survey used by McKenney was modified from the ACE Presidential survey which was administered five times (1986,

1990, 1995, 1998, and 2002). The questions in the NCIA survey were questions from the previously mentioned studies which have continually been refined through four separate studies. One of these studies has been replicated four times.

“Validity means that researchers can draw meaningful and justifiable inferences from scores about a sample or population” (Creswell, 2002). Several factors may affect the validity of a research project: a poorly designed study, poorly designed questions, participant stress and misunderstanding of questions on the instrument, inability to make useful predictions from the scores, and information that has little use and application. The first three factors relate to instrument design while the remaining two factors are related to interpretation of the results. First the survey as previously discussed was adapted from the survey developed by Ross and Green (1998). Their survey has been used five times between 1986 and 2002 to collect information on college presidents. Second, participants were allowed to complete the survey at their convenience rather than through an interview process which should reduce the stress factor. Questions were designed to illicit a decisive, clear response. Chapter one discussed in detail the need for this study due to the lack of research in this area and its benefits to both rural institutions in the hiring practices and those interviewing for CAO positions.

Reliability goes hand in hand with validity. “Reliability means that individual scores from an instrument should be nearly the same or stable on repeated administrations of the instrument, they should be free from sources of

measurement error, and they should be consistent” (Creswell, 2002). As with validity, various factors may affect the reliability of a research project: questions on an instrument that are ambiguous and unclear, procedures that are not standardized, participants may become stressed and misinterpret questions. Each of these factors relates to the design of the instrument. Questions were designed to illicit a clear and decisive response while allowing participants to complete the survey at their convenience. Furthermore, all surveys were administered by the same method under the same guidelines.

Procedures for Data Analysis

Responses from questions relating to institution type, previously held positions, and career lines were analyzed using the following procedures. Responses completed on the survey itself were transcribed to a scantron answer sheet prior to all scantrons being hand carried to the Texas Tech University Data Analysis Center where the scantron sheets were converted to a data file. Once the data file was obtained, the data was copied and pasted into Excel to allow for statistical analysis. As previously discussed, responses from specified questions were analyzed using a descriptive research design (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003). The questions from the survey instrument related to this study can be found in the Appendix.

As discussed in Chapter One, there are four primary research questions:

1. What are the points of entry in higher education to begin a career as a CAO at a rural two-year college?

2. What positions have the CAOs at rural two-year colleges held prior to their current position?
3. Are there common career lines to the CAO position at rural two-year colleges?
4. Are there boundaries to the labor market within two-year colleges which affect the CAO position at rural colleges?

Research questions one (entry points) and two (previously held positions) were analyzed by developing a frequency distribution of responses.

Research question three (career lines) was analyzed by the method of establishing career lines developed by Twombly's (1988) and subsequently used by Cejda, McKenney, and Burley (2001). A minimum criteria of 10% of the population will be used to establish first previously held positions. Twombly and Cejda, et al. used a 5% minimum for the second prior positions and earlier. In this study due to the number of participants that provided complete information, I decided to increase the percentage to 10% for each subsequent position. A minimum of three positions in a sequence was used to establish a career line. For example, if 11 of the of the 72 respondents (15%) came from a dean's position to the current CAO position, and at least 8 of those deans (10%) came from a faculty position then a career line of faculty to dean to CAO will be identified.

A frequency distribution of the first and second prior positions was used to determine a sequence of three positions to establish a career line. A frequency

distribution will also be created for the third and fourth prior positions to assess as many as a five-position career line.

Research question four (labor market boundaries) was analyzed by frequency distributions from two perspectives of career boundaries: movement within the same organization and movement within two-year colleges. Questions relating to movement for each previously held position were queried to establish a frequency distribution for mode of movement from each of the four previously held positions.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS

This chapter presents the analysis of data on chief academic officers (CAOs) at rural two-year institutions including demographic information, career lines and the entry positions and boundaries that shape those career lines. The data for this study was drawn from a larger study of CAOs conducted by the National Council of Instructional Administrators (NCIA). The NCIA study surveyed the population of two-year institutions from a nine state area, encompassing regions six and seven of the organization (Arkansas, Arizona, Colorado, Louisiana, New Mexico, Oklahoma, Texas, Utah, and Wyoming). This effort resulted in responses from 114 of the 202 institutions, a response rate of 56%. Responses from CAOs at rural institutions totaled 72 respondents. The analyses in this chapter include institutional demographics of the NCIA study (hereafter referred to as the 'database'), professional demographic information about the CAOs at rural institutions, and the respective findings related to each of the four research questions posed in chapters one and three.

Institution Demographics

The purpose of describing institutional demographics is to provide a clear picture of the database that the sample was drawn from. As shown in Table 4.1, the overwhelming majority (88.6%) of the CAO respondents in the database were employed at public institutions. Furthermore, almost two-thirds (64%) of the

CAOs identified the setting of their institution as rural. Just over half (54.4%) of the CAOs reported employment at institutions that maintain more than one campus.

Table 4.2 presents the size of institutions represented in the database. Small institutions are those with an enrollment of fewer than 1,000 FTE. Medium sized institutions are those with enrollments between 1,000 and 2,500 FTE, and large institutions have an FTE enrollment greater than 2,500.

Table 4.1. CAOs from each type of institution in database.

Institution Type	Frequency	Percent
Public	101	88.6
Private	12	10.5
Federally Chartered	1	0.9
Total	114	100.0
Rural	73	64.0
Suburban	15	13.2
Urban	26	22.8
Total	114	100.0
Single Campus	52	45.6
Multi-campus	62	54.4
Total	114	100.0

Table 4.2. CAOs from each size of institution in database.

Institution Size	Frequency	Percent
Small	30	26.5
Medium	38	33.6
Large	45	39.8
Total	113	99.9

Note: Due to rounding, the percentages do not equal 100.

Because of the propensity of public institutions represented in the database, a brief description of this specific type is warranted. Table 4.3 reveals

that slightly more than two-thirds (67.3%) of the CAOs at public institutions identified their setting as rural, a percentage that is slightly higher than the database as a whole (64.0%). On the other hand, greater percentages of the CAOS at public institutions described the enrollment size as medium or large.

Table 4.3. CAOs from public institutions in database.

