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Cover Photo: Porreco College of Edinboro University is located in Erie, Pennsylvania. The land and buildings comprised the former farm-estate of Edinboro alumnae, Mary Porreco; it was gifted to the University by her nephew, Lou Porreco, respected Erie business person and philanthropist. In 2013, the University responded to a critical educational need and designated Porreco College as, "*The Community's College*." The University has developed work-force development education programs and offers certificates and associate degrees at tuition rates similar to those at other Pennsylvania community colleges.

CONTENTS

CREATING A CULTURE OF SCHOLARSHIP IN A TEACHING COLLEGE

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Teaching colleges will attract more students, attain more funding, and make a significant impact on the profession with a highly qualified, research focused faculty (Cornell University, 2010). Through strong research and funding, colleges and universities in the United States are considered among the most prestigious globally, making them particularly attractive to international students, professors and external funding agencies (Sabharwal, 2013; Baty, 2010). This narrative illuminates the story of a college of education and human services at a large Midwestern doctoral research university that boasts seven academic colleges and serves a student population of 28,000. Most of the students are enrolled in undergraduate programs and are of traditional ages (18-24 years). About 21,000 students enroll in classes on the campus, while another 7,000 students participate in classes through off-campus programming which provides access for many non-traditional and graduate students.

The college of education and human services within this university setting is diverse in scope and discipline. It consists of five academic departments and offers an array of undergraduate and master's programs in addition to two doctoral programs. Several programs have advanced to become highly specialized. Faculty members are an equally diverse community of scholars, who largely affiliate with national associations related to their specialization. The college offers programs in Apparel, Merchandising and Design; Child and Human Development; Early Childhood, Elementary, Special and Secondary Education; Educational Leadership (P-12); Event Management; Child and Family Studies; Gerontology; Higher Education and Student Affairs; Interior Design; Literacy and Reading; Registered Dietetics; Recreation, Leisure and Park Management; School and Community Counseling; and Therapeutic Recreation. In this article, the authors explore the

processes, outcomes, and barriers encountered by college leadership in their efforts to influence and change the behavioral practices and cultural norms in relation to faculty research and scholarship.

According to Feldman and Acord (2002), "Building faculty programs of research in an academic setting involves identifying a critical mass of researchers, setting goals for the research enterprise, and establishing appropriate resources to facilitate successful outcomes" (p. 140). In an effort to promote and advance a culture of scholarship, the newly-appointed dean was given a clear directive from the president and provost to promote and support faculty scholarship within the college in order to help the university increase research ranking and establish a stronger voice in the national scholarship arena. In order to advance this agenda, the university leadership set three strategic priorities which included:

1. Promoting student and faculty research
2. Increasing faculty research and creative activity
3. Hiring and investing in quality faculty and staff

The primary emphasis was given to research and creative activity. One of the first steps was to determine the current level of research and scholarship in the college. The dean conducted an extensive analysis of faculty member contributions in grant writing, research, publications, and creative endeavors. Upon investigation, she discovered a wide and diverse range of activity in these areas that included some deep pockets of scholarship and productivity across the college. Some faculty members were contributing to national and international venues, often linked to professional and peer reviewed systems; however this was not the case for the majority. Further investigation into the issues surrounding faculty scholarship and an understanding of the prevailing norms and research behavior within the college became a priority.

Braxton, Luckey, and Helland (2002) indicated that faculty perceptions of the value assigned to scholarship vary by institutional type, with research and doctoral-granting universities placing the highest value on the scholarship of discovery. Comprehensive universities and teaching colleges embrace the scholarship of engagement and liberal arts colleges value the scholarship of integration (Braxton et al., 2002). These three varied approaches pose unique challenges to colleges and universities that embrace diverse aspects of scholarship and creative activity. Similar to many other regional universities, the university has its roots in teaching, beginning as a normal school with a mission to prepare elementary teachers and business educators for work in the region. Established with humble beginnings 123 years ago, the university's vision, deeply embedded in its infrastructure today, has consistently focused on quality teaching. Consequently, those who were not engaged in extensive scholarship or creative activity were largely hired at a time when teaching and service were the major emphases in their academic position descriptions.

Park and Braxton (2002) explained, "Faculty members who value using their disciplinary knowledge to solve societal problems and also demonstrate a concern for student learning will perform scholarship reflective of the scholarship of application and the scholarship of teaching" (p. 305). In the initial analysis of research productivity, it was apparent that college faculty members were primarily invested in their students

and programs and less anchored in research-intensive activity. Further, some who contributed little or no research argued the traditional three/three teaching load left limited time for scholarship and some claimed limited resources were available. An additional concern voiced by some faculty members was that some administrators and faculty members valued only empirically-based research and held beliefs regarding scholarship that were not congruent with other disciplines in the college. Some faculty also felt that practitioner scholarship was discounted and viewed by others as lower quality. Creating a shared vision for research and scholarship in the college was necessary, yet hampered by the diversity of perspectives and complexity of the current culture.

Feldman and Acord (2002) indicated that in addition to faculty interest and involvement, in order for a culture of scholarship to flourish, administrative support must be evident. An initial analysis of faculty research and scholarship production over the previous five years was conducted. This was done in order to recognize patterns and trends and to identify areas where needed action existed. Six major themes emerged from this initial investigation. First and foremost, for a number of reasons the college faculty was not held in high regard in terms of scholarship across campus. In addition, faculty scholarship productivity was uneven within the college; venues for national dissemination of scholarship varied widely; current teaching loads impeded scholarship productivity; faculty members were unaware of college and university budgeting models and the availability of resources to support scholarship; and widespread misperceptions of the value of various modes of scholarship inhibited individual and unit progress.

To ensure collaborative and transparent university decision-making, the dean chose to investigate using a stakeholder task force to generate recommendations that reflected the needs and perceptions of faculty and staff regarding this essential of the core mission--research and creative activity of the college. This decision to employ a stakeholder task force aligned directly with the university's mission of shared governance which can be defined as a "dynamic collection of the best practices for engaging, voicing, listening, and discussing the interests of all groups when planning, making, and implementing decisions for the university" (Irwin, 2013, para. 6). The Scholarship Support Task Force was charged with reviewing the culture of research and scholarship within the college and providing recommendations to support increased research, scholarship and creative activity within the college. Their charge was clear but proved challenging.

Task force members found limited empirical research regarding the culture of scholarship within colleges and colleagues. Thus, an anecdotal reporting of the research supports found on websites of comparable universities provided groundwork for this study. Medical school researchers have written extensively about research productivity, thus providing numerous linkages that we were able to apply from the nursing profession literature (Conn et al., 2005). While some disciplines lend themselves more readily to strong faculty research, educational research has often been considered to lack credibility and the robust findings that garner headlines (Sabharwal, 2013; Ferrero, 2005; Kohn, 2003).

Building a culture of research, scholarship and creative activity happens over time and requires a multi-faceted approach. Feldman and Acord (2002) indicated, "The key to developing a new culture that values and promotes research is the desire to build knowledge, the need to role model to students and peers, and the interest in meeting the challenges of tenure and promotion standards" (p. 141). Walker, Sykes, Hemmelgarn, and Quan (2010) reported that publications and citations have become more important for scientists and faculty in determining individual and organizational rewards. From our analyses, we contend that allocating additional funds and resources directly for research without other supports in place might increase productivity for some individuals, but will not likely impact the cultural norms and environment.

Task Force Recommendations

After several months of research and fact-finding, the task force members recommended ways to redesign the research infrastructure, support external funding, and create a culture of research within this diverse community of scholars. These recommendations were derived from a process of inquiry that included a faculty/staff survey (n=41), departmental focus groups, development of a comparison document listing scholarship support at comparable universities, a comprehensive review of the literature on scholarship support for faculty and staff, and consensus of the task force members. The key findings that drove the recommendations fell under the aegis of university structures, processes and procedures and the culture of research, scholarship and creative activity within the college.

Table 1.
Faculty Satisfaction and Use of Scholarship Supports Expressed as a Percentage of the Sample

	Highly Satisfied	Satisfied	Encountered difficulties	Haven't used
Technical Assistance Workshops	7	27	10	56
Statistical Consulting Center	---	15	17	68
Library	44	39	2	15
Professional Association training/workshops	24	27	5	44
Online Grant Writing Courses	2	12	10	76
Office of Research & Sponsored Programs	22	24	29	24
Accounting Services	7	24	15	54
Faculty Research & Creative Endeavors	17	49	5	29
Colleagues	24	51	17	7

(n=41)

Throughout the university there are a number of institutional supports for research, scholarship and creative activity available to stakeholders, such as library, office of research and sponsored programs, software to support data analysis, yet they were often unused. The survey results indicated limited use of most resources except for the library, as noted in Table 1.

Further, dissatisfaction with the quality of some of the services provided was expressed in the survey results and included issues of grant post-award support, methodological support, mentoring, and writing support. The task force concluded that faculty would benefit from support in all aspects of scholarship and creative activity, including, but not limited to research design, methodology, external grants, and mentoring. The faculty respondents supported course load reduction, assistance from development officers and post-award grant budgeting overwhelmingly. Only one quarter of those surveyed indicated that they would use support for IRB and CITI training or physical space considerations for their research. Figure 1 shows the percentages of faculty who indicated agreement that this support was important and they would likely use this support if available.

Percentage of Faculty who would probably use this support
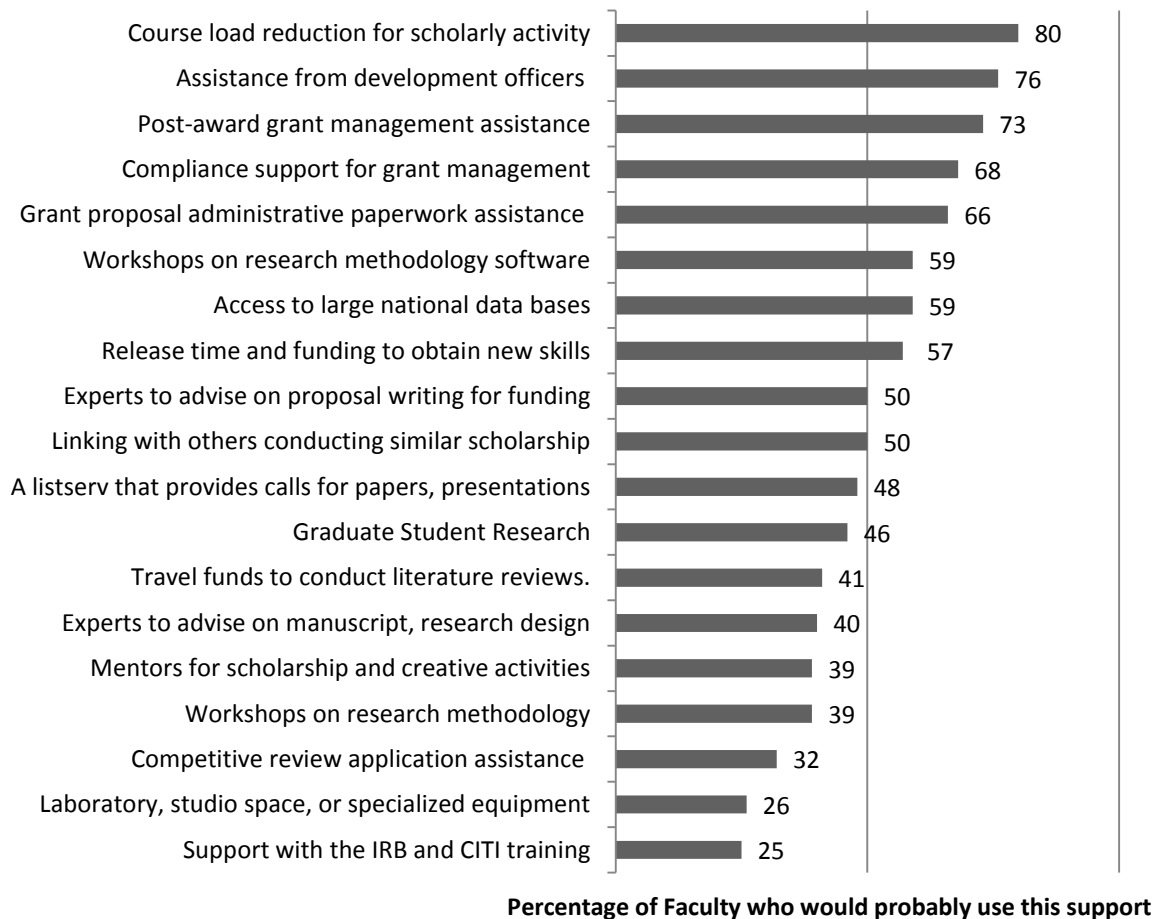
Figure 1. *Faculty agreement and potential use indicators of scholarship supports.*

Final recommendations centered on the following three major areas: Vision of Scholarship, Support for Scholarship, and Structures Supporting Scholarship.

Vision of Scholarship

Generating a plan for strategic change in the level of faculty engagement in research and scholarship productivity required the creation of a shared vision within the college. A clear vision of scholarship that articulated college expectations, priorities and values was utilized to inspire faculty and reorient past practice. The task force recommended that senior leadership encourage department chairs to make scholarship and creative activity a priority within their departments so that a clear and consistent message was being sent and reinforced from all levels of college leadership. Specifically, stronger leadership and prioritization in departments could include funding release time for research; utilizing all graduate assistant lines; encouraging sabbatical research; promoting faculty research accomplishments internally and externally, encouraging faculty/student research teams, and increased mentoring for untenured faculty. Building the "collective capacity" (Hickman & Sorenson, 2014, p. 81) of the college to enact change required a common purpose, shared understanding of what needed to be done, and combined efforts from multiple levels. Leadership behaviors that influence and shape the behavior and values of others create conditions for new culture formation (Schein, 2010, p. 3).

Support for Scholarship

Another recommendation of the task force was to secure a research consultant to assist faculty and staff in scholarship and creative activities. This person would serve as a liaison to library resources, maintain and secure databases, and writing support, ensuring provision of the best and most timely information to faculty and staff. This consultant would oversee any graduate assistants assigned to the Scholarship Support Office and others who may have responsibilities in the Scholarship Support Office. The responsibilities of this consultant would include marketing related to scholarship and creative activities, maintaining a research-specific website, providing timely communications, including newsletters, educational seminars, and mentoring focused on topics such as: Research Design, Research Methodology, and Data Analysis.

Additionally, the task force recommended that leadership secure a grant consultant to assist in the entire grant process from pre-grant research design through to grant management and compliance. The grant consultant would serve as a liaison to the university research office and university development offices, ensuring that we are providing the best and most timely information to faculty and staff. Additionally, this consultant would provide educational seminars, which may include topics such as: Finding Grant

Opportunities, Technical Assistance, or Grant Writing Tips. An additional recommendation called for the exploration and purchase of long-term subscriptions to selected education-related databases.

The task force further recommended that the college use the existing infrastructure to formalize research mentoring by expanding the Best Practices Grant to be used for either pedagogy or mentoring. This incentive would allow applicants to secure funding if they were interested in securing mentors outside our college or university. The funds could be used for expenses of the mentor or the protégé, depending on the specific outcomes described in the application.

Structures Supporting Scholarship

The recommendations regarding structure spanned the college as well as the university. The task force recommended that college leadership invite representatives from the Office of Research and Sponsored Projects (ORSP) to meet with the College Advisory Council to establish a system of feedback and collaboration and address issues of grant oversight. Additionally, in order to increase productivity in grants development and scholarly publication, it was recommended that college leadership include the Research Consultant/Fellow on the College Advisory Council to establish and sustain a system of feedback and collaboration regarding research. In order to intensify confidence in the nature of research conducted within the college and increase interdepartmental research collaboration, a final recommendation advocated for increased internal and external marketing of scholarship and creative activities performed by faculty and staff.

Sustainable Scholarship

College leadership strongly supported the clearly outlined recommendations of the Scholarship Support Task Force and moved forward with college wide initiatives to build upon a strong foundation and foster further advancement within the College of Education and Human Services. One component of the leadership plan was to implement a Leadership Fellow approach. This initiative could provide faculty members an opportunity to promote the study and advancement of leadership with their own particular disciplinary focus. Ideas included but were not limited to administration exploration, innovative program development, bolstering scholarly recognition, promoting social justice, refining curriculum and enhancing programming, entering the national leadership arena, and jumpstarting external funding development.

The inaugural Leadership Fellow shared, "I was provided the irreplaceable opportunity to help shape scholarship supports with the goal of creating an infrastructure that would be sustainable throughout time, while being flexible enough to remain supportive and appropriate with the changing trends, goals and needs within the college." Several different projects in support of faculty scholarship were a result of the initial planning. Funding sources, support systems, and time allocations for new scholarship initiatives of EHS faculty members were consistently shared as a concern and need across the five different academic departments as a

result of the scholarship task force. In response to these requests and in planning for the future, an initiative began to assist in building a strong and sustainable scholarship agenda and future.

The Faculty Scholarship Award was instrumental in the construction of a thriving scholarship foundation. "In an environment where scholarship was often completed independently and in silos, suddenly collaborative conversations were occurring and scholarship centered discussions were taking place on a regular basis", reflected the College Leadership Fellow. The Faculty Scholarship Awards were initiated through an application and review process within the college and were in support of original research or creative faculty work. Many faculty members within the college applied for the one course reassignment and up to $1000 for supplies and expenses related to their identified scholarly activity.

The expectations for faculty who received grant funding included the following requirements: a) submit an article for publication to a national or international peer reviewed journal, and b) submit an article for publication in a professional organization's newsletter, blog, magazine, or newspaper, and c) submit a proposal for a presentation at a national or international peer reviewed professional conference, and d) submit a project summary to both the Department Chairperson and the College Senior Leaders.

The funding proved to be successful as faculty shared the outreach through professional venues such as conferences, workshops, and publications. Topics studied varied greatly from vital relationships, quality workspaces, online learning, legal foundations, textiles, college affordability, prosthetics, ageism, and charter schools, just to name a few. Roundtable discussions were scheduled and highlighted within the college environment so researchers were able to share their progress and findings, as well as offer an environment of support for other faculty.

In addition, the Best Practices in Pedagogy Award was also initiated. While not as popular as the Faculty Scholarship Awards, both tenure track and teaching faculty did apply for this opportunity to support the investigation of methods that advance best practices in pedagogy and improve college teaching and instructional practices that promote student learning and instructor effectiveness. Faculty could apply for $2000 to fund supplies, travel, and training expenses related to this pedagogical exploration.

The expectations for faculty that were granted the pedagogy award funds included the following requirements: a) submit a proposal related to pedagogy for a presentation at a national professional conference, or b) submit a newsletter article summary related to pedagogy to a national association newsletter, and c) submit a project summary to the Department Chairperson and College Senior Leaders. The Faculty Scholarship and Best Practices in Pedagogy Awards have been a positive and welcome addition to the faculty scholarship agenda in this college. While minor modifications have been made to clarify the application process and to remain optimally efficient, the core standards and high expectations of these awards stand as a pillar of the thriving scholarship foundation of our college.

Lessons Learned

The following section outlines some of the obstacles that emerged during the implementation phase of faculty grant applications and the adjustments made along the way to smooth out the process. Expectations for faculty research as well as definitions of scholarship fluctuate across institutions, colleges, and disciplines in higher education. Leading successful and dynamic change requires continual attention and monitoring of the barriers and challenges that present during the implementation phase of change initiatives. Obstacles and resistance are to be expected during implementation and are considered an inherent component of the change process (Kezar, 2014, p. 164). Implementing a new vision and direction for scholarship in a college can take years. Leaders need to be mindful of the dynamics of change, anticipate resistance, take deliberate action to address concerns, communicate often to build momentum, and continually reinforce new behaviors.

Application Review

During the application review process for Faculty Scholarship Awards, the need for clarification of what constitutes original research or a creative endeavor surfaced. Applications that were extensions of recently funded awards and those who submitted slightly modified proposals that had already received previous research funding from the university presented challenges in the review as well as the wide variance among proposals identified as original research or a creative endeavor. A clear definition of original research and creative endeavors was needed to clarify scholarship expectations and help application reviewers remain objective throughout the process. In this case, the norms of the college did not allow for a standard definition of either term. Each of the five departments in the college had its own set of by-laws and the policies and practices related to faculty research requirements were markedly different. While a uniform set of by-laws would be ideal, the diverse nature of the departments and past practice led to nonconformance. In an effort to ensure equity in the review process, a decision was made to examine the respective by-laws of each faculty application when clarification was needed.

In addition to the application, questions arose regarding the review process. Initially, the applications and dissemination of the award notice were managed within the dean's office by the individual in the leadership fellow position. Faculty Scholarship Award application reviews were completed within the dean's office however after one full award cycle, the process was expanded to include volunteer faculty members. While the inclusion of faculty members strengthened principles of shared governance, criteria for faculty reviewers had not been established. In turn, this left the review process open to scrutiny in reference to the scholarly reputations of faculty members on the review team. Further, skepticism of the funding opportunity itself emerged from faculty ranks and was greatest among faculty peers who heavily critiqued some recipients of the scholarship grants. There were underlying perceptions of faculty members who were deserving of such awards based on previous scholarly records or those that were not due to non-scholarly performance. Overall, criticisms were minimal and focused on issues of faculty research competency, legitimacy of the application, and scholarly reputation of grant recipients.

Departmental Challenges

The implementation of Faculty Scholarship Awards garnered significant interest and enthusiasm when first announced. Throughout the academic year, over 20 individual faculty members submitted applications and received course releases coupled with additional funding to conduct research. Consequently, the opportunity also generated new challenges for department chairs. Three of the most difficult challenges were 1) scheduling conflicts, 2) supporting applications, and 3) equity issues related to differentiated teaching loads. Scheduling conflicts surfaced quickly as faculty received grants and requested course releases the following semester. In some cases, the conflicts were easily resolved within established adjunct pools, however in other specialty areas, such as doctoral programs, the faculty release created hardship for both program faculty and students. As a result, department chairs requested grants be awarded for the following year which would allow ample time for scheduling.

Another dilemma for department chairs was the format of the grant application itself which included a department chair comment section and sign-off on the application. Individual chairs expressed the challenge they experienced in signing off on applications that they felt were substandard in quality. They did not want their signature to be an endorsement of the application, nor did they want to be put in the position to judge the quality of research. Considering the unique position of the chairperson and the political ramifications that are inherent in the role, the application was modified to include an acknowledgement section. The signature page stated the following: *As chairperson of the department representing this applicant, I have read this proposal and understand that this applicant is applying for the reassignment of one course for the Fall 20XX semester*. This modification neutralized the action of the chairs and allowed the applications to move forward for peer review.

In addition, issues related to equity emerged due to the number of course releases given to faculty members. In some cases, faculty applied for subsequent scholarship grants and received course releases for two or more consecutive semesters. In other instances, the department already had a differentiated research schedule which coupled with the scholarship grant, faculty were teaching 1:1 loads. As a result, faculty peer pressure and concerns about fairness and equity prompted revisions in the application to address these issues.

Accountability

Institutional supports for research are available to all faculty in the university, however colleges within the university vary greatly in terms of research productivity. Allocating additional funds directly for research without other supports in place might increase productivity for some individuals, but will not likely impact the cultural norms and environment. Various supports have been implemented including hiring both a grant writing and writing coach. Van Dalen and Henkens (2012) found that hiring, promotion and tenure decisions are increasingly dependent upon records of publication in their worldwide study across disciplines. They further contended that aspiring researchers are caught in a spiral where "it is no longer matters what you

write, but only how often, where and with whom you write" (p. 1283). Guided faculty writing groups were created and implemented for three consecutive semesters. Over time attendance from guided sessions shifted as faculty gained confidence and segued into independent writing groups.

Three operational elements to ensure accountability for the grant were outlined in to the application. Awardees would be expected to submit an article for publication to a national/international peer reviewed professional journal, submit a proposal for a presentation at a national/international peer reviewed professional conference, and submit a project summary to Department Chairperson and to Senior Leaders. Tracking and monitoring the progress and outcomes of the scholarship grant funds were key in developing accountability for completion of the proposed research projects.

In summary, implementation challenges left unaddressed can negatively impact the organizational climate. Organizational climate and productivity are linked to the degree of openness, trust, shared understanding, common goals, and collegiality of the institution. Leveraging and nurturing faculty relationships throughout the change phase is essential in order to meet challenges head on, continually monitor and adjust along the way, and engage constituents in advancing the initiative forward

Summary

The importance of understanding optimal scholarship capacity within academic environments helped to construct this foundation in a college where exemplary activities occurred, yet were not being shared and celebrated in a consistent manner. Vital components of these ideas to build and sustain a culture of both research and pedagogical excellence centered on examining current challenges faced with regard to building capacity, the potential within our environments to create new knowledge and opportunities, the value of creative thinking, and unique approaches to scholarship development and support. Institutional supports for research, scholarship and creative activity are available to all faculty, however colleges within the university vary greatly in terms of research productivity. Creating a context supportive of change in the college has been an essential element (Hall & Hord, 2011) in breaking down barriers and increasing faculty research and scholarship capacity. Cultivating an environment where the appreciation and encouragement for faculty research and scholarship is supported by layers of leadership and resources promotes transformative culture change and fosters sustainability.

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ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS AND THEIR RELATIONSHIP TO ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT, JOB SATISFACTION, AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS

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As colleges and universities face greater financial difficulties, the decision making process related to resource allocations is more important than ever. It has the potential to impact the success of the organization in both the short term and long term. It also can impact employees' feelings about the institution. One means for examining this impact is by using the organizational justice theoretical framework. This framework has been used to examine the perceptions of fairness and the impact of those perceptions in a variety of organizations (Colquitt, Greenberg, & Zapata-Phelan, 2005). Prior research has found perceptions of organizational justice are related to key variables, including organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions (e.g., Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001; Cropanzano, Rupp, Mohler, & Schminke, 2001; Thorn, 2010). However, there were some differences in these studies related to these relationships, including which aspects of organizational justice are related to which variables (Thorn, 2010).

Moreover, organizational justice has not been often used to examine higher education. Much of the research has focused on specific decisions, such as tenure and promotion decisions (Ambrose & Cropanzano, 2003), or unique areas of higher education, such as intercollegiate athletics (e.g., Hums & Chelladurai, 1994; Mahony, Hums, & Riemer, 2002; Mahony, Hums & Riemer, 2005; Mahony & Pastore, 1998; Patrick, Mahony, & Petrosko, 2008; Thorn, 2010). Only recently has research begun to use this framework to more thoroughly examine the resource distribution decisions on the academic side of the institution (Bradley Hnat, Mahony, Fitzgerald, & Crawford, 2015; Daly & Dee, 2006; Fitzgerald, Mahony, Crawford, & Bradley Hnat, 2014). The

current study was designed to begin to more thoroughly apply this theoretical framework to higher education and is the first study to examine organizational justice perceptions and their relationship to key variables in this setting.

Organizational Justice

There are three major components of organizational justice identified in the literature, distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice (Colquitt, et al., 2005). The first area of organizational justice to be examined was distributive justice (Stouffer, Suchman, DeVinney, Starr, &Williams, 1949; Adams, 1963, 1965). Distributive justice relates to perceptions of the "fairness in the distribution of resources" (Mahony, et al., 2010, p. 92). Adams' (1963, 1965) Equity Theory was the basis for much of the early organizational justice research (Mahony et al., 2010). According to Adams' theory, individuals compare their ratio of outcomes to contributions to the same ratios for others to determine if the outcomes they received were fair (Harris, Andrews & Kacmar, 2007). Adams believed that if the ratios are equal, then people are likely to perceive the distributions as fair. However, when the ratios are unequal, they are likely to perceive the distributions as unfair and this is likely to impact their behavior in the future.

In general, the equity theory suggests the greatest distributions go to those who contribute the most to the organization. In higher education, these contributions could be research funding, research publications, quality teaching, impact on students, quality service, student credit hours, and enrollment in the major (Bradley, et al., 2015). Later research suggested people do not always perceive distributions based on equity to be fair. Researchers said in some settings people may perceive equal distributions or distributions based on need to be more fair (e.g., Deutsch, 1975; Sheppard, Lewicki, & Minton, 1992). Because of these differences, it is important to examine perceptions across organizational types because what is believed to be fair may vary considerably depending on the setting.

Procedural justice focuses on "the fairness of the procedures responsible for reward distribution" (Mahony, Hums, Andrew, & Dittmore, 2010, p. 92). Research on procedural justice started with the work of Thibault and Walker (1975) who focused on perceptions in the legal setting, but later researchers applied it to the workplace (Greenberg, 1990). They found many aspects of the decision-making process impacted employees' perceptions of fairness (e.g., Greenberg, 1986, 1987; Leventhal, 1980).

Interactional justice is "the interpersonal treatment and communications used while implementing the procedures" (Mahony et al., 2010, p. 93) and examines perceptions of the fairness of "how decisions are enacted by authority figures" (Colquitt & Greenberg, 2003, p. 166). Bies and Moag (1986) began this focus on the importance of interactions and their impact on fairness perceptions and considerable work has been done since then (e.g., Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2005). Later, Greenberg (1993) argued for splitting interactional justice into two dimensions, interpersonal justice and informational justice, and Colquitt (2001) found some support for this model. These findings suggest both the personal approach of the authority

figure and the information they provide have an impact on perceptions of fairness.

Outcome Variables

Prior research has also found organizational justice is related to key organizational variables, including organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions in other settings (e.g., Colquitt et al., 2001; Cropanzano et al., 2001; Thorn, 2010). Organizational commitment focuses on the degree of involvement or fit between employees and their organization (Buck & Watson, 2002; Daly & Dee, 2006). When an employee is committed to an organization it generally means the employee identifies with and internalizes the values and goals of the organization (Balay, 2012; Susanj & Jakopec, 2012). In the current study, organizational commitment is defined as "the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian, 1974, p. 604). Organizational commitment is considered to be particularly important to organizations because of its relationship with other variables including performance, or productivity, and turnover (Fedor, Caldwell, & Herold, 2006; Susanj & Jakopeck, 2012).

Research on postsecondary education administrators has identified a variety of variables that may be related to job satisfaction (e.g., Volkwein, Malik & Napierski-Pranci, 1998). In the current study, job satisfaction is defined as an employee's evaluation of the cognitive, emotional, and behavioral elements their job responsibilities (Chelladurai, 1999; Thorn, 2010). Variables such as age, sex, educational level, length of tenure, administrative area and rank, organizational size, organizational mission, financial stability, and organizational quality all have been found to be related to job satisfaction (Glick, 1992; Volkwein et al., 1998). While job satisfaction is positively correlated with organizational commitment, they are distinct (e.g., Glisson & Durick, 1988) and there are differences in how they develop. For example, job satisfaction tends to develop more rapidly than organizational commitment (Martin & Bennett, 1996).

In the literature, two main types of turnover are commonly discussed, voluntary and involuntary (Lambert, Cluse-Tolar, Sudershan, Prior, & Allen, 2012). Voluntary turnover occurs when an employee resigns and involuntary turnover occurs when an employee is required to resign (Lambert et al. 2012). Additionally, turnover can be distinguished between actual turnover and the intent to leave, with intent measuring the probability an employee will leave their organization (Johnsrud, Heck & Rosser, 2000; Daly & Dee, 2006). For this study, turnover intention is defined as the desire or even willingness to seek employment with a different organization (Smart, 1990). The purpose of the current study was to examine the relationship between three aspects of organizational justice and organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions in a higher education setting. This is the first study to examine the relationship among these variables in this setting.

Relationship Between Organizational Justice and Key Organizational Outcomes

As previously discussed, prior research has found organizational justice may be related to a number of key organizational variables including organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions (e.g., Colquitt et al., 2001; Cropanzano, et al., 2001; Thorn, 2010). However, it is important to note research on the impact of the various aspects of organizational justice on each outcome has not been consistent. In general, prior results tend to indicate that distributive justice is a better predictor of job satisfaction, while procedural justice is a better predictor of organizational commitment and turnover intentions (e.g., Dailey & Kirk, 1992; Folger & Konovsky, 1989; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992). There is some conceptual logic to these findings. One can understand why the procedures used would have a stronger relationship to an employee's commitment to the organization and intention to stay than on their level of satisfaction. For example, employees may be dissatisfied if they do not receive the desired distribution, but if they believe the organization's process is unfair, this would lead to decreased commitment and desire to stay. Distributions may vary over time, but the process tends to be more consistent over time and provide insight into the organization's values. If these are unfair, it would be hard for an employee to be committed to the organization and they would be less likely to want to stay. In fact, Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) argued organizational commitment results from beliefs about the organizations and its values.

However, the results have varied in the literature and different results have sometimes been found in different settings. For example, Tyler and Caine (1981) and Alexander and Ruderman (1987) found procedural justice was a significant predictor of satisfaction, even after controlling for distributive justice. In a later study, Tang and Sarsfield-Baldwin (1996) found both distributive justice and procedural justice were related to satisfaction and commitment. Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) found all three aspects of organizational justice were predictive of satisfaction and commitment, though procedural justice was the best predictor of commitment. They also found distributive justice and procedural justice predicted a measure of turnover intentions.

Method

The data for the current study was collected using an online survey of deans, department chairs, and school directors at both public and private higher education institutions in one Midwest state in the United States.

Participants. The respondents in this study were 126 administrators (response rate = 10.5%). They had an average of 9.5 years of administrative experience, with an average of just over 25 years in higher education. The administrators were primarily Caucasian (89%), male (61%), were working at public universities (75%), and had an average age of 55. Among the respondents, 60% were department chairs and 40% were deans, including assistant or associate deans. Most were employed at public institutions (75%) and were at either research universities (37%) or doctoral universities (34%).

Questionnaire. Participants received a 50-item online questionnaire composed of six main sections. The researchers followed Dillman's (2000) guidelines for survey development assessed both face and content validity prior to administration. The questions utilized in the current study included items related to demographic characteristics, organizational justice, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions. In order to measure organizational justice, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions, the current study utilized scales that have been frequently used in past research.