Institution Type/Size	Frequency	Percent
Rural	68	67.3
Suburban	13	12.9
Urban	20	19.8
Total	101	100.0
Small	19	19.0
Medium	37	37.0
Large	44	44.0
Total	100	100.0

The sample for this study consisted of 72 usable surveys returned by CAOs from rural institutions. This sample represents 63% of the NCIA database. The majority of rural CAOs were located at public institutions (68) with three from private institutions, and one from a federally chartered institution. Of the CAOs responding from rural institutions, 34 are located at single campus institutions (46.6%) and 39 are located at multi-campus institutions (53.4%). As shown in Table 4.4, medium sized institutions form the largest group (31, 43.1%) within the rural two-year colleges in this study. Large sized institutions form the smallest group (19, 26.4%).

Table 4.4. CAOs from each size of rural institution.

Institution Size	Frequency	Percent
Small	22	30.6
Medium	31	43.1
Large	19	26.4
Total	72	100.1

Note: Due to rounding, the percentages do not equal 100.

Professional Demographics

The purpose of providing demographic information is to create a professional portrait of the rural CAO sample. To create the portrait, information about degree attainment, degree focus, academic rank, and tenure are provided. This information may shed light on similarities or differences between this sample and the subjects of previous studies of CAOs.

As shown in Table 4.5, slightly more than two-thirds (67.2%) of the respondents from rural institutions hold a doctorate of philosophy (PhD) or education (EdD). Table 4.6 indicates that higher education is the degree focus of almost one-half of the rural CAOs, with less than one-third completing a degree focused on a traditional subject matter.

Table 4.5. Highest degree held by CAOs at rural institutions.

Highest Degree	Frequency	Percent
Doctor of Philosophy	28	38.4
Doctor of Education	21	28.8
Master's in Education	15	20.5
Other Master's Degree	8	11.0
Bachelor's Degree	1	1.4
Total	73	100.1

Note: Due to rounding, the percentages do not equal 100.

Table 4.6. Degree focus of CAOs at rural institutions.

Degree Focus	Frequency	Percent
Higher Education	33	46.5
K-12 Teaching/Administration	6	8.5
Other Educational Focus	10	14.1
Traditional Subject Matter	22	31.0
Total	71	100.1

Note: Due to rounding, the percentages do not equal 100.

Table 4.7 reveals that more than four-fifths of the rural CAOs are not eligible to hold academic rank at their institutions. Only one of the CAOs eligible to hold academic rank has chosen not to do so.

Table 4.7. Academic rank of CAOs at rural institutions.

Academic Rank	Frequency	Percent
No, not eligible for academic rank	60	83.3
Yes	11	15.3
No, but can hold academic rank	1	1.4
Total	72	100.0
Professor	5	45.5
Instructor/Lecturer	3	27.3
Associate Professor	1	9.1
Assistant Professor	1	9.1
Adjunct Faculty Member	1	9.1
Total	11	100.1

Note: Due to rounding, the percentages do not equal 100.

As shown in Table 4.8, only a small percentage (13.9%) of rural CAOs have established tenure at their current institution. In addition to not holding tenure, two-thirds of rural CAOs (66.7%) do not currently teach (Table 4.9). Of those that do teach, all but one teaches at the two-year institution where they are employed.

Table 4.8. Tenure of CAOs at rural institutions.

Tenure	Frequency	Percent
No, not eligible for tenure	58	80.6
Yes	10	13.9
No, but can obtain tenure	4	5.6
Total	72	100.1

Note: Due to rounding, the percentages do not equal 100.

Table 4.9. Current teaching status of CAOs at rural institutions.

Currently Teaching	Frequency	Percent
No	48	66.7
Yes, at my current institution	23	31.9
Yes, at a four-year institution	1	1.4
Yes, at a different two-year institution	0	0.0
Total	72	100.0

Research Questions

In addition to the institutional and professional demographics, a number of survey questions were developed to study each of the four research questions discussed in chapters one and three. From the survey, questions 26-37 addressed research question 2 (previous positions), questions 38-49 related to research question 3 (career lines) and research question 4 (boundaries). Research question 1 was addressed by charting responses for the initial position listed on questions 38-49.

In examining the database, it became apparent that 48 of the 72 respondents (66.7%) provided complete information regarding entry to higher education and career lines. After consulting with the dissertation chair, I decided to use data for these 48 to answer research questions 1 and 3. Research

question 2 is answered using data from all respondents. Research question 4 is answered using the respective number of responses to each subsequent movement.

Research Question 1

What are the points of entry in higher education to begin a career as a CAO at rural two-year colleges?

A faculty position in higher education was identified as the most frequent entry point. Of the 48 CAOs who provided this information, 14 (29.2%) began their careers as a faculty member. An additional 11 CAOs (22.9%) listed division/department chair as the entry point. An array of other positions with no observable pattern or sizable group served as the entry point for the remaining CAOs (47.9%).

Research Question 2

What positions have the CAOs at rural two-year colleges held prior to their current position?

CAOs have held a variety of positions in higher education prior to becoming a CAO. As shown in Table 4.10, two-thirds of CAOs at rural institutions (66.7%) have been a dean or director prior to becoming a CAO. Half of current CAOs (50%) have been the CAO at another institution and nearly one-third (31.9%) have held an associate or assistant chief academic officer position.

Table 4.10. Positions held prior to current CAO position at rural institutions.

Position	Frequency of Yes Responses	Percent
Dean (Director) of one or more Academic Programs	48	66.7
Chief Academic Officer	36	50.0
Associate Academic Officer	23	31.9
Chief Student Affairs Officer	16	21.9
Executive Vice President	11	15.3
Director of Admissions	9	12.5
Chief Planning Officer	8	11.1

Research Question 3

Are there common career lines to the CAO position at rural two-year colleges?

To determine whether a career line exists, the first prior position was examined to determine if it met the 10% minimum as established by Twombly (1988). Twombly used a minimum of 5%, however, for each subsequent position. Because of the number of participants that provided complete information, I decided to increase the percentage to 10% for each subsequent position. A minimum of three positions in a sequence was used to establish a career line.

As shown in Figure 4.1, only four positions met the 10% minimum when examining the first previously held position: academic dean, division/ department chair, associate academic officer, and chief academic officer at another college. Only three positions met the 10% criteria for the second previously held position: division/department chair, academic dean, and associate academic officer. No titles at the third or fourth previous position were found to meet the 10% criteria. Table 4.11 summarizes the results for each previously held position.

Table 4.11. First and second previous positions of the rural CAO career.