Organizational Justice. The study used subscales of the Organizational Justice Index (OJI) to measure all three aspects of organizational justice (Rahim, Magner, & Shapiro, 2000). The scale includes 23 total items, including eight items for distributive justice, seven items for procedural justice, and eight items for interactional justice. Each subscale required respondents to rate aspects of distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice based on a scale ranging from "1," indicating strong disagreement with a statement, to "7" indicating strong agreement. Items for each subscale were summed to produce composite scores ranging from 8-56 on the distributive justice subscale, 7-49 on the procedural justice subscale, and 8-56 on the interactional justice subscale. The original scale validation work for the Organizational Justice Index (OJI) developed by Rahim et al. (2000), revealed a three factor model with high levels of internal consistency reliability for each subscale, α = .96, .85, and .94, respectively for the distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice subscales. Internal consistency for the subscales based on this sample of university administrators was also high for each subscale, α = .95, .92, and .96, respectively for the distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice subscales.

Organizational Commitment. Organizational commitment focuses on the degree of involvement or fit between employees and their organization. The study used the six-item organizational commitment subscale from the 31-item General Index of Work Commitment (GIWC) scale developed by Blau, Paul, and St. John (1993). Respondents were asked to rate aspects of organizational commitment based on a scale ranging from "1," indicating strong disagreement with a statement, to "7" indicating strong agreement. The six items were summed to produce a composite organizational commitment score ranging from a value of "7," indicating very low organizational commitment, to a value of "42," indicating very high organizational commitment. The original scale validation work for the organizational commitment subscale of the General Index of Work Commitment (GIWC) scale developed by Blau et al. (1993), revealed a single factor model with high levels of internal consistency reliability, α = .81, and test-retest reliability, *r* = .94. Internal consistency for the scale based on this sample of university administrators was also high, α = .89.

Job Satisfaction. In this study, job satisfaction is defined as an employee's evaluation of the cognitive, emotional, and behavioral elements of their job responsibilities. The research team utilized a five-item job satisfaction survey developed by Judge, Locke, Durham, and Klurger (1998) to assess overall job satisfaction of the respondents. Individual questions were scored with values ranging from "0," indicating strong disagreement with a statement, to "10" indicating strong agreement. The five items were summed to produce

an overall satisfaction score ranging from a value of "0," indicating complete dissatisfaction, to a value of "50," indicating very high job satisfaction. The original scale validation of the survey developed by Judge et al. (1998), revealed a one factor model with high levels of internal consistency reliability, $\alpha = .88$. Internal consistency for the scale based on this sample of university administrators was also high, $\alpha = .87$.

Turnover Intention. To assess turnover intention, defined as the desire or even willingness to seek employment with a different organization, the research team utilized a four-item survey developed by Kelloway, Gottlieb, and Barham (1999) where individual questions were scored using values ranging from "1," indicating strong disagreement with a statement, to "5" indicating strong agreement. The four items were summed to produce a composite organizational commitment score ranging from a value of "4," indicating low turnover intentions, to a value of "20," indicating very high turnover intentions. The original scale validation work for the scale developed by Kelloway et al. (1999), revealed a single factor model with high levels of internal consistency reliability, $\alpha = .92$. Internal consistency for the scale based on this sample of university administrators was also high, $\alpha = .92$.

Demographic Characteristics. Demographic questions required participants to indicate age, ethnicity, gender, administrative appointment (dean/chair), Carnegie classification (research/non-research), type of university/college (public/private), number of years as an academic administrator, and number of years in their current academic position.

Procedures. In order to gather the list of emails for the deans and chairs in the state, researchers reviewed university websites. The authors of the study received approval from the Institutional Review Board before conducting the study. The standard online survey administration protocol suggested by Dillman (2000) was followed in the current study. A pre-notice email invitation was sent first to the sample, which encouraged participation and allowed for them to opt out. Two weeks later, the first survey invitation was sent along with a cover letter. This was followed by a "reminder" email two weeks later. The review of the websites resulted in identifying 1,669 positions at these universities. For 271 positions there was not a contact name or email address listed. In addition, 148 did not have working emails and 53 opted out of the study. This left 1,197 potential respondents. Because 126 responded to the survey, there was a response rate of 10.52%.

There are three possible reasons for the lower response rate. First, there was a problem with the listserv used to distribute the survey. Soon after the "reminder" email was sent, a number of respondents sent a note to the entire listserv asking to be removed, which resulted in a number of unwanted emails that may have lead some members of the sample to chose not to participate. Still, there were no problems when sending the initial survey invitation email and some did still choose to participate after the reminder email, so it is likely there were other factors as well. Second, online surveys frequently have lower response rates. A meta-analysis conducted by Lozar-Manfreda, Bosnjak, Berzelak, Haas, and Vehovar (2008) found online surveys have approximately a 10 percent lower response rate than other survey approaches. Third, other researchers found

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university administrators do not respond at a high rate. For example, Knight, Folkins, Hakel, and Kennell (2011) had a response rate of less than 20% when examining university administrators.

Because of the potential non-response bias with the lower response rate, the authors examined four different demographic variables---gender, university research classification (i.e., research or non-research), university type (i.e., public or private), and administrator classification (i.e., dean or chair/director). A chi-square goodness-of-fit test was used to determine if the proportion of responses in each of these demographic groups differed between the respondents and the sample population. The results of these analyses indicated there were no significant differences between the respondents and the total sample for gender, X^2 (1, N = 110) = 0.45, p > .05, university classification, X^2 (1, N = 102) = 0.13, p > .05, university type, X^2 (1, N = 117) = 1.01, p > .05, or administrator classification, X^2 (1, N = 116) = 2.77, p > .05.

Research Questions. The following research questions were investigated in this study to assess the relationship between organizational justice perceptions and job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions:

> *Research question 1*: Are perceptions of distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice related to organizational commitment among higher education administrators?

> *Research question 2*: Are perceptions of distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice related to job satisfaction among higher education administrators?

> *Research question 3*: Are perceptions of distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice related to turnover intentions among higher education administrators?

> *Statistical Analyses*

The predictor variables in this study consisted of measures of distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice - each a continuous measure of the respective construct considered in this study. The outcome variables in this study were continuous variables measuring organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions. The relationship between each predictor variable and each of the outcome variables was tested using correlation analysis. To test the hypothesis that the set of predictor variables would collectively explain a significant amount of variability in each of these outcomes, three separate multiple regression analyses were conducted. All analyses were conducted using α = .05 as the level of significance. Data was analyzed using PASW Statistics (v.18).

Findings

Correlation Analysis. Correlation coefficients were computed to determine the relationships between each predictor and outcome variable. Table 1 presents the zero-order inter-correlations for the study variables considered. While each of the predictor variables was significantly related to both organizational commitment and turnover intentions, only distributive and procedural justice were significantly related to job satisfaction.

Regression Analysis. While zero-order correlations indicate a number of predictor variables are significantly related to the outcome measures, these results do not take into consideration the complex relationships that may exist both (a) among these predictor variables and (b) among these predictor variables

Table 1
Intercorrelations among Study Variables.

Variables	1	2	3	4	5
1- Distributive Justice	--				
2- Procedural Justice	.55*	--			
3- Interactional Justice	.39*	.53*	--		
4- Organizational Commitment	.41*	.54*	.32*	--	
5- Job Satisfaction	.36*	.39*	.16	.38*	--
6- Turnover Intentions	-.37*	-.44*	-.31*	-.65*	-.40*

* $p < .05$

the results of each multiple regression analysis employed to assess both the unique and multiple associations of the three predictor variables (i.e., distributive justice, procedural justice, interactional justice) as they relate to each of the outcome variables (i.e., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intentions).

Table 2
Multiple Regression Analysis for Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, and Turnover Intentions.

	R-Square	F	P
1. Job Satisfaction Predictor Variables in Final Model: Distributive Justice, Procedural Justice	.23	10.68	.00
2. Organizational Commitment Predictor Variables in Final Model: Distributive Justice, Procedural Justice	.31	15.21	.00
3. Turnover Intentions Predictor Variables in Final Model: Distributive Justice, Procedural Justice	.25	11.91	.00

and the respective outcome measures. Those interested in a detailed discussion of the limitations of interpreting zero-order correlations in non-experimental research should consult Pedhazur (1997). To assess these complex relationships simultaneously, a multiple regression analysis was conducted. Table 2 presents

Job Satisfaction. The multiple R-square for this model was .231, indicating approximately 23% of the variability in job satisfaction could be explained by this set of organizational justice measures. However, one predictor variable failed to explain significant and unique proportions of the variability in job satisfaction; interactional justice did not explain a unique proportion of the variability in job satisfaction after considering the simultaneous relationships among the other measures of organizational justice in the model. The final model suggests that both distributive justice ($\underline{\beta}$= .120) and procedural justice ($\underline{\beta}$= .122) were positively related to job satisfaction.

Organizational Commitment. The multiple R-square for this model was .31, indicating approximately 31% of the variability in organizational commitment could be explained by this set of organizational justice measures. As was discovered in the analysis considering job satisfaction, interactional justice did not explain a unique proportion of the variability in organizational commitment after considering the simultaneous relationships among the other measures of organizational justice in the model. The final model suggests that both distributive justice ($\underline{\beta}$= .268) and procedural justice ($\underline{\beta}$= .112) were positively related to job satisfaction.

Turnover Intentions. The multiple R-square for this model was .250, indicating approximately 25% of the variability in turnover intention could be explained by this set of organizational justice measures. Again, one predictor variable, interactional justice, failed to explain significant and unique proportions of the variability in turnover intentions after considering the simultaneous relationships among the other measures of organizational justice in the model. The final model suggests that both distributive justice ($\underline{\beta}$= -.079) and procedural justice ($\underline{\beta}$= -.105) were negatively related to turnover intentions.

Discussion

The findings of the current study were consistent across the three outcome variables. When examining the relationship between the three organizational justice variables and job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions in regression analyses, both distributive justice and procedural justice were significant predictors of the outcome variables, while interactional justice was not. Interactional justice was significantly correlated with both organizational commitment and turnover intentions, but did not account for a unique portion of variance when it was included in the regression analyses with distributive and procedural justice.

While the positive relationships between both distributive justice and procedural justice and the three predictive variables were consistent with results in some of the prior research (e.g., Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Tang & Sarsfield-Baldwin, 1996), there were differences between the findings in this study and some of the findings in prior research. For example, Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) found interactional justice was

also predictive of satisfaction and commitment. (e.g., Colquitt et al., 2001; Cropanzano et al., 2001; Thorn, 2010). In addition, distributive justice was not found to be a better predictor of job satisfaction and procedural justice was not found to be a better predictor of organizational commitment and turnover intentions (e.g., Dailey & Kirk, 1992; Folger & Konovsky, 1989; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992). While the correlations between procedural justice and both organizational commitment and turnover intentions were higher than those for distributive justice, the stronger relationships did not exist in the regression analyses. Overall, the results of the current study indicated both distributive justice and procedural justice were strong predictors of all three outcome variables, while interactional justice was not. In fact, they combined to predict between 23% and 31% of the variance in these variables.

Therefore, it is important for higher education institutions to understand both the fairness of the distribution of resources and the procedures used to make those distributions are important to administrators and their relationship to key organizational variables. When they perceive the university as unfair, they will be less satisfied, less committed to the organization, and more likely to leave. This could also impact the performance of the institution and its long-term success. While more research is needed to determine the best methods for improving perceptions of both distributive and procedural justice, a number of approaches would appear likely to work. For example, one means for doing this is to allow for administrators input when developing the procedures and making the distributions. While this may seem to be logical and something that is already generally done, the findings of Fitzgerald, et al. (2014) would suggest this may not be the case for many administrators. Their study found a number of differences between what administrators believed was fair and what they believed would likely happen in their organizations, suggesting they do not have a large impact on resource distribution process. Other suggestions to enhance perceptions of fairness would be to ensure there are consistent procedures being used, establish a clear appeals process, share information used in making decisions, and provide reasons for the distribution decisions made.

The implications of the results related to interactional justice are also important for higher education. While it would probably be a mistake this early in the examination of organizational justice in higher education to rule out the possible impact of interactional justice in some cases or with some groups, at this point these findings suggest it is not a strong predictor of key organizational outcomes. Although more research is needed to determine why this is the case, there are a couple of possibilities. It is possible those in higher education do care about interactions, but their importance is simply much less important than perceived fairness of the distributions received and the procedures used. It is also possible that universities have not traditionally focused on interactions to the same degree as other organizations. For example, many faculty members find out the most important accomplishment of their career (i.e., tenure and/or promotion) through a formal, generic letter. The limited interaction involved with this important decision may lead them to focus more on distributions and procedures.

The current study is only one step in better understanding the importance of organizational justice

perceptions in higher education. Future research should focus on what methods can be used to improve perceptions of fairness specifically in a higher education setting and across roles. In fact, future research should also focus on the perceptions of other personnel in higher education. Faculty and staff may have very different perceptions because they play different roles in the distribution process when compared to the administrators examined in this study. It is also possible that institution type may have some impact on organizational justice and its relationship to other variables. Finally, future research should examine the relationship between organizational justice and other variables including organizational trust, organizational citizenship behaviors, and, most importantly, performance of both individual employees and academic unit. Performance could be measured in a variety of ways for those in different higher education roles, so this last part will take a lot of additional effort. While there is still considerable work to be done, the findings in this study support the importance of organizational justice perceptions in a higher education setting and suggest further research on this topic would be helpful for higher education institutions.

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A CASE FOR USING A FIXED-COST FUNDING MODEL FOR STATE-FUNDED HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS:
A MANAGEMENT ACCOUNTING PERSPECTIVE

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The large majority of expenses at Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) behave in a fixed manner. In management accounting, this means that the costs do not change in direct proportion to changes in activity such as student enrollment. For example, a recent report from one southeastern university noted that 70% of their university's expenses included annual salaries and benefits. Regardless of small variations of enrollments, these costs will be incurred. One advantage of having mostly fixed costs in an organization is that those costs are relative easy to predict. However, at HEIs this benefit is undermined by the fact that the revenue stream behaves in a variable manner and is uncertain. That is, the revenue is based on student enrollment, which can vary greatly from year to year.

In management accounting, organizations that have a large percentage of fixed cost are characterized as having high operating leverage (Horngren, Datar, and Rajan 2015). For-profit organizations can strategically use high operating leverage as a way to maximize profits. The benefit to these organizations is that once the relatively large fixed costs are covered, each additional sale results in more profit than a comparable sale at an organization with low operation leverage. However, this benefit comes with a greater risk that there will not be sufficient sales to cover their fixed cost. So, only organizations that are confident in generating sufficient revenue to cover their fixed costs and to bring in desired profit should be willing to take on the risk associated with high operating leverage. Organizations that have uncertain revenue are unwise to employ high operating leverage.

Most HEIs have high operational leverage. This is not for strategic reasons, since HEIs are typically non-profit, but instead is simply the result of the nature of the costs associated with operating an HEI. So, HEIs get none of the potential rewards or benefits of having high operational leverage, but still have all of the risks because the revenue stream, which historically has been tied to student enrollment, is variable, unpredictable

and largely uncontrollable. Thus, the combination of fixed HEI costs and variable HEI revenues can place HEIs at risk and could explain why more and more HEIs are struggling with finances.

In this paper, my goal is to demonstrate how this mismatch of revenues and costs might explain many of the undesired financial trends seen at HEIs (e.g., Henley 2014), as well as the states that fund the HEIs. These trends include less funding per student from the states, increases in tuition and fees, and accelerated growth in administrative costs, which is in part due to growing administrative costs associated monitoring the budget and planning cuts. I begin by providing my motivation for this writing this paper and I conclude by offering a simple generalized solution to this problem that comes with many inherent benefits.

My motivation for this paper comes from the fact that many states are in the process of changing how they fund HEIs. This fact suggests that there is widespread agreement that the old funding model, which was based on student enrollment, was broken. Most states are moving towards a funding model based on number of students that graduate. However, before fully implementing this new funding model, the state of Tennessee temporarily set funding based primarily on the prior years' budget, essentially making revenue for HEIs fixed. It is this short-term approach to budgeting that motivates me to investigate 1) whether the mismatch between HEI revenue behavior and cost behavior might be responsible for some of the finical problems that HEIs face and 2) whether a fixed-budget funding model might be more beneficial. Based on the issues I discuss, I conclude that a fixed budget-funding model is more sustainable than past or planned funding models.

Although the high operating leverage at HEIs makes them vulnerable to even to small fluctuations of revenue due to changing enrollment, my discussion will focus on the impact of a large shock or change in enrollment, as might be seen during bad economic times. It is well accepted that in times of economic trouble, many adults return to school to become more employable. Under past funding models based on enrollment, this brings in greater than expected revenues for the HEIs. Unlike for-profit companies, there are no profits to divide among shareholders. Instead, HEI administrators must decide how to best employ this unexpected windfall. Often, this results in hiring additional faculty or administrative staff which not only uses the excess funds but also results in a long-term commitment of repeatedly incurring those costs in future years. So, one result of the influx of students and revenue is that HEIs are likely to incur a higher annual cost base which may or may not be sustainable.

In this scenario, the unexpected surge in enrollment at HEIs has the opposite effect on state budgets. For states, greater enrollment at HEIs means greater costs for the state. This is particularly bad during poor economic times, when state revenue is also likely to be lower than expected. Since education funding appropriations set aside by states are essentially fixed, like the costs incurred at HEIs, it is not surprising that the states would respond to the unexpected and untimely drain of funds by bringing their total spending back to the previously established level. However, given the increase in student enrollment, this means less funding per student, which is a trend that has been observed for several years. Assuming consistent growth across

HEIs, the result is that each HEI in a given state should receive similar total funding as prior years; however, each of the HEIs now has more students and a higher cost basis.[1] It is this rational response by state governments which undermines the strategic perspective that enrollment growth is the way to achieve HEI financial goals (e.g. Hellenbrand, Horn, Stubuin, and Stinner 2014). States may be reluctant to fund more HEI costs if the common state goal of higher graduation rates is not achieved. And unfortunately, enrolling more students does not guarantee more graduates.[2]

Subsequently, HEIs find themselves with similar revenues as before the increased enrollment, but with greater costs and more students, which is not a sustainable outcome. Thus, the HEIs are forced to investigate ways to lower the costs. This process alone can be very costly, especially if the newly added costs are not easily reversible, as would be the case in faculty hires. And in many cases, the resulting changes can be demoralizing for some employees. Understandably, there is no easy choice and hard decisions have to be made.

When enrollments decrease back to a "nominal" level, schools are left with even less revenues, but still have a higher cost basis. Under these more extreme conditions, the need to address the lack of funding becomes more urgent and results in more impactful outcomes. Examples include tuition increases, and much more time and effort spent by administrators throughout the HEI justifying those increases or spent cutting the budget. So, relative to the time just prior to increased enrollment, enrollment may have returned to normal but students are now paying greater share of the schools expenses.[3] An alternative to cutting costs is for the HEI to attract more students (e.g., Hellebrand 2013), but this may comes with slackened standards regarding student quality (Henley 2014).

The example above shows an enrollment cycle where the net enrollment may have changed very little yet there was tremendous change throughout the HEI. It also demonstrates that much of the budget problems faced at HEIs begin from windfall spending that comes with an initial bump in enrollment combined with several factors that make the spending unsustainable. I contend that this is a direct result of the funding model. So, I propose a model to fund HEIs that is almost completely fixed in nature and that is consistent with the interim funding model that the state of Tennessee has utilized.

A fixed funding model more accurately matches the fixed costs behavior of HEIs, as well as the fixed amount of expenditures that states appropriate. Features of this model include 1) a setting where the state works with each HEI to establish a fully fixed budget and 2) the state commits to funding the difference of what is not covered by tuition and other student fees (as long as the HEI resources are being effectively

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[1] A follow up study might consider which schools benefit when enrollments are not consistent.
[2] This may explain why some states are moving to a model that funds HEIs based on graduation rates.
[3] This outcome is similar to what managerial accounting calls the "Death spiral," where a smaller customer base is charged more to cover the fixed costs, which causes fewer customers etc.

utilized)[4]. There are several benefits to this model. As noted before, it eliminates windfall spending that may or may not be sustainable. It also removes the burden of contingency planning for uncertain revenues from administration, as a predetermined fixed amount of funding would be guaranteed. This would mean a savings in money, effort and time and would allow administrators to concentrate more fully on achieving the strategic goals of their respective HEIs. Additionally, the overall effort and expense of planning should also decrease substantially since fixed costs are much easier to plan, thus further reducing administrative costs.

In addition to creating a more stable planning environment, and lowering costs related to budgeting and planning, this proposal also removes the responsibility for bringing in revenue from the HEI administration. From a management accounting perspective, it is typically a problem when employees are given responsibility over factors that are largely out of their control. The truth is that administrators have very little control over HEI revenues, and the control they do have often comes with other negative consequences. For example, administrators at HEIs do have to power to lower admission standards, as well as retention standards, in order increase or maintain enrollments, which seems contrary the role and goal of most HEIs. In fact, as describe in more detail later, a fixed-funding model removes the incentives to enroll students who are less likely to graduate.[5] A more serious consideration is that responsibility over revenues provides administrators an incentive to engage in fraudulent enrollment reporting or engage in gimmicky tuition-free enrollments in order to get more state funding.[6] Other benefits can be observed by considering what changes would occur in an enrollment cycled as described above.

Enrollment Shock Under a Fixed-Funding Model

Under a fixed-funding model, an unexpected demand in enrollment does not cause a windfall for the HEI and does not result in excess funding. Instead, the additional tuition received from students would decrease the amount of money that would be required from the state. This would benefit the state since it is likely to receive less revenue from other sources. Meanwhile, the only really challenge to the HEI is determining whether there is sufficient capacity to enroll additional students. In many cases, HEIs can accept additional students with very little additional costs as long as there is capacity in terms of classrooms and staff to handle the additional students. If there is not sufficient capacity, then HEIs 1) can become more discerning with the

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[4] If HEIs have academic or administration departments whose capacity is well under utilized, then states should expect HEIs to make changes as needed. On the other hand, if HEIs have academic or administration departments where demand exceeds capacity, state should be willing to have HEIs increase budgets appropriately.

[5] I believe that Clemson University serves as an example of how this model might process work. Over several years Clemson University has grown very little despite sufficient demand for growth. Clemson has also become more selective in their enrollments which have steadily raised the admission requirements, which is in contrast to many other schools who are emphasizing enrollment growth.

[6] There is anecdotal evidence that some schools may inflate enrollment numbers to get more money from the state by providing tuition waivers and encourage their employees to enroll in classes regardless of an interest in taking classes.

applicants and thereby increase quality of the students enrolled, 2) can hire short-term educators (adjuncts) as funding allows, or 3) if the higher enrollment level is expected is sustainable the HEI can make strategic long-term hires with the approval from the state because this option would raised the fixed cost of the HEI.

As noted above, the state would not receive an unexpected burden as a result of the extra enrollments. The extra money saved by the state money could be used to offset diminished tax revenues or could be retained and carried over for HEI funding for the following year, which would decrease the subsequent year's tax burden. Lastly, the residual monies could be made available to HEIs that have additional needs with a sustained increased enrolment. However, regardless of their choice, neither the school nor state would be thrust into emergency mode as a result of the unexpected higher enrollment.

As enrollment decreases back to "normal" levels, there should still be no surprise or problems. So, there would be no need for large tuition increases, other than those associated with normal inflation. On the other hand, if enrollment dropped to the point where there significant excess capacity in classrooms, administration should be expected to make the necessary adjustments at the HEI to ensure more efficient operation of the classroom and administration capacity.

To complete this discussion on fixed-funding model, I contend that there are few significant drawbacks to this option if states are 1) willing to set budgets based on current spending and 2) willing to make regular inflationary increases to the budget, then many HEIs should be able to operate as they have without major organizational changes. Some areas of cost savings will come from 1) eliminating unnecessary spending resulting from revenue windfalls, 2) eliminating extra costs associated with managing the budget issues associated with unexpected swings in revenue and 3) providing a setting where administration is poised to focus on the primary goals of the HEI, rather than financial issues. If states feel challenged to meet the initial fixed education expenses, then some HEIs may be required to make some initial difficult decisions in areas where the cost of some faculty or staff are not justified by the excess capacity in those classrooms. In these scenarios, a management accounting approach to decision making could be very helpful.

The new proposal would clearly require additional considerations such as establishing benchmarks in funding departments within the HEI (e.g. Balough and Lowe 2014), setting salaries, policies for adding or reducing faculty, and considerations for private money donated to the HEI or departments within the HEI. So, should this proposed model gain favorable attention, subsequent papers can provide insight into each of these topics.

Before concluding this paper, I want to briefly discuss concerns that I have with funding HEIs based on the number of graduates. First, I applaud states' emphasis on matriculation rather than enrollment. This approach should reduce incentives for HEI administrators to inflate or overstate enrollments. However, because this model is also based on variable revenue, it will retain many of the drawbacks that the former enrollment-based model contained. Moreover, it will make HEIs' task of predicting revenue much more complex, because state funding will be based on an uncertain number of graduates while tuition will still be based on uncertain

enrollment levels. Although the number graduates at an HEI may be more predictable than enrollment rates, those estimates have only downside potential. That is, HEIs are more likely to have fewer than expected graduates rather than more. When graduation numbers are lower than expected, the state-funded revenue that is forgone for each student will be relatively large, because HEIs will be dividing essentially the same numerator (total cost budgeted by the state) by a smaller denominator (number of students graduating as a opposed to number of students enrolled). One drawback is that, administrators may feel the need to lower standards for enrollment in order to have sufficient tuition revenue. Another more serious concern is that administrators will have a greater incentive to ensure graduation numbers are maintained. Ideally, the school would emphasize admitting quality students that will succeed at the HEI and graduate. However, there is also the potential that HEIs will reduce the rigor of graduation requirements; a problem that was recently observed at a New York high school (Campanile 2015).

Conclusions

1. Prior funding models based on student enrollment are flawed
    A. Many states are modifying the funding model, suggesting that funding based on total enrollment is not be helping states achieve their goals to produce more graduates.
    B. It creates a setting of uncertainty that is difficult and costly to plan around.
    C. It creates incentives to lower HEI admission and retention standards to ensure enrollment revenue in place of effective cost control.
    D. It increases the risk of insufficient funding and costly emergency response.

2. A similar funding models based on student graduation rates is at least equally flawed
    A. It still creates an equally risky setting with the same drawbacks.
    B. It does not remove uncertainty which will be difficult and costly to plan around.
    C. It creates incentives to lower HEI graduations standards (as well as retention and admission).
    D. As of now there is no

3. A fixed funding model addresses many of these flaws and adds other benefits.
    A. State budgets are most likely fixed in nature, as are HEI expenses, transferring revenue based on uncertain enrollment is risky for both parties.
    B. It stabilizes and simplifies the budget process.
    C. It stabilizes tuition increases.
    D. It reduces administration cost associated with the budget and planning process.
    E. By remove responsibility of revenue that is a better match of administrators' responsibility and control.
    F. It removes incentives to admit under-qualified students without affecting graduation rates.

G. It can create opportunity to add rigor to admission and retention which should have a positive impact on graduation rates.

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THE IMPACT OF UNIVERSITY CULTURE ON UNIONIZED FACULTY INTENTION TO STRIKE: ANTECEDENTS AND FACTORS BEYOND FINANCIAL GAIN

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Any form of an organized work stoppage by a recognized labor union, whether or not termed a bona fide "strike," has a substantial impact on overall organizational performance (Kramer & Hyclak, 2002; Neumann, 1980; Davidson III, Worrell, & Garrison, 1988), employee attitudes and performance within the organization (MacBride, Lancee, & Freeman, 1981; Barling & Milligan, 1987), and even public perception (Kelloway, Francis, Catono, & Dupré, 2008). Recent and current economic conditions have forced organizations to consider cost cutting actions that often have a negative impact on employment status, compensation, benefits, etc. Management may feel forced to implement a decision which employees will view unfavorably, such as a wage freeze, layoff, or a reduction in benefits and these generally initiate labor-management disagreements. Yet, there may be ways organizations can deal with dire economic conditions and make tough decisions while at the same time facilitating and maintaining favorable work attitudes with employees. One such way is to create a positive organizational culture to serve as a conduit during tough times - for example, an organizational culture which promotes employee involvement through a team orientation and shared governance while embracing the organizational mission and jointly planning for the future (Hayes, 2010).

For the most part, economists and social scientists have ignored the individual's choice in determining whether to strike (Gallagher & Gramm, 1997) and focused instead on the group decision made by a union board or committee. Common indicators of strike activity include economic and market conditions, perceptions of pay equity, uncertainty over organizational capabilities, perceptions of losses during strikes (e.g., income, positions), past strike activity by the union, social conditions and normative pressures, and demographic variables such as worker age, gender, ethnicity, and socioeconomic status (e.g., Cohen, 1993;

Gallagher & Gramm, 1997; Kramer & Hyclak, 2002). The role of perceived organizational culture as a determinant in predicting such a job action has been largely ignored.

The current study sought to examine the role of faculty perception of organizational culture during a period of labor unrest and the possible relationship with the propensity for individuals to engage in job actions up to and including a work stoppage (i.e., strike). Relationships between culture perceptions and financial demands with intention to strike were examined prior to the start of labor negotiations for members of a faculty union at a large, Midwestern four-year public university. This is the first known study to examine relationships between faculty perceptions of organizational culture and behavioral intentions during a period of labor unrest. Moreover, considering the faculty union eventually engaged in a work stoppage, the present study also provides a compelling descriptive account of antecedent behaviors which led to a strike. As such, the current study adds to the body of literature related to higher education labor relations and organizational psychology by identifying precursors and moderating factors of strike intention during times of contract negotiation.

Faculty Strikes

Generally speaking, a strike is a work stoppage where a large group of employees refuse to work. It often represents a competitive situation where management (University Administrators) and an employee union (Faculty, office professionals, Police Officers, etc.) cannot reach agreement, and as a tactic to gain bargaining leverage, the union membership refuses to work for a specific period of time. The strike is endured until a favorable union-management agreement is reached or when unionized employees are ordered back to work by a court. In most cases, strikes have substantial, negative effects on institutions of higher learning, their employee groups, students, and other key constituents (e.g., Porter, 2013; Kramer & Hyclak, 2002; Neumann, 1980; Davidson III et al., 1988; MacBride et al., 1981; Barling & Milligan, 1987). Colleges and universities temporarily lose their experienced employees, must hire and train temporary employees, and may encounter unfavorable public opinion as a result of the strike. Individual workers, on the other hand, experience considerable stress during work stoppage periods (Wickens, 2008; MacBride et al., 1981; Barling & Milligan, 1987) and obviously do not have access to income by way of their employer. All told, these effects make studying the causes of a faculty union strike important.

Of particular concern to this study is the issue of *intention to strike*, or one's expressed likelihood to withhold job-related services as a result from a broken down negotiation. One might question the importance of an individual level outcome (e.g., intention to strike) considering the collective nature of a strike decision and subsequent withholding of services. After all, a work stoppage is not a collective outcome (i.e., sum total) of individual worker decisions (Gallagher & Gramm, 1997) but is initiated at the union level (Wickens, 2008). Nevertheless, individual strike intentions are important in initiating work stoppages. Union leaders will not initiate a strike unless they feel they have the support of union membership, and strike momentum will only

be achieved if a collective body of union employees are advocating for one. Once initiated, unions achieve favorable outcomes via a strike action through careful planning, good financing, creative tactics regarding the withholding of services, public displays of the disruption of work, and a combination of membership involvement, effective crisis-level communication, community support, and identification of political allies (Early, 2009; Vielhaber & Waltman, 2008). In contrast, a small, unorganized group of picketers or a general lack of social support when trying to withstand a prolonged work stoppage could mean utter failure for the union's initiatives. As a result, it is wise for unions to prepare commitments prior to the formal job action (Early, 2009) and for union leaders to take the pulse of employees before calling for a strike (Wickens, 2008).

Strike Antecedents. A wide variety of theoretical models exist to explain why work stoppages may occur, although to come to an adequate understanding of strike behavior, they are best viewed in tandem (for a review see Gallagher & Gramm, 1997). Seen through the lens of equity theory (Adams, 1965), when perceived outcomes, whether intrinsic or extrinsic, are less than perceived employee inputs in comparison to employees from other organizations or departments, workers will feel a state of tension and seek to reduce it. Participation in a work stoppage to improve outcomes is one possible action which may equalize these ratios.

Economic models. These explain work stoppages by focusing on financial indicators such as market performance, volatility of the firm's stock market performance, and employee pay (Gallagher & Gramm, 1997; Cohen, 1993). Essentially, current economic conditions affect what salaries and benefits are able to offer employees and their expectations regarding these salaries and benefits. At an individual level, low pay or dissatisfaction with financial incentives is the likely driving force behind an expressed intention to strike. For instance, pay satisfaction and intention to strike are inversely related (Cohen, 1993). However, a key issue regarding a theory fully reliant on economic indicators is that in difficult economic times organizations are likely to have little control over pay distribution and subsequently little ability to impact worker pay satisfaction. As such, economic models do not provide actionable insights under such circumstances. That is, the model does not provide managerial options with which to address these economic conditions which are largely outside of the university's control.

The *socialization model* and the *worker dissatisfaction model* (as presented by Cohen, 1993) represent theories that take noneconomic factors into account. The *socialization model* outlines the role of normative pressures (e.g., from the union, from other employees, from family members and friends) and their influence on an individual worker's propensity to strike. The *worker dissatisfaction model* outlines how feelings of frustration, dissatisfaction, or alienation can increase a person's willingness to participate in a work stoppage. According to this model, aspects of the work environment are expected to affect strike intention through mediating processes such as work attitudes. Work-related characteristics such as job autonomy, role variety, and leadership are associated with job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and are ultimately related to a worker's likelihood to strike against his/her company. For instance, Bacharach, Bamberger, and Conley (1990) demonstrated that when workers had a role in decision making, received feedback from their job, and

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were treated fairly, they were less inclined to strike. However, relationships between intuitively related variables drawn from this theory (e.g., job satisfaction, union commitment, etc.) have shown only weak relationships with intention to strike (Cohen, 1993). Although several psychological constructs have been tested under this theory, one that has not but which broadly defines the general nature of a university and its work environment is organizational culture.