First Previous Position		
Position	Frequency	Percent
Academic Dean	14	29.2
Division/Department Chair	8	16.7
Associate Academic Officer	7	14.6
Chief Academic Officer	6	12.5
Second Previous Position		
Division/Department Chair	10	20.8
Academic Dean	7	14.6
Faculty	7	14.6

The seven career lines in this study exclusively involved positions in the academic division of the institution. Moreover, only five positions were found in the seven career lines: CAO, associate academic officer, academic dean, division/department chair, and faculty. Although division and department chair are typically two separate levels at most two-year institutions, they were grouped in this analysis based on the titles provided by the respondents which made it difficult to differentiate between the two positions.

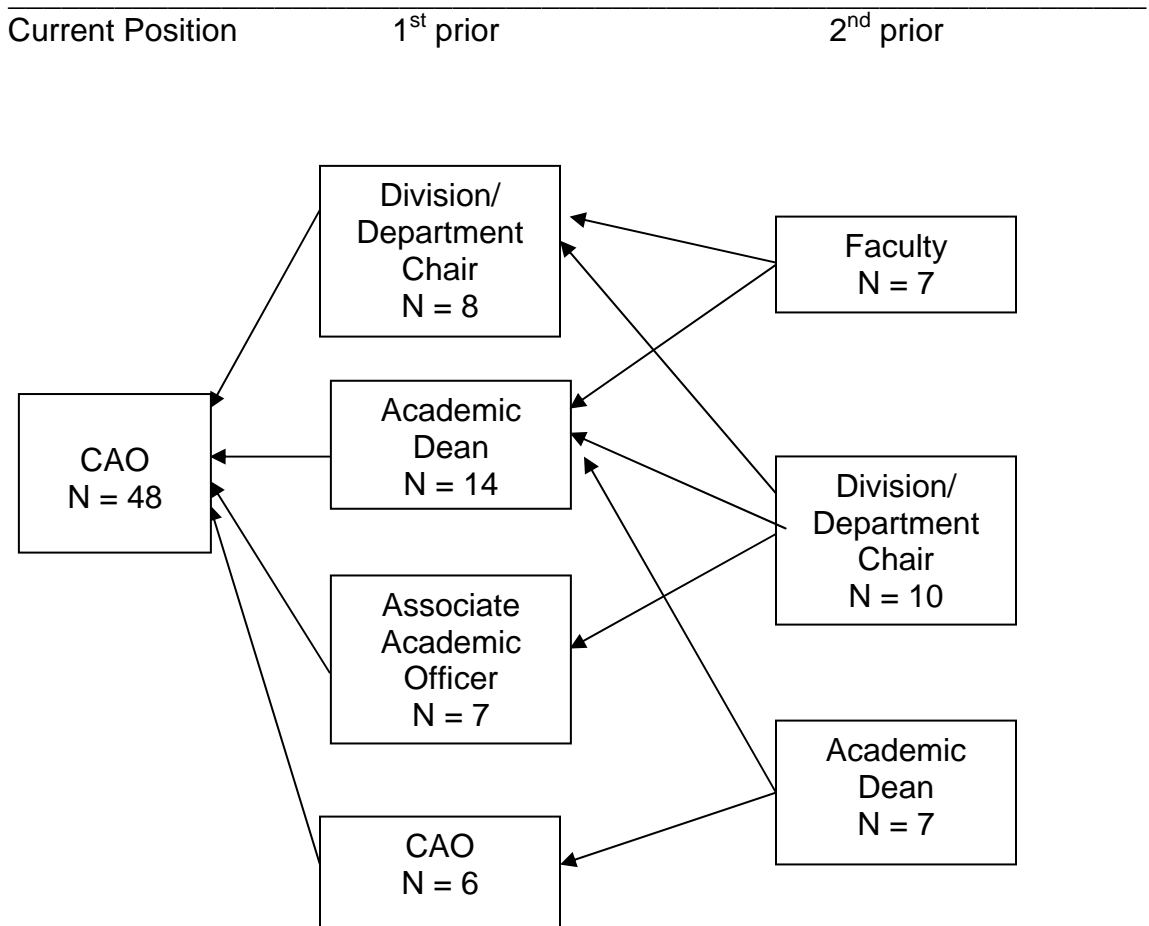


Figure 4.1. Career lines to the CAO position at rural two-year institutions.

Research Question 4

Are there boundaries to the labor market within two-year colleges which affect the CAO position at rural colleges?

In this study, two types of boundaries were observable: single institution (firm) and two-year institution (occupational). To identify whether boundaries to the career lines existed, responses of rural CAOs to questions related to the mode of movement between each position was analyzed. Movement was

examined in two ways. Mode of movement was categorized into three types of movement: move within the same organization, move from another higher education institution, or move from outside of higher education. If the CAO did not move internally, they were asked to identify one of four institutional types that they had moved from: another two-year college, a bachelor's degree granting four-year college, a comprehensive four-year college, or a major research university. This second examination of movement will be referred to as type. Thus, two tables are provided to summarize the findings for each position move; mode and type.

Mode of movement from the first previously held position to the current position is presented in Table 4.12. Of the 69 rural CAOs who provided information to these survey questions, more than two-thirds (69.6%) moved to the current CAO position from within the same organization. The mode of movement corresponds with the data reported for research question three on career lines, which revealed that the majority of CAOs were either academic deans or division/department chairs prior to becoming CAO. Table 4.13 indicates that another two-year institution was the most common type of institution as 15 of the 18 CAOs that did move from another higher education institution moved from one two-year institution to another. In all, 63 of the 69 (91.3%) rural CAOs were employed at a two-year institution prior to assuming their current position.

Table 4.12. CAO career movement to current position from first previous position.

Mode of Movement	Frequency	Percent
Move within same organization	48	69.6
Move from another higher educ. Inst.	18	26.1
Move from outside higher education	3	4.3
Total	69	100.0

Table 4.13. Type of institution moved from first previous to current position.

Mode of Movement	Frequency	Percent
Two-year	15	83.3
Four-year (bachelor's degree granting)	1	5.6
Comprehensive four-year	2	11.1
Major research university offering Terminal degrees	0	0.0
Total	18	100.0

Sixty-four rural CAOs provided information concerning movement from the second to first previous position. Internal movement within an institution was again reported by more than two-thirds (68.8%) of the CAOs (Table 4.14). Another two-year institution again emerged as the most common type of institution moved from (Table 4.15). Of the 15 CAOs that moved from another higher education institution, eight moved from another two-year college (53.3%). More than four-fifths (81.3%) of the CAOs were employed at a two-year institution in the second previous position.