Organizational Culture in Higher Education

Organizational culture is what a group learns over time as it maintains existence in the business world (Schein, 1990; 1992). More specifically, it is ''the underlying values, beliefs, and principles that serve as a foundation for an organization's management system as well as the set of management practices and behaviors that both exemplify and reinforce those basic principles'' (Denison, 1990, p. 2). Thus, the organizational culture at a university is influenced by the power structure and how the organization handles critical incidents within its history (Schein, 1990; 1992). It is socially complex and difficult to imitate; thus, it acts as a competitive advantage for college and universities (Yilmaz & Ergun, 2008)

Culture has been shown to be related to variety of desirable organizational and worker-related outcomes (e.g., Denison, Janovics, Young, & Cho, 2006; Schmidt, Gillespie, Kotrba, Rithie, & Denison, 2009; Gillespie, Denison, Haaland, Smerek, & Neale, 2008; Yilmaz & Ergun, 2008; Goodman, Zammuto, & Gifford, 2001; Aarons & Sawitzky, 2006; Carr, Schmidt, & Ford, 2003; Taras, Kirkman, & Steel, 2010; Parker, Baltes, Young, Huff, Altmann, et al., 2003; Hartnell, Ou, & Kinicki, 2011). Denison (1996) outlines a comparison between organizational culture and climate.

According to Denison's research (e.g., Denison, 1990; Denison & Mishra, 1995), the positive aspects of culture responsible for these outcomes are high levels of *Involvement, Adaptability, Mission,* and *Consistency*. There is reason to believe that traits such as these would be related to strike intention such that possessing a strong, well-rounded, and positive university culture would be associated with a lower likelihood among faculty to endorse and participate in a work stoppage.

According to frustration-aggression theories of strike intention, participation in strike activity increases when workers experience negative workplace events or perceive discrepancies regarding job or organizational expectancies and current states (Gallagher & Gramm, 1997). When the organization's values, beliefs, and principles do not match or meet those of the typical employee's, attrition in one way or another is likely (Schneider, 1987). If in general a university's culture is unfavorable, unionized employee groups will have less incentive to side with the organization during periods of dispute. Indeed, organizational culture has been shown to be strongly related to organizational commitment (e.g., Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002; Hartnell et al., 2011; Carr et al., 2003; Taras et al., 2010; Parker et al., 2003) as well as to turnover intentions. The relationship to turnover has been shown to occur distally through changes in attitudes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment (e.g., Meyer et al., 2002; Egan, Yang, & Bartlett, 2004) or

directly (O'Reilly, Chatman, Caldwell, 1991; Goodman, Zammuto, & Gifford, 2001). Although these constructs are not strike intentions per se, they do reflect the affective relationship between an employee and organization, and ultimately should be related to intentions to participate in a faculty strike against a college or university.

It should be noted that although organizational culture is typically construed as an organization level construct, this does not preclude its meaningfulness at the individual level, for which it is best labeled a perception of organizational culture. Jermier, Slocum, Louis, & Fry (1991), discuss how organizational culture often defines itself through sets of loosely organized subcultures that guide behavior. Similar to notions of psychological climate (Schulte, Ostroff, & Kinicki, 2006) each employee has their own perceptions as to the values, beliefs, and principles that an organization exhibits. This collective combination of employee perceptions manifests itself as an organization's distinct personality and culture (Gialamas, Pelonis, & Cherif, 2014). In the current study the focus is on how the culture of a university is perceived by individuals (faculty), which is at the same level as strike intention. A faculty member may interpret the organizational cultural facets using their own perspective and subsequently determines their idiosyncratic motivation to act in accordance with this interpretation. While this individual interpretation may be influenced by other faculty and adjacent organizational factors (e.g., shared perceptions, group-based emotions, etc.), nonetheless, joining into an act with such significant repercussions as participating in a work stoppage will ultimately be an individual decision.

Considering the relationships between organizational culture, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions, if a university's culture is unfavorable enough, collectively, the body of employees may feel inclined to act in a way to change working conditions. Even though economic factors should be a dominant factor in the decision to strike as faculty with lower than desired pay should have a greater perceived opportunity for payout (Cohen, 1993), faculty dissatisfaction factors such as a negative organizational culture should explain additional variance in the propensity to strike. To measure this, the following hypotheses were tested in this study:

      H1a. Perceptions of organizational culture will be negatively related to strike intention.

      H1b. Employee financial demands will be positively related to strike intention.

      H1c. Perceptions of organizational culture will predict strike intentions over and above financial

      demands.

Denison (1990) discusses how *specific* aspects of organizational culture can have positive benefits to both the company and workers. Denison's (1990) model is composed of four traits (*Involvement, Consistency, Adaptability, and Mission)* with three sub-facets per trait, and it is the model used for the current study. *Involvement* entails allowing employees say in decisions and evoking a sense of ownership and commitment in work. It is represented by the facets of *Empowerment, Team Orientation, and Capability Developmen*t. The trait of *Consistency* involves overall organizational stability, or basically the existence of systems and processes

that promote alignment and efficiency. *Consistency* is composed of the facets of *Coordination/Integration, Agreement,* and C*ore Values*. The trait of *Adaptability* is the organizational capacity to change in response to external conditions and is comprised of the facets of *Creating Change, Customer Focus, and Organizational Learnin*g. Lastly, the cultural trait of *Mission* entails having a definite vision and knowing how to achieve that vision. *Strategic Direction, Goals/and Objectives, and Vision* are the facets which make up this trait. While it is likely that specific traits affect strike intentions differently, considering the lack of research on culture and strike intentions, it was chosen to take an exploratory approach in regards to these specific culture traits' effects (Denison, 1990).

The Role of Faculty Tenure

It is likely that intention to strike may differ depending upon the profession of the employee, nature of the work performed, expectations regarding future employment, and other factors. University faculty members are a unique subgroup of workers in that once they meet a particular set of standards and achieve tenure, their job security and likelihood of remaining with the university are significantly increased. At that point, faculty members are likely to become more committed to the university and the costs of leaving (e.g., stability, full privileges of the university) should become greater. Due to this increased investment, it is likely tenured faculty will be more sensitive to any deficiencies in organizational culture and be more reactant to these deficiencies, such that when a negative organizational culture is present, they will be more inclined to engage in corrective actions such as labor negotiations or a strike. Conversely, untenured employees should be less inclined to engage in corrective actions because (a) they might not have been at the university long enough to be fully affected by or invested in the university's culture, (b) are not as committed to the university and therefore might not perceive a strong need to change organizational policies and practices, and/or (c) they are striving to achieve tenure and, therefore, may fear that participating in a strike or other job action may negatively affect their chances to attain tenure. As such, an additional hypothesis will be examined:

> H2. Tenure status will moderate the relationship between perceptions of organizational culture and strike intention, such that the relationship between culture and strike intention will be greater for those who faculty members who are tenured.

Methods

Participants and Procedure

A questionnaire was sent to unionized tenure-track faculty members of a large Midwestern four-year public university to assess organizational culture and to examine specific bargaining-related attitudes, perceptions, and behavioral intentions prior to scheduled contract negotiations. Heading into contract negotiations, the unionized faculty members and the top administrators of the university had clear differences in expectations. Primary concerns for members of the faculty union were excessive out-of-load teaching

requirements (i.e., increased workload demands), declining pay, increased faculty contributions to healthcare benefits, and a lack of shared governance.

The survey data were collected over a two week period in November. Contract negotiations were to begin in the early summer of the following year. Of the 645 unionized faculty members who were surveyed, 301 returned surveys (47%). Six of these had significant amounts of missing data and were removed from analyses. Thus, the final sample included responses from 295 unionized faculty members. The sample was balanced in terms of gender (males = 60%). While representative of the population, the sample primarily consisted of white faculty members (90%). Eighty-two percent of the sample was over 40 years of age. The sample was balanced in terms of the academic discipline of faculty members. Respondents were mostly tenured (79%) and had been at the university for more than six years (77%). Approximately eight months after data collection, the faculty union declared a work stoppage and withheld services until being ordered back to work by the local trial court judge.

Measures

Denison Organization Culture Survey (DOCS). The DOCS consists of 60 items designed to measure four overarching culture traits (*Involvement, Consistency, Adaptability*, and *Mission*) and 12 related indices. Items tap members' perceptions of behaviors that are easily observed and represent the deeply-held aspects of an organization's culture. Item responses are collected using a Likert-scale approach whereby the respondent indicates their attitude by responding to a statement in terms of *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5). The DOCS has demonstrated a good fit to its theoretical model (Denison et al., 2006) and has been shown to predict important organization outcomes within a wide range of private and public sector organizations (Denison et al., 2006; Yilmaz & Ergun, 2008; Schmidt et al., 2009; Gillespie et al., 2007). Therefore, the DOCS was used to measure organizational culture in the current study.

The four traits (median = .86) and 12 facets (median = .72) displayed moderately high internal consistency. As the DOCS was distributed in only one organization for the current study and the focus was on individual-level outcomes, it was decided not to aggregate to the department or company level, thus making the measure one of "perceptions" of organizational culture. However, if individual-level responses were aggregated at the company level, a coherent structure of culture existed (average rwg for four traits = .95), indicating most employees agreed upon the values, assumptions and beliefs of the organization in question. It should be noted that because the majority of employees were in agreement regarding culture perceptions, range restriction could have been an issue when examining culture perception correlations with other variables. Measuring individual culture perceptions across a more heterogeneous set of workers (i.e., from several organizations) would likely result in greater variance in culture scores, and quite possibly, higher true correlations among the study variables.

Financial Demands. Financial demands represent employee dissatisfaction with economic wages and benefits provided by the organization and, therefore, the desire to negotiate improvements in those areas.

Financial demands were measured by forming a composite of three items unique to this particular faculty union. Prior to labor-management negotiations there was discussion of faculty losing certain benefits and wages so these items were directly related to the upcoming negotiations. The items were "Our organization is in serious financial peril and must make every effort to reduce its expenses, including the reduction of employee salaries and benefits (reverse scored)," "The office professionals and professional & administrative staff members have agreed to a zero percent increase in salary for the current fiscal year, therefore the FA (i.e., faculty union) should also do so (reverse scored)," and "An important bargaining issue is maintaining our current benefits (e.g., medical, dental, prescription coverage, life insurance, etc.)" It should be noted that there was a sense of threat as to the removal of current medical benefits for the faculty and replacing them with a lower level program. Internal consistency for this three-item composite was (.65).

Intentions to Strike. Faculty intentions to strike were assessed with one item: "If there is no signed contract in place by the time classes begin in August, I am willing to withhold my services to the university (i.e., strike)."

Demographics. Gender was dichotomously coded (0 = male, 1 = female). Tenure status was coded (0 = no, 1 = yes). Years at the university were measured using an ordinal-based increment scale with eight scale points where 1 = "less than 6 months," 2 = "6 months to 1 year," 3 = "1 to 2 years," 4 = "2 to 4 years," 5 = "4 to 6 years," 6 = "6 to 10 years," 7 = "10 to 15 years," and 8 = "more than 15 years."

Results

Descriptive statistics can be seen in Table 1. In general, organizational culture perceptions were quite negative ($M = 2.65$). Faculty believed that the university supported faculty *Involvement* only at a moderate level ($M = 2.92$),

while the culture trait with the lowest score was *Mission* ($M = 2.48$). As expected, financial demands ($M = 4.48$) and intentions to strike ($M = 3.42$) were very high. In fact, 129 employees indicated the highest possible level of dissatisfaction with the financial situation, resulting in a negatively skewed distribution of scores ($p < .001$). As a result, the data were transformed into a more normal distribution by reflecting, taking the square root, and then re-reflecting the data according to the new distribution. However, the data were still significantly skewed ($p < .01$), the original values were used and the results interpreted with caution.

Faculty Intention to Strike

Table 1 displays correlations between intention to strike and the variables of interest. Zero-order correlations for the individual culture traits are presented. However, in an effort to present the holistic effect of culture on study outcomes, all culture traits were averaged into a single composite and labeled "Culture Index" to represent general perceptions of faculty personality similar to James & James' (1989) notion of a general factor of psychological climate.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

	Mean	*SD*	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.
1. Gender	0.40	0.49	-									
2. Years at Company	6.51	1.75	-.12	-								
3. Tenure Status	0.79	0.41	-.02	.78	-							
4. Financial Demands	4.48	0.64	.18	.13	.10	-						
5. Intentions to Strike	3.42	1.31	.11	.02	.09	.52	-					
6. DOCS: Involvement	2.92	0.63	-.06	-.19	-.16	-.25	-.24	-				
7. DOCS: Consistency	2.64	0.50	-.14	-.18	-.19	-.21	-.24	.76	-			
8. DOCS: Adaptability	2.58	0.55	-.07	-.14	-.13	-.10	-.09	.67	.66	-		
9. DOCS: Mission	2.48	0.60	-.07	-.19	-.19	-.19	-.22	.72	.77	.69	-	
10. DOCS: Culture Index	2.66	0.50	-.09	-.20	-.19	-.21	-.22	.90	.89	.85	.90	-

Note. *N* = 295. Gender coded 0 = male, 1 = female. Years at Company was measured on an interval scale with 8 scale points where 1 = "less than 6 months" and 8 = "more than 15 years." Tenure Status is coded 0 = no, 1 = yes. All other measures are on 1-5 scales. DOCS = Denison Organizational Culture Survey. $r >= .10$ ($p < .10$), $r >= .12$ ($p < .05$), $r >= .15$ ($p < .01$), $r >= .20$ ($p < .001$).

Years at company ($r = .02$), gender ($r = .11$), and tenure ($r = .09$) were generally unrelated to intentions to strike. Of primary concern were the effects of perceived organizational culture and financial demands, and each were significantly related to strike intentions. Perceptions of university culture (as represented by the overall culture index) was significantly related to one's strike intentions ($r = .22$, $p < .001$). This finding provided support for Hypothesis 1a and the role of worker-related factors in decisions regarding work stoppages. Among the specific culture traits, *Involvement* and *Consistency* were the most strongly related to intentions to strike (each had $r = -.24$, $p < .001$). *Mission* was also strongly related ($r = -.22$, $p < .001$), whereas *Adaptability* was not related ($r = -.09$, $p =$ ns). When strike intention was regressed on the four culture traits, the multiple *R* was .29 ($p < .001$).

A set of exploratory analyses were performed to determine the unique contribution of each trait to predicting strike intention. Considering the moderate degree of multicollinearity between the culture traits (average $r = .82$[1]), it was decided to not present regression weights as they can misrepresent individual predictor contributions (Johnson, 2000). A viable alternative is dominance analysis (Budescu, 1993; Azen & Budescu, 2003) or similarly, the easier to compute relative weights analysis (Johnson, 2000) which determines the relative importance of each predictor by taking into account a variable's zero-order correlation with the dependent variable as well as that predictor's unique contribution across every possible set of other predictors (Johnson, 2000). Using the relative weights analysis procedure outlined by Johnson (2000) with the four culture traits as predictors, of the explained variance in strike intentions ($R^2 = .08$), involvement contributed the most (32.2%), followed by Consistency (31.1%), Mission (26.3%), and then Adaptability

(10.4%). To get a more detailed understanding of culture's effect on strike intentions, a separate dominance analysis used the 12 culture indices as input. Table 2 presents the results of this analysis.

Of the 12 culture indices, *Capability Development* far and away contributed most to the prediction of strike intentions (39%). *Vision* explained the second most variance (10%). Following that, all culture indices contributed relatively equally in regards to prediction. When strike intention was regressed on the indices of *Capability Development* and *Vision*, the two jointly explained 11% of the variance in strike intentions ($R = .33$, $p < .001$), which was higher than when all four superordinate culture traits were treated as predictors.

While perceptions of organizational culture proved to be an adequate predictor of strike intention, financial demands displayed the strongest relationship ($r = .52$, $p < .001$), supporting Hypothesis 1b and the role of economic factors in decisions regarding work stoppages. Although financial demand was the strongest predictor, Hypothesis 1c predicted that organizational culture perceptions would predict intentions to strike over and above financial demands. Table 3 displays a regression analysis using gender, years at company, and tenure as control

Table 2. Relative Importance Weights (in Percentage Form) of Culture Indices in the Prediction of Strike Intentions

Trait	Index	ε	R^2
Involvement	Empowerment	4.9%	
	Team Orientation	5.2%	
	Capability Development	39.4%	
Consistency	Core Values	6.4%	
	Agreement	5.5%	
	Coordination and Integration	7.4%	
Mission	Strategic Direction & Intent	5.2%	
	Goals and Objectives	3.7%	
	Vision	9.9%	
Adaptability	Creating Change	2.4%	
	Customer Focus	5.9%	
	Organizational Learning	4.1%	
TOTAL		100.0%	.15

Note. ε is the relative percentage weight as presented in Johnson (2000), which is expressed as percentages of the predicted strike intention variance ($R^2 = .15$).

Table 3. Predicting Intentions to Strike

	B	R	ΔR^2
		.15	.02
Gender	.10		
Years at Company	-.12		
Tenure Status	.16[+]		
		.52[***]	.25[***]
Gender	.00		
Years at Company	-.21[*]		
Tenure Status	.17[*]		
Financial Demands	.52[***]		
		.54[***]	.02[*]
Gender	-.01		
Years at Company	-.22[*]		
Tenure Status	.17[*]		
Financial Demands	.49[***]		
Culture Index	-.13[*]		

Note. Females coded (1) and males coded (0). Years at Company was measured on an interval scale with 8 scale points where 1 = "less than 6 months" and 8 = "more than 15 years." Tenure Status coded 0 = no, 1 = yes.
[+] $p < .10$, [*] $p < .05$, [**] $p < .01$, [***] $p < .001$.

variables. As seen, although financial demands remain the strongest predictor of strike intentions after controlling for demographic variables[2], perceptions of organizational culture explained an additional amount of variance in intentions to strike ($\beta = -.13$, $\Delta R^2 = .02$, $p <.05$). Additionally, when the culture indices of *Capability Development* and *Vision* were combined as a composite and entered in place of the full culture index, perceptions of these culture indices explained an additional 4% ($p < .001$) of the variance in strike intentions over and above the demographic variables and financial demands. Overall, Hypothesis 1c was supported.

The moderating effect of tenure. As previously discussed, demographic variables had weak, non-significant zero-order relationships with strike intention. However, a more complicated pattern of relationships was expected where tenure status was predicted to moderate the relationship between organizational culture and strike intention, such that those more strongly invested in the company due to the possession of tenure should be more sensitive to culture traits, therefore making the relationship between culture and strike intention stronger for tenured faculty (Hypothesis 2). After controlling for the dichotomous tenured/nontenured term and the main effect of organizational culture, the addition of the interaction term resulted in a marginally significant increase in variance explained for strike intention ($\Delta R^2 = .06$, $p < .10$ (Hypothesis 2 was partially supported). Figure 1 portrays the nature of this relationship showing that tenured

faculty were more swayed by culture perceptions ($r = -.27$, $p < .001$) when determining whether or not to strike than non-tenured faculty ($r = .01$, $p = $ ns), for whom there was no demonstrated relationship between culture and strike intentions.

Figure 1. Culture Perceptions and Intentions to Strike by Tenure Status
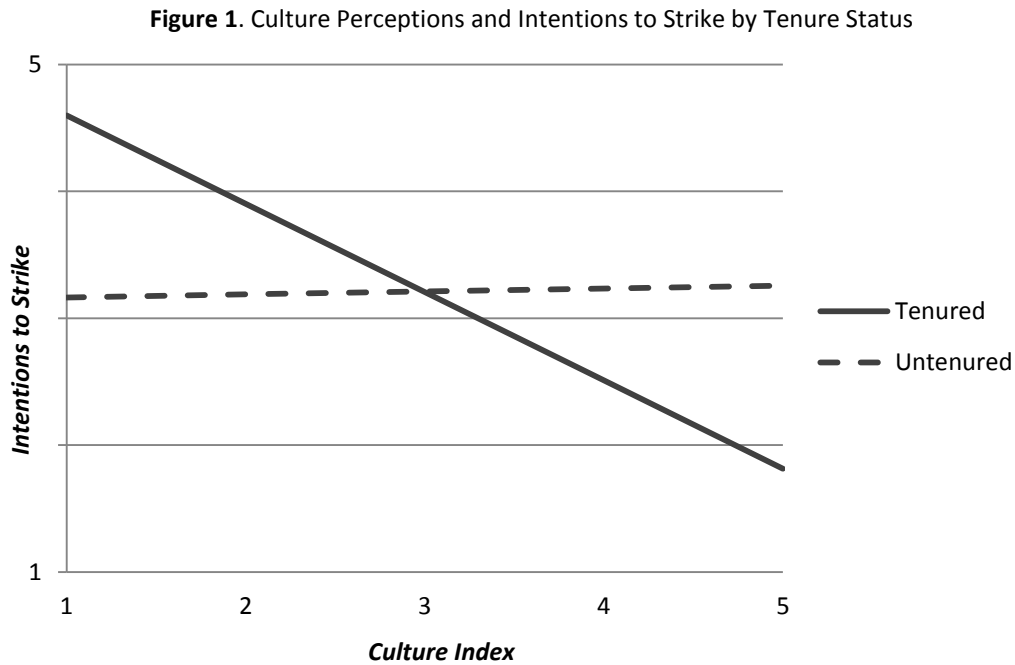
Discussion

Contract negotiations and disagreements over pay and benefits have and will always exist, but amidst recent recessions and economic problems, the prevalence of unpopular personnel decisions such as pay freezes, layoffs, and benefits reductions have created a very tenuous work environment for many employees. Such changes can cause understandable dissatisfaction within a college or university and potentially increase the likelihood of labor disputes such as work stoppages in those organizations with recognized labor unions. The current study examined some of the factors related to an individual employee's decision to strike.

Considering labor negotiations most often revolve around financial issues, expectedly, financial demands were strongly related to intentions to strike, lending support to traditional economic models of labor issues (Gallagher & Gramm, 1997). A discrepancy between desired financial status and actual financial status creates dissatisfaction which in turn spurs employees to take some sort of action to reduce the discrepancy (e.g., go on strike). While this information is valuable, it is hardly unexpected. With limited control over what sorts of

financial incentives a university can provide its faculty and other employee groups, other antecedents and correlates of strike intention are worthy of examination.

Unique to this particular study was the role of perceived organizational culture, in that positive perceptions of culture were associated with a lower likelihood to strike and explained additional variance beyond financial demands. Even though universities may have little control over offered financial incentives, it appears there are other ways to reduce potential work stoppages. Whereas other evaluative attitudes such as job satisfaction have failed to meaningfully predict strike behavior (Cohen, 1993), perceptions of organizational culture was able to explain significant variance in strike intentions. Creating a favorable organizational culture in terms of identification and adherence to a clear mission and vision, adaptability to changing market conditions (Cherif, Overbye, & Stefurak, 2009), and in particular encouraging faculty involvement and consistency in organizational policy and procedures, seems to lessen the effect of unfavorable financial situations.

Implications for Higher Education Administrators. Developing employee capabilities throughout the university (the culture trait of Involvement) and presenting a clear vision (the culture trait of Mission) resonate with this study as both appear to strongly influence intentions to strike. In this case, when faculty members perceived the university to be lacking in these organizational culture traits, they reached a threshold that led to a strike. This trend supplicates the attention of college and university administration. That is, stated organizational values and the actions of university leadership have the potential to mitigate the effects of unfavorable economic environments through cultural norming. Although organizational culture is inevitably a difficult thing to change and something that takes a great deal of time to establish, a focus on instilling the principles of shared governance, consistency in policy and procedures (Cherif, Overbye, & Stefurak, 2009), and other related culture traits may provide a realistic safeguard and thereby result in an organization-wide resistance to work stoppages.

The findings also lend insight into what types of faculty are more inclined to strike, especially among unionized faculty members in higher education. Tenured faculty members were more likely to indicate they intended to strike than non-tenured faculty. Because tenured faculty members have better job security in a field where job security takes time to establish, they were likely more firmly entrenched in the university and more sensitive to deficiencies in work conditions. Thus, tenured faculty members seem to react more to organizational culture and are more likely to take steps to improve it. Untenured faculty, on the other hand, might be hesitant to strike because (a) they might not have been at the university long enough to gather a great understanding of the culture, (b) they might not yet feel fully entrenched in the university and so might not be as concerned with culture, and (c) they may be hoping to achieve tenure and are fearful of a strike as it could potentially affect their chances to attain tenure. It is suggested that university leadership seek out shared experiences with faculty who are firmly entrenched in the organization and desire a collegial working environment (i.e., a positive organizational culture). This longevity of employment and dedication should be

particularly important to bargaining behavior, decision making during negotiations, and future policy development.

Limitations and Areas for Future Directions. Although this study provides insights into areas previously unexamined in the area of higher education labor relations and organizational culture literature, there are several noteworthy limitations. First, data were cross-sectional and only intention to strike was measured. Unfortunately, the researchers were unable to capture the causal nature of organizational culture on actual strike behavior and relied instead on cross-sectional relationships between perceptions of culture and strike intention. Even though the faculty union and its members for the current study did eventually go on strike, it is unclear whether aspects of organizational culture actually affected strike behaviors. Further research should address this issue using a longitudinal design, although considering the rarity of labor negotiations and the difficulty of collecting data in such situations, this will be a daunting task.

Second, as all measures were part of the same survey, concerns over common method bias do exist. Granted, this concern is persistent across most organizational research (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2004), yet controlling for this issue through appropriate methodology would certainly be desirable and is recommended for future research. Third, culture was specified at the individual level so to represent perceptions of organizational culture, but organizational culture is most commonly treated as a group-level phenomenon. While the individual-level perceptions feed into a university's standing on culture, these perceptions themselves actually reflect individual impressions of the underlying values, beliefs, and principles of the organization. Ideally, the study would have been conducted across numerous organizations undergoing labor negotiations, but the reality is these situations happen too rarely to engage in a systematic investigation with shared measures across all organizations. Interestingly, the variation in culture perceptions was limited at the individual level, as there was enough agreement to justify aggregation to the group level (rwg = .95). Thus, findings were likely attenuated as a result of range restriction in culture perceptions. Had the relationship between culture and strike intentions been examined across a wider variety of universities, each with different levels of culture traits, we would expect stronger predictive relationships. Given this, we urge additional exploration of these variables across numerous organizations so that culture is conceptualized at the team or company level.

Conclusions. Although negotiations and work stoppages are typically viewed from an economic lens, factors pertaining to the work environment, specifically organizational culture, might prove useful in understanding behavior during periods of labor unrest on a university campus. Organizational culture by definition describes important if not critical facets of the work environment, and as shown in the present study, proved useful in predicting which workers would be more likely to strike should a labor agreement not be reached during negotiations. Through inclusive university leadership and awareness to campus culture, administrators can choose to handle critical organizational incidents by shaping their campus ethos in ways to facilitate desirable outcomes and potentially avoid the negative repercussions of a work stoppage.

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Endnotes

[1] Correlations among traits were converted to Fisher z's, averaged, and then re-converted to Pearson
    correlation.

[2] As seen in Table 2, the zero-order correlation between years at company and strike intentions becomes
    negative as a regression weight. This is due to suppression, as there is some degree of multicollinearity
    between years at company and tenure. Thus, for these variables attention should be given to the zero-
    order correlations in Table 1 as opposed to the regression weights.

[3] Calculated using the culture index.

DEVELOPING DEANS AS EFFECTIVE LEADERS FOR TODAY'S CHANGING EDUCATIONAL LANDSCAPE

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The ability to serve as an effective leader of an academic school or college represents a significant challenge in today's world of higher education. Deans have an increased set of responsibilities and expanded roles because of economic pressures, political turmoil, and regulatory changes. They must represent the university in the community, and they must work with legislators and potential donors to help move their institutions forward (Montez, Wolverton, & Gmelch, 2003). They must be vigilant about the ever-constant scrutiny from policy makers, legislators, the business community, and the media. At the same time, they bear ultimate responsibility for all internal matters such as the budget, curriculum and program development, as well as faculty and staff performance. As academic facilitators and intermediaries between presidential initiatives, administrative operations, faculty governance, and student needs, deans need to be equipped to work successfully with a range of interests, individuals, and groups to promote the missions of their institution and academic unit (Rosser, Johnsrud, & Heck, 2003).

A study conducted more than 20 years ago about deans' effectiveness revealed that their dedicated support of their university, coupled with their skillful management, enabled them to enjoy success (Martin, 1993). Today's deans, on the other hand, encounter additional pressures and unanticipated challenges because of their universities' pressures to educate an increasingly diverse student population with fewer resources. As a result, deans experience role ambiguity about their job priorities, which leads to confusion and frustration (Montez, Wolverton, & Gmelch, 2003). Moreover, because deans influence faculty performance and student achievement, without steady leadership in the role, it is more difficult for schools and colleges to lead the way in developing programs and curricula that positively affect student learning outcomes and

prepare them for future pursuits. Collectively, these challenges make the deanship a worthy test case across a range of disciplinary programs.

Even though we might acknowledge the important role of academic deans in directing their schools and colleges, research on their leadership characteristics does not really rise to the level of a "hot topic." Some possible reasons for this complacency or indifference might be the revolving door syndrome in a single appointment of about five years previously identified (Gmelch et al. 1999; Robbins and Schmitt 1994), lack of formal preparation needed for serving in a dean's role effectively, and the lack of explicit eligibility criteria for professionals assuming such a position.

Research on the characteristics and practices of deans who have the staying power to remain in their positions can contribute to leadership stability. Such research can also help standing deans reflect on their own characteristics and practices, and can assist prospective deans in understanding ways in which successful practicing deans are functioning in their positions. To that end, this article recommends specific interpersonal/negotiating skills that deans can use when they work closely with key persons inside and outside their institutions.

Current Literature on Academic Deans

Most research conducted about deans in the United States has focused on biographical, structural, and contextual factors (Anderson & King 1987; Blumberg 1988; Bowen 1995; Bright & Richards 2001; Clifford & Guthrie 1988; Dejnozka 1978; Denemark 1983; Gardner 1992; Geiger 1989; Gmelch 1999; Heald 1982; Howey & Zimpher 1990; Huffman-Joley 1992; Jackson 2000; Judge 1982; Riggs & Huffman 1989; Thiessen & Howey 1998; Wisniewski 1977). Deans are positioned in the middle of administrative hierarchies in colleges and universities. They must mediate between administration and faculty (Dill 1980; Gmelch 2002; Gould 1983; Kerr 1998; McCarty & Reyes 1987; McGannon 1987; Morris 1981; Salmen 1971; Zimpher 1995). They arrange and organize personnel and material resources to accomplish objectives of immediate importance, and they help faculty move in directions that correspond to the overall mission of the institution (Morsink 1987). They also promote quality teaching and scholarly activity, develop effective partnerships with schools, community agencies, not-for-profit and for-profit organizations, and participate in strategic planning/goal setting (Bruess, McLean, & Sun, 2003).

Although it appears that deans should possess certain characteristics to succeed within their contexts over time, we are unaware of research by currently practicing deans that uses their own autobiographical and self-reflective comparisons to examine their leadership practices. Bowen's (1995) *The wizard of odds: Leadership journeys of education deans* provides self-reflective narratives from three different education deans about their experiences in the role, but these deans had already stepped down from their positions. Their introspective-retrospective accounts of their experiences as deans do manage to provide many lessons learned about mismatched expectations. Even so, studies of self-reflective practices across deans are needed

from those still employed in these positions to better understand not only characteristics that are used frequently, but also those used to effectively address situations and challenges.

Background and Theoretical Framework

This present research is the next step of a six-year study in which six deans (one dean is from the original group) participated in an introspective-retrospective analysis of characteristics and themes that emerged from five different vignettes that each dean wrote. The deans identified the topics and created the format for writing the vignettes about situations within their own schools and colleges. The five vignettes centered on program development, special initiatives, personnel, accreditation, and external relations. The deans' vignette analysis, through axial and selective coding (Corbin & Strauss, 2008), led to the identification of 14 key themes and four overarching characteristics including: vision, interpersonal/negotiating skills, managerial skills, and confidence.

While the four original deans found that all characteristics and themes were used across the 20 vignettes, the most frequently used themes resided with interpersonal/negotiation skills. The four themes within this characteristic were: (1) working closely with key persons within the unit (school, college, or department) and outside the organization; (2) negotiating key players' responsibilities to keep them appropriately involved, aware of and respectful of boundaries, and honest about their level of participation and contributions to the partnership; (3) being responsive to critical persons in the overall organization; and (4) keeping critical persons in the organization informed so that they are willing to support resource needs. Further analysis indicated that the most frequently used theme was working closely with key persons within the unit and outside the organization.

Both the original group of deans and our current group adapted Eisner's connoisseurship model (1998) as a theoretical framework for engaging in this extended study. Eisner's model promotes the use of a wide array of experiences, understandings, and information to name and appreciate the different dimensions of situations and experiences, and the way they relate to each other. His approach is interpretive, and includes two major components: connoisseurship and criticism (Willis 2007). A connoisseur is able to identify the different dimensions of situations and experiences, and their relationships. Whereas a connoisseur appreciates a situation, s/he also critiques the same situation to help others see its subtle and not-so-subtle aspects. Through experience, a connoisseur has learned to perceive patterns and make interpretations about specific interests or situations (Eisner 1998). When a connoisseur shares his/her views with others, the role shifts to that of a critic by illuminating, interpreting, and appraising the qualities of circumstances, experiences, and phenomena.

To be both a connoisseur and critic, a person needs to engage in a continuing exploration of him or herself and others in an arena of practice, and make public observations through criticism, so that others can learn from experiences and perceptions before engaging in one's own work. In order to be able to make

informed and committed judgments, a person needs to reflect about his/her actions and feelings about those actions.

Eisner's qualitative research approach draws from the arts and humanities, and focuses on using the approach in teacher education. His approach can be applied to studying leadership characteristics when experienced deans have a schema for understanding the subtle and not-so-subtle aspects of their situations. His model for studying situations can help deans to become more aware of the characteristics and qualities of their leadership practices. Leaders who use his model engage in a continuing exploration of self and others, use critical disclosure to enable others to learn from past experiences, reflect about actions and make informed and committed judgments, and work collaboratively with others.

Because we have had a variety of different experiences and challenges over time in the deanship, we have developed certain understandings and knowledge about the position that enables us to both appreciate and critique the subtle and not-so-subtle aspects of situations; thus, serving as both connoisseurs and critics of our leadership practices. Our current group of three deans has each served in our respective position a minimum of eight years. Collectively, we have accrued nearly 30 years in the deanship. We followed traditional routes of first serving as tenured faculty and then assuming increasingly more administrative responsibilities before becoming deans. We have been, and continue to be, influenced by presidents, provosts, and other deans. We have and continue to attend leadership in higher education institutes and seminars to learn from others in similar positions and reflect on our own actions. We currently represent one public and two private institutions of different sizes and in different regions and states.

Methodology

In effect, we investigated ways in which we work closely with key persons within the unit and outside our organizations to illuminate what deans do, and need to do, to move their schools and colleges forward. We documented our experiences with others during 15 scheduled meetings (5 per dean) in early fall 2013: six one-on-one, six small group (two to 5 people), and 3 large group (six or more people). For each meeting, we charted the following: purpose/content; people involved in the meeting; reporting relationships of those involved in the meeting; resolved issues/accomplishments; unresolved issues; lessons learned from the meeting; and recommendations. Table 1 presents a small section of a sample chart.

We used telephone conference calls and email to discuss a protocol for recording information, analyzing data, and identifying emerging themes from the recommendations and lessons learned. We determined that, for the recommendations and lessons learned, we should: 1) assemble all *specific recommendations;* 2) treat *specific lessons learned* as *specific recommendations* when appropriate; and 3) sort and seek themes for the *major recommendations.* We used axial and selective coding (Corbin & Strauss, 2008) to identify the major recommendations.

Table 1. *Sample chart*

Purpose, Content and Date	People Involved	Reporting Relationships	Resolved Issues/Accomplishments	Unresolved Issues	Lessons Learned	Recommendations to Others
One-on-One Meeting To discuss faculty member's future with the college.	Associate professor in ____program	Reports to Coordinator of the program, chairperson of department, and then Dean	He wanted to know where I stood about his future at the college because he found out that he was not supported by the P&T Committee for reappointment. We discussed reasons for the P&T Committee's decisions. When he left, I thought that he was satisfied with my response.	Uncertain whether the college will support him.	Resentment built up with the faculty because he was paid more and did less. I needed to be open to different scenarios and understand that, no matter what, I was going to take a hit from some constituency. I realized that I had to think of institutional needs over individual needs in this case. I learned about the intensity of jealousies between faculty members, and realized that I must be sympathetic yet emphatic about where we as a college need to go.	When faculty say that they will accept nothing less than a certain dollar amount for salaries, stipends, etc., and you think that they are way off base, find ways, as hard as it is, to negotiate with them to what is reasonable When a faculty member stirs the pot and gets students to complain about college policy, take a step back to assess the situation before you intervene in any way. Analyze where other faculty stand and analyze what you can realistically do without creating a cause célèbre. If faculty on P&T are justified in the recommendations that they make, support their recommendation, even though it is easier to keep someone because of student allegiance. Try not to get caught up in the latest and loudest argument; instead, take a step back to figure out what is best for the institution within the context of the institution.

Findings

The purpose of our meetings varied. The one-to-one meetings entailed: 1) a faculty member's future at the college; 2) a weekly meeting with the Provost; 3) a department chair's future in the role; 4) a Director of

Teacher Education's issues with same department chair; 5) a monthly update meeting with an Associate Dean; and 6) a regular update meeting with a Development officer. These one-on-one meetings helped to provide information and guidance, determine what others were thinking, secure what had been requested, communicate role expectations, discover progress with tasks, clarify structure with the development office, confront a department chair about behavior, and affirm the value of some relationships.

The small group (2 to 5 persons) meetings focused on: 1) an external grant proposal; 2) the role of a Professional Development School principal; 3) conversion of classroom space; 4) differential tuition; 5) an underperforming longtime faculty member; and 6) incentivizing retirement for the faculty member noted above. The small group meetings enabled participants to develop a grant proposal, clarify role expectations, establish consensus on the use of space, establish a strategy for tuition, develop an institutional strategy for encouraging faculty retirement, and present a retirement proposal.

The large group (6 persons or more) involved: 1) monthly Chairs Council; 2) Operating Council for University-Hospital Clinic; and 3) a volunteer board for new Catholic high school. The large group meetings provided an opportunity to provide oversight of programs and external mandates, identify issues with joint oversight by two different organizations, and formalize documents for a new Catholic high school.

An analysis of the reporting relationships of the persons involved with these meetings revealed that five reported to the Dean (4 one-on-one; 1 large group); 1 reported to Provost (one-on-one), eight were mixed (1 one-on-one; 6 small group; 1 large group), and one was external (large group).

Our individual reflections of these meetings led us to identify 84 specific recommendations (e.g., "Try not to take disagreements personally. While sometimes self-motivated, other times they are truly good for the organization") and 53 lessons learned (e.g., "Don't react to passive-aggressive behavior or provocation from others, no matter the reporting hierarchy"). Our analysis of the combined 137 specific recommendations and lessons learned led us to identify 14 major recommendations that incorporated these thoughts. Table 2 provides the breakdown of specific recommendations and lessons learned for each major recommendation, presented in no particular order.

The 14 recommendations are as follows:

1) Be vigilant
2) Remain calm
3) Value relationships and others' achievements
4) Be strategic
5) Provide guidance and coaching
6) Plan ahead
7) Seek help and learn from others
8) Solve problems creatively
9) Follow through

10) Set limits

11) Trust in yourself

12) Persist

13) Be prepared to deal with consequences of difficult decisions

14) Don't assume

Table 2. *Total Recommendations and Lessons Learned*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	Total
Be vigilant	Remain calm	Value relationships & others' achievements	Be strategic	Provide guidance and coaching	Plan ahead	Seek help and learn from others	Solve problems creatively	Follow through	Set limits	Trust in yourself	Persist	Be prepared to deal with consequences of difficult decisions	Don't assume	
13	9	12	25	9	9	8	6	5	9	8	9	4	11	137
8LL[1]	3LL	4LL	7LL	3LL	4LL	4LL	2LL	1LL	4LL	2LL	3LL	2LL	6LL	53LL
5R[2]	6R	8R	18R	6R	5R	4R	4R	4R	5R	6R	6R	2R	5R	84R

[1] Lessons Learned
[2] Recommendations

Table 3 presents an example comment for each of the recommendations. Some types of recommendations occurred more frequently than others. For example, nearly 20 percent of the specific recommendations and lessons learned focused on being strategic. Comments such as *"Have someone else with you, as much as possible, to get another perspective, especially if it is a new venture"* and *"Support from one's own team is important for any outside initiative; otherwise, it doesn't work. Enlist those who truly can add something to an initiative rather than just a warm body"* focused on having a plan of action for achieving a particular goal. Also cited frequently, but less so than the idea of being strategic, was the need to be vigilant (e.g., *"Partnerships can be fragile. Be vigilant."),* value others (e.g., "*It's about relationships. Investing in nurturance of those relationships can pay off at other times."*), and not to assume (e.g., *"Never assume. What you think will be an easy sell might not be"*).

Two recommendations cited the least frequently were to be prepared to deal with consequences of difficult decisions (e.g., *"Be willing to make leadership changes and, if possible, have the successor identified or be prepared to take on some notable portion or all of the responsibility yourself"*), follow through (e.g., *"Do what you can to take the initiative to follow through on items discussed so that others don't see you as just a delegator, but a team player"*), and solve problems creatively (e.g., *"Don't assume that a problem is unsolvable without exploring as many options as possible"*).

Table 3. Examples of Deans' Comments for Each of the 14 Recommendations

1, Be Vigilant
"Ask lots of questions of people entrusted with budget responsibilities when they report to you. Monitor their ability to use resources wisely and responsibly."

2. Remain Calm
"Don't react and show emotion. Try to respond calmly and emphatically to get your point across."

3. Value relationships and others' achievements
"Try to see the good in each and every person, if possible, and try to understand what motivates them so that it is easier to cope with those who are bullies, domineering, irritating, and offensive to you and others. As leaders, we must rise above the noise."

4. Be Strategic
"If at all possible, only place those in leadership positions who you know will operate with integrity and be supportive of your deanship."

5. Provide guidance and coaching
"Need to take time to figure out what a person can and cannot do, what that person is thinking, and what the person needs to keep that person functioning to capacity."

6. Plan ahead
"Come in to your weekly meetings (if that is the set-up) with a written agenda that is dated so that you have a continuous record of conversations and decisions."

7. Seek help and learn from others
"Don't be too shy or proud to ask for help when feeling beleaguered."

8. Solve problems creatively
"It can pay to explore situations that you might regard as akin to hopeless. There may be unknown options that can be utilized creatively to achieve a desired result. In other words, where there is a will, there may be a way, but you've got to explore all opportunities."

9. Follow through
"Do our part to follow up with items as soon as possible so that others take your volunteerism seriously, and know that you will follow up."

10. Set limits
"Sometimes you just have to draw the line or just outright say "no" to taking on additional work."

11. Trust in yourself
"Try not to take things personally, even though this is easier said than done."

12. Persist
"Be sure to explore barriers to desired judgments exhaustively with the decision maker."

13. Be prepared to deal with the consequences of difficult decisions
"Be willing to make leadership changes and, if possible, have the successor identified or be prepared to take on some notable portion or all of the responsibility yourself."

14. Don't assume
"Don't assume that someone can do the job because of previous experience, which may or may not have prepared that person."

Discussion and Implications

As deans' roles are changing because of fiscal, political, legislative, and demographic forces affecting universities, their abilities to work effectively with others is even more critical than ever for accomplishing shifting responsibilities. Accordingly, the intent of this study was to analyze introspectively and retrospectively interpersonal/negotiating skills used while working closely with key persons within the unit and outside the organization. In effect, we used scheduled meetings with our respective stakeholders to study what happened, what we learned from these meetings, and what we would recommend to ourselves and others for functioning as effectively as possible.

Based on our understanding of Eisner's connoisseurship model (1998), we believe that we had developed a schema for understanding the subtle and not-so-subtle aspects of our situations. We used these understandings to study our own leadership behaviors and strategies during our one-on-one, small group, and large group meetings to identify lessons learned and specific recommendations.

Insights about Meetings. We found that face-to-face meetings were important, because they allowed participants to share perspectives in person, find common ground, and walk away with plans of action. Email exchanges and telephone conversations would not have been as effective in promoting the level of interaction that occurred during the meetings. The purposes of the meetings varied, from addressing serious and important personnel issues to discussing procedural challenges and policy issues for the school or college. The meetings did not lead to any definitive "slam dunks," but rather to incremental progress as a result of carefully planned interactions.

Analyses of our perceptions of what transpired at these meetings led us to identify 14 major recommendations that captured what we considered most important for working closely with those who report to us, those to whom we report, and a mixture of other reporting relationships inside and outside our institutions. Although some major recommendations such as "be strategic" included more specific recommendations and lessons learned than others, we found that each recommendation was important for highlighting a critical facet of working with others to accomplish goals that are consistent with a school or college's vision and mission.

Insights about Recommendations. The recommendations represent three deans' insights about interpersonal/negotiating skill characteristics that arose from 15 different meetings. Some generalized recommendations emerged as a result of our individual recommendations from challenging situations mentioned from the meetings. For example, the recommendation to "Solve Problems Creatively" (Recommendation #8) reflects the individual recommendation: *"When a faculty member stirs the pot and gets students to complain about college policy, take a step back to assess the situation before you intervene in any way. Analyze where other faculty stand and analyze what you can realistically do without creating a cause célèbre."* We realized that a recommendation should focus on one's ability to transcend the immediate issues to be able to respond with creative, suitable, and useful ideas. We recognize that the 14 recommendations simply represent what we personally discovered about our interactions in our own subset of meetings. Almost certainly there are other recommendations that deans should incorporate as they work closely with others inside and outside their institutions.

Some recommendations would not necessarily be considered an interpersonal/negotiating skill characteristic, so much as a fit with managerial skills (e.g., Plan ahead—Recommendation #6 and Follow through—Recommendation #9) and confidence (e.g., Trust in yourself—Recommendation #11) characteristics that were initially identified in the initial studies (Wepner, Hopkins, Johnson, & Damico, S. , 2011). This

reinforces the notion that while working with others, which is the most critical part of the job, a dean must possess essential characteristics for performing the job well.

Reflection of the 14 major recommendations led us to conclude that deans spend much of their time facilitating and mediating. For example, one of us used the one-on-one meeting with the director of teacher education to mediate and thus facilitate a better relationship with the department chair so that they could work together more effectively. Deans also depend on intuition, instinct, and experience to accomplish goals. For example, one of us used the monthly one-on-one meeting with an associate dean to help that person recognize that previous experiences in one position did not necessarily translate into needed skills for the current position.

It also bears mentioning that deans can make things happen that many others cannot. For instance, bringing together a volunteer board for a new Catholic high school requires access to and the cultivation of connections and relationships with administrators and faculty inside the institution and influential community members outside the institution. At the same time, deans need to learn how to operate under constraints. For example, faculty governance precludes deans from making arbitrary decisions about personnel or curriculum. The one-on-one meeting that one of us had about a faculty member's future arose after the college's personnel committee determined that the faculty member would not be eligible for tenure.

Even though deans are in different situations, there are fundamental similarities in how they need to comport themselves as they work with other people. Clearly deans need to bring their A-game when interacting with others. They also cannot relax because of the complexity of the job. In fact, there may be universality to being a dean vis-à-vis in-the-moment interactions with others. As administrators in the middle of the higher education institutional hierarchy, deans need to use their interpersonal/negotiating skills to shepherd faculty and administrative staff to subscribe to institutional goals and, at the same time, educate provosts, vice presidents, and presidents about the unique and complex needs of their own schools and colleges.

Limitations of Study. There were three major limitations to our study. The first limitation is that we have different personalities, serve in different contexts, and have different issues. As a result, we cannot make generalizations across deanships that responses, experiences, and challenges would be the same. The second limitation is that we did not use an altogether systematic way of selecting meetings to study. It is possible that other meetings could have led to different recommendations, based on the people involved and the issues addressed. The third limitation is that the data that we provided depended on our perceptions of what occurred at the meetings, based on our knowledge of the individuals involved. While we acknowledge that objective observers probably would provide somewhat different insights, we also believe that, because of their lack of involvement with the individuals and situations, they would not have been able to offer the same degree or level of inferences.

Benefits of Self-Reflection. Notwithstanding these limitations, we found that there is enormous value in thinking about one's daily work with respect to lessons learned and recommendations for working with others. There is still more value in documenting and reflecting on one's work individually and then discussing it with other deans. We found that there was enormous therapeutic benefit in having other deans as sounding boards. Our jobs are highly politicized and, as a result, require the ability to find common ground to move people and projects forward. Thus, as deans, we need to connect, cooperate, and collaborate with others in similar roles so that we can accomplish what is expected within and outside our schools and colleges. This capacity is especially critical for influencing faculty performance and upper-level administrative decisions, acquiring the necessary resources to help our units function effectively, positively impacting student achievement, and satisfying external mandates and accreditation standards. Although we realized that our ability to work successfully with others comes down to the specific person and context, namely the institutional culture, norms, expectations, and people, we also learned that there indeed exist certain interpersonal/negotiating skills that apply to all deans.

Recommendations and Future Research

Although we do not really know whether one's interpersonal/negotiating skills can be developed deliberately, in particular, the ability to work closely with others, we do believe that it is important for practicing and prospective deans to have access to opportunities for professional development in this realm. Such professional development might focus on ways in which deans are able to incorporate the 14 recommendations into their work with others. Self-reflection about the outcomes of both successful and unsuccessful meetings in relation to the use of the recommendations can help to determine future strategies to use with the same and different stakeholders. For example, a dean's ability to "remain calm" (Recommendation #2) in the face of public humiliation by a faculty member or superior is difficult, yet essential for communicating composure and confidence. Studying one's response in such situations helps to prepare for the next encounter. Ideally, deans would have opportunities to form study groups to examine different types of situations and different types of deans' responses, both effective and less effective, to be able to analyze ways in which deans were successful, or not, in accomplishing goals and objectives. Case studies could be helpful in this regard.

Deans should also take opportunities to self-reflect about their own challenging situations to help determine ways in which their own patterns of behavior are contributing, or not contributing, to achievement of their goals. While these provisions amount to a tall order that could require expert consultants for mentoring deans on effective leadership practices, they would contribute to developing resiliency in the deanship which would help with leadership stability in higher education. Because most deans have not received formal training for their positions, and usually assume these positions as a result of a self-identified

interest or recognition by others of leadership potential, it is especially important to provide guidance and mentoring on critical leadership skills.

In addition to an ever-growing wish list for professional development, we continue to want to investigate ways in which we work with others. The ability to videotape meetings would enable deans to drill down on communication patterns during meetings by analyzing reasons for comments in relation to the individuals, the meeting's purpose, and the context for the meeting. An ability to compare communication patterns during scheduled meetings versus impromptu conversations in hallways or other individuals' offices would provide additional insights about deans' interpersonal/negotiating skill patterns. Finally, systematic examination of email and other social media as well as telephone communication would offer yet another opportunity to study how deans interact with others to eventually be able to develop recommendations and protocols for facilitating productive and satisfactory outcomes in different venues and through different mediums.

Self-reflection is not always easy, yet it is critical for moving forward. One cannot assume that deans are capable of self-reflection. Opportunities to self-reflect about what deans are thinking and doing can help them to see more clearly their own habits of mind and patterns of practice. Deans' increased self-awareness should help them to create cultures that work for them in relation to their stakeholders, which in turn, can help with their effective leadership in today's changing educational landscape.

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MOVING UP OR MOVING ON: A GENDERED PERSPECTIVE ON MID-LEVEL UNIVERSITY LEADERS

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Leadership is often viewed through positional authority, with the most visible and highest level of leadership found in the president's office. Despite a change in student and staff demographics, college and university presidents, as a group, do not representatively reflect their constituents. Amidst calls for increasing diversity at the top levels of leadership, the average president closely resembles the college president of 30 years ago (Cook 2012; Kim and Cook 2012, 2013).

While there have been rumors of an impending leadership "crisis" or turnover for several years, current reports indicate that a full 58 percent of current college presidents are 61 years of age or older, with (Kim and Cook 2013). Thus, leadership succession planning should be on the minds of boards of trustees and current university leaders. At doctoral granting institutions, the numbers aging out of positions are even higher, with 61 percent of current presidents over the age of 61 (American Council on Education (ACE) 2007). The traditional path to the university presidency involves upward movement beginning with a faculty position and progressing to chair, dean, and vice president (Cooper and Eddy 2007; Kim and Cook 2013). Tellingly, in the U.S., women faculty members with children do not advance at the same rate as their male counterparts (Mason and Goulden 2004). Over the past 10 years, the percentage of women faculty increased from 35 to 41 percent and women administrators shifted from 44 to 51 percent (NCES 2010). While the percentage of women presidents has increased to 26 percent, the percentage of presidents of color decreased to 13 percent (Cook 2012). Whereas the proportion of women leading doctorate-granting institutions is now 23 percent, women presidents "are more likely to rise slowly up the ranks of academic leadership" (Kim and Cook 2012, ¶5). There are obvious disparities regarding gender and ethnicity in the presidential ranks. Hence, better

understanding the pathways to top-level leadership is critical to pave the way for women and leaders of color, who continue to remain severely underrepresented in senior administrative positions.

The Chief Academic Officer (CAO) position remains the stepping-stone to the presidency, with 34 percent of presidents having served in that position prior to becoming president (Cook 2012) and 44 percent of new presidents having served as CAO (Kim and Cook 2013). The most recent study conducted by the American Council on Education showed that women hold 40 percent of CAO positions at 4-year institutions, which bodes well for future advancement of women to presidencies of these types of universities. However, only 7 percent of CAOs are leaders of color, indicating continued challenges for the placement of leaders of color within presidential slots. Overall, approximately 18 percent of executive administrative and managerial staff were racial or ethnic minorities in 2007 (Snyder and Dillow 2010), underscoring that more leaders of color are concentrated in the mid-level ranks. Although the position of CAO is opening up with respect to gender, caution is evident given the aging of leaders in these positions. A full 48 percent of CAOs at doctoral institutions (ACE 2007) and about one-third of CAOs at all four-year institutions in 2011 (Kim and Cook 2013) were 61 or older. Thus, just as the presidential ranks are nearing retirement, so too are those in the second-in-command slot. If most presidents follow a traditional pathway moving from faculty into progressive administrative positions, then clearly the middle level leadership ranks provide fertile ground for leadership preparation.

Beyond the typical movement up the career ladder, however, succession planning in higher education historically has been nil (Berke 2005; Bisbee and Miller 2006), with future leaders being tapped just prior to entering into office. Bisbee (2007) studied mid-level leaders at land-grant institutions and found that almost half of the survey participants planned on moving back to faculty, 22 percent planned on moving to another institution, 14 percent sought advancement at their home institution, and another 32 percent planned on retiring. According to Ebbers and colleagues (2010), community colleges are focusing on grow-your-own programs to develop leadership from within the organization, tapping the mid-level ranks for candidates. Particular attention centers on obtaining credentials and mentoring to ready mid-level leaders for advanced positions.

Wolverton and Gonzales (2000) reported that women and minorities are underrepresented in deanships. More telling was the finding that the deans in this study did not follow a set career trajectory nor view their position as a natural stepping stone to the provost position. Moreover, a recent study (Battles et al. 2012) reported that women currently comprise 40 percent of Council of College Arts and Sciences (CCAS) deans, which included the title of dean, associate dean, or assistant dean. Women in that study tended to hold the lowest titles of assistant and associate deans (63 percent), with only 31 percent of women in the study holding the title of dean; at doctorate-granting institutions women held 70 percent of assistant dean titles and only 30 percent at the dean level. However, the number of women serving in the dean position was most likely to be

higher at doctorate-granting Minority-Serving Institutions. The CCAS findings echo the findings of Kim and Cook (2012), who reported that minority presidents were more likely than White presidents to be women.

With the anticipated turnover in upper leadership positions, institutions may wish to consider recruiting more women and people of color into mid-level positions, as these stations are most likely to lead to a presidency and cultivating current mid-level leaders for more senior positions. The experiences of leaders at this level in the higher education pipeline, however, remains largely unknown. What is evident is that a slowing of women and leaders of color entering top-level positions as presidents has occurred (ACE 2007; Cook 2012).

Why do some mid-level leaders choose not to advance to higher positional levels of leadership within colleges and universities? Are mid-level leaders opting out due to barriers or lack of support? The purpose of this study was to investigate career trajectories of mid-level leaders at a doctoral-level institution in order to better understand how and why people wind up in formal leadership positions and their intentions for moving up or moving on.

Literature and Theoretical Framework

Literature informing the theoretical framework for this research drew from Acker's (1990, 2006) research on gendered organizations and Williams' (2000) concept of the ideal worker. Despite the increasing number of women attending and working in colleges and universities, their movement into higher-level positions appears to have stagnated, a pattern seen outside of higher education as well (Acker 2006). The unwillingness or inability of women to move into higher-level positions may be the result of socially constructed barriers that are impacted by one's gender, class, and race (Kelly et al. 2010). The core of gendered organizations builds on how Acker (1990) uses the term disembodied worker to illustrate that the job position creates a space that emphasizes the position versus the person holding the position. Kelly and colleagues (2010) investigated the impact on ideal worker norms when gendered expectations and practices are challenged. They found that although the organization studied was able to create two legitimate visions of the ideal worker, the existing (masculinized) view of organizing life around work and newer practices that organized work around outside life, "the tenacity of the masculinized ideal worker norm and related practices at work, even in the face of a workplace initiative that confronts the organizational culture directly, underscores the embeddedness of gender at work and at home" (p. 299). This study found that even after initiatives to move away from the traditional notion of the ideal worker were put into place, conversations regarding gender were difficult to maintain and many reverted back to the old norms. Though practices were changed, embedded structures remained that enforced gendered norms.

Structuration theory (Giddens 1984) further ties together the interplay between structures and individual agency.

The basic domain of study of the social sciences, according to the theory of structuration, is neither the experience of the individual actor, nor the existence of any form of social totality, but social practices ordered across space and time. Human social activities, like some self-reproducing items in nature, are recursive. That is to say, they are not brought into being by social actors but continually recreated by them via the very means whereby they express themselves *as* actors. In and through their activities agents reproduce the conditions that make these activities possible (Giddens 1984, p. 2).

Thus, mid-level college leaders are reacting to the structures in place that are gendered, but they also reinforce these very structures by their actions. Acker (1990) first posited the notion of the gendered organization based on the concept of hierarchies that serve to reify faceless positions built solely on a male norm. Inherent in this norm is the distribution of power. Morgan (2006) identified 14 types of power, one of which is the power vested within position, whereas another deals with the power associated with gender. Assumed in this gender power lever is that males are automatically vested with power given their gender (Acker 1990). Acker (2006) later updated her theory of gendered organizations to include race and class. Essentially, Acker argues that inequality exists in organization, based on mutual production of ideals about gender, race, and class. For example, though the numbers of women working in colleges and universities have increased, the majority of women remain in clerical positions that offer lower wages and little opportunity for advancement (Iverson 2007; NCES 2010).

Colleges and universities, as organizations, are inherently structured upon gendered ideals that are no longer the norm for most men or women. For instance, the notion of acceptable work practices for employees in white-collar administrative positions is built upon the assumption that the worker's partner (spouse) then takes on sole responsibility in caring for the home and family-related duties (Acker 2000; Williams 2000). "Eight hours of continuous work away from the living space, arrival on time, total attention to the work, and long hours if requested are all expectations that incorporate the image of the unencumbered worker" (Acker 2006, p. 448). Those who do not conform to these ideals (i.e., women or men who interrupt work to pick up a child) are viewed as violating the norm and not being dedicated workers.

The most important duties for the administrator, then, are those related to paid work. As the definition of "family" has changed and with an increase in people taking on responsibility for both elder and child care within families, workers are no longer afforded the luxury of assuming someone is at home to provide this care. The fact that colleges have more men in the upper reaches of leadership relative to their classified staff (ACE 2007) underscores the gendered nature of the college system. The concept of the ideal worker creates a model to which leaders are judged. The negative results of the ideal worker framework as enacted in universities, particularly in relation to women moving up the ranks of leadership, may create automatic disincentives for women to pursue or seek upper level positions.

Methods

This research used a hermeneutic phenomenology (Van Manen 1990) approach. Phenomenology allows for a focus on specific experiences and how individuals react to these situations; ultimately the essence of the lived event is garnered from the analysis of all participant data (Creswell 2006). For this study, the focus was on how mid-level leaders experienced leadership at their rank and what future plans they had for their leadership career. Hermeneutics provides an opportunity to interpret the data versus the typical descriptive nature of phenomenology (Van Manen 1990). Of particular interest for this research were how the leaders conceptualized leadership in the middle ranks at the university and how their experiences impacted their desires for future advancement.

This research was part of a larger study on career trajectories of mid-level academic leaders. The data for this research were culled from a large, rural, doctorate-granting university with approximately 20,000 students and 650 tenure track faculty. All mid-level leaders were invited to participate. For purposes of this study, mid-level leaders were defined as directors or deans of an academic unit and department chairs. Ten mid-level leaders participated: two deans (one male, one female), one associate dean (female), and seven department chairs (six males, one female). We conducted semi-structured interviews combining Ray's (1994) "clue and cue" process (p. 129) with Holstein and Gubrium's (1995) active interviewing approach. This less structural form of interviewing allowed for dialogue to occur rather than mere question and answer. Interview data were coded using NVivo to determine overall themes. Peer review of findings aided in confirmation of patterns evolving from the data.

Participants were asked to provide a copy of their curricula vitae to provide insight into their career paths. The vitae were reviewed by the researchers and used to assist in determining the steps taken in progression into mid-level leadership. A follow up was conducted in 2010 to determine if participants had moved up into more senior positions, remained in their current position, or moved out of formal leadership.

Our goal with this study was to present a portrait of these individuals' experiences and to describe their career paths and intended trajectories in an attempt to understand the intentions of mid-level academic leaders for moving up. Table 1 provides a portrait of the leaders involved in this study and includes their current position four years after the initial data were collected.

Findings

Several themes emerged from this research. The first finding was that planned future career trajectories for deans and associate deans differed from those of department chairs. Due to the culture of the institution, the chair position was viewed as an administrative rather than a leadership role because chairs also had teaching responsibilities. Acting chairs felt as though they followed faculty wishes rather than leading them in a specific direction. Second, many participants indicated that their pathways were unintentional and usually were spurred on by others. The third theme was that gender was viewed by male participants as

something that was possessed by women, but for women gender was something that impacted their ability to function within a leadership position. Finally, there were no formal structures in place to assist in cultivating leadership skills, preparing mid- or lower-level leaders to move up, or formal mentoring.

Table 1. Participant Position and Current Status

Participant[*]	Gender	Position in 2005	Seeking Advancement	Current Position in 2010
Marcus Pape	M	Dean of Business	No	Dean at another institution
Laura Lindsay	F	Dean - Health Professions	No	Dean at another institution
Kristie Kotter	F	Associate Dean College of Graduate Studies	Yes	Dean at another institution
Francis Harvey	M	Chair, Economics	No	Chair, Economics
Joseph Pike	M	Chair - Recreation, Parks, and Leisure	No	Interim Dean, College of Graduate Studies
Dianna Diramio	F	Chair, Journalism	Unsure	Dean at another institution
Zachary Keene	M	Chair, History	No	Chair, History
Andrew Oliveri	M	Chair, Broadcast and Cinematic Arts	No	Retired
Geoff Lang	M	Chair, Communication	No	Professor
Michael Straub	M	Chair, Marketing	No	Chair, Marketing

Duality of Career Trajectories.

The majority of department chairs in this study had no desire to move upward into other administrative positions. Several participants felt that it was "merely my turn" to sit in the position. Others saw the chair position as the highest position they wanted to achieve. One participant who had been in his position for 10 years and had no desire to move up noted that he preferred to be chair because he wasn't a "career academic." Only one department chair indicated that he wanted to move up but never received an interview when he applied for a deanship, so he intended to finish out his career as chair. Yet others were long-serving in their chair positions indicating a pull that faculty work still held for them versus a desire to become strictly an administrative leader. As one chair commented, "*The fear I had is that once you become a full-time administrator you forget [your field]*." Chairs had the dual responsibilities of faculty roles and the attendant research expectations, as well as administrative oversight.

Those in associate dean or dean's roles, however, desired a commitment to administration from a more macro level. Despite their focus on administrative work versus faculty work, only one participant at the

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[*] Pseudonyms were used to protect participants' identities.

associate dean/dean level voiced a desire to seek higher level administrative positions. Consequently, even though our participants expressed a desire to lead in the middle, they did not voice a similar desire to seek higher level positions of vice-president or president. The fact that the department chairs also had teaching responsibilities meant that mid-level leaders were able to keep a foot in the classroom, which was an element of the position that several were not willing to give up.

Both men and women participants at the associate dean and dean levels spoke of the provost position as "the worst job on campus" and expressed no desire to move in that direction. One dean was clear that he had no desire to seek a higher level position. He stated, "*The provost job is the toughest monkey on campus I think. And it's such a balancing act. I don't want it. I don't have any desire to be a provost*." Since the time of initial interviewing, this dean took a lateral career move to a deanship at another university. This same dean brought up the issue of age, "*I felt like I was reaching the point where age might be an issue for a first-time dean. It's not an issue if you're a dean—once your ticket has been punched, it is not an issue*." This person felt that, structurally, once you are in the position of power age was not as much of an issue at the dean level. However, with the late start of some faculty careers and advancement within the leadership ranks, individuals may run out of time if the traditional pathway to the top-level positions is followed, in particular for women (King and Gomez 2008).

The pathway to leadership positions for the woman dean in our study followed a similar late start as the male dean. She entered academics in her 40s after a 20 year career in the health professions. One of the first actions she undertook was to obtain her doctorate. She added, "*If I was going to be at the table and have a voice, I had to have it.*" This credential is a critical element of the structure of the leadership hierarchy. She noted her first 12 years in academe were spent as a department chair and the role she liked best was being able to provide a vision to for the unit. She was surprised when she was promoted to Associate Dean that even though the position provided a more global view of the university, she in fact had less power and was carrying out the vision of someone else, versus her own vision. Thus, when she was nominated for the dean position at another college, she left her home state, her professional network, and moved cross country in order to take advantage of the promotion.

Department chairs were often tapped for their positions because they were the best prepared to take over these functions. Others sought out the positions in a desire to seek new challenges. Several noted a concern over finding a successor for their positions. Indeed, one department chair was the longest serving chair on campus, leading his department for over 20 years. Yet, these chair roles are somewhat dubious. One chair candidly stated, "*I've got a job where I have very little formal authority over the department, the main people in the department that I supervise are other faculty.*" The lack of supervisory authority translated to the chairs not viewing their roles as leaders, but rather as administrative overseers. One chair noted that the administrative burden of the chair position was not nearly as intense as at other institutions, "*Because of the union agreement, we don't have to make a lot of tough decisions that other people have to.*" Hence, the

perception of the department chair at this institution was shaped by the structure and culture of the university.