Table 4.14. CAO career movement to first previous from second previous position.

Mode of Movement	Frequency	Percent
Move within same organization	44	68.8
Move from another higher educ. Inst.	15	23.4
Move from outside higher education	5	7.8
Total	64	100.0

Table 4.15. Type of institution moved from second previous to first previous position.

Mode of Movement	Frequency	Percent
Two-year	8	53.3
Four-year (bachelor's degree granting)	3	20.0
Comprehensive four-year	2	13.3
Major research university offering Terminal degrees	2	13.3
Total	15	99.9

Note: Due to rounding, the percentages do not equal 100.

The mode of movement from the third to second previously held position continued to be internal. Thirty-three of the 54 CAOs (61.1%) again moved within the same organization (Table 4.16). Another two-year college also continued to be the most common type of institution moved from (Table 4.17). More than four-fifths of the CAOs (81.5%) were employed at a two-year institution in the third previous position.

Table 4.16. CAO career movement to second previous from third previous position.

Mode of Movement	Frequency	Percent
Move within same organization	33	61.1
Move from another higher educ. Inst.	15	27.8
Move from outside higher education	6	11.1
Total	54	100.0

Table 4.17. Type of institution moved from third previous to second previous position.

Mode of Movement	Frequency	Percent
Two-year	11	73.3
Four-year (bachelor's degree granting)	1	6.7
Comprehensive four-year	0	0.0
Major research university offering Terminal degrees	3	20.0
Total	15	100.0

From the fourth previous position to the third, the internal mode of movement decreased to slightly more than the majority as 23 CAOs (54.8%) moved within the same organization (Table 4.18). The most common type of institution moved from remained another two-year institution (Table 4.19). In all, 31 of the 42 CAOs (73.8%) held their fourth previous position at a two-year institution.

Table 4.18. CAO career movement to third previous from fourth previous position.

Mode of Movement	Frequency	Percent
Move within same organization	23	54.8
Move from another higher educ. Inst.	12	28.6
Move from outside higher education	7	16.7
Total	42	100.1

Note: Due to rounding, the percentages do not equal 100.

Table 4.19. Type of institution moved from fourth previous to third previous position.

Mode of Movement	Frequency	Percent
Two-year	8	66.7
Four-year (bachelor's degree granting)	0	0.0
Comprehensive four-year	1	8.3
Major research university offering Terminal degrees	3	25.0
Total	12	100.0

Internal movement dropped to below half (47.1%) for the move to the fourth previous position. As shown in Table 4.20, almost a third (32.4%) of the CAOs came to this position from outside of higher education. Two-year colleges remained the most frequent type of institution moved from (Table 4.21).

Table 4.20. CAO career movement to fourth previous position.

Mode of Movement	Frequency	Percent
Move within same organization	16	47.1
Move from another higher educ. Inst.	7	20.6
Move from outside higher education	11	32.4
Total	34	100.1

Note: Due to rounding, the percentages do not equal 100.

Table 4.21. Type of institution moved from to fourth previous position.

Mode of Movement	Frequency	Percent
Two-year	4	57.1
Four-year (bachelor's degree granting)	0	0.0
Comprehensive four-year	1	14.3
Major research university offering Terminal degrees	2	28.6
Total	7	100.0

Table 4.22 provides information on the internal mode of movement for each of the five respective moves. Beginning with the fourth previous position, more than half of the CAOs moved within the same organization for each respective position change. A single institution (firm) boundary becomes more closed as the individual moves closer to the CAO position in a rural community college.

Table 4.22. CAO career boundary of a single institution.

Mode of Movement	Frequency	Percent
Move from 1 st previous position to Current position	48	69.6
Move from 2 nd previous position to 1 st previous position	44	68.8
Move from 3 rd previous position to 2 nd previous position	33	61.1
Move from 4 th previous position to 3 rd previous position	23	54.8
Move to 4 th previous position	16	47.1

Table 4.23 presents information on the type of institution moved from. These percentages represent both internal movement in the same two-year institution and movement from one two-year institution to another. With more than four-fifths of the CAOs employed at two-year institutions for three previous positions, there is a clear occupational boundary. The greater percentages also indicate that the occupational boundary is more closed in comparison to the firm boundary.

Table 4.23. CAO career boundary of two-year institutions.

Mode of Movement Percent*	Frequency*	
Move from 1 st previous position to Current position	63	91.3
Move from 2 nd previous position to 1 st previous position	52	81.3
Move from 3 rd previous position to 2 nd previous position	44	81.5
Move from 4 th previous position to 3 rd previous position	31	73.8
Move to 4 th previous position	20	58.8

* Frequencies and percentages of movement within two-year institutions include movement within the same organization.

Summary

Institution demographics were provided to create a clear picture of the database in which the sample of rural CAOs was obtained. The data revealed that the overwhelming majority (88.6%) of respondents were employed in public two-year colleges. Almost two-thirds (64%) of CAOs were located at rural two-year colleges. Approximately one-third of CAOs were located at each size of institution (small = less than 1,000 FTE; medium = 1,000 – 2,500 FTE; large = greater than 2,500 FTE). A slightly higher percentage of CAOs (67.3%) at public institutions were located at rural institutions.

Slightly more than two-thirds (67.2%) of rural CAOs hold a doctorate, with more than half (57.1%) of those holding a PhD. Almost half (46.5%) of all degrees are in higher education. More than two-thirds of rural CAOs do not hold academic rank (84.7%) and more than two-thirds (80.6%) of rural CAOs do not hold tenure, nor are they eligible for tenure.

Data analysis addressed four research questions: career entry points, positions held prior to the current CAO position, career lines to the CAO position, and boundaries which shape those career lines. The most commonly held entry position was as a faculty member. The percentage of this entry point (29.2%) suggests that rural CAOs begin their careers in multiple positions. Two-thirds (66.7%) of rural CAOs have been a dean or director; half (50%) have been CAO at another institution, and nearly one-third (31.9%) have been an associate or assistant to a CAO in their career.

Seven career lines leading to the CAO position were identified with three positions in each career line. Only five positions (CAO, associate academic officer, academic dean, division/department chair, and faculty) were found in the seven career lines. In terms of boundaries to those career lines, two boundaries were found: single institution (firm) and two-year institutions (occupational). The occupation boundary is more closed than is the firm boundary, with both boundaries becoming more closed the closer one moves towards the CAO position.