For some, an unsuccessful attempt at looking for a promotion, either inside the college or at another institution, meant the end of their aspirations for upper level leadership positions. One chair noted how headhunters had contacted him for dean positions, but that he did not receive offers from his first choice institutions. Ultimately, dual career concerns resulted in his no longer seeking other positions. Thus, timing plays a critical role in movement along the career path.

Inadvertent Leaders

Mid-level leaders at the university noted how they initially got involved in administrative functions through committee service, ultimately being recognized for their leadership and being encouraged to seek further career advancement. In addition to being tapped by senior leaders, participants in this study noted that peers and colleagues also tapped them for leadership and encourage them to apply or moving to leadership positions. This "tapping" was the encouragement needed by most of the participants to pursue their next positions. Few sought or intended to be an upper level leader on their own. Rather, they wound up in these positions by accident. One chair noted, "*I don't think I've ever set out thinking I've got a certain goal in mind because I think that for me and my career, whatever I've done in life is more or less evolutionary.*" This leader had been a reporter, in public relations, and worked to set up a women's university in the Middle East before landing in her current position. Another chair quipped, *"You don't walk out of high school knowing that this sort of thing exists!*" Yet, this person has been the longest serving chair at the university.

A current dean commented, "I thought I was too old to seek advancement." Timing of advancement in the career pathway also had an impact. Another associate dean added, "My career path is whatever happens to be convenient at the time….I had never thought about whether or not I would want to be an administrator." There was often a push and a pull involved in taking the first leadership position. One leader noted how moving to administration allowed her to leave a toxic departmental culture that favored male seniority, whereas others found the allure of setting vision for the area enticing.

Structurally, the women in the study came to leadership positions later in their careers. One dean noted, "I was 40 years old coming into academe. Who would have thought I'd ever be dean of a college? I didn't even have a doctorate at that time." Needing to obtain tenure or full professorship before contemplating leadership positions limited the pool of women able to assume leadership roles. One current chair commented that this chain of impact would continue into the future because current faculty members were not predisposed to seek administrative leadership positions.

Strong ties to the classroom or to individual research contributed to several chairs' rationale for not seeking more senior positions. One chair set up his schedule to have every Thursday out of the office and devoted to research. Another stated, *"What I enjoy about being chair is that I get to teach, I get to do*

research, and I get to administrate. I like the variety that offers and that's one reason I'm not looking to go any further because I don't want to get out of the classroom." Satisfaction in current positions provided little motivation to seek other leadership opportunities. One chair commented on how he loved the faculty ranks, but the tipping point for him in applying for the chair position was a belief in what he could bring to the table regarding vision. On the other hand, another chair planned on returning to the faculty because his chair duties were taking too much time away from his research.

The Influence of Gender

Gender was viewed by participants as something that mainly impacted women. All participants were asked the question, "What influence has gender had on your career?" The term "gender" was interpreted as something that applied only to women. Women participants spoke of their own experiences as women working within male-dominated cultures. Yet, all of the male participants responded to the question by talking about women in their departments or their fields, and only two male participants indicated that their gender may have had an impact on their careers. For example, a male department chair stated: "*Because I'm male I probably don't see that as much. I'd like to say the department is gender blind…The fact was that when my turn [for department chair] came, there wasn't any woman in the department that had sufficient seniority to take on the chair's position.*" Another participant acknowledged that being male had positively impacted his career and allowed him to make moves that perhaps women could not. However, he also indicated that he did not know how to deal with women as colleagues: "*Economics is still a very male-dominated profession. Being male helps.*" This chair also noted that "*I think I hit the glass ceiling. This is as far as I want to go.*" The language of glass ceiling is typically associated with women seeking advancement and its use by a male participant highlights that barriers to advancement are not singularly impacting women. Most men indicated that there was a dearth of women in their fields, which contributed to the lack of women in leadership. The longest serving department chair indicated that he was intentionally attempting to mentor three women who that he thought had the potential to chair.

One dean noted, "I am personally aware of the need to have a diverse faculty and administration….we're in the process of hiring 10 tenure track positions now and we will select the finalists based on their quality and then, if it comes down to it and one hire will improve the balance of our faculty, then that's going to be my recommendation." Other mid-level leaders were in units in which it was difficult to attract candidates given the career options in industry. One chair added, "We needed to start what we call a Grow Your Own Program. It is a very difficult field in which to attract female faculty." This program involved hiring women as instructors and allowing them time to complete their PhD while on staff. When full-time lines became open, these women were then more competitive because of their experience at the college and their degree credential. Two women faculty were recently hired using this process in this unit at the college.

All three of the female participants, on the other hand, noted that their gender had tremendous impact on their career. "There is definitely a gender bias. It's not that there aren't lots of women deans, but it's easier I believe for a man to be put in that position instead of a woman to be put in that position. And I have to be a lot more careful about a lot of things." Women participants were conscious of how their gender impacted their advancement and the perceptions of their leadership potential. One woman commented, "I don't know if it's gender, but as a small person, a small soft-spoken woman, I think all my life people have underestimated me." This leader had a clear sense that she had to prove herself over and over in her work situations. She realized she had arrived when other deans on campus began to ask her for advice. But, she added that her perception is that women do not have as long of a professional life as men. Older men were seen as distinguished, but her perception was that an older woman would be seen as "getting up in years."

A male participant noted that he writes from a feminist perspective and that this framework impacts how he sees the world. Yet, this perspective did not lead him to identify how his own gender may have contributed to his own advancement or to question why a woman was not in a leadership position in his department. He provided another example as he discussed the work-life balance question. He reflected to a time when his children were young and how his home office had a glass door: *"I would close the door and our children could be in the family room, watching TV, playing, laughing, having friends over and I wouldn't hear them. But I was visually connected, and I was there. And any number of moments, a few times an hour, I could go in there, talk to them, be with them."* Even though this participant felt this example highlighted how he was connected to his family, he neglected to reflect that he was able to physically distance himself and engage with his children on his terms versus really having supervisory responsibility for them.

One of the women leaders expanded, "*I think men are allowed to be themselves more than women are in hiring….A woman has to have much more attention to dress—if you wore a suit with a short skirt, or you wore pants, some may see this negatively. Men don't have to make those kinds of decisions*." It was noted that men could be very direct—bordering on rude and that would not impact their ability to move up, whereas women needed to be more attentive to social skills and acting within gender norms. A male chair supported this view. He said, "*I've heard from the former chair [a woman] that there were certain things that I could get away with doing that she couldn't because not only was I male, but I am a big, large male. I was unlikely to be challenged.*" Here, gender and size mattered in how leaders were perceived.

Gender played a role in family responsibilities as well. One of the women quit her job to stay home with her mother who had Alzheimer's disease and when her mother was ultimately placed in a facility, made several trips a year to visit and tend to family members. She reflected. *"It was fine when I was at home taking care of her, but you know I had no life. I had no income."* At the time of the interview, this leader was still full of guilt about the fact that she could not tend to her mother.

Framework for Leadership Development

Corresponding to the accidental nature of their ascension to their current positions of leadership, participants noted a lack of formal development opportunities. Instead, they noted how mentoring and on-the-job experiences served as the training ground for leadership. As one chair reflected, *"I think you just hit the ground running."* The university did not have a formal development program for new chairs beyond a one-day workshop that reviewed the assigned job responsibilities outlined on "the green sheet." These leadership functions were literally printed on green paper and reviewed the job responsibilities for chairs including a focus on managerial tasks of scheduling, advising, and budgeting. Only one participant at the chair level noted that his dean had sent him to an external conference to help prepare him for his new position.

For the most part, mid-level leaders discussed the informal development they received via observation of other leaders or participation in disciplinary state and national meetings. One person noted, *"I tell people that in leadership, when doors open, you must go through them."* She added that she did not have anyone overtly helping her move up the ladder, stating rather, *"You know you come to a point where you have a level of confidence and you know when you're ready to go further."* How leadership is modeled begins to set the stage for the culture of the organization and therefore how gender is viewed or perceived within the hierarchies. A male dean described his first five weeks on the job. His self-description of his own leadership was as participatory versus dictatorial, but he also noted that his nature is fairly aggressive in the workplace to look for opportunities for his college. He added that as a new dean he threw himself into the work, but knowingly stated, *"A challenge that I have is just letting work overtake my life."* Despite this realization, this dean had 101 30-minute meetings with individual faculty in his college during the first five weeks on the job to allow him to gain a sense of the faculty issues and the college culture. He sought to model teamwork and solidarity within his faculty.

With little preparation for leadership roles, new leaders often question their ability to do the job. One associate dean noted, *"Often associate deans are really in transition. You're either going to decide—I hate this and I'm going back to faculty, or you're going to decide to continue going on in an administrative direction and then that direction has choices."* This person commented that she felt she had one more eight-year chunk of time left in her career. She has since left the college and assumed a dean position at another university. For this leader, having outside administrative experience proved to be the best training. Others avoided training seminars in a desire to *"be more genuine."* A desire for authentic leadership that was true to identity may have been more of an option for men in the study.

In contemplating his career pathway, one chair commented *"I wasn't a career academic, I've been out in the business and continue to consult, so I've got that orientation....but if you are totally a career academic, there's some things that you don't pick up that you do pick up in industry."* Academics without formal professional development experiences either learned on the job or faced frustrations when becoming a leader

among peers. Given this pattern, one of the current chairs intentionally sought to groom a replacement. Pointedly, all the individuals he was coaching were women.

Seeking out leadership opportunities was a tactic used by some mid-level leaders to expand their development of key skills. These chances came about through working on internal university committees, having leadership roles in state and national associations, and by taking part in some workshops or seminars to develop specific skills. The difficulty noted was that there was little opportunity for mobility within the university system. Additionally, the culture at the university was shaped by a long-serving employee base that had no other university-based experience. Only one of the chairs interviewed came to the university as an external chair, all others were promoted from within.

Discussion and Conclusion

The interplay among structure, agency, and the ideal worker norms were evident in our research findings. The female dean in the study noted that when she started her position, *"My first two years I worked 16-hour days a week here. I didn't have a day off, but I had no family with me and it was overwhelming being a new person in a new college moving into a new building*." She added, "*I'm a guide in the world of the workaholic and I've always said, I'm not smarter than anyone else, but I'm high energy and I work longer and harder than most people.*" For her, agency was built around hard work to prove herself in her position and the structure and demands of the job served to reinforce this behavior. As a young widow, she learned early on that she was the family breadwinner—a construct built on male norms. Yet, despite this experience, she commented in reference to younger women in her college, "*I do see that [having children] as a deterrent with women who work with me here. It's constant, almost every day, 'I have to pick up my child, I have to do this today.' It's a hard role to be a mother and to be a leader or work also.*" This dean's position serves to reinforce that the ideal work norm is present in academe today and both men and women reinforce this ideal. Although this dean struggled with work and motherhood demands, she felt that women in the workforce today still needed to work as though they did not have outside responsibilities.

One male chair stated, "*I'm not a workaholic by any means. I'm working more 9 to 5. I've found since I've been chair in some ways I'm more efficient with my time, I rarely do work at home now.*" Setting of boundaries was often a lesson learned over time. Another chair added how he used to work 75-80 hours a week, but that he began to set limits to block out time for a more balanced life. The norm of long-hours was prevalent and how individuals reacted and used strategies to integrate their lives was based on their own sense of agency.

The fact that leadership positions were longer than an eight-hour day was an accepted norm. As one leader noted, "*I don't have children or family, so work can be my life….My deal is to make sure that work doesn't become my life.*" She added, "*Whatever your role is, you have to be real, you have to be true to yourself.*" All participants in the study talked about longer than average hours worked per day, many of them

working seven days a week, and the notion of finding a balance that allowed them to live their lives in a healthy manner. As one participant stated frankly, *"It's a job that doesn't go away."* One male chair noted that his wife was a stay-at-home mother and that this fact allowed him to focus more on work, reinforcing the ideal of the unencumbered worker (Acker 2006).

Even though individuals recognized that ideal worker norms were in place, few challenged this construct. Some of the participants did state that they were trying to set boundaries on the amount of time spent at work, but they made these decisions individually and did not work to change the actual structures in place that often required these long hours. Indeed, many of the mid-level leaders expected that others in their unit should be working long hours to contribute to the goals of the college because this was necessary for operations.

In reviewing the curricula vitae of the participants and the descriptions of their career paths, a significant finding was how varied the trajectory to current mid-level positions was. One chair started college without a high school degree, obtaining a Graduate Equivalent Degree (GED) prior to enrolling at a religious college. Another chair started out as a funeral director, whereas another was a newspaper reporter. Industry time in radio provided the roots for yet another mid-level leader. The two deans both held business positions before entering academics. These findings are significant as they challenge the traditional academic pathway of graduate school and then time in progressing up the faculty ranks prior to entering leadership. King and Gomez (2008) noted that institutions of higher education need to think differently about leadership succession and plans for the future, and the findings from our study indicate that the future is already here.

Individual agency and the construct of leadership at mid-level all contributed to how the participants viewed their positions. One chair reflected, *"I guess I am sort of an administrator, but I don't think of myself that way."* This view of the role meant that chair positions in particular were not viewed as locations of leadership, rather as filling in for administrative functions. Another participant expanded, *"Much of the time is engaged in acts that require you do administrative work in addition to teaching and writing. The time you can spend in leadership activities is relatively small".* The mid-level leadership role of chair was not constructed as a *real* leadership position given the multitude of job responsibilities ranging from teaching to research to administration and the short term nature of the chair terms. Thus, as we think of the pathway to upper level leadership, attention needs to be given to the construction of the chair position and the development potential that these positions actually provide for future leadership opportunities.

One participant commented that it was viewed suspiciously "*if a person wanted to be chair too badly.*" This perspective raises the issue of when individuals can voice their desires for advancement and how this desire is received by peers and leaders. The move "to the dark side" is often raised in jest, but may create a barrier for individuals as they consider advancement opportunities. The construction of a leadership identity evolves over time as individuals make the decision to move up or stay put. Mid-level leaders did not often

have a chance to attend trainings or become versed in how to be a good leader. Instead, they learned on the job or transferred skills in from other arenas, such as leadership roles in church or the community.

A remaining challenge is how to get individuals to think of constructs of leadership differently than the established ideal norms. One can argue that those in powerless positions are not in a position to impact change, but Huckaby (2007) found that resistance to established practice provided individuals a greater sense of agency and that collectively with enough resistance, change could occur. Our research, like that of Kelly and colleagues (2010), found that despite the expressions of disapproval of long work hours, that participants did critique the underlying gendered organizational structure based on outdated masculine norms. Hence, the construct of the ideal worker remains the norm for mid-level leaders.

If individuals have advanced in the current system that rewards the ideal worker norms, it may be difficult to recognize the issues or the assumptions inherent in how leaders must spend time and effort at work. Acker (2006) underscores the ubiquitous nature of gendered organizations, "All organizations have inequality regimes, defined as loosely interrelated practices, processes, actions, and meanings that result in and maintain class, gender, and racial inequalities within particular organizations" (p. 443). The reliance on organizational hierarchy reinforces power differentials, in particular as this relates to decision-making power. Thus, the organizational chart of most colleges and universities reproduces inequalities. Without conscious critique of these accepted norms, change will not occur.

Significance and Implications

Several points of significance emerged from this research. First, the lack of formal plans for succession planning meant that most of the leaders in this study "just happened" to become administrators at the university. The college did not have a formal structure for advancement, which may have repercussions on the next step of advancement to higher level leadership, including the presidency. Typical of most institutions of higher education, no succession plans existed (Berke 2005; Bisbee and Miller 2006). The fact that chairs did not envision themselves as leaders also represented a missed opportunity for leadership throughout the university. Contemporary notions of collaborative leadership (Hickman 2009) provide one mechanism to help campus administrations address the complexity of running today's college. Second, the continued use of male norms for mid-level leadership meant that the acceptance ideal worker values (Williams 2000) was still in practice. On the other hand, the abundance of comments regarding the lack of appeal regarding advancement may indicate a rejection of the desire to meet the norms established for top-level leadership positions. This rejection of demands on top-level leaders, however, presents a bind because mid-level leaders are not motivated to seek advancement and institutions lose out on a wider range of diverse leaders to take over these critical positions.

The institution of leadership development programs and mentoring programs may be a means to begin to break down established misconceptions of administrative work and may ultimately work to change definitions

of the position to make it more attractive to a wider potential leadership pool. Finally, the fact that participants reacted to questions on gender by only speaking of the "women's" issues underscores and reifies the biased gendered nature of the university setting. Women in the study were quite conscious of the ways in which their gender impacted ascension to the administrative ranks and how they were perceived by others. Men, on the other hand, did not view themselves as gendered, rather they used gender as a sex code for women, underscoring the invisibility of the impact of their own gender on their experiences. This lack of awareness creates a blind-spot for them in dealing with female colleagues, but it also does men a disservice as well when they are unaware of the role gender played in their own advancement. Ignorance of the role that gender plays in the workplace also implies that biased structures and expectations will remain in place as they are not viewed as a problem.

A point of interest from a gender perspective was that male participants in this study viewed women as being deficient and needing assistance to move up into administrative and tenured faculty positions within the organization rather than acknowledging a need to change the existing organizational norms to make the environment more inclusive to those who did not fit the existing structure or expectations. The ideal worker norm was solidly in place, as evidenced by participants' assumption that men are more likely to hold administrative positions and that these positions require employees to work long hours (full- and over-time), the idea that work is most important, and that people in these positions work nearly all the time (Acker 1990, 2006; Williams 2000). There was also an assumption that in order to progress to the next rank in the hierarchy, even more time spent on work would be required. Additionally, women perceived further expectations on their behavior, dress, and approach to leadership both in their current positions and if they intended to move up. The descriptions provided implied that women had to present themselves in ways that may be at odds with their own personalities and preferences in order to conform to expectations, be accepted as a leader, and move ahead.

A significant aspect of looking at leadership in the middle ranks is the creation of leadership identity and roles. One chair stated, *"I think you've got to have a sense of ownership in whatever you're leading. You've got to have that because it will get you over some of the difficult times. You've got to like what you're doing, enjoy what you're doing, and you've got to understand that administration is the art of the possible."* For some, this strong sense of self identity may mean they are satisfied with their current roles and influence, thereby providing less motivation to seek advancement (Sawyer 2008).

In summary, higher education is at a crossroads in which change for greater gender equity in leadership can occur. However, this research points to traditional conceptions of male leadership as the norm, a lack of succession planning and leadership development, and missed opportunities for expansion of collective leadership in the university setting. As the leadership void becomes more pressing at the top, institutions need to begin rethinking what it means to be a senior level administrator, as well as redefining roles for mid-level leaders.

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INNOVATION STUDIO 101

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It is an undeniable phenomenon: prevailing notions of leadership continue to shift—both regarding where "the leader" is situated within a particular organization or team and who that leader is assumed to be. Although there is an undercurrent of disquiet among those who continue to cling to what are fast becoming outdated models of uni-directional, linear and hierarchical leadership, less value is being placed on top-down models of leadership, as organizational and team outcomes across disciplines demonstrate that influence most often occurs and is disseminated effectively "from the middle" (Maxwell, 2011, p. 1).

With this emerging understanding of leadership, articulated increasingly in educational, business, and practice settings, comes clear emphasis on the importance of learning how to, "lead from anywhere." "Leading from anywhere" asserts that individuals can (and must) be prepared to influence those around them no matter where they are situated within their team or organization, and to be innovative, collaborative, and courageous within these spaces and groups. These "anywhere leaders" are characterized by Thompson (2011) as: "driven for progress," "sensationally curious," and "vastly resourceful" (p. 1-3.) Lomenick (2014) characterizes those who lead from anywhere as collaborative and authentic, and suggests that they embrace their current position in their organization or team, celebrate the accomplishments of those below them, and anticipate the needs of those above them.

Maxwell (2011) identifies seven myths of leadership that continue to plague current thinking, and that must be dispelled in order to enable the concept of leading from anywhere to flourish. These are: the "position myth" (p. 4)—*I can only lead once I have a higher position in my organization or team*; the "destination myth" (p. 8)—*I can only lead once I reach the top of my organization or team*; the "influence myth" (p. 10)—*I can only lead once I am influential*; the "inexperience myth" (p. 12)—*I will get to the top and then know how to lead*; the "freedom myth" (p. 14)—*once I get to the top I will be able to lead without*

constraint; the "potential myth" (p. 17)—*my potential will not be realized until I am at the top of my organization or team*; and the "all-or-nothing myth" (p.19)—*if I am not at the top, then I refuse to lead*.

Individuals at all levels of an organization or team must instead realize that leading is increasingly shown to be accomplished through lateral, upward and downward relationships forged across all levels within organizations and teams. Leadership is becoming, as Maxwell (2011) calls it, "360 degrees." The skillset required of an individual who seeks to lead from anywhere necessitates engagement with diverse groups of people at all levels of an organization or team, value placed on relationships, communication, and collaboration, as well as a certain humility that comes with acknowledging others' expertise. Particular competencies include a sense of ownership of a project and its outcome. Individuals possessed of these competencies are comfortable with the ambiguity and complexity that comes from offering input and receiving feedback focused on leadership, whether within an immediate, specific system or process or a larger transformation that reverberates throughout an organization.

Although much of the literature on leading from anywhere has been situated in the business and management disciplines, there are additional areas that would benefit from this perspective. One such area is higher education, particularly in the context of non-academic staff populations working closely with faculty and administration. The online research and policy repository of the College and University Professional Association for Human Resources (CUPA-HR) includes this in its statement of human resources priorities for higher education: "employee engagement in institutions of higher education is the same as in others areas of the business world" (n.d.). CUPA-HR identifies specifically the importance of an engaged staff population who can see evidence of the connection between their job, their professional development, and the mission of the organization of which they are a part. In light of the current, perilous state of higher education, dissected in places like *The Economist, Forbes, The Chronicle of Higher Education* and elsewhere, being sure that all levels of the organization are functioning optimally seems most sensible. There exists ample opportunity to address this increasing pressure on universities to better the student experience, increase academic rigor, diversify disciplinary content, lower costs, and streamline enrollment and business processes. We identified the concept of "leading from anywhere," situated within the business/management scholarship, as a way to change organizational culture and decided to translate it for use in academe to address the issues facing our university.

This article presents an organizational intervention designed by the authors to bring "leading from anywhere" to academic environments. The current iteration of the program, called Innovation Studio 101 (also referred to as "the Studio" throughout this article), has been tailored specifically to non-academic staff populations who work directly with students, faculty, and other non-academic staff in the healthcare disciplines contained within the college where the authors are appointed at a large research one university.

The Innovation Studio 101 project is rooted in establishing an environment that acknowledges and utilizes staff interest and desire to be part of the college's innovation process and enables staff input, workload discussions, professional development opportunities, and ownership of innovation projects.

The program's objective is to instill in learners the competency for and the courage to lead from anywhere in academic settings, and to begin to answer the calls from organizations like CUPA-HR to engage staff more fully and address head-on the current challenges facing the higher education system from the ground up. Specifically, the program facilitates competency in leading change and facilitating innovation within existing processes and systems endemic to higher education that are integral to the functioning of an academic unit involving student and business services. The Innovation Studio 101 program is timely for staff workforce development in academic settings due to the program's unique theoretical grounding and requisite content area expertise, situated at the intersection of career development theory and innovation theory.

Purpose

The article begins by describing the questions about implementing innovation posed to us by our college's leadership: *What is innovation? How do we operationalize it, and what expertise is needed to do this?* These questions were reflective of the college's desire to align more closely with the larger mission of the state university of which we are a part, which is heavily focused on innovation. Innovation Studio 101 was the authors' response to these questions and our college's desire for a clearer presence of innovation and competency in facilitating it. Our solution for "walking the talk," as the saying goes, focused on operationalizing "leading from anywhere" at the staff level. Following this background information is a brief outline of career development theory and innovation theory and their intersection, as understood for staff populations. Also discussed is how these frameworks ultimately informed the design of the Studio curriculum. The article continues with our benchmarking process and preliminary findings regarding staff comfort with and understanding of innovation, in addition to our college's readiness to recognize these competencies related to innovation in staff. Our lessons learned within this process are articulated next. Following this, the Studio is presented in terms of its design and curriculum. To inform the larger practice of career development in this setting, we have provided a flow chart detailing our step-by-step process from inception to implementation of the Studio is presented. The article concludes with our anticipated next steps.

Background

Our College, situated within a large RU/VH (Research-I) state university, is comprised of interdisciplinary healthcare education and practice undergraduate and graduate degrees. In Fall of 2013, the College's administration sought to gain a better understanding of innovation and its operationalization at the College, in addition to the competencies required to facilitate innovation and idea generation. Innovation and its tenets are a central, codified piece of our larger institution's mission, and also comprise a major portion of our

healthcare disciplines' missions and visions. Our understanding of innovation comes from Krahe (in press): innovation is a "way of being in the world that is focused on constant betterment, mindful of the multiple realities of individuals involved that converge and diverge." Innovation for our purposes in this project is understood as being situated within the complex system of our college, and thus carries with it qualities associated with a complexity science perspective, stretching across disciplines and populations (see Clemens, 2014; Byrne & Callaghan, 2013; Mitchell, 2011; Fonseca, 2002). These qualities include non-linearity, adaptation, emergence, co-evolution, and ambiguity (Goldstein, 2008a; 2008b).

Our work together, resulting in the design and implementation of Innovation Studio 101, was shaped in response to the complex pair of questions, mentioned above, posed by the college's leadership to us and other thought leaders at the College: *What is innovation? How do we operationalize it, and what expertise is needed to do this?*

The Healthcare Innovation (HCI) programs under Dr. Krahe's direction and the Academy of Continuing Education (ACE) under Ms. Fitzgerald's direction were deeply involved in modeling innovation at the College. Together, we determined the most effective way to begin to design the program would be to work from these immediate spheres of influence; for Dr. Krahe, the Master of Healthcare Innovation within HCI and for Ms. Fitzgerald, program development and accreditation to provide continuing education in the healthcare professions within ACE. These two existing areas were utilized to ground the project in competency in innovation and in sustainable, lifelong practice of this learning in a continuing education context.

Having chosen the areas of our College that might best house this emerging project, we thought about which population within the college might best benefit in terms of a return on investment in education in innovation and how the greater college could best be served. We conducted a broad literature review, the foci of which were leadership and innovation. We considered the wisdom of Maxwell (2011) and others in the disciplines of leadership and management, in addition to healthcare innovation scholars Porter O'Grady and Malloch (2015) as well as complexity leadership experts Uhl-Bein, Marion, and McKelvey (2007). And in the review process we discovered the concept of "leading from anywhere," discussed at length above. This emerging approach of bridging leadership and innovation was foundational to our understanding innovation and operationalizing it at the college. We decided to embed this concept in our work going forward.

Staying true to this strain of the leadership and innovation literature and our focus on "leading from anywhere", we determined the administrative staff of the college would be the ideal population to whom we could offer Innovation Studio 101. The population chosen to pilot the Studio program has been drawn from staff members and their supervisors from across all academic units within the college. Our institution defines University staff as: "an employment category comprised of non-academic staff and administrators. University staff are employed at will." (ASU, Staff Personnel Manual, section 002: Definitions, 2014, June 1). The staff population at our institution includes classified staff, defined as, **"**positions that are not considered faculty, administrators, or university staff and have certain protections as a public employee and whose primary roles

are in clerical, administrative support, paraprofessional, or maintenance roles (ASU, Staff Personnel Manual, section 002: Definitions, 2014, June 1), and non-classified staff, as well as exempt and nonexempt staff. Staff education levels range from high school diplomas and equivalents to undergraduate and masters degrees, practice degrees (e.g. registered nurse), and terminal practice degrees (e.g., doctorate in education, doctorate in nursing practice). Staff also contains a sizeable population of military veterans. Half the supervisors that have joined the Studio project are classified as staff and half are classified as faculty administrators.

In choosing to focus on staff, and in our discussions with staff regarding their needs and expectations, we became aware of what the literature asserted as foundational in working with this population: career development. What follows below is a discussion of the necessary structures that were required to underpin our design and solidification of the Studio program: the intersection of career development theory and innovation theory.

Theoretical grounding

In order to operationalize innovation in collaboration with staff, we identified two areas for inquiry. First, we needed to better understand how to engage staff in a way that would facilitate their goals and their vision for their own professional development. To accomplish this, we needed an understanding of career development and how it might intersect with innovation. Second, we determined it was crucial to use this insight in a meaningful way. To accomplish this, we decided to build our program around it.

Several career development theories have been established and utilized over the past few decades. Many remain in use today to guide company strategies to provide career development and progression. The brief overview provided in this article includes mention of several of the theories we determined are most salient to our work with staff: Holland (1959), Bandura (1989), and Krumholtz (2009). Also explored is the way in which these theories' map to innovation.

Although there are overarching definitions that ground innovation scholarship, an individual's understanding and operationalization of innovation is unique and informed by an individual's environment. Similarly, Holland's (1959, 1997) work demonstrates that an individual's career choices are comprised of and informed by his or her unique worldview. Holland's Theory of Vocational Choice (1959, 1997) posits that people choose a career or job based on a decision to be around those who are like them. In so doing they search for work environments which match up with their skills and abilities. Holland also identifies the existence of an individual's unique "personal career theory" (PCT) that encompasses a collection of beliefs, ideas, assumptions, and knowledge that guides their choice of occupation and explains why they persist in them. (Reardon & Lenz, 1999, p. 103).

For our work, Holland's vocational themes connect most closely with innovation, via Kelly & Littman's (2005) *The Ten Faces of Innovation*, in which ten different personality types of people who lead innovation in different ways are described. These include: Anthropologist, Experimenter, Cross-Pollinator, Hurdler,

Collaborator, Director, Experience Architect, Set Designer, Storyteller, and Caregiver. Each of the ten faces is then clustered into a persona category of Learning, Organizing, or Building. Like Kelly & Littman (2005), Holland (1959) has particular "types" of individuals that are described by his vocational themes: Realistic (Doers), Investigative (Thinkers), Artistic (Creators), Social (Helpers), Enterprising (Persuaders), and Conventional (Organizers). The acronym RIASEC frequently describes the cluster of these types. Similar to the personality types of Kelly & Littman (2005), Holland's vocational themes help individuals to understand their own and others' strengths and weaknesses in particular situations, within both innovative environments and the trajectory of career development. These two ways of understanding oneself--both in terms of choice of vocation and role as innovator, led us to include Kelly & Littman's (2005) "faces" alongside Holland's (1959, 1979) RAISEC as we begin to build our curriculum.

Bandura's seminal work is the Social Cognitive Theory (1986), centering on the idea that learning is associated with observation of role models. For our purposes in innovation, we were most interested in Bandura's work in self-efficacy (1989). Bandura posited that an individual's belief about his or her self-efficacy determines that individual's level of motivation and the effort that individual will expend, in addition to how long he or she will endure in the face of obstacles within a job setting. "Because the acquisition of knowledge and competencies usually requires sustained effort in the face of difficulties and setbacks, it is resiliency of self-belief that counts" (Bandura, 1989, p. 1176). Bandura's thoughts on self-efficacy were important to this project because of the reflective work that participants do—asking questions of themselves like: Who am I as an innovator? Who am I as a leader? Do I take risks? What is my emotional competence? Am I motivated and strong enough to bring about meaningful change? How can I function optimally in a world of work overload? Self-efficacy appears in our work in innovation as well. Exploring self-as-innovator requires reflective work on attitude toward change, ability to take risks, desire to put forth a vision to influence others, and emotional competence—in addition to the willingness to course correct when obstacles present themselves. Bandura's ability to ground the project's reflective work is important to the elements of our project's curriculum that are more qualitative and reflective.

Underpinning the scholarship on innovation are particular characteristics of innovation and innovative environments. For our work in innovation, as mentioned above, these characteristics are associated with complexity science: non-linearity, adaptation, emergence, co-evolution, and ambiguity. Krumbolz' (2009) assertions regarding career development's non- linear qualities and unpredictability map closely to the qualities of innovation. Just as innovation is a complex process that is informed by interactions and emergent outcomes, career development, as understood by Krumbolz (2009), is a similar phenomenon.

Krumboltz (2009) puts forth the Happenstance Learning Theory (HLT), which addresses the need for individuals to deal with and adapt to the swiftly changing work expectations and workforce. Krumbolz (2009) asserts that these unpredictable factors provide opportunities for growth. "HLT posits that human behavior is the product of countless numbers of learning experiences made available by both planned and unplanned

situations…the learning outcomes include skills, interests, knowledge, beliefs, preferences, sensitivities, emotions, and future actions." (Krumboltz, 2009, p. 135). Krumbolz' (2009) theory is important for this project in innovation because the tenets of HLT and how career development occurs are similar to what underpins innovation. Each possesses qualities of uncertainty, complexity, change, requisite adaptation, changing circumstances, and highlights the importance of risk-taking.

In examining the intersection of innovation and career development theory, we noted several similarities. There exists individual choice of occupation as comprised of and informed by an individual's unique worldview, the influence of the environment, an individual's decision to remain in a vocation in spite of challenges, and the emergent phenomena that inform innovation and career development in non-linear, unpredictable ways. These intersections proved very important to us as we designed and planned to implement the Studio. Staff had unique needs and expectations that necessitated particular feedback mechanisms, content expertise, delivery of the program's material, and specific programmatic outcomes.

With a clearer understanding of the central issues regarding professional development generically identified by staff populations as reported in the literature we set out to benchmark the current state of our college and our own staff population regarding innovation.

We began with an online survey using Survey Monkey. All college staff were contacted by email and provided with an explanation of the purpose and goal of the survey. Participation in the survey was optional and anonymous. The survey solicited staff in-put regarding comfort with current knowledge of innovation, openness to learning more about innovation, interest in being involved in innovation at the college, and whether staff thought learning more about innovation in an educational context would be useful in their work setting. Twenty-six staff chose to participate, a 30% response rate (0.302). Results of initial online survey are summarized in Table 1.

Looking closely at the results of the survey, we discovered a discrepancy between the comfort and openness staff felt toward innovation at our college and staff's willingness to participate in the organizational intervention, Innovation Studio 101, as initially outlined. In keeping with our commitment to "walk the talk" we determined we needed more input from staff – the end users – to inform modification of the Innovation Studio 101 in order to meet staff's needs and expectations. We recommended to the dean we conduct focus groups for the staff focusing on their thoughts and perceptions of innovation at the college. The dean requested we present our findings to her advisory council, of which Dr. Krahe was a member. Multiple presentations over several months were needed to address faculty's concern about allocation of resources and time dedicated to staff participation in the Studio.

Table 1 - *Results: Initial Online Survey*

	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
I am comfortable with my current knowledge of innovation principles and how they apply to my work and me.	28%	43%	24%	5%
	71%		29%	
I am open to new knowledge of innovation principles and how they apply to my work and me.	76%	19%	5%	0%
	95%		5%	
I am interested in becoming involved in implementing innovation at the college.	38%	52%	10%	0%
	90%		10%	
The proposed program would be useful to my work setting and responsibilities.	29%	62%	9%	0%
	91%		9%	
I am willing to devote 10-15 hours of personal time per week (for 7 ½ weeks) to complete an educational component.	10%	30%	40%	20%
	40%		60%	

Following expedited Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval, we then began our focus groups. We sent an email invitation to all members of the college's staff to attend a one-hour lunchtime focus group with lunch provided. Completing the initial online survey on Survey Monkey discussed above was not a prerequisite to participate in the focus groups. After two reminder emails were sent, sign-ups for the focus groups remained very sparse. We decided to personally invite individuals with whom we had connections. According to Bentevegna (2013), our tapping into informal connections to respond to changing circumstances was part of the innovation process; we were living out the very process we were trying to instill within the college. Reaching out to colleagues resulted in 14 staff committing to participate, a 16% participation rate (0.162).

We hosted three focus groups, and recorded them using audio equipment. We then transcribed them and identified recurring themes, as described below. The feedback from the focus groups was both positive and negative, which we believe demonstrates that participants truly felt they were in a safe environment and that we had authentic data with which to work.

Focus groups were offered over the course of three different days during a one-week period and participants self-selected into one of the three days. Focus group #1 included six participants, group #2, five participants, and group #3, three participants. The same format and script were utilized for each focus group session. (See Figure 1.)

Figure 1 - *Focus Group Script*

- Intro, safe environment statement
- Questions to explore: - 2min
    - Rate on scale of 1-10: Right now- how do you feel about being involved in innovation at the colleges
        - Write numbers on post-its
        - Keep to self
    - Word association – what do you think of when you hear the word "innovation"? – 20 min
        - Use post-it notes – each person writes down the words – one per note
        - Post to (+) (-)
        - Identify themes
        - Ask for further discussion
    - What do you see as the barriers or challenges to success of the program? – 10 min
    - What do you see as greatest opportunities related to the program? – 10 min
    - Rate on scale of 1-10, Right now- how do you feel about being involved in innovation at the colleges – 20 min
        - Write numbers on post-its
        - Ask for discussion of comparison between earlier and later
- Announce follow up email to express interest in participating in the pilot.
- Next steps – Follow up with email

During the face-to-face focus groups, staff expressed themselves with precision, clearly articulating their feelings about and understanding of innovation. What struck us most was the similarity of thoughts and concerns across the three diverse self-selected focus groups; often using the same words to describe situations. See Table 2 for delineation of the word association exercise by group.

Table 2 - *Focus Group Responses: Word Association*

Group 1	Group 2	Group 3
new	work	comparative
efficient	more work	slow
change	scary	keeping up with the Joneses
technology	buzz word	pockets or silos
MHI	new	public relations
creative improvement	ideas	new ideas
thinking outside the box	new ideas	transformation
change	team	change
growth	exciting	undefined
	forward-thinking	change agent
	experimental	continuous improvement
	thought provoking	potentially motivating
	solutions	
	change	

As we explored the staff's experiences with innovation at the college several themes emerged. Staff expressed feelings of frustration, being "left-out of the process", concern their ideas "would not be received well", and thinking, "I'm not that [an innovator]". Below are some quotes made during general discussion in the focus group sessions that demonstrate these themes.

"Oftentimes the idea thinkers…people that come up with ideas, don't truly have a clue what the worker bees have to do… maybe their [staff] plates are already full…not really looking at how it's going to impact them [staff]…and usually what happens is—I [idea thinkers] won't ask them [staff] either and I won't say, "We're thinking of doing this and that, do you think you could be behind that?" Focus group 2, participant #3

"And so it bothers me a little that we're [staff] so left-out of the process. When that's what they (nurses) strived for a hundred or more years, to be heard…" Focus group 3, participant #1

"I think there was a time when some of us [staff] have worked in experiences where we were…coming to the table with things that we could see would be a challenge, that's not to say we were saying don't do it, we weren't nay-sayers—but that's our job—to let you [supervisor] know that I see this as a potential hiccup because I want this to be successful…I don't think that's a respected quality at times. Focus group 2, participant #1

"I think too that innovation has proven at times to be frustrating because we don't see it come to a closure… we've seen a "dream," and then we're part of the "discover" but where's the "deliver?" [a reference to our

college's motto]. How many things that have been innovative ideas can we add to the list of "done?" I think it's hard to feel proud about that." Focus group 2, participant #1

"I've been fortunate that I've worked with people who are somewhat steeped in innovation and always were so I think that's helped me, but…if I were to take a step further to learn how to be an innovative employee and if I were going to design an innovative idea that I could introduce to the college I would want to know that it would be received well and I am not sure that it would be received well." … "no matter how fabulous your idea was´… "because I'm a staff person." Focus group 1, participants #4, #1, and #2

"When they [staff] hear the word innovation, a lot of us think, 'Oh-my-gosh they're going to change things again and make it even harder for me to do what I need to do.' I like the word innovation, I like the change, I think that a lot of the things the college does are wonderful, as staff who service faculty who have been here forever, they don't like change, they don't like innovation, [laughter] they want everything to be exactly the same and so you spend a lot of time working around them to make the innovation happen. Which adds a burden to the staff." Focus group 1, participant #1

"We throw that label [innovation] around so much that the word-- it has no meaning, and we also put them [innovators] on pedestals. We throw those names up there—[Steve] Jobs and [Henry] Ford—and we think, "wow I'm not that." Focus group 3, participant #2

"When I first got the email to distribute to the college's staff list serve, I thought—"oh, cool" and I didn't even think it was directed to me." Focus group 3, participant #1

It became obvious to us that staff were thinking deeply about the innovation process and how it is carried out at the college. They were talking about innovation amongst themselves, were both frustrated and excited by it, and articulated their passion and concerns. Staff appeared to care greatly about the college and student success and wanted to contribute with high quality, efficient, and effective work. They envisioned and desired a different infrastructure and work culture, and recognized that innovation must be part of it.

The themes identified through the focus group discussions included a *collective desire for creation of a culture of mutual respect and collaboration amongst staff and faculty*, *recognition that everyone contributes to the goals of the college*, and *a clearer definition of innovation*. Staff requested more communication about where the college was headed and where innovation fit into the college goals and mission.

When asked specifically about the utility of the Studio course, "What do you see as the greatest opportunities related to participating in a pilot of the Studio program," staff looked forward to an environment that enabled: staff input, workload discussions, professional development opportunities, and ownership of innovative projects.

Following our analysis of the focus groups' transcripts, we met with the dean to dialogue about our findings. Participant anonymity was retained. Specific suggestions we presented to the dean included:

1. Address staff/faculty relationship power differential.
2. Provide and maintain a readily-available, dynamic organizational chart.
3. Acknowledge and utilize staff interest and desire to be part of the college's innovative process.
4. "Brag about us!"

Following our meeting, several sweeping changes took place across the college, and other focus groups have been hosted by the dean's office for staff and faculty. Our exploration had a positive effect on the larger culture of the college that we had not anticipated. Again, we noted that we were living what we had set out to facilitate at the college: that innovation rippled throughout the college and positive things arose where we least expected. During the survey and focus group process, there was informal dialogue across staff and faculty populations at the college about our project. Participant anonymity had been maintained throughout, but these populations were aware of a very general outline of the project.

A small contingent of early adopters approached us, indicating they were interested in participating in the Studio course, regardless of what the program would ultimately look like based on our emerging findings. We also identified champions and contacted them individually. After we completed the benchmarking and focus group processes, and populated the pilot program with our early adopters and champions, we began to design the curriculum. The curriculum was directly informed by our lessons learned up until this point. Our lessons learned are outlined below.

Lessons Learned

We have found this process of identifying resources, benchmarking, and designing the Studio course both challenging and fascinating. Flexibility, humility, and staying balanced personally and professionally were key for us. We also purposefully created a safe environment to discuss our frustrations about the project with one another.

Being students of innovation and collaboration ourselves, we began the project by crafting a team charter. The charter laid our expectations for our work together and our rules of engagement. We specified everything from what we each uniquely brought to the project, what our deliverables were, what our schedule would look like, and what we would do if one or both of us was not contributing. The team charter conversation is never an easy one, but we found that being able to rely on a strong and clear document bettered our work together. We suggest a charter to anyone working in collaboration with one another. Regarding actual lessons learned, we've outline two below that we believe will be helpful to others embarking on a journey similar to ours.

First, we were unprepared for the level of resistance we encountered to our proposed organizational intervention to educate staff in innovation competencies at our college. Several significant concerns were raised by faculty and administrators: doubts regarding staff capability to comprehend content, concerns about the total hours of effort to complete the Studio, cost of materials and textbooks, and faculty supervisors' unwillingness to allow staff work-time hours to attend educational sessions.

We agreed to present our project and seek feedback at many different venues and diverse populations throughout the college to make modifications in a collaborative, collegial way in relationship with faculty and

administration. This approach enabled us to successfully clarify our plan, refine our focus, and garner support..

Second, we assumed at the outset of the project that the Studio course we were designing was somewhat static. We had identified an existing foundational course from the Master of Healthcare Innovation program to offer in its entirety as the Studio course to staff. This course was a for-credit, three-credit graduate-level course, equaling 135 hours of class time.

After our benchmarking, focus groups and input from the dean's advisory council, we realized the course we had identified was not well suited to the staff population in terms of its for-credit format, extensive hours of work effort, and advanced level of academic content. In sharing their needs with us, staff provided us with a blueprint for the Studio that was somewhat different from what we had anticipated, and we altered the Studio's time requirement, its content, and its presentation format accordingly. Several versions were presented to administration, faculty, and staff with on-going dialogue, iteration, and clarification, not unlike the innovation process as taught in the Studio course itself.

And one final note about insight gained: Paramount in the program development process was our unwavering commitment to two key doctrines presented by Porter-O'Grady & Malloch (2015): "Effective change moves from the center of a system to all other parts, influencing everything else in the system. Successful and sustainable change is rarely ever driven from the top of any system." (p. 79) and "…movement toward the goal is not along a straight line. Backward or horizontal steps are occasionally required to refresh or expand the process." (p. 490). The way in which the proposed Studio course was generated and continues to be iterated has actually been a real world example of the innovation process that the project intends to help staff master.

As described above, the feedback loops that arose from our work with staff and college administration informed the design of the curriculum for the Studio, laid out below.

Curriculum Design

During the curriculum design process we responded to input and feedback from our respective and shared environments and the shifting priorities and emergent questions posed by faculty and staff to achieve a better understanding of innovation at the college. The Studio course presented in this article is an outgrowth of a number of factors that influenced the way in which we envisioned our contribution to the college's mission as well as that of the larger university.

The Studio in its current iteration is a non-credit professional development course to teach competency in innovation that is focused on providing education and real life applications in innovation for staff. It is offered in a hybrid education format; containing face-to-face and online components. Continuing education contact hours for each session and assignment were calculated by ACE utilizing the Mergener Formula (1991) totaling 38.09 hours. The Studio is divided into nine sessions and spans approximately four months.

The content in the curriculum was determined to be salient based on benchmarking surveys and focus groups conducted with the college's staff, literature reviews examining scholarship in leadership and innovation, and analysis of current research occurring in the HCI programs under Dr. Krahe's direction. Ms. Fitzgerald and the ACE team leveled the curricular content appropriately for the diverse staff population.

The curriculum begins with a session on preparation for innovation, to orient learners to the new content. Content presented over the subsequent sessions includes an exploration of participants' ethics; measures of personal integrity, emotional competence, and vulnerability; strategies for managing conflict and developing innovation leadership behaviors; and a section entirely devoted to caring for self-as-leader.

The final project is a detailed plan of action to address an issue in the participant's immediate work environment, identified and chosen by the participant in collaboration with his or her supervisor. The identification process takes place in session seven, wherein a template worksheet is provided to participants and supervisors and in-class discussion is facilitated by an expert in project management. Strategies to effect change in the environment are to be explored by the participant with feedback and support from his or her supervisor over the course of the group work session, which lasts approximately one month. The project is presented for feedback from the group in session eight. Peer review, instructor input, and time for the participants to work with his or her supervisor and other team members as identified is incorporated.

Evidence of the first steps of implementation of a solution is required during session nine, when project outcomes are presented. The college's administrative leadership will be invited to attend the final presentations.

The curriculum overview is presented in Table 3.

The Studio's pilot group is comprised of five teams of two staff members and one supervisor, for a total of ten staff members and five supervisors. The pilot was populated in two ways: first, through staff interest generated at the unit level and second, by supervisors directly contacting the authors with names of staff they encouraged to participate. The Studio curriculum is the result of innumerable interactions, questions, answers, feedback loops, perspectives, paradigms, and *ah-ha* moments. Throughout the process, we have been very mindful of where we are on our path that began with the emergence of the Studio idea, to our goal: changing the culture of the college to one that supports innovation. Keeping in mind the complexity, and the way it twisted and turned as we brought the Studio to life, we have outlined our path below., and the way it twisted and turned as we brought the Studio to life, we have outlined our path below.

Table 3 - *Curriculum Overview*

Session	Duration	Content	Contact Hours
1	1 week	Preparation for Innovation	4.47
2	1 week	Complexity	5.43
		Ethics and Integrity	
3	1 week	Emotional Competence	4.98
4	1 week	Change	3.73
		Crisis Management	
		Toxic Behavior	
5	1 week	Conflict	5.68
		Innovation	
		Transformational Leadership	
6	1 week	Innovation Leadership	3.50
		Risk Taking	
		Vulnerability	
7	1 week	Caring for Yourself	4.30
Group Work	1 month	Identifying a Project	n/a
8	1 week	Project Plan Presentation	3.00
9	2 days of presentations	Project Outcomes Presentations	3.00
		Total Contact Hours:	**38.09**

Inception to Implementation: Our Path

As mentioned at the outset of this article, we have been purposefully cognizant of our process of bringing Innovation Studio 101 to life in order to provide our process as a template for others focused on career development in particular staff populations. The flow chart that outlines our process and its feedback loops is below, with an explanation of our path. The process flow chart (depicted in Figure 2) reads from the upper left corner down to the lower right corner. Each section below details each step of our process.

Worldviews: We began this project steeped in our own worldviews and perspectives, as well as our own discipline-specific knowledge. Although we were both working in innovation within our respective programs, we each thought about it slightly differently, and envisioned its operationalization in different ways. Like members of any team coming together, there were places where our worldviews and knowledge intersected,

and places where it did not. At this earliest stage, it was important for us to set ground rules about our engagement with one another, create a project timeline and expectations for getting the project off the ground and research written up, and how we would address conflicting opinions. We found a team charter to be especially helpful to aid us in outlining how we would go forward together to bring the project to life.

Collaboration: The first large, filled gradient circle signifies our first step. The purple color fading to blue is meant to reflect the melding together of our separate worldviews/ perspectives and discipline specific knowledge in order to answer the questions posed to us by the college's leadership. We generated new ideas as we collaborated, signified by the blue color at the base of the first circle that fades from the purple. Moving down through the chart, notice that the colors often blend into one another. This is intentional, to signify that the process was fluid and what look like separate steps often blurred into one another.

Creation of survey; benchmarking: The new ideas we generated then informed the creation of our survey and the benchmarking process, shown in the second full circle that fades from blue (designating the ideas that emerged from our collaboration in the previous step) to green (the survey execution itself).

Green vertical arrows: The green vertical arrows that run the length of the left side of the model are meant to signify the feedback loops that occurred throughout our execution of the project. The color green is meant to symbolize the generative quality of our process--living and growing as the project moved forward. Faculty, staff, ourselves, our literature reviews, and other variables helped us to continue to iterate the project in response to our environment, creating what could best be described as an almost living process that took shape on its own. This generative mechanism is in keeping with the literature on innovation, which asserts that those processes should be un-structured enough to respond to their environments but structured enough to be effective, and communication should flow freely.

Focus group process: We designed from scratch and then executed the focus group process, which was informed by our collaboration with each other and those around us. In addition, the focus group process and the rules, scripting, and data collection methods we followed, were shaped by our university's institutional review board (IRB) as well as the fact that we had a tentative plan to eventually publish our process and our findings.

Curriculum design: With data in hand and engaged in feedback loops with teams of faculty, staff, and administration dialoguing with us about the Studio, we began the curriculum design. The curriculum design work was done in close collaboration with our university's Office of Graduate Education (the Studio is leveled at a graduate level) and the Online Education component of our university (the Studio course is offered online.) Simultaneously, we identified our champions. The cohort chosen to pilot the Studio project was populated by individuals who self-selected into the project and others who were identified by their supervisors as being good candidates to participate.

Figure 2 - *Process Flow Chart*

The Path

Discipline specific knowledge

Worldview and perspective

Collaboration to answer the questions

Creation of survey; benchmarking

IRB

Focus Group Process

Publication

Graduate College

Identification of champions

Curriculum Design

Online Education

Measurement

Feedback loops with faculty and staff

Developing additional modules

Next Steps
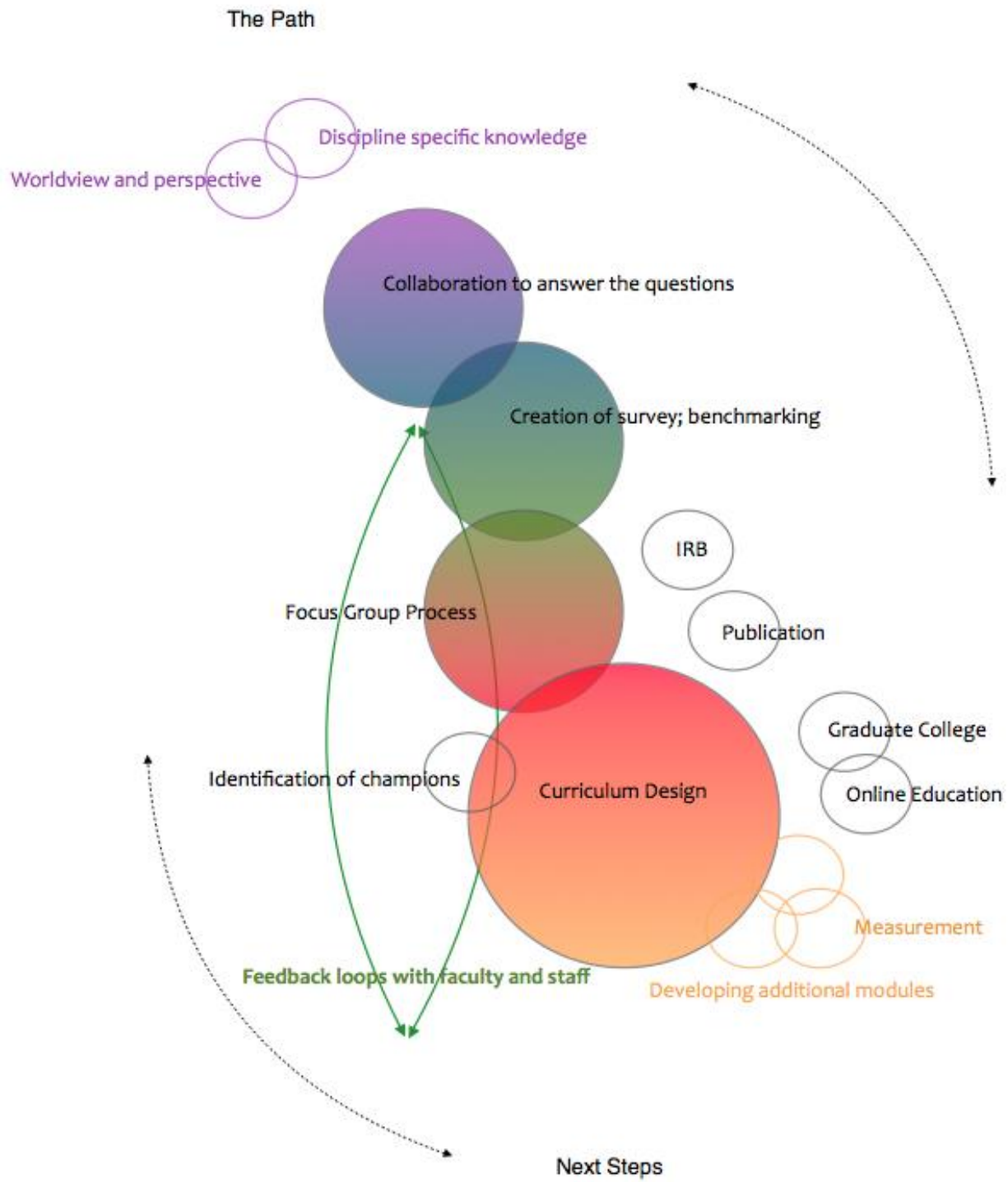
Reaching the bottom of the model, we see the process is far from over. Piloting the project, measuring the outcomes and the impact of the resulting projects as well as participant satisfaction, and creating new modules are tasks that run corollary to our curriculum design work. The way the pilot goes, what we understand regarding outcomes, and participant feedback as to the experience itself will all inform our next steps.

Next Steps

The preparations for the pilot of the Studio program have begun. We are requesting funding for textbooks from the college and are determining our faculty needs to teach the course. We have begun collaborating with experts in qualitative and quantitative measurement at the college, with the intent to record staff and supervisors' experience in the program. The measurement team anticipates there will be three periods of qualitative and quantitative measurement: a focus group hosted by the two experts at the outset, a mid-way email survey assessment, and at the 7th week of the program, following the completion of the project proposal, another focus group prior to teams beginning to execute their plan. We have also discussed longitudinal studies three and six months following teams' implementation of their interventions.

Conclusion

As mentioned at the outset of this article, a great shift is occurring regarding how leadership is understood. No longer an influence that begins at the top of an organization or system and makes its way downward, we are witnessing the unique efficacy of individuals who can harness this influence at all corners of a system or organization and "lead from anywhere." These individuals are prepared to influence those around them no matter where they are situated within their team or organization, and to be innovative, collaborative, and courageous within these spaces and groups. Leading from anywhere, as mentioned above, can be accomplished within an immediate, specific system or process or a larger transformation that reverberates throughout an organization.

As we've learned throughout our process of designing the Innovation Studio 101 course, "leading from anywhere" competencies can be taught. These competencies generally rest within the business and management literature. In the Innovation Studio 101, these have been translated to our academic environment in order to address the issues we, the authors, identified within our college when asked to weave innovation into our college's culture.

The staff population at our college has championed the project, and they are taking the lead in aligning our current culture with the larger codified expectations at the university level in terms of leadership and innovation. We believe that staff's passion and participation in the Studio project is a perfect example of "leading from anywhere" in action, and has resulted in an educational experience that can be implemented and translated in many different environments, to challenge the status quo wherever needed.

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LESSONS IN UNIVERSITY LEADERSHIP: REPORTS FROM RELIGIOUS AND SECULAR UNIVERSITY PRESIDENTS

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Higher education is fundamental to the overall success of our nation, through the production and dissemination of knowledge, and the engagement of colleges and universities in addressing societal needs. Colleges and universities in the United States perform an essential role in serving the greater good by educating students and by furthering the advancement of important research and development (Lagemann & Lewis, 2011). Today, U.S. colleges and universities face significant challenges in the areas of economics, demographics, and global competition, which underscores the importance of effective leadership in higher education.

Colleges and universities play an essential role in contributing to the public good by educating students and by advancing the institutional aspirations of government agencies, industry, foundations, and other sectors of society through their policies and best practices (Kezar, Carducci, & Contreras-McGavin, 2006).

Given the significant and progressive challenges facing U.S. higher education, colleges and universities urgently require senior leaders who are effective in defining and communicating a vision for their institutions, setting clear examples in terms of values and ethical behavior, enabling others to make meaningful contributions, and effecting innovation and transformative change (Kouzes & Posner, 2008). By better understanding the role that institutional culture, mission, and values play in developing and supporting effective leadership, institutions and their senior leaders may benefit in refining and enhancing their leadership practices.

Senior leaders in higher education are charged with effecting positive organizational change by developing a vision and strategy for the future of the institution, communicating that vision and then motivating, and inspiring the institution's employees to attaining the vision (Yukl, 2009). Mead-Fox (2009)

found that colleges and universities require senior leaders who provide clear vision, imbue a sense of collaboration and trust, motivate and encourage others to act, achieve that which sometimes seems unreachable, and are adept at introducing an entrepreneurial spirit and effecting needed change. Mead-Fox also noted that executive leadership is perhaps the single most essential competency needed to move colleges and universities forward.

The Study

The purpose of this study was to measure and analyze the senior leadership practices at private/secular and private/religious affiliated colleges and universities to identify differences in leadership practices as they relate to the personal and institutional demographics of the respondents to improve organizational effectiveness. The study focused on five predictive variables of exemplary leadership according to Kouzes and Posner's (2008) research: Model the Way; Inspire a Shared Vision; Challenge the Process; Enable Others to Act; and Encourage the Heart, and the personal and institutional demographics of the respondents to identify any significant relationships between the variables.

The following research questions were examined in this study as a means for assessing leadership effectiveness:

1. What are the differences in demographic (i.e., gender, age), experiential (i.e., position, experience, career path), and type of institutional affiliation on leadership practices?

2. What are the differences in private/secular versus private/religious affiliated respondents on leadership practices?

3. What is the relationship between leadership practices, as outlined by Kouzes and Posner, and the job satisfaction, job efficacy, and commitment to institutional mission and values of the respondents?

These research questions were addressed through an analysis of the quantitative data derived from responses to a survey that provided a measure for the differences in leadership practices based upon the individual respondent's personal and professional background and type of higher educational institution.

The target population for this study was the presidents of 100 private/secular and 100 private/religious affiliated colleges and universities. The institutional targets were equally divided based upon affiliation. All of the colleges and universities were four-year private institutions with 1,000+ student enrollments. The private/religious affiliated institutions were identified from the 2013 Association of Catholic College and Universities Directory (Association of Catholic Colleges & Universities, 2013) and the private/secular counterpart institutions from the 2013 National Association of Independent Colleges and Universities Directory (National Association of Independent Colleges & Universities, 2013).

Findings

Of the 200 presidents who received invitations to participate in the study, 103 (51.5%) responded. Of the respondents, 35% came from secular institutions, while 65% were affiliated with religious institutions. This disparity may be due to a higher level of interest in the role of university religious affiliation on leadership issues among the religiously affiliated institutions. An analysis of those responses resulted in the following demographic profile of these university leaders.

The majority of the respondents were male (67%). A significant majority (88.3%) were 50 years of age or older, which is not surprising given the fact that the study focused on the most-senior position within the higher education industry and one that understandably requires significant preparatory experience. It is important to note that none of the respondents was under the age of 40. Breaking down that age 50+ majority (88.3%) a bit further, while 41.7% of the respondents were between the ages of 50 to 59, 46.6% were 60 years of age or older. In support of this finding, according to a recent survey, six in ten university presidents are age 61 or older, a proportion that has increased in recent years (American Council on Education, 2013).

Years employed at the respondents' current institution were roughly evenly distributed, with 29.1% reporting that they had been with their current institutions 1–4 years, 28.2%, 5–9 years, and 22.3%, 10–14

Table 1 - *Demographic Profile of Respondents (n = 103)*

Variable	n	%
Gender		
Male	69	67.0
Female	34	33.0
Total	103	100.0
Age		
20-29	0	0.0
30-39	0	0.0
40-49	12	11.7
50-59	43	41.7
60+	48	46.6

years. On a combined basis of 1–15 years employed at their current institutions, 79.6% of the presidents reported that they had been employed at their current institutions fewer than 15 years, while only 12.6% of the respondents reported that they have been at their institutions at least 20 years.

Years in the position showed that 67% of the respondents had been president or chancellor for fewer than 10 years. When correlated to the number of years that the respondents had been with their current institutions (57.3% were employed at their current college or university fewer than 10 years), the findings

Table 2 - *Experience of Respondents (n = 103)*

Variable	n	%
Current Position		
President	102	99.0
Chancellor	1	1.0
Years at Institution		
1–4	30	29.1
5–9	29	28.2
10–14	23	22.3
15–19	8	7.8
20+	13	12.6
Years at Current Position		
1–4	37	35.9
5–9	32	31.1
10–14	16	15.5
15–19	11	10.7
20+	7	6.8

can be understood to mean that the turnover rate for university presidents is somewhere fewer than 10 years. This interpretation is in keeping with recent studies that indicate that the average university president serves just seven years (Selingo, 2013).

Most (63.1%) of the respondents followed an academic route to the top position, either thorough academic administration (45.6%) or through the faculty (17.5%). Other career paths such as Advancement, Finance & Administration and Student Affairs were represented, but each reflected less than 10% of the total responses. This finding is in keeping with that of recent studies that indicate that nearly one-third of university presidents have never been faculty members, 20% come from outside academia, and provosts are increasingly stating that they do not wish to be presidents (Selingo, 2013). Given these trends, search committees may have little choice but to consider presidential candidates from non-traditional backgrounds.

Table 3 - *Career Path and Institutional Affiliation of Respondents*

Variable	n	%
Career Path		
Academic Affairs	47	45.6
Advancement	8	7.8
Faculty	18	17.5
Finance	7	6.8
Student Affairs	8	7.8
Other	15	14.6
Institutional Affiliation		
Secular	36	35.0
Religious	67	65.0

In general, the respondents felt that they were effective leaders, based on the five practices of exemplary leadership incorporated within the Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 2008). That Model the Way was the highest rated practice, suggests that the respondents saw their role as leaders to establish overarching principles to guide their organizations as to how people should be treated; to develop and communicate goals for their organizations and for how those goals should be addressed; and to set and live standards of performance and behavior that encourage others to follow them (Kouzes & Posner, 2008).

The next highest rated leadership practice was Inspire a Shared Vision, which suggests that the respondents saw themselves as leaders who are focused on and believe in the possibilities of the future. These leaders motivate their followers by appealing to their values, interests, hopes, and dreams (Kouzes & Posner, 2008). When this practice is combined with the highest rated practice, Model the Way, these leaders are effective through the establishment of strong interpersonal relationships and an ongoing exchange based upon an understanding of the needs and interests of others (Searle & Hanrahan, 2011). The third highest rated leadership practice, Encourage the Heart, ties into this concept of personal engagement in that it is centered on leaders who imbue a sense and spirit of community to their followers and to their organization (Kouzes & Posner, 2003).

Table 4 - *Rankings by Mean Scores for the Predictive Variables*

Rank	Leadership Practice	M	SD	α	k
1	Model the Way	8.54	1.37	.83	6
2	Inspire a Shared Vision	8.46	1.62	.93	6
3	Encourage the Heart	8.41	1.55	.93	6
4	Challenge the Process	8.25	1.62	.88	6
5	Enable Others to Act	7.19	1.20	.90	6

Note. k = Number of questions.

The means of three of the five leadership practices (Inspire a Shared Vision, Enable Others to Act, and Encourage the Heart) were higher for the female respondents, while the means of two of the leadership practices (Model the Way and Challenge the Process) were higher for the male respondents. Loosely following general male-female stereotypes, the leadership practices rated higher by the female presidents share a motivational, supportive, inspirational theme, while the leadership practices rated higher by the male presidents share more action-oriented, change management themes (Kariuki, 2008).

The respondents reported high levels of job satisfaction and efficacy in how they felt that they were carrying out the responsibilities of their positions. Job satisfaction and efficacy were highly correlated as was the number of years the respondents had spent in their current positions, which indicates that experience breeds satisfaction and effectiveness. Finally, the respondents reported a positive relationship between their personal values and beliefs as well as a commitment to the mission and values of their institutions. This finding suggests that the personal faith and values of individuals may predispose a constructive relationship to

Table 5 - *Results of t Tests: Leadership Practices by Gender*

Leadership Practice	Male (*n* = 69)		Female (*n* = 34)		*t*	*p*	*df*
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*			
Model the Way	8.58	.99	8.47	1.09	.49	.63	101
Inspire a Shared Vision	8.46	1.33	8.48	1.53	-.07	.95	101
Challenge the Process	8.30	1.12	8.16	1.55	.54	.59	101
Enable Others to Act	8.54	1.29	8.75	0.95	-.80	.42	101
Encourage the Heart	8.34	1.41	8.55	1.16	-.75	.46	101

organizational mission and values, and/or that certain institution's missions and values may have a consonant relationship to encouraging a greater sense of personal faith and values.

Table 6 - *Results of t Tests: Job Outlook by Institutional Religious Affiliation*

Job Outlook	Secular (*n* = 36)		Religious (*n* = 67)		*t*	*p*	*df*
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*			
Job Efficacy	4.31	.79	4.28	.78	0.14	.89	101
Job Satisfaction	4.36	.80	4.49	.70	-0.86	.39	101
Commitment to Mission & Values*	4.56	.74	4.84	.48	-2.07	.04	51

Note. *Variances were statistically significant based on Levene's test for equality of variances.