CHAPTER V
CONCLUSIONS, INFERENCES, AND
RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This study focused on the career lines of individuals holding the CAO position in rural community colleges. This final chapter includes three sections: conclusions, inferences, and recommendations for further research. First, conclusions which can be made, as well as discussion of the findings from this study with other related studies is provided. Second, inferences developed in conducting this study are provided. Third, recommendations for future research in the study of rural CAOs is provided.

Conclusions

The database from which the sample was drawn for this study closely resembles the classification system proposed by Katsinas (2003) that classified 736 of the 1,070 public two-year institutions in the United States 736 as rural (68.8%). In fact, of the 114 CAO respondents in this study, 73 (64%) identified themselves as being located at rural institutions. Furthermore, when viewing only public two-year colleges in the National Council of Instructional Administrator (NCIA) database, the percentage of rural institutions (67.3%) moves even closer to the system proposed by Katsinas. In other words, the rural representation of the sample in this study appears to be reflective of national numbers.

Katsinas (2003) also reported that 461 (62.6%) of the 736 rural institutions nationwide would be classified as small (less than 2,500 FTE). In this study, institutions less than 2,500 FTE were separated into two classifications, small (less than 1,000 FTE) or medium (1,000-2,500 FTE). Combined, small and medium institutions in this study represented 68 (60.1%) of the 113 institutions reporting. Among the public institutions, 56% of the respondents identified themselves as small or medium sized institutions. Among rural institutions, small and medium sized institutions accounted for 73.7% of the population (53 of 72 respondents). These numbers are in line with the numbers reported by Katsinas, and indicate a sample that reflects national representation for institutional size.

The majority of rural CAOs (49) in this study hold the doctorate as their highest degree (67.2%). Furthermore, slightly more than half (28) of those are a PhD. Other studies have reported similar percentages for the doctorate (62-76%) as the highest degree held among two-year college CAOs with equal percentages between the PhD and EdD (McKenney & Cejda, 2000; Townsend & Bassoppo-Moyo, 1997).

The most common point of entry for rural CAOs in this study was a faculty position (29.2%). It is important to note that, due to the structure of the survey and incomplete responses, it was not possible to identify the entry point for more than one-third (36.1%) of the sample. Teague (2000) and McKenney and Cejda (2000) reported 50 and 51%, respectively, of the CAOs in their studies began their careers as faculty. Even though the percentage in this study is lower, the

finding supports the commonality of CAOs having had a faculty position as their first appointment (Murray, Murray, & Summar, 2000; Twombly, 1988).

It is also clear, however, that there is no single point of entry for the CAO career line. In fact, it may be possible that the career line for the CAO begins with an administrative, rather than faculty position. Eleven of the rural CAO respondents (22.9%) reported division/department chair as their first position. Other administrative positions such as dean, researcher, and positions in student services were also identified as entry ports in the CAO career lines. The conclusion reached is that the CAO career line is relatively open to entry from a number of positions.

Both lateral and vertical movement in the career lines is readily observable in this study, as well as past CAO studies. Of the 48 respondents included in the career line analysis, 29 (60.4%) moved vertically from the positions of academic dean, associate academic officer, or division/ department chair. A much smaller percentage (12.5%) moved laterally from another CAO position.

Although specific survey questions did not differentiate between previous positions held of dean and director, it is apparent that the primary positions previously held by CAOs were in academia. Two-thirds (66.7%) of the respondents have been a dean or director at some point prior to becoming a CAO. This finding is similar than that of Moden, Miller, and Williford (1987), who found that 53% of CAOs had been deans at some point in their career and another 52% had been department chairs at some point in their career.

Half of the rural CAOs (50%) in the current study reported having been a CAO previously and nearly 1/3 (31.9%) reported having been an associate or assistant to a chief academic officer in their career. Amey, VanDerLinden, and Brown (2002), McKenney and Cejda (2000), and Twombly (1988) all had similar findings. Amey, et al. reported that 8% of CAOs made a lateral move from another CAO position while Twombly reported 20% came from another CAO position. McKenney and Cejda reported 30% of their CAOs made a lateral move. Furthermore, McKenney and Cejda reported 25% of CAOs entered from a primary academic officer position while 11% had most recently served as division/ department chairs. Amey, et al. revealed that 31% of the CAOs in their study had most recently served as associate, assistant or academic dean while only 8% moved from an associate, assistant, or interim CAO position. Twombly reported 26% moving from a primary academic officer or dean position with another 12% moving from the position of division or department chair. The results of the current study of rural CAOs supports the findings of these three national studies.

One of the more interesting observations in this study was the finding of 50% of rural CAOs having previously been a CAO, yet only 12.5% reported they moved directly from another CAO position. There are at least two reasonable explanations for this. First, 70 plus respondents answered specific questions about previously held positions. However, only 48 respondents completely answered more detailed questions and are included in the career line analysis. It is possible that the majority of respondents that did not completely answer the

career line questions moved laterally from one CAO position to another. A second explanation is that many rural CAOs have previously served as CAO either at their current institution or even another institution but then changed positions before moving back to the CAO position. This explanation would suggest that moves up, down, and laterally all exist for rural CAOs on their career ladder.

In order to study career lines to the current CAO position, the parameters established by Twombly (1988) were used. Only positions comprising at least 10% of the sample from the first previously held position would establish a career line. Additionally, the criteria of 10% of the sample was used for each position beyond the first previously held position. Using these criteria, seven career line sequences of three positions represent 73% of the rural CAOs. They are as follows:

CAO – CAO – Academic Dean

CAO – Associate Academic Officer – Division/Department Chair

CAO – Academic Dean – Academic Dean

CAO – Academic Dean – Division/Department Chair

CAO – Academic Dean - Faculty

CAO – Division/Department Chair – Division/Department Chair

CAO – Division/Department Chair – Faculty

In the current study, it is apparent that only five positions, all of which are from the academic division of the institution, are including in the seven career lines. Cejda, McKenney, and Burley (2001) reported six three-sequence career

lines representing 43.9% of their population of 368 CAOs at public, comprehensive community colleges. As with the current study, only five positions (all academic) were found in their career lines to the CAO position. This analysis found one more career line with a much smaller population than Cejda's group, but the career lines represent a much larger percentage (73% vs. 44%) of the individuals included in the analysis. Esmond (1989) and Twombly (1988) only found one career line in their respective studies which has been termed the traditional path of faculty to department head to dean to CAO. These studies were conducted more than twelve years prior to the study of Cejda's group. This suggests that the career lines of CAOs at two-year institutions continue to become more and more predictable with time. At a minimum, the career lines of rural CAOs appear to be more predictable. Nonetheless, the career lines to the CAO position at rural two-year institutions are similar to other types of two-year institutions.