Implications

The study found that while institutional affiliation had little bearing on the specific leadership practices, sense of job satisfaction and efficacy of the respondents, those respondents from religious institutions reported a higher commitment to institutional mission and values. Experience as president was highly correlated to job satisfaction and effectiveness, which suggests that time in the job matters. Additionally, gender differences were found for specific leadership practices.

Some demographics appear to relate the assessed leadership practices and job outlook-related measures. Tenure as president was highly correlated to job satisfaction and effectiveness, suggesting that time in the job matters. The implication to university presidents and their boards of trustees may be that patience and experience pays off in the long run or at least once the individual settles into the position. Female presidents rated themselves higher than did their male counterparts in motivational, supportive, inspirational-focused practices, while the leadership practices rated higher by the male presidents shared more action-oriented, change management themes. Depending on the specific issues facing an institution, the implication may be that gender-related leadership strengths may influence the style and impact of the selected leader.

Years in the position as president had a significant effect on job satisfaction and job efficacy; gender was found to have some bearing on specific leadership practices, with female presidents excelling at motivational and supportive practices, while male presidents were more action/change oriented. Finally, that faith and personal values had a positive and strong correlation to presidential commitment to institutional mission and values. This suggests that the personal faith and values of individuals may predispose a constructive relationship to organizational mission and values, and/or that certain institution's mission and values may have a consonant relationship to encouraging a greater sense of personal faith and values.

Conclusion

U.S. higher education has entered a period of questions about and challenges to what have historically been the very tenets of the purpose of pursuing higher education. Is pursuing a higher education degree achievable, affordable and a good return on investment? Will the attainment of a degree be perceived positively by the employment marketplace? Is the institution being considered for one's education viable, sustainable and well led? These very conditions underscore the critical need for exemplary senior educational leaders who can ensure positive student outcomes, guide the investment of resources that will serve to enhance and protect the viability of the institution, and provide the necessary leadership to succeed in an ever increasing competitive and global environment. It is hoped that conclusions drawn from this study will provide institutions and individuals with empirical data as to effective leadership behaviors and practices and ways that they can improve their personal and organizational effectiveness.

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LEADERSHIP CHALLENGES: PERCEPTIONS OF EFFECTIVENESS OF DEANS AND CHAIRS

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Why would anyone want to become a department chair or college dean? This is a question asked by many members of the academy. With rare exception, we enter academic life with a focus on teaching and research. We become experts in our respective fields. Few of us are trained to manage people and fewer still in the management of unit budgets. The role of an academic administrator is complex, demanding, and often far removed from the draw and intrinsic reinforcement of one's chosen disciplinary activity. No doubt such uncomfortable transitions also occur outside academe. While this report centers on results from a national survey of administrators in U.S. research universities, parallels may be drawn with leadership within a range of for-profit and non-profit industries. How prepared are university leaders and how are they seen by subordinates? This study contributes some answers, but perhaps more importantly raises further questions for future research.

A possible distinction between academia and private sector business is in awareness of the cost of poor management. Private sector industries are more likely to track return on investment and note the cost of failed leadership on the bottom line. In general there is a tendency among academics to eschew matters of finance, but we should not be mistaken—the higher education enterprise is big business. The cost of poor leadership can have profound effects on faculty, staff, and student recruitment and retention. Success in the management and development of entrepreneurial revenue streams is becoming increasingly important in academia and can directly affect quality of life within an academic unit (Garrett & Poock, 2011). Skills in communication and conflict management have direct bearing on perceptions of transparency and equity. Clarity of direction and persistence in follow up play key roles in sustaining results. These are a few of the areas in which leadership matters.

In academia as in the corporate world, individuals typically are promoted to positions of leadership following success in a more front line role. While elements of leadership skills cut across a range of activities, being a highly awarded researcher or classroom teacher does not necessarily make for a successful dean. Scant empirical information is available on the development of academic leaders. Anecdotal reports and available survey data suggest little if any systematic preparation and cultivation of future department chairs (Carrol & Wolverton, 2004; Gmelch & Miskin, 2011; Halonen, 2013; Hecht, 2004; Wolverton, Ackerman, & Holt, 2005).

This study is part of a larger longitudinal investigation with an ultimate goal of fostering the development of improved procedures to prepare subsequent administrators to serve more effectively and to experience higher levels of job satisfaction. A descriptive baseline was our first step. The primary objectives of this phase were to determine to what extent academic leaders employed various strategies to develop or improve their administrative (and leadership) skills, in which aspects of leadership they felt least skilled, whether department chairs and college deans differed in leadership development strategies or self-rated leadership skill, and how deans were rated on leadership by the department chairs in their college. Additionally we sought to examine the congruence between self- and other-ratings.

Method

Participants. Participants were 963 department chairs (mean age 54.49; 4.57 years in current position) and 128 college deans (mean age 57.20; 4.70 years in current position) surveyed from Carnegie ranked U.S. public research institutions. Men represented 71.9% of chairs and 70.3% of deans. Racial and ethnic composition was 90% European-American, 3.3% Asian, 2.9% Hispanic, 2.2% African-American, .4% American Indian/Alaskan Native, and 1.2% multiracial.

Measures. The survey included 102 items. The first section covered demographics (gender, age, etc.), background questions on administrative positions held (e.g., role, years of service) and strategies used to develop or improve administrative skills (e.g., seminars, consulting services). Subsequent sections addressed the following primary variables:

Leadership skills. Participants provided self-ratings for 15 specific behavioral categories (e.g., setting clear expectations, providing helpful feedback). These items were drawn from literature review and have been used extensively in a consulting context across a broad range of management and leadership development interventions. Responses were rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale. Higher scores represent greater skill endorsement.

Professional Burnout. The 16-item Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey (MBI-GS; Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 2010) yielded three scale scores: professional efficacy, exhaustion, and cynicism. The MBI has been extensively validated and is the most widely used measure of burnout (Taris, Schreurs, & Schaufeli, 1999).

Chairs' Ratings of Deans' Leadership. Department chairs rated their dean on a parallel version of the 15 leadership skill items on which they had also provided self-ratings. In addition, chairs completed 12 items comprising the Inspirational Motivation, Laissez-Faire, and Management by Exception-Passive scales of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ; Avolio & Bass, 2004). The MLQ is a widely used measure of leadership. Of the three target scales for this investigation, Inspirational Motivation assesses the degree to which the leader expresses enthusiasm and optimism and motivates followers, the Laissez-Faire (LF) and Management by Exception-Passive (MBEP) scales assess more destructive forms of leadership through failing to take necessary action (LF) or avoiding conflict and failing to set expectations and standards (MBEP).

Procedure. Data for this report were drawn from a larger national sample of academic leaders (Morris & Laipple, 2015). Email addresses were obtained from University websites. Potential participants (deans and chairs from Colleges of Arts & Sciences and Colleges of Business) were sent a message describing the study and inviting their voluntary participation through an online survey management tool.

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Results

The proportion of chairs versus deans did not differ significantly by gender or race/ethnicity. Chairs and deans did not differ significantly in mean years in current administrative position (4.35 vs 4.58 years), nor in mean years served in all administrative posts (15.77 vs 15.17). Women (*M* = 53.57) were slightly younger than the men (*M* = 55.32; *F*11.22, *p* < .001). Due to multiple comparisons a more stringent significance value of *p* < .01 was set for all analyses.

Leadership development strategies. Deans were more likely than chairs to have engaged in a variety of strategies to improve their leadership and administrative skills: 83.6% of deans vs 65.15% of chairs (X^2 = 17.54, *p* < .001) engaged in reading about administration and leadership; 59.4% of deans vs 35.9% of chairs attended seminars through professional organizations (X^2 = 26.16, *p* < .001); and 12.5% of deans vs 2.6% of chairs had used paid consultation services (X^2 =30.64, *p* < .001).

Leadership skills. Mean self-ratings for leadership skills are presented in Table 1. MANOVA revealed a main effect for administrative position *F*(15, 1009) = 3.60, *p* = .000, $\eta2$ = .051. Univariate comparisons (see Table 1 for *F* values) showed that ratings were higher for deans than for chairs on setting clear expectations, matching actions and words, addressing poor performance fairly and objectively, being someone others want to follow, being comfortable leading change, and inspiring others. Follow-up tests also revealed higher scores for women than men on being proactive (*M* = 4.40 vs 4.15), *F*(1,1023) = 7.09, *p*<= .001. Apart from differences in magnitude of rating, the overall pattern of lowest versus highest rated skills was similar for chairs and deans. Overall, leaders felt they were most skilled at following through on commitments and least skillful in inspiring others.

Table 1 – *Self-Rated Leadership Skills by Administrative Role*

	Chairs[a]		Deans[b]			
	M	SD	M	SD	F	p
Sets clear expectations	4.09	.70	4.27	.71	8.02	.0005***
Matches actions and words.	4.48	.61	4.62	.54	4.43	.036*
Follows through	4.56	.62	4.60	.57	0.24	.628
Is proactive	4.21	.80	4.32	.71	1.40	.237
Focuses on critical activities	4.20	.75	4.35	.70	3.25	.072
Fair and objective	3.92	.85	4.13	.71	7.83	.005**
Someone others want to follow	3.95	.78	4.28	.66	14.56	.000***
Provides helpful feedback	4.14	.70	4.26	.66	3.54	.060
Comfortable leading change	4.24	.81	4.50	.68	10.42	.001**
Open to feedback	4.41	.71	4.43	.69	0.06	.800
Uses meeting time effectively	4.30	.79	4.22	.81	2.46	.117
Inspires others	3.60	.78	4.07	.76	28.32	.000***
Micromanages	1.90	.89	2.00	.90	1.55	.213
Talks rather than listens	2.28	.90	2.32	.90	1.79	.266
Avoids making decisions	2.04	.90	1.93	.90	2.37	.124

Note. [a]n = 906, [b]n = 121; *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$

Professional Burnout. Ratings of burnout and the extent to which the demands of the administration interfered with wellness and daily living are presented in Table 2. MANOVA for burnout revealed main effects

Table 2 - *Mean Scores for Burnout and Role Interference by Gender and Administrative Position*

	Men (n = 679)	Women (n = 263)	Men (n = 88)	Women (n = 37)
MBI-GS Scale				
Exhaustion [a***, b*]	2.65	2.91	2.05	2.38
Efficacy [a***]	4.15	4.22	4.62	5.06
Cynicism [a***]	2.30	2.28	1.39	1.28

Note. Significant effects: [a]administrative position, [b]gender; *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$

for administrative position $F(3, 947) = 18.27$, $p = .000$, $\eta2 = .055$ and for gender $F(3, 947) = 4.27$, $p = .005$, $\eta2 = .013$. Univariate comparisons for all three scales of the MBI-GS were significant at $p < .001$ for administrative position. Examination of individual MBI-GS revealed that 15.6% of participants reported feeling burnout from their work at least once a week, and 3.9% reporting feeling burned out every day.

Chairs' Ratings of Deans' Leadership. Mean scores for the selected Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) scales (ratings of deans by chairs) were as follows: Inspirational Motivation = 2.55 (*SD* = .95), Passive-Avoidant/Laissez-Faire Leadership = 1.07 (*SD* = .93), and Management by Exception-Passive = 1.48 (*SD* = .82). MLQ scores did not differ by rater gender. Associations among deans' leadership styles as measured by the MLQ and chairs' ratings of their own leadership skill, professional efficacy, exhaustion, and cynicism are

presented in Table 3. All correlations were as expected, with deans' inspirational leadership associated with more positive Chair outcomes (leadership, professional efficacy) and deans' passive leadership styles (laissez-faire and management by exception) associated with less positive Chair outcomes (exhaustion, cynicism).

Table 3 - *Correlations Among Deans' Leadership Styles and Chairs' Leadership Skill and Burnout*

	Leadership	Efficacy	Exhaustion	Cynicism
Deans				
Inspirational	.138**	.218**	-.107**	-.154
Laissez-Faire	-.165**	-.152**	.166**	**.230****
Passive	-.156**	-.103**	.087**	**.171****
Chairs				
Leadership		.411***	-.231***	-.302***
Efficacy			-.184***	.349***
Cynicism				.593***

Note. **$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$

Inclusion of chairs and deans from the same colleges allowed comparison of deans' self-ratings of leadership skills with ratings received from their department chairs (averaged item ratings across participating chairs).   Difference scores were calculated and a new variable termed "realistic self-appraisal" was constructed. High realistic self-appraisal was represented by difference scores in the lowest quartile (i.e., dean's self ratings deviated little from the ratings received from chairs) and low realistic self-appraisal was represented by difference scores in the highest quartile (i.e., dean's self-rating differed greatly from the ratings received from chairs). Deans who were high on realistic self-appraisal were rated more positively by chairs on leadership skills (composite M = 44.18) than deans who were low on realistic appraisal (composite M = 33.98; t = 7.90, $p < .001$).

Similar findings were found for the MLQ scales with high realistic self appraisers rated higher by chairs on Inspirational Motivation (M = 2.93 vs 2.32; t = 3.26, p = .002) and lower on Passive-Aggressive/Laissez-Faire (M = 0.75 vs 1.31; t = 4.02, $p < .001$) and Management by Exception (M = 1.23 vs 1.67; t = 2.56, p = .014) leadership styles. Notably deans categorized as low on realistic self-appraisal rated themselves much higher on leadership skills (composite M = 69.24) than did deans categorized as high on realistic self-appraisal (M = 59.52; t = 6.74, $p < .001$). Realistic self-appraisal did not differ by gender.

Discussion

This study provides descriptive information on a large national sample of deans and chairs of U.S. public research universities and sets the stage for an ongoing longitudinal investigation examining outcomes by individual and organizational factors. The results are limited by the specific context of the population sampled and may not be applicable to all organizational settings. Future studies employing observational and experimental methods are warranted to corroborate data drawn from survey reports. While we contend that

considerable information derived from leadership research in private sector business settings is directly transferable to academic organizations, there may be particular features of academic institutional functioning that merit focus on this population.

Our findings make evident that most academic administrators prepare for the position merely by talking with colleagues or through reading about leadership. More active development strategies may be pursued less frequently due to perceived unavailability, lack of time, or cynicism about potential gain. Our findings suggest that although only a small proportion of administrators use consultation services, such services have the potential for significant impact on leadership behavior and career satisfaction. Higher use of consultation services among deans than chairs likely reflects both greater access to financial resources and cultural orientation toward leadership development. As coaching and consultation opportunities pitched toward academic leaders proliferate, studies investigating return on such investment will be beneficial.

Ratings were higher for deans than for chairs on a number of leadership skills. Why might this be? It is possible that deans developed better skills through trial and error as they advanced through administrative ranks or that less skilled individuals select out of the dean role (or are deselected by others) based on their experiences as department chairs. We hope to shed light on this question in subsequent phases of our longitudinal investigation. With baseline data on a large sample of chairs, we will be able to examine trends in skill ratings over time and how such ratings vary among those who remain chairs, return to the faculty ranks, or advance to higher administrative positions.

Relative to other skills, participants reported they were least skilled at inspiring others. This would seem a key area for leadership development and training. An effective academic leader must inspire large numbers of faculty, staff, students, and potential donors. Yet this may be accomplished in many ways. Not all leaders have to be grand and gregarious actors, but they must instill trust and confidence among their followers. Learning how to solicit and be responsive to feedback is an important step in that process.

Fewer than 20% of deans and chairs felt they were making an effective contribution to their organization every day. This is not acceptable. Further research is necessary to identify causal barriers and facilitate change. We challenge institutional leadership to flip this number. Given the substantial adverse physical and mental health consequences (and accompanying financial cost) of burnout on individuals, their families, and their organizations, upper level administrators would be wise to be attentive to their direct reports and intervene to protect their human capital. Burnout was higher among chairs than deans. Further research is needed to untangle influences. This finding may reflect selection bias where those better able to manage themselves are more likely to pursue (and be selected for) higher levels of administration or it may be that chairs experience relatively lower levels of perceived (or actual) control.

This study included self-ratings and ratings of deans by their department chairs. Deans' leadership skills were associated with chairs' leadership and well-being. Deans who engaged in inspirational motivation had chairs who were higher in leadership skills and professional efficacy. Deans who engaged in passive leadership

styles had chairs with higher levels of exhaustion, cynicism, and role interference. These effects are likely transactional and reflective of institutional cultures; part cause and part selection.

Perhaps most intriguing were our findings related to congruence between dean's self-rated leadership and leadership ratings received from chairs. In a finding consistent with the literature on the Dunning-Kruger effect (Kruger & Dunning, 1997), deans low in realistic self-appraisal rated themselves much higher on leadership skills than deans who saw themselves more consistently with the way they were seen by chairs. Appraisal accuracy may be tied to such constructs as emotional intelligence (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). Emotionally intelligent leaders are purported to be better at detecting cues from others and monitoring and regulating their own emotions accordingly. Emotional intelligence of executives and managers has been found to predict subordinates ratings of leadership effectiveness (Cavallo & Briennza, 2004; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005). More effective leaders are better able to accurately self-appraise strengths and weaknesses and adjust to cues from others (Ostroff, Atwater, & Feinberg, 2004; Yammarino & Atwater, 1997). Brett and Atwater (2001) found that managers who overestimated their skills were more resistant to constructive feedback than managers whose self-perceptions were more in line with those of their supervisees. This is noteworthy as openness to giving and receiving feedback has been identified as a critical component of work cultures that create actively engaged employees (Gallup, 2013). Job satisfaction of subordinates has been found to be higher for those whose supervisors' self-ratings are more in agreement with ratings from others (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014). Accurate self-appraisal, coupled with openness to change in response to feedback, goes a long way in contributing toward a positive work climate.

Formal performance feedback is sparse at upper administrative levels. Typically evaluative feedback is solicited only during the perfunctory 5-year review. This is in contrast to business and industry in which the use of 360-degree, or multi-source, feedback surveys is becoming increasingly routine (Lepsinger & Lucia, 2009). Best in class companies are feedback rich and their leaders become accustomed to receiving ongoing feedback from a range of individuals at higher and lower levels of the organization. We suggest higher education would do well to follow suit. Leaders who strive to have more positive impact would be wise to move from a position of merely providing feedback to others to one of asking for real time feedback from others. Questions of "how can I help" and "how did I help" should become routine not only with matters of business detail but with respect to self-regulation and the process of leadership/management of others (see Laipple, 2012). These should be ongoing conversations not relegated to the perfunctory annual review. We would do well to keep in mind that chairs and deans not only lead business units, but lead and influence people. Focusing only on bottom line results without attending to people—and how people lead and manage others—would be failing to optimize the institution.

We also recommend including specific management items in annual goals documents and tracking performance-related behaviors of the individual leader that move the organization forward, rather than merely listing broad unit goals such as increased external funding or student credit hours. Further research on

the mechanisms and implementation of performance evaluation among academic administrators is warranted.

The cost of failed leadership is high. In industries where there are clear metrics (e.g., annual profit, sales), there is often a quicker response to leaders who fail. A coach of a professional or university athletic team is not long for this world when the team sustains a losing record. In academia the metrics for successful leadership are much less clear. Faculty retention, academic rankings, external funding rates, and donor development all reflect a long game, often taking years to demonstrate results from the particular decisions and actions taken today. What often is lacking is attention to the individual daily steps necessary to reach the grand goals publicized in institutional strategic plans. Higher education is big business. However laudable our educational and service goals, we cannot deny that fact. Effective leadership and management are essential to helping academic organizations create cultures that are large, growing, and profitable, to provide quality experiences for students, and to retain the best faculty, staff, chairs, and deans.

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REGAINING THE PUBLIC TRUST IN AMERICAN HIGHER EDUCATION: A WAY FORWARD

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As Wellman (2006) stated clearly seven years ago, "the common understanding of the public trust has evolved, fueled by the twin phenomena of increasing privatization within higher education and growing concern in policy circles that society's needs for higher education are not being met" (p. 111).   While it seems a given that "the Morrill Act symbolizes the public trust that has given life to our nation's entire educational system for the past 150 years—and it reminds us all of the public commitment that will be necessary for the system to thrive" (Loss, 2012), that given needs renewal. A social charter has been the primary venue of the public trust for higher education in the United States. Kezzar (2005) noted that higher education is a social institution enacted by a social charter that needs constant renewal and that it has been so in the United States since Harvard opened its doors. As a social institution, higher education has a long-standing mission, values that support that mission and a historical pattern of rights and responsibilities that are the object of the efforts of social rechartering (Kezzar, 2005).

Paradigms for Regaining the Public Trust

Leadership and Public Engagement. How to successfully renegotiate that charter in the current era had long presumed a dependence on leadership (Bok, 1982) with the assumption that leaders can maintain the public engagement needed to garner support from the public (Kezzar, 2005).   But depending on leadership assumes the public's trust of leadership in an era notable for a dearth of research on the performance of state governing boards of public universities, in which the challenges facing such boards are critical, and the public mistrust of all board-structured governance is high (Kezzar, 2006; Selingo 2006). As well, the environment includes the wake of the collapse of banks and corporations, starting with Enron among other board-governed corporations and organizations (Kezzar, 2006), and the general collapse of the economy in 2008 and since.

Kezzar has offered some research on the re-envisioning of governing boards as one solution, but ultimately, the work of renegotiating the social charter requires a regaining of the public trust that governance reforms appear unable to enact.

Votruba (2005) recommended that one response to this dilemma is to firmly root the patterns and forms of public engagement within institutions rather than within the leadership that comes and goes, a plan that stood in opposition to the popular ideas of Derek Bok (1982), who urged a dependence on leadership rather than policy and planning because of the decentralized aspects of higher education systems (1982). Votruba (2005) argued that in this period of history, higher education is being asked to be a strong partner in works that are not part of its traditional core mission. Vollmer (2014) has argued this point relative to K-12 education as well.

Advancing economic development, improving environmental quality and government effectiveness and non-profit management, directly taking on unresolved issues of race and class, and advancing pre-K-12 or P-16 education are just some of these new expectations. The work around these expectations may be considered part of what has been a contemporary history of public engagement of universities and colleges in the public's benefit, and, the public, in return, has usually provided financial support for the institution. According to Votruba (2005), the historical tide has turned and the public's disengagement can be measured in dollars and cents. Public engagement in return for funded research has dropped off as federal streams of research dollars root interests in institutions that are distinct from the character and concerns of individual institutions and the individuals within them. In turn, a failure in institutions or leaders to maintain and foster public engagement has ended with the public's lack of interest in supporting the core missions of education and its research (Votruba, 2005).

Dialoguing. Failures of leadership and of governance to engage and connect the public and redevelop the public trust around higher education have led to the clear currency of a dialoguing approach. A series of attempts to extract engagement (or engage) through intentional dialoguing around the issues that are involved in the social rechartering of higher education have come and nearly gone already, it seems, at least in the United States. This option was one of the primary objectives of the initiative of the American Association of College and Universities (AACU) called Liberal Education: America's Promise, LEAP. As noted by Carol G. Schneider, the former president of the AACU, LEAP was intended to structure and sponsors numerous dialoguing activities on campuses throughout the nation and focused its agenda around the outcomes traditional to the work of liberal education in the United States (personal communication, March 20, 2007). Schneider enumerated those outcomes as leadership knowledge, developing qualities of mind, and *res publica*, or responsibility to society (personal communication, March 20, 2007).

The dialoguing efforts of the AACU were, in part, a response to steps taken at the federal level to bring reform to higher education (Carol G. Schneider, personal communication, March 20, 2007). These steps were outlined in September 2006 in the report from the bipartisan Commission on the Future of Higher

Education formed by Department of Education Secretary Margaret Spellings (U. S. Department of Education, 2006). The Spellings report recommended six steps, including an alignment of high school standards with college expectations, an expansion of the successful principles of NCLB to high schools, a redesigning of the 12th grade National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) test to make it a predictor of college and workforce readiness, and initiatives around literacy. This federal dialoguing effort was aimed primarily at the "stakeholders" of higher education, and was ultimately oriented toward a foregone conclusion that an NCLB-like accountability could work for colleges and universities.

While the verbiage of Spellings action plan sidestepped concepts of direct control of higher education, it clearly suggested reform pressure applied through alignment, measurement, and reporting, and its emphasis on the dialogue was obfuscated, never to emerge in the Obama administration. Other dialoguing efforts have been employed, also developed in an effort to socially recharter higher education from areas such as environmental points of view, with conscious consumer citizenry at their root (Hamilton, and Willis-Toker, 2006) and newly reinvoked discourse theory as their episteme (Habermas, 1996). While these latter dialoguing efforts have not been adopted by the mainstream of higher education reformists or rechartists, they have not reached their logical conclusion, and may well be able to be tied to a relatively uncharted territory of large-scale reform measures that have taken place in the United States that rely on the political/legal concept of the public trust.

Emergent need for a paradigm for mass and large-group dialoguing. It would seem that the hopes of Kezzar, Votruba, Schneider, Spellings and others in reference to social rechartering for higher education presume that that the public and those inside of higher education will come to some concurrence around the effects and implications of the current and strengthening trend of allowing market forces to shape the universities and colleges of the 21st century. Kezzar (2005) hoped to connect the public vision of a good society and world with outcomes that such a vision will require from higher education. Schneider, as well, sought to connect the current rechartering effort with an historical, if beleaguered, concept of liberal education, or a citizen's education. Spellings and her Committee on the Future of Higher Education hoped to use such dialoguing to establish support for a national accountability system to which all could agree. Such idealism aside, Pongratz (2006) identified these efforts across the political spectrum as a type of political "shadowboxing" (p. 473) between neoconservatives and Old Left liberals, a mere masquerade of educational reform beneath which lies broad governmental strategies for control of subjects in the global market. Readings (1996) addressed the issue similarly when he urged that "the current shift of the role of the University is, above all, determined by the decline of the national cultural mission that has up to now provided its *raison d'etre*…" (p. 3). Dialoguing may well be the answer needed, but American dialoguing and modern dialoguing in general are themselves operating out of models and paradigms that are not useful and often are dysfunctional and ill-defined in reference to the modernist qualms relative to the nationalist and globalist agendas for education.

Impact of the Globalist Agenda on American Mission to Regain the Public Trust

These globalist critiques of the rechartering movement by Pongratz and Readings suggest that in increments, the social rechartering movement, with its less than effective dialoging efforts and a potential negation of leadership and restructuring stratagems, has essentially missed the point, that being that the nationalist agenda has been superseded by the global economic agenda and rechartist efforts have become just another reform movement. Such a critique, like the failures of the rechartering movements themselves, suggests that the concept of the public trust relative to higher education is in need of review. What values are driving the public trust?

The Globalist Critique and the American Emphasis on Excellence. Wellman's scholarship in this area followed on the heels of the American Council of Education surveys of 2005, an encouraging group of surveys that noted that "the large majority of the public understands that higher education benefits all of society and agrees that investments in higher education are critical to where the nation will be twenty-five years from now" (Wellman, 2006, p. 116). The surveys also showed "that the majority of the public believes that higher education deserves to be a higher public policy priority than it is now—ahead of transportation, national defense, and keeping taxes low…[despite the fact] " that the public is seriously questioning higher education in terms of quality, value for money spent, and institutional values"   (Wellman, 2006, p. 116) . Obviously, Americans do view higher education as significant, but it seems clear as well that much of the public is applying a value system that is taking in the globalist agenda framed in what Readings (1996) calls the "discourse of excellence"(p.14),

In this discourse, the University shifts from being an ideological apparatus of the nation-state to being a relatively independent bureaucratic system" (Readings, 1996, p.14), and operates under a detached unit of value, excellence. Excellence, which " is not a fixed standard of judgment but a qualifier whose meaning is fixed in relation to something else" (p.24), functions "to permit exhaustive accounting…to tie the University into a similar net of bureaucratic institutions" (p.29) that understand themselves and are understood "solely in terms of corporate administration" (p. 29). The prevailing perspective becomes consumerist rather than pedagogical. Further, and this point is noteworthy as our universities move to distance and online modes more each day, Readings observed that "as a non-referential unit of value entirely internal to the system, excellence marks nothing more than the moment of technology's self-reflection….the empty notion of …[of the] optimal input/output ratio in matters of information" (p.39). Readings' approach is post-modernist at heart and may seem disheartening, though a close reader of Readings will see the outline of a kind of future for the University as it recreates concepts of the pedagogical relationship and the tradition of higher education relative to a concept he refers to as the University of Thought, where a "dissensual" (Readings, 1996, p.167) ethos undergirding a pedagogy that persists in its homage to the traditions of higher education –particularly to the importance of thinking and thought-- can flourish among the "ruins" of the university, in which the new

global and transnational technological work in research, engineering, science, etc. has supplanted traditional structures. As noted by David Harvey (1998) of Johns Hopkins, Readings saw the "vast struggle unfolding over appropriate knowledge structures for the twenty-first century", began asking the right questions, and has invited a conversation. We have not really had that conversation in full, but rather as a parade of bickering around online courses, MOOCs, adjunct faculty rates, tenure, and the like. Our tradition teaches us better, but our skills for debate, logic, research, thinking, and theorizing have not come to our aid, and where they have, we have allowed a disjointed and haphazard media to destroy their elocution.

The Public Trust Doctrine and Social Responsibility. Amid this wrangling and its critique, Sun (2009) turns/returns to the concept of social responsibility, arguing that the traditional public trust doctrine needs reshaping to protect the human value of protecting public space, and noting that the doctrine is more than rights-conferring, but also imposes social responsibility, a concept much less developed in the West than in Europe and East : "the doctrine prohibits both state and private actions that would harm public interests in [public] resources" (Sun, 2009, 563). Sun (2009) observed that the courts' application of the public trust doctrine has expanded since the 1970's and become a legal tool not only to preserve the ecology and recreational use of public resources but for use within academia, relative to protections of intellectual property and cultural heritage. Engagement of the public trust doctrine as a device of allocation, management, and protection of resources has been an active paradigm within higher education for over a decade (Sun, 2009).   This concept of social responsibility, and its shadow equivalent "legitimation crisis" (Habermas, 1982; Young 1990), or alienation of trust in what is assumed to be legitimate authority, appears emergent with the American social rechartering efforts involved in regaining the public trust, vis a vis the emphasis on dialoguing and citizenship called on by both Right and Left.

Relation to American value on individual property rights. Another significant viewpoint, internal primarily to the United States, sits in strong opposition to the logic of this view of social responsibility. This viewpoint is allied with the strong sensibility that the post-1970's court-constructed idea of the public trust is hostile to a property-based democracy on which is founded individual liberty (Kearney and Merrill, 2004). If an American social rechartering relative to higher education is to occur, the concept of social responsibility, relative to the concept of the public trust as it is used and disavowed among all those enthusiastic interested parties, will need to be unraveled first. As Sun (2009) noted, the central problem in the judicial intervention model of the public trust doctrine is that it draws American skepticism about judiciary supremacy in protecting the public resources and the attendant risk of jeopardizing private property:

> Critics have been bombarding the expanding application of the doctrine with questions such as: Why are the courts empowered to be the leading force to protect public resources? Why can't we let the democratically formed legislatures or administrative agencies play the central role in tackling the myriad of issues concerned with environmental protection? What is the relationship between private property and public interests in public resources? Could the public interests necessarily gain primacy over private

property? Therefore, for the proponents of the doctrine, substantial questions still loom large and the

substantive values of the doctrine still await exploration. Sun (2009, p.580)

Sun continues his arguments with a defense of the public trust doctrine based in the Habermasian maxim

that "[a] well-secured private autonomy helps 'secure the conditions' of public autonomy just as much

as, conversely, the appropriate exercise of public autonomy helps 'secure the conditions' of private

autonomy" (Habermas, 1996, ctd in   Sun, 2009, p.585) He continues with an impassioned discussion of the

Ninth Amendment *(The enumeration in the Constitution, of certain rights, shall not be construed to deny or*

disparage others retained by the people) as the one amendment that can be looked to as enshrining the public

trust in constitutionality in a Constitution that he considers asymmetrical in its treatment of the public and

private spheres it undertakes to enjoin to freedoms and rights (Sun , 2009, p. 596-598). Following these

arguments, Sun noted that,

central to the public trust principle is the recognition and enforcement of social responsibilities that

promote the stewardship ethic in protecting public space. Both rights and responsibilities

form the foundation of the public trust principle. Moreover, these rights and responsibilities are

interdependent on each other. The recognition and imposition of these social responsibilities… stem

from the need to protect the fundamental rights over public space as the *collective rights* of the

citizens. In promoting the stewardship ethic, the enforcement of these social responsibilities, in tum,

reinforces the protection of the fundamental rights. (2009, p.563)

Social responsibility and the enforced stewardship ethic. This argument, even a bit more tricky than

Sun's concerning the implications of the Ninth Amendment, suggests that " the public trust doctrine relies on

social responsibilities that promote the *stewardship ethic* to protect collective rights over public space" (2009,

p.562). Sun observed that the ethic is to some degree enforceable, and this is the jumping off point for many

Americans who do not share Sun's belief that in cases that deal with the taking/use of property the inquiry

should not just focus on the extent to which property owners enjoy exclusive rights but that their social

responsibilities also need to be fully taken into account (Sun, 2009, p. 619). But Sun does assert that the public

trust doctrine as applied does require and *enforce* a stewardship ethic that opposes an attitude of the owner's

exclusivity.

Social responsibility and citizen participation. This topic is one that has needed broaching for some time

relative to higher education, and though Sun's arguments are primarily leveled at cases dealing with natural

resources impacted by private ownership, he clarifies that educational institutions and educators have applied

and continue to apply the public trust doctrine (Sun, 2009, p.566-67). The right to education at the high school

level and below is, of course, a property right under the Fifth Amendment. The same is not true for higher

education. If one cannot entirely find an application in the public trust doctrine and its related law to higher

education, or if one simply cannot accept Sun's arguments relative to an enforceable ethic of stewardship (and

such a construct is nearly oxymoronic to an American sensibility by and large), one might at least take up the

key point in it---social responsibility. The concept of social responsibility (Sun, 209, p. 564), with its connotation of encroachment on individual liberty may need to be replaced with a concept much more familiar, and even dear, to the American psyche---citizen participation, but a citizen participation that is managed, stewarded even, by the institutions that are the object of the public trust. One of the biggest and dearest of these in the American psyche is public higher education.