The study of CAOs at rural two-year institutions revealed two organizational boundaries: single institution (firm) and two-year colleges (occupational). Amey, et al. (2002) found that 52% of CAOs in their study were promoted from within the same institution. Cejda and McKenney (2000) reported that 61% of the CAOs in their study moved from within the same organization. An even higher percentage (69.6%) of individuals in this study moved to the CAO position from within the same institution.

It is readily apparent that the boundary of a single institution narrows toward a firm labor market the closer one moves to the CAO position. In this

study, the percentage of respondents moving within the same institution steadily increases from 47.1% in the move to the fourth previous position to 69.6% in the move to the current CAO position. Breneman and Youn (1988) suggested that boundaries become stronger with fewer entry points later in careers. Their suggestion supports the single institutional boundary found in this study.

In addition, an organizational boundary of two-year institutions was observed. Beginning with the move to the fourth previous position, 58.8% of rural CAOs moved within the two-year ranks. Like the single organization boundary, the two-year organization boundary grew much stronger with each move closer to the current CAO position. The final move to the current CAO position revealed that 91.3% of all moves were within two-year institutions. Identically, Cejda and McKenney (2000) reported 90% of the moves to the CAO position to have occurred within two-year institutions. Similarly, Twombly (1986c) found 89% of all moves to the current CAO position to have occurred within two-year institutions. Amey, et al. (2002) reported that 80% of all moves to the CAO position occurred within two-year institutions.

As with the finding of the career lines becoming more predictable, it is apparent that both firm and occupation boundaries exist in this study, and support the findings of previous studies. It is important that individuals aspiring to the CAO position realize the firm nature of the labor market. It is equally important that two-year institutions hiring a CAO realize that the most likely candidates will emerge from their institution or another two-year institution. Although the seams may not be glued, they are very tight to the two-year labor

market. Researchers may question whether this “in-breeding” is healthy, but the reality is that there is no indication that the practice will change anytime soon.

As discussed in chapter one, two of the primary motivations for conducting this study were to assist individuals aspiring to the CAO position and two-year institutions hiring a new CAO. In order to provide feedback to these two groups, the following two lists of guidelines are provided as suggestions. For those individuals aspiring to the CAO position, these are guidelines to consider:

1. You should possess a doctorate or be working toward the completion of the doctorate, and the degree should be in higher education (67.2% of CAOs hold a doctorate with nearly half of all degrees held in higher education);
2. Expect to be a faculty member, division/department chair, dean, and/or associate academic officer, before becoming a CAO (66.7% of CAOs have been a dean or director; 31.9% have been an associate academic officer; and over half began their careers as either a faculty member or division/department chair);
3. Expect to hold at least two positions prior to becoming the CAO (73% of CAOs have held two positions before moving to their current CAO position);
4. Gain employment in a two-year institution as early in your career as possible (58.8% of CAOs moved within the two-year labor market as far back as their fourth previously held position);

5. Gain employment with the institution where you want to be the CAO at least one position prior to becoming the CAO (69.6% of CAOs moved to their current position from within the same institution);
and
6. Do not expect to obtain academic rank or tenure once you arrive at the CAO position (84.7% of CAOs do not hold an academic rank and 80.6% are not eligible for tenure at his/her institution).

Many institutions hiring a new CAO often follow these guidelines:

1. It is reasonable to expect to hire an individual with a doctorate or at least is working on a doctorate in higher education (67.2% of CAOs hold a doctorate with nearly half of all degrees held in higher education);
2. You will likely be looking for an individual that is familiar with your type and size of institution, he/she may already work within your institution (69.6% of CAOs moved to their current position from within the same institution);
3. This individual will already have held at least two positions in academic sector of a two-year college (73% of CAOs have held at least two academic positions prior to their current position); and
4. Your search efforts and monies could focus on advertisements in two-year college publications rather than The Chronicle of Higher Education which more broadly addresses all of higher education

(91.3% of CAOs moved to their current CAO position from a two-year institution).

While hiring someone with a doctorate, located at the present institution, having held at least two academic positions, and familiarity with the hiring institution has its benefits, caution should be noted that this can create a stagnant environment. Hiring a qualified individual from another sector with the appropriate credentials can also be a viable option and often brings fresh ideas to the position.

Inferences

The inferences or opinions below have been formed as a result of the research in this study.

Review of institutional demographics, specifically of public institutions, indicated that the largest group of CAOs (44%) were employed at large institutions. This may partly be explained by the fact that any institution generating more than 2,500 FTE was classified as a large institution by the parameters established by the NCIA survey. Katsinas (2003), too, used the same criteria. This enrollment level may in fact be too small to accurately classify institutions by size.

Less than half (46.4%) of CAOs at rural institutions reported that they are located at single campus institutions. This may indicate that even rural institutions have branched out and established learning centers and/or additional campuses to areas more remote than the community in which the main campus

is located. It may also be possible that rural institutions have established relationships with four-year colleges and universities to provide two-year liberal arts curriculum for under prepared students at these four-year institutions. An example is Kirkwood Community College located in Cedar Rapids, IA. Kirkwood has established a campus in Iowa City next to the University of Iowa, providing both freshman and sophomore liberal arts courses, as well as pre-collegiate (developmental) studies. Enrollment at the Iowa City campus has grown to greater numbers than that of the main campus in Cedar Rapids.

This finding of less than half of CAOs reporting that they are located at single campus institutions points to the need to better define what a campus is. Perhaps a campus is a mere location with one or more courses being offered—in other words a store front. On the other hand, maybe a campus is a full-blown site with multiple buildings, an administration, faculty, staff, and a complete offering of course necessary to complete one or more of the degrees found on the main campus. It is reasonable to think that each of these scenarios and those in between are viable among the thoughts of the CAO respondents in this study.

The majority (84.7%) of rural CAO respondents reported that they do not hold an academic rank, nor are they eligible to do so. Additionally, the majority (80.6%) of rural CAOs reported that they have not obtained tenure, nor are they eligible to do so. It is possible that they numbers are high since even many faculty at rural institutions are not eligible for either academic rank or tenure. At my employing institution, neither faculty nor administrators are eligible for

academic rank or tenure. In fact, all faculty members hold the same title of instructor regardless of discipline or primary degree responsibility (AA or AAS). If faculty members are not ranked or eligible for tenure then administrators including the CAO are not likely to be either.

Without historical data available for CAOs at rural institutions, it is difficult to know if the number of rural CAOs holding a doctorate (currently 67.2%) is static or on the rise. The inference could be made that this number is on the rise since many two-year college administrators were hired during or subsequent to the explosion of two-year colleges during the late 1960's and 1970's. Consequently, many of those administrators were hired from positions outside of higher education often from public schools which meant they had a masters or bachelors as their highest degree. Furthermore, the research in this study suggests that the majority of CAOs are hired from within the same institution. This data further suggests that it is the person along with experiences rather than the qualifications that leads to the hiring of an individual. But with programs like the Higher Education program at Texas Tech University, individuals are able to obtain advanced degrees after acquiring such positions.

Recommendations for Further Research

Listed below are the recommendations for further research pertaining to the entry points, career lines, and organizational boundaries of CAOs at rural two-year institutions.

1. Replicate this study to include CAOs at suburban and urban institutions in the same nine states. Comparing the CAOs at rural institutions with those at suburban and urban institutions would allow a broader study of CAOs at two-year institutions.
2. Replicate this study to include CAOs at rural two-year institutions in the other 41 states. Conducting this study in other states would provide a more comprehensive view of the rural CAO and how they arrived at their current position. It would provide an expanded analysis of not only the career lines and the corresponding boundaries which shape those career lines, but it would also solidify the findings of this study.
3. Conduct a longitudinal analysis of the CAOs in this study in 5 – 10 years to observe career lines and boundaries which may evolve.
4. Utilize data collection to expand queries on the specific points of entry into higher education, as well as the length of time in each position held en route to the CAO position at rural two-year institutions. This information would provide greater detail about both entry points and career lines of rural CAOs.
5. Utilize data collection to expand queries about the location of each position held by rural CAOs in terms of state and region. Additionally,

expanded data collection to include the type of institution moved from for each position would help decipher movement between institution types. This information would provide a more in depth analysis of boundaries which shape career lines en route to the CAO position at rural two-year institutions.

6. Utilize data collection to expand demographic information to include personal, as well as professional demographics of rural CAOs. This would allow comparison to previously conducted studies of CAOs which focused on demographic information.

Summary

The CAO position plays a significant role in the academic agenda of an institution. It is apparent from this study that CAOs at rural institutions are similar in many ways to other types of CAOs. Cross referencing with evidence from other studies of CAOs at two-year institutions has strengthened the findings in this study while this study has shed new light on the professional demographics, career entry points, career lines, and organization boundaries to the career lines of rural CAOs.

This study of rural CAOs at two-year institutions in a nine state area has added to the body of knowledge in each of the areas related to career lines of CAOs established by previous studies. Until this study, no other studies had focused on rural CAOs. Understanding the uniqueness of rural CAOs should serve as a spring board to additional studies of specific groups of CAOs.

This study showed multiple points of entry into higher education for rural CAOs with faculty as a common point of entry. This study also revealed that rural CAOs hold a number of positions both within and outside of higher education during their careers. The career lines in this study pointed to one of only a few common career lines near the rural CAO position. It was also readily apparent that two very specific boundaries exist for rural CAOs: single institution (firm) and two-year institutions (occupational). Both of these boundaries become more closed although not totally sealed the closer the move to the CAO position at rural two-year institutions.

The results of this study also support the need for further research. Future research should expand to CAOs at other types of two-year institutions; comparisons between the CAOs at various types of two-year institutions; conducting a national study of CAOs at rural two-year colleges; expanding the study to include CAOs at rural four-year institutions; and comparisons between CAOs at rural two-year and rural four-year institutions. Additionally, further investigative work is needed in the areas of entry points, career movement, and boundaries in order to better understand the CAOs at rural colleges.

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APPENDIX

Related Questions from NCIA Survey

SP _____

CP _____

CIO _____

TODAY'S COMMUNITY-COLLEGE ADMINISTRATORS

Community-college administrators will face many decisions over the next ten years concerning their own future, as well as that of their institutions. This study will help build a national knowledge base about administrators' careers and *their personal and professional* concerns. The confidentiality of your responses will be protected. Data will only be released in the form of statistical summaries; under no circumstances will information be reported on an individual basis.

Please answer all questions, as your feedback is important. We have included a machine-readable response sheet (Scantron) for your convenience. To record your responses on this sheet, use a #2 pencil. You can also forego using the Scantron; simply record your responses directly onto this survey. If you wish to comment on any questions or qualify your answers, use the margins, the spaces provided on the last page, or a separate sheet of paper.

Please verify your current position title and institution are as indicated on the mailing label on the envelope which contained this survey. If this information is incorrect, **please make appropriate change(s) in the spaces provided below**. If you do NOT currently hold an administrative position at a two-year college, please stop. You need not complete the remainder of this questionnaire. Simply return it in the envelope provided.

Title

Institution

*******The following questions involve the community-college classification of your institution. Criteria are based on the Katsinas and Lacey Community College Classification System (1996)*******

Q-1. My institution is best described as:

- a - A publicly-controlled two-year institution.
- b - A privately-controlled two-year institution.
- c - A federally-chartered and/or special use institution.

- Q-2. Which of the following best describes your institution?**
a - A rural community college (located outside of metropolitan areas of the 100 largest U.S. cities)
b - A suburban community college (located within metropolitan areas of the 100 largest U.S. cities)
c - An urban community college (located within one of the 100 largest U.S. cities)

- Q-3. Which of the following best describes your Institution?**
a - Small college (FTE < 1,000 students)
b - Medium-sized college (FTE = 1,000-2,499 students)
c - Large-sized college (FTE >2,500 students)

- Q-4. Which of the following best describes your institution?**
a - Single campus
b - Multi-campus

- Q-5. Which of the following best describes your institution?**
a - Single campus
b - Multi-campus

******The following section involves personal academic background and experience******

- Q-6. What is the highest academic degree you hold?**
a – Doctor of Philosophy
b - Doctor of Education
c – Master’s in Education
d - Other Master’s degree
e – Bachelor’s degree

- Q-7. What is the academic focus of the degree you referenced in the previous question?**
a - Higher Education (HIED)
b - K-12 teaching/administration
c - Other educational focus
d - Traditional subject matter (e. g., biology, history): please list subject area _____

- Q-22. Do you hold academic rank at your current institution?**
a - No, because our administrators are ineligible for academic rank. (Skip to Q-24)
b - No, but our administrators can hold academic rank. (Skip to Q-24)
c - Yes (Continue with Q-23)

Q-23. Please identify the academic rank held at your current institution.

- a - Professor
- b - Associate Professor
- c - Assistant Professor
- d – Instructor/Lecturer
- e - Adjunct faculty member

Q-24. Do you hold tenure at your current Institution?

- a - No, because administrators are ineligible for tenure at this particular two-year college.
- b - No, but this particular two-year college does allow administrators to hold tenure.
- c - Yes

Q-25. During the current academic year, have you taught any course?

- a - No
- b - Yes, at my current institution
- c - Yes, at a different two-year institution
- d - Yes, at a four-year institution

*******Generic definitions for several key community-college administrators' positions are listed below. Have you ever held any of these, prior to your current position?*******

Q-26. Chief Executive Officer (CEO)—directs all affairs and operations of either a stand-alone HIED institution, or one which is part of a community-college system.

- a - No
- b - Yes

Q-27. Executive Vice President—responsible for all of most functions and operations of an institution under the direction of the CEO.

- a - No
- b - Yes

Q-28. Chief Academic Officer (CAO)—directs the academic program of the institution. Typically includes academic planning, teaching, research, extensions, and coordination of interdepartmental affairs.

- a - No
- b - Yes

- Q-29. Associate Academic Officer—responsible for many of the functions and operations under the direction of the CAO.**
a - No
b - Yes
- Q-30. Director of Admissions—responsible for the recruitment, selection, and admission of students.**
a - No
b - Yes
- Q-31. Chief Business Officer—directs business and financial affairs including accounting, purchasing, physical plant, property management, personnel services, food services, auxiliary enterprises, and related business matters.**
a - No
b - Yes
- Q-32. Director, Personnel Services (Human Resources)—administers the institutions personnel policies for staff or faculty and staff.**
a - No
b - Yes
- Q-33. Chief Student Affairs Officer—responsible for the direction of student life programs including counseling and testing, housing, placement, student union, relationships with student organizations, and related functions.**
a - No
b - Yes
- Q-34. Dean of Students (or Dean of Men or Dean of Women)—directs student life.**
a - No
b - Yes
- Q-35. Chief Planning Officer—directs the long-range planning and allocation of the institution's resources.**
a - No
b - Yes
- Q-36. Dean (or Director)—serves as principal administrator for one or more specific institutional academic program(s).**
a - No
b - Yes

Q-37. Periods of rapid expansion over the past few decades in America's community colleges led to the creation of many new administrator positions. Were you the first person in your current organization to hold any office previously identified in Q-26 through Q-36?

a - No

b - Yes (if so, please identify the position(s) by circling the respective title(s) in Q-26 through Q-36)

*******Career progression entails moving from one position to another of increased responsibility; it can also involve movement between various types of HIED institutions. The following section deals with these issues by considering the last five administrator positions you have held. Beginning with your current assignment and working backward, please place each position title in the appropriate space. Where applicable, use the question numbers (from Q-26 through Q-36) to identify position titles (e. g., if you served as a Director of Admissions, place Q-30 in the appropriate space). If you held a position not mentioned in Q-26 through Q-36, please write the position title in the appropriate space*******

current position

Q-38. How did you assume the position listed above?

a - It was a move from within the same organization. (Skip to Q-40)

b - It was a move from outside the organization and from outside of HIED. (Skip to Q-40)

c - It was a move from outside the organization, but from another HIED institution. (Continue with Q-39)

Q-39. Which one of the following best categorizes the type of HIED institution you moved from, upon assuming the position listed above?

a - A two-year community college

b - A four-year college (e. g., Bachelor's degree-granting)

c - A comprehensive four-year institution

d - A major research university offering terminal degrees

1st previously—held position

Q-40. How did you assume the position listed above?

- a - It was a move from within the same organization. (Skip to Q-42)
- b - It was a move from outside the organization and from outside of HIED. (Skip to Q-42)
- c - It was a move from outside the organization, but from another HIED institution. (Continue with Q-41)

Q-41. Which one of the following best categorizes the type of HIED institution you moved from, upon assuming the position listed above?

- a - A two-year community college
- b - A four-year college (e. g., Bachelor's degree-granting)
- c - A comprehensive four-year institution
- d - A major research university offering terminal degrees

2nd previously-held position

Q-42. How did you assume the position listed above?

- a - It was a move from within the same organization. (Skip to Q-44)
- b - It was a move from outside the organization and from outside of HIED. (Skip to Q-44)
- c - It was a move from outside the organization, but from another HIED institution. (Continue with Q-43)

Q-43. Which one of the following best categorizes the type of HIED institution you moved from, upon assuming the 2nd previously-held position listed at the bottom of the previous page?

- a - A two-year community college
- b - A four-year college (e. g., Bachelor's-degree granting)
- c - A comprehensive four-year institution
- d - A major research university offering terminal degrees

3rd previously-held position

Q-44. How did you assume the position listed above?

- a - It was a move from within the same organization. (Skip to Q46)
- b - It was a move from outside the organization and from outside of HIED. (Skip to Q-46)
- c - It was a move from outside the organization, but from another HIED institution. (Continue with Q-45)

Q-45. Which one of the following best categorizes the type of HIED institution you moved from, upon assuming the position listed above?

- a - A two-year community college
- b - A four-year college (e. g., Bachelor's-degree granting)
- c - A comprehensive four-year institution
- d - A major research university offering terminal degrees

4th previously-held position

Q-46. How did you assume the position listed above?

- a - It was a move from within the same organization. (Skip to Q-48)
- b - it was a move from outside the organization and from outside of HIED, (Skip to Q-45)
- c - it was a move from outside the organization but from another HIED institution, (Continue with Q-47)

Q-47. Which one of the following best categorizes the type of HIED institution you moved from, upon assuming the position listed above?

- a - A two-year community college
- b - A four-year college (e. g., Bachelor's-degree granting)
- c - A comprehensive four-year institution
- d - A major research university offering terminal degrees

Q-48. How many additional years of HIED administrator experience have you amassed beyond the position(s) listed in Q-38 through Q-47?

- a - Less than two years
- b - Between two and four years
- c - Between four and six years
- d - More than six years

Q-49. How many additional years of HIED faculty experience have you amassed beyond the position(s) listed in Q-38 through Q-47?

- a - Less than two years
- b - Between two and four years
- c - Between four and six years
- d - More than six years