Citizen Participation as an American Paradigm of Social Responsibility

Nabatchi (2012) observed that if institutions ignore the public, it becomes much harder to resolve policy conflicts arising from public values controversies. Nabathchi (2012) added that resolving such controversies "requires administrators to identify, understand, and select among competing public values, a task that may be done more effectively with public participation" (p.699). If one agrees that public participation is necessarily enjoined to the need to resolve policy conflicts arising in public values controversies, then one need only further establish that it is indeed such controversies that are behind the financial and academic dissolution and decay in the public university. No small amount of research is available to support that claim. What is viewed as the source of these public values controversies has been generally stated here as the impulses of privatization (or re-privatization as some might see it) and globalization agendas. Of course, behind public values controversies, one can find a cast of villains and heros, and such we have seen in our review above of the rechartering and reformist measures occurring over the past two decades. But a more specific approach makes sense.

Impact of Participation Design on Understanding of the Public Trust. Nabatchi (2012) claimed that "choices about participatory design elements impact the ability of public administrators to identify and understand the public values pertaining to ...policy conflict" (p.705). She specifically proposed that "participatory processes are more likely to help administrators identify and understand all of the relevant public values and values sets when they are designed to" (p.705) do the following eight things:

- Be interest-based

- Use deliberative communication modes

- Have moderate to high levels of shared decision authority

- Use small table formats with trained facilitators

- Provide informational materials

- Select participants from members of the public"

- Use recruitment strategies that minimize participation bias

- Have more than one session (Nabatchi, 2012, p. 705)

Of particular note here is that the design proposed seeks intentional dialogue of the deliberative kind with a recruited public gathered around interests, rather than just stakeholders. Many of the dialoguing efforts we have discussed above were oriented to stakeholders only. This is a grave

error according to Nabatchi because designs that "minimize participation bias are more likely

than those using only voluntary self-selection to help administrators identify and understand the

public values relevant to a given policy conflict" (p. 705). A recent MOOC offered by Duke University through

Coursera, The History and Future of Higher Education, led Cathy Davidson, professor at Duke (and cofounder

of the HASTAC network), includes course dialoguing techniques open to all

 (https://class.coursera.org/highered- 001/wiki/aboutus) and may become a new paradigm for

reshaping the future of higher education through new dialoguing techniques.

Where the role of the citizenry is ignored "in addressing values-based public policy controversies…",

institutions and organizations miss the opportunity to "create public value and prevent public values failure"

(Nabatchi, 2012, p.700).   In another succinct statement concerning the forces driving the need for "better and

more sustained communication with the general public about higher education and public policy", (Wellman,

2006) suggested that,

> [i]mproving public communication about the public agenda requires audience and message analysis
>
> [is] to be taken as seriously as institutional assessment and performance reporting. This will require a
>
> lot more than disclosure, or putting largely technical information into the public domain by
>
> downloading reports onto public Websites. The work needs to begin with opinion research and
>
> audience analysis to frame the messaging strategy in language and themes that will resonate to the
>
> general public. (Wellman, 2006, p. 115)

Democratic advantages of a paradigm for citizen participation. Particularly in an American era that has

very recently become apprised of the ever-thinner line between public and private space thanks to the

technological surveillance available easily and avowed by everyone from Facebook to the National Security

Agency and the IRS, it seems appropriate to satisfy a clear definition of what constitutes the public trust and

what are its concomitant "responsibilities" or opportunities for citizen action or participation. Perhaps in

constructing new venues/methods of public participation in higher education, educators can assist with

setting up a practice and demarcation that will also assist in a reconstruction or new construction of the

struggling concepts of privacy, private property, and of the public trust. Ultimately, it is these constructs of the

public and the private domains and their relation to what one means by social responsibility in a democratic

republic in late-stage capitalism that undergird the more local question afield among those in higher

education: How can colleges and universities regain the literal trust of the public?

The diagnosis and prescription offered by Wellman and Nabatchi seem accurate relative to higher

education in America and if acted on may put in place a consensus-building apparatus the lack of which is

currently vexing action derived from policies that are always in a state of contention---with the latest being

the Affordable Care Act . One can see that "the new public agenda will require different approaches to higher

education accountability than what we have now, beginning with greater capacity for cross-sector measures

about performance on the public agenda and more systematic attention to real engagement of the issues with

the general public" (Wellman, 206, p.115). But who should originate these measures? While some might view this as a federal task, many factors support a different vision of institutions themselves developing consortia for measurement and co-planning initiatives for engaging the public in participatory dialogue and deliberation. Such an undertaking is huge, but not as big as the current and vexed federal health insurance initiative. How can it be done?

Participation and the Public Trust: An American Agenda

Arthur Levine's observation that we will all eventually have education passports is noteworthy. As Europe began dealing with the global economy in the 1990's, efforts were mounted to reorganize fundamentally or to create a unified Europe. The EU was born and its two biggest projects were the adoption of a standard currency, an effort that has not been highly successful so far, and the Bologna Process, an educational reform movement aimed at creating " a European Higher Education Area (EHEA) based on international cooperation and academic exchange that is attractive to European students and staff as well as to students and staff from other parts of the world" (http://www.ond.vlaanderen.be/hogeronderwijs/bologna/about/). Out of this initiative several Lifelong Learning Initiatives were developed, including ERASMUS, the European Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students, a very successful program. Other programs include Comenius for schools, Leonardo da Vinci for vocational education and training, and Grundtvig for adult education (http://ec.europa.eu/education/lifelong-learning-programme/index_en.htm).

An American Process. While European models and experiments are not exactly a welcome discussion point at this time when the controversial roll-out of the controversial Affordable Healthcare Act is underway, it is not a European model or scheme so much as the European inspiration of forming means for a mass dialogue and outcome as part of a post-nationalist discourse that seems a way forward. But instead of government leadership, consortia of public and private higher education institutions, both brick and click, and their governing boards and chief faculty should lead a process that utilizes public input to redevelop public consciousness of and understanding of the public trust for higher education, including distance/online/virtual programs. The adaptive aspects of such a consortium could be the focus of public planning that is generated through just the path that Nabatchi (2012) illuminates, tilling the soil in this country for new ways of dialoguing between higher education and the general public. The American general public should be an equal partner in developing the format and focus of an American Process, and we have in Europe some strong examples of how that can be done.   The study of and extrapolation of the Bologna Process to an American format is probably the premier approach that can be taken to regaining the public trust for higher education. The Affordable Healthcare Act, from inception to roll-out, may be the negative blueprint.

Parties to be engaged. An American Process, whatever it may end up being named, should engage governmental agents, and particularly the federal and state secretaries of education, but in no way should it be a government initiative *per se*. Chiefly, the emphasis should be on the development of a process of public

participation in defining higher education and in shaping its future. Evaluations should focus not on outcomes yet but on the success of process and procedure for arriving at consensus. The Process should arrive at trial runs that measure outcomes, but by no means should a sharp and rapid comprehensive plan take shape. Agreed-upon measures and easily measured outcomes during a trial period can be stepping stones of awakening and developing public interest and trust, with, clear steerage away from federal or state governance bodies, and an outreach to associations of faculty, accrediting bodies, governing boards, and the general public. These steps will decrease resistance to a potentially broader and more such a comprehensive approach at a later point.

As faculties in the United States have just begun to organize for modulation of online/distance education just recently, the engagement of their resistance should prove fecund. The resistance to online education is highly understandable for reasons many academics understand. The public often views online education favorably for many reasons the public understands. Taking this resistance into the ranks of an initiative driven by the public and by higher education may effect an ironing out of the conflicts that are driving iron-clad opposition to online and distance education and shed light on their legitimacy as well. Moreso, for-profit higher education at the table will be compelled to pay attention as the public outworks a renewed understanding of how the public trust for higher education is gained. Where for-profits fit into that renewed understanding will be interesting. In a capitalist society; they have a place at the table, no doubt, but their place will and should be a matter of debate because of the predatory practices of some and because it is not clear that colleges and universities should allow their lock on credentialing to be moved into the proprietary sphere. As well, relative to public confusion and misunderstanding of options for higher education and distinctions among the players, marketing tactics of proprietary higher education and their drift into public universities needs addressing. It is by dialoguing among and within these resistances that might be ironed-out far better policy issues related to how much federal money can be tied to students in for-profit programs.

Engaging resistance movements among university faculty, staff, and others, like the newly formed Campaign for the Future of Higher Education (Kolowich, 2013), in public values dialogue offers much more than just a potential solution to the issues of the role of online education and the proper way to tie federal support to student education, issues, which, in fact, give the lie to the larger issue: a long-needed dialogue around " the relationship between culture, power and knowledge" (Beckmann and Cooper, 2005, p.18). Such an extended dialogue is in order in the current environment in which values struggles occur around " policy that shapes the institutional conditions under which academic knowledge is produced and under which public debates are increasingly stifled" (Beckmann and Cooper, 2005, p.18) and in which "consumerist dreams have replaced interests in values and ethics" (p. 18). For if the argument against engaging the public has been that the public just does not get it, then that should be the very basis of re-engaging the public. "It is thus important to redefine the role of academics as engaged public intellectuals who aim to trigger, stimulate and broaden public discourses and practices about the meaning of the contested concepts of democracy,

citizenship and social justice that, in the present context, have become muted" (p. 20). Such a path is for the courageous at this point, but certainly the public can be engaged with intellectuals if appropriate dialogue strategies are employed.

Perhaps it is the AACU that should open a continuous forum at this point, one that truly intends to engage the public. It is this organization that has the most recent experience with establishing dialogues—under Schneider—albeit less than the needed ones—and it is the AACU that can stand with AAUP and other strong traditional organizations in academia to engage the public and to connect with emergent resistance movements. Then again, perhaps an organization better suited is the National Coalition for Dialogue and Deliberation as it works with the large associations of colleges and universities. Perhaps, again, professors like Duke's Cathy Davidson might offer the pathway to dialogue through cross-institutional, interdisciplinary MOOCs.

What is needed is a real national conversation, not a governmental one reported to us by the commercial media or an internal one fomented simply by one university. The technology long-needed is available as are academic and dialoguing organizations powerful and rich enough to marshal experts and buy advertisement. Experts in large-group dialoguing are available. We have been talking "amongst ourselves" while the real world of the public conversation has become denominated, fractious, and debased. Most protest reaches for solutions from a government we cannot deeply trust. Reaching instead within our democratic consciousness as Americans and their friends in residence, we can perhaps establish and agree on a set or horizon of values under a design for deliberative dialoguing. Then accountability for the public trust can be resituated not only on dollars and cents but on a correlated cross-institutional qualitative accounting of the public trust.

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DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT AND PUBLIC ORIENTATION AS PREDICTORS OF SERVICE ORIENTATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION

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In the United States, the demands made by various constituents with whom universities interact are growing in complexity and diversity (Worthington, 2012). Among other trends, older students are returning to the college campus to offset skill deficiencies and remain marketable in the workforce (National Center for Education Statistics, 2012), while international students continue to seek an American college degree to provide them with a competitive advantage. Many universities aggressively compete with each other for international student enrollment and the economic boon they provide (Hegarty, 2014). Some states are experiencing a decline in the number of high school graduates, which changes the college recruiting landscape and creates challenges for universities in filling residence halls and classrooms (Educational Testing Service, 2005; Heckman & LaFontaine, 2008; Education Week, 2010; Intercultural Development Research Association, 2012). In addition, public universities are increasingly being called on to provide a stronger accountability to the residents of their states amidst rising tuition rates (Kerr, 2010).

As key stakeholders have diversified, budgets have tightened, and demand for transparency has escalated, the need for colleges and universities to support the development, implementation, and continuous improvement of service has increased. Prior research on service orientation has focused heavily on for-profit organizations and the conditions that foster customer satisfaction and reduce the gap between expected and experienced service from the perspective of the customer. This body of research suggests that employee characteristics and organizational interventions play a role in increasing service orientation and outcomes (Cran, 1994; Maxwell, McDougall, & Blair, 2000a, 2000b; Lytle & Timmerman, 2006; Chen, 2007). While business firms have long recognized the central role of customers, including key stakeholders to success, institutions of higher education, especially public ones, have traditionally enjoyed both internal and external

forces that stabilize operations and reduce competitive and reputational threats. This landscape has evolved and, as such, now requires that institutions embrace a new range of practices and perspectives.

This study explores the effects of public university employees' perceptions of university diversity management and a public orientation as they relate to service orientation. By understanding and meeting the various needs of the multiple constituencies served by a public university, the quality of the services and outcomes provided by that university can be enhanced. While research related to the effective implementation of diversity programs is widely available, empirical studies relating to the benefits and effectiveness of advancing such programs are rare, and few involve public universities. Further, these studies have not attempted to provide greater explanatory power to the linkage between diversity management and service quality in the rapidly changing higher education landscape.

Context

Many college students are increasingly older, non-traditional learners. The enrollment of students aged 25 and older increased by 41 percent between 2000 and 2011, a rate that outpaced growth in university students under age 25 (National Center for Education Statistics, 2012). It is anticipated that this percentage will continue to increase as older students return to the classroom for a wide variety of reasons. Members of the Baby Boomer generation are experiencing greater life expectancy than ever before, improved individual health, some financial hardship with an ailing economy, and the fact that more companies are inclined to employ older workers because of their valuable work experience. Many are returning to the college classroom to enhance their skillsets, but not all universities are equipped for attending to their unique needs and interests. For example, older adults often encounter at least three barriers to course enrollment: (1) situational barriers such as personal mobility and a lack of information related to academic programs, (2) dispositional barriers related to self-doubt and an insecurity in negotiating the university environment, and (3) institutional barriers such as inflexible schedules, campus accessibility concerns, and complex and confusing registration procedures (Fishman, 2010). Private and for-profit universities have assumed a good deal of responsibility for addressing the needs of older adults; however, these potential students are citizen taxpayers and our public universities were never intended to be the exclusive domain of 18 to 24 year olds.

International students, who comprise an ever-growing share of enrollments at large universities across the United States, naturally bring diversity and unique service needs to the college environment (Hegarty, 2014). These students are not only valued for the cultural perspectives they carry to campus but the majority of these students pay full tuition and fees necessitated by their out-of-state residency status. These costs contribute nearly $22 billion to state economies each year and have become an important source of revenue. While the U.S. long enjoyed a relative monopoly in the education of international students, competition for this highly profitable and sought after revenue source has increased dramatically (Hegarty, 2014). Australia, Canada, England, and mainland Europe are determined educational competitors for international students. In

addressing this competition, it is imperative that universities in the U.S. attend to the wide variety of needs and concerns engendered by this population. For example, once here, many find dealings with local international students' offices to be a nightmarish ordeal. These offices are often perceived by students as immigration gatekeepers as opposed to providers of valued support services (Hegarty, 2014). In addition, differences in classroom expectations, new foods and customs, homesickness, a perceived loss of social status, fear, and a looming sense of insignificance all contribute to a state of anxiety.

There is a growing racial, gender, and religious diversity on university campuses with second and third generation immigrant students having a greater appreciation for the importance of a multi-ethnic student body than new immigrants (Rosenblum, Zhou, & Gentemann, 2009). As the experiences of second and third generation immigrant students developed, so was a growing disappointment with cross-cultural interaction. Despite their heritage as children of immigrants, these students voice disdain over the self-segregation of first generation immigrant students. They discovered that their first-generation counterparts often failed to embrace student diversity and interact across cultural difference. This separation and antagonism towards first generation immigrant students often drove second and third generation immigrant students to withdraw from campus diversity by residing at home (Rosenblum et al., 2009). An unfortunate consequence of such behavior is the isolation of these students from campus experiences that encourage personal and social development.

Over the last fifteen years, for-profit institutions have become a significant force to reckon with. The last decade in particular has been a prosperous one for the for-profit higher education industry. A recent government report indicates that by 2009, for-profit schools were responsible for 9% of all undergraduate matriculations. This percentage is up from just 3% in 2000 (Beaver, 2012). These schools offer certificates and degrees ranging from the associate to the doctorate. Additionally, more than 800 of these schools have received some type of accreditation. From a revenue perspective, the industry has performed quite well. According to Beaver, since 2000 earnings have risen from $10 to $29 billion. The most widely known of these schools is the University of Phoenix, which reported an enrollment in 2012 of 450,000 students "making it the second largest university system in the country" (274).

Another example of noteworthy change to the public university landscape is growing governmental oversight and regulation related to the quality of services provided to students and other constituents. In this respect, universities are not only charged with meeting the growing needs of their student populations but also the various requirements placed on them by state and federal governments, which comprise an additional constituency that must be served. For example, public universities in the state of Texas must comply with *Compact With Texans* which requires these universities to publically convey their educational philosophy, provide a customer service commitment statement, detail the university's customer complaint process, and disclose to whom such complaints should be directed. A failure to communicate this information,

or to address complaints in a thorough and expeditious manner, would likely be met with financial and other disciplinary sanctions.

While the cost of a public university education has risen dramatically for students, much of this burden is the result of unwillingness by state legislators to provide the necessary funds to keep higher education affordable to families from all income levels. In fact, it is quite common for major public research universities today to receive no more than 40 percent of their annual budget expenditures from state appropriated funds. The level of funding has been further compromised as Arizona, Illinois, Texas, and other states take steps to implement performance-based funding of public universities amidst a legislative philosophy often opposed to spending on higher education (Kerr, 2010).

Throughout the twentieth century in the U.S., public higher education was generally recognized as the instrument by which the entire country and its citizens progress together. Public institutions of higher education were subsidized through collective investments for the purpose of prompting a college-going culture and producing positive results for all in terms of innovation, leadership, economic prosperity, and social advancement. However, while state governments still maintain high performance expectations for their public universities, state funding for these institutions dramatically declined between 1987 and 2012 as both residents and state legislators adopted a view of higher education as a personal benefit and not a societal one. During this time, government policies and practices related to federal financial aid and other programs also began to advantage for-profit education providers (Fischer & Stripling, 2014).

Unlike expenditures for health services and P-12 schooling, state subsidies for higher education are not interconnected with federal dictates and matching funds requirements. Due in large part to the escalating expense of pension plans and mandated programs like Medicaid, higher education has become a popular target for spending cuts (Barr & Turner, 2013). Along with these cuts come calls for growing governmental oversight and accountability such as *No Child Left Behind* (NCLB), the college completion agenda, and the implementation of new rules on federal financial aid, violence against women, gainful employment, and other areas. This reality, coupled with the dynamic and complex student landscape, underscores the ever growing importance and challenges associated with achieving high quality public-related and service-related outcomes in colleges and universities.

Hypotheses Development

Public universities in the U.S. are tasked with servicing a very broad and diverse group of stakeholders which include federal agencies, state legislatures and agencies, public interest groups, local community interest groups, international students, underprivileged students, older students, students with special needs, and former military members. Meeting the service needs of such groups is a daunting task for any organization, but may be especially acute in organizations that have not traditionally operated with either a service mindset or an increasingly diverse constituent base. According to Miller and Katz (2002),

Organizations that are good at interacting and partnering with people of different social identity groups and the diverse elements in each identity groups are in the best position to connect with these [customers]. But to make the most of this advantage, people with those competencies must be in positions of authority and influence, included in the core processes of the organization, and able to provide input into organizational policies and practices. (p. 127)

These authors posit that multicultural organizations are better positioned to understand, contemplate, and live an identity group's experience and will likely outperform mono-cultural organizations when it comes to meeting the needs of these groups and growing their influence and success. This point is acknowledged by many in higher education, including the American Council on Education (ACE). After launching a series of issue briefs on diversity and inclusion in U.S. higher education, the council concluded that "diversity is no longer simply a question of moral and social responsibility, but a matter of achieving excellence and gaining competitive advantage…" (American Council on Education, 2013, p. 1).

Shore et al (2009) and Thomas (2005) note the potential advantages to be gained from diversity amongst an organization's employees, which include: (1) increased number of alternatives and perspectives considered, (2) increased opportunity to find errors or discover key information, (3) enhanced probability that an adequate solution will be proposed, (4) increased innovation, (5) increased connections to a more varied external network, which enhances outside contacts and access to information, (6) increased likelihood that needed skills are present, (7) the possibility of specialized division of labor, (8) enhanced quality of reasoning due to consistent counterarguments from a minority, (9) increased likelihood of identifying creative, unique, or higher quality solutions, and (10) increased time discussing issues, thus decreasing the chances that a weak alternative will be chosen. These advantages are often present and discussed in contemporary research studies related to organizational diversity.

In a study of racial and gender diversity utilizing data from the National Organizations survey, Herring (2009) determined that racial diversity was associated with larger market share, and that both racial and gender diversity were correlated with improved sales revenue, additional customers, and greater profitability. This finding supported an earlier conclusion drawn by Richards (2000) that explored the effects of diversity in the banking industry by studying the relationships between racial diversity, business strategy, and firm performance. Among Richard's findings was that racially diverse firms pursuing a growth strategy experienced significantly higher productivity. In fact, the effects of diversity on firm productivity intensified dramatically as strategic growth orientation increased. This was consistent with the findings of Okoro and Washington (2012) in their review of research associated with organizational performance improvement. They concluded that a diverse workforce that communicates well is able to benefit from the strengths, talents, and differences among employees thereby improving productivity, enabling innovation, resolving problems, and offering more responsive and higher quality service, all leading organizations towards competitive advantage.

These articles are relevant and instructive to the pursuit of our own research which explores the role of diversity management in shaping employee attitudes regarding service orientation and the desire to provide high quality service to institutional stakeholders through an awareness of its various publics. To this end, given the extant literature, we have defined the following study constructs:

Diversity management is the proactive effort to facilitate and support a diverse and inclusive workplace. The Pitts (2006) model of diversity management incorporates three interconnected elements: recruitment and outreach, valuing of differences, and pragmatic policies and programs. These represent the three primary actions by which organizations engage in their efforts to manage their employee diversity.

Service orientation is the synthesis of numbers of services provided, the variety and numbers of customers these services are offered to, and how strongly the services are emphasized by organizations (Homburg, Hoyer, & Fassnacht, 2002). Degree of emphasis is directly related to employee attitudes regarding their commitment to providing high quality services to customers.

Public orientation reflects employees' awareness of the various constituencies served by an organization, understanding the needs of these constituencies, and committing the necessary time and effort into sustaining mutually beneficial, long-term relationships with these publics (Liaw, Chi, & Chuang, 2009).

We also propose the following research hypotheses:

H1: Diversity management is positively related to service orientation.

H2: Public orientation is positively related to service orientation.

H3: There is an interaction between diversity management and public orientation in the prediction of service orientation such that the combination of high levels of diversity management and public orientation will be related to higher levels of service orientation than when either or both diversity management or public orientation are low.

Method

Data Collection and Sample. This article is part of a larger ongoing study employing data obtained from the Survey of Organizational Excellence (SOE) developed and implemented by The Institute for Organizational Excellence at The University of Texas at Austin. The SOE is intended to aid managers at all levels of state government by generating data about workforce-related issues that affect the operational efficacy of their organizations. The SOE consists of 16 demographic items and 84 substantive survey items, not all of which were germane to the current study.

Data on the SOE were gathered from 1737 faculty and staff members employed by several different public, four-year institutions of higher education in Texas. See Table 1 for an analysis of the demographic characteristics of the study participants. These data indicate that respondents constitute a representative

Table 1 - *Demographic Characteristics*

Demographic	Measure
Staffing	31% Faculty, 68.5% Staff
Gender	41.2% Male, 57.7% Female
Ethnicity	1.6% Black, 42.9% Hispanic, 47.7% White, 2.5% Asian, 3.6% Multiracial
Years of Service	8.9% Less than 1, 12.9% 1-2, 23.2% 3-5, 21.4% 6-10, 12.7% 11-15, and 20.6% More than 15
Age	11.8% 16-29, 21.8% 30-39, 25.7% 40-49, 25.2% 50-59, 14.0% 60 and older
Education Level	.3% Did not finish high school, 3.1% High school diploma or GED, 11.6% Some college, 6.2% Associate degree, 25.2% Bachelor's degree, 28.9% Master's degree, 24.8% Doctoral degree

Note. Missing data (non-disclosure) accounts for percentages not totaling to 100.

sample of Texas public university employees in terms of their gender, ethnicity, age, years of service and education level.

Measures - Diversity management. This construct was measured with six items on a five-point Likert response scale anchored by 1 = *strongly disagree* and 5 = *strongly agree*. A sample item is: "We work to attract, develop and retain people with diverse backgrounds." Cronbach's alpha of internal consistency reliability for scores on this scale was .90.

Measures - Public orientation. This construct was measured with four items using the same response scale as above. An example of these items is: "We understand the state, local, national, and global issues that impact us." Cronbach's alpha for scores on this measure was .85.

Measures - Service orientation. This construct was measured with three items from the SOE utilizing the same response scale as the other constructs' items. A sample item is: "We develop services to match the needs of those we serve." Cronbach's alpha for scores on this set of items was .89. See Appendix A for the complete list of all items used in the current study.

Data Analysis. In addition to an analysis of internal consistency reliability, all items were subjected to confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to assess convergent and discriminant validity. Convergent validity is determined by the strength of the relationship between measures of constructs that are expected to correlate. Discriminant validity occurs where constructs that are not expected to correlate do not correlate. As per Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff's (2003) suggestions for gathering evidence of construct validity by reducing the impact of common method variance, a one factor model forcing all items to load on a common underlying focal construct was compared to a three-factor solution allowing all items to load solely on their intended underlying focal construct. If the one-factor solution fit the data better than the three-factor solution then the possibility of common method variance exists in that some singular common latent variable could be responsible for the majority of the variance in the survey items. If, on the other hand, the three-factor solution fit acceptably well and better than the one-factor model, some evidence of convergent and discriminant validity exists to show that respondents were able to understand and differentiate the items from each other. Latent variables should be moderately correlated with each other to show discriminant validity

and the fit of the model, if acceptable, will indicate the degree of convergent validity. All items on all scales were then averaged at the construct level and were examined utilizing multiple regression analysis.

Fit Indices. The chi-square test can be greatly affected by sample size and because CFA requires large samples such as ours, three supplementary goodness-of-fit indices were used to examine model fit. The root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA: Browne & Cudeck, 1993) and its 90% confidence intervals range from 0 to 1 with lower values indicating better fit. Hu and Bentler (1999) suggest that values less than or equal to .08 indicate reasonable fit and those values less than .05 indicate good fit. Lower values of the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) also indicate better fit with values ranging from 0 to 1 with those less than .08 indicating good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The comparative fit index (CFI) developed by Bentler (1990) ranges from 0 to 1 with values greater than or equal to .95 indicating good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

<div align="center">

Results

</div>

Item Level Statistics. The correlations between the items ranged in magnitude from .30 to .78 and because of ample statistical power associated with such a large sample (n = 1737), all were statistically significant at p < .001. At the item level (univariate), skewness values ranged from -1.18 to -.51 and kurtosis values ranged from -.59 to 1.34, each of which is below the cutoffs described by West, Finch and Curran (1995) of $|2.0|$ for skewness and $|7.0|$ for kurtosis. See Table 2 for these results. However, univariate normality is a necessary but not sufficient condition for multivariate normality (Hensen, 1999). Therefore, it was necessary to calculate the normalized Mardia's kurtosis of multivariate normality score using the DeCarlo (1997) macro. That value was 85.98, which is greater than the cutoff of $|3.0|$ recommended by Bentler (1998) and Bentler and Wu (2002).

With these statistics in mind, the data were univariate but not multivariate normal so the Satorra-Bentler scaled chi-square (S-B χ^2) and robust standard errors adjustment to the maximum likelihood method of estimation was used in CFA with Lisrel 8.80 software (Joreskog & Sorbom, 2006). This required the computation and input of both the asymptotic covariance matrix and the covariance matrix. In the CFA models, the error terms were not allowed to correlate and in order to set the metric of the latent factor(s) the variances of the latent factor(s) were constrained to 1.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results. For the one-factor solution, all items were forced onto a common underlying construct. The S-B χ^2 for this model was 2629.49 (p < .001) with 65 degrees of freedom. The RMSEA, CFI, and SRMR were all poor at .15, .92, and .09 respectively. Conversely, the three-factor solution which allowed the items to load onto their focal underlying constructs of diversity management, public orientation, and service orientation fit the data quite well. The S-B χ^2 with 62 degrees of freedom was 328.98 (p < .001). The RMSEA, CFI, and SRMR for this model were .05, .99, and .03 respectively. Additionally, the change in S-B χ^2 was 811.68 (df = 3). Note that the change in S-B χ^2 is not a simple difference test and

Table 2 - I*tem-level correlations, means, standard deviations, skewness, and kurotosis of survey items*[a]

Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Diversity Management													
1	--												
2	.64	--											
3	.61	.57	--										
4	.64	.53	.60	--									
5	.69	.57	.65	.70	--								
6	.58	.47	.52	.53	.66	--							
Public Orientation													
7	.36	.34	.42	.42	.44	.35	--						
8	.40	.40	.41	.43	.43	.36	.65	--					
9	.36	.37	.42	.42	.41	.32	.64	.68	--				
10	.35	.37	.42	.43	.42	.30	.48	.58	.55	--			
Service Orientation													
11	.56	.51	.49	.47	.54	.44	.36	.39	.37	.33	--		
12	.52	.52	.48	.44	.52	.43	.34	.41	.37	.39	.70	--	
13	.54	.54	.48	.43	.51	.41	.35	.39	.38	.38	.69	.78	--
Mean	3.62	3.74	3.40	3.38	3.41	3.80	3.74	3.86	3.75	3.58	3.92	4.03	3.98
SD	1.22	1.10	1.05	1.16	1.16	1.04	.84	.86	.91	.99	1.01	.97	.97
Skewness	-.72	-.85	-.57	-.51	-.52	-.98	-.76	-.95	-.95	-.75	-1.02	-1.12	-1.12
Kurtosis	-.48	.13	-.27	-.65	-.59	.56	1.03	1.34	1.02	.17	.71	1.05	1.12

[a] n = 1737

Note: All correlations significant at $p < .001$

requires the use of scaling factors for non-normality (Satorra, 2000). This difference suggests that the one-factor model fits significantly worse than the three-factor model. See Table 3 for these results. Lastly, the

Table 3 - *Fit Indices for Confirmatory Factor Analysis Models*

Model	S-B χ^2	df	p-value	S-B χ^2_{diff}	CFI	SRMR	RMSEA (90% C.I.)
One-factor model	2629.49	65	.001	--	.921	.091	.151 (.146; .156)
	--	3	.001	811.68	--	--	--
Three-factor model	328.98	62	.001	--	.992	.034	.050 (.046; .055)

Note. S-B χ^2 = Satorra-Bentler scaled chi-square; *df* = degrees of freedom; S-B χ^2_{diff} = nested scaled χ^2 difference requiring adjustment to chi-square change test (Satorra, 2000); SRMR = standardized root mean square residual; CFI = comparative fit index; ΔCFI = change in CFI for nested models; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; 90% CI = 90% confidence interval for RMSEA; *n* = 1773

average variance extracted for the three latent factors of diversity management, public orientation, and service orientation were .60, .68, and .73 respectively. The correlations between the three latent factors corrected for measurement error in the CFA were .73 between diversity management and service orientation,

.55 between public orientation and service orientation, and .64 between the two predictors of diversity management and public orientation. For the three-factor model, the fit statistics, latent correlations, and average variance extracted provide evidence of convergent and discriminant validity and the analysis then proceeded with multiple regression.

Multiple Regression Results. As displayed in Table 4, the overall regression equation resulted in an F-score of 511.95 ($df1 = 3$, $df2 = 1733$), $p < .001$. The R^2 for the entire model was .47. Because the omnibus F-test

Table 4 - *Regression Results for Service Orientation*

| Variable	B	s.e.	β	95% Confidence Intervals		Effect size[a]
				Lower bound	Upper bound	
Constant	1.42	.09		1.25	1.60	
Diversity management (A)	.55	.02	.57***	.51	.59	.22
Public orientation (B)	.17	.03	.14***	.12	.22	.01
A x B	-.07	.02	-.08***	-.11	-.04	.01
F-score $_{(df1, df2)}$			511.95 $_{(3, 1733)}$ ***			
R^2			.47			
Adjusted R^2			.47			

[a] Squared semi-partial correlation
*** $p < .001$

was significant, the regression coefficients were then examined as tests of the hypotheses (Cohen & Cohen, 1987). The standardized regression coefficient (beta weight) for diversity management was .57 ($p < .001$) and therefore hypothesis one was supported. The beta weight for public orientation was .14 ($p < .001$), therefore hypothesis two was also supported. The beta weight for the interaction term associated with the cross-product of diversity management and public orientation was statistically significant at -.08 ($p < .001$), but because of the directionality of the third hypothesis, it was necessary to graph the interaction to determine whether it was supported or not. As seen in Figure 1, low levels of public orientation and high levels of diversity management resulted in the highest levels of service orientation. Therefore, because of its directionality, hypothesis three was not supported. Lastly, effect sizes were calculated as the squared semi-partial correlation between each predictor and the criterion. They were .22, .01, and .01 for diversity management, public orientation, and their interaction respectively. Given that the overall effect size was .47 and the sum of the individual effect sizes comprise just over half of the overall effect size, it indicates substantial overlap between the predictors.

Discussion

Not surprisingly, given our review of the research literature, the study's findings indicated statistically significant direct effects existed between these factors. The moderately strong standardized regression

coefficient of .57 between diversity management and service orientation reflects the influence of a diversity orientation on the attitudes of employees regarding the engagement of customers and servicing their needs. A

Figure 1 - *Interaction of diversity management and public orientation in prediction of service orientation*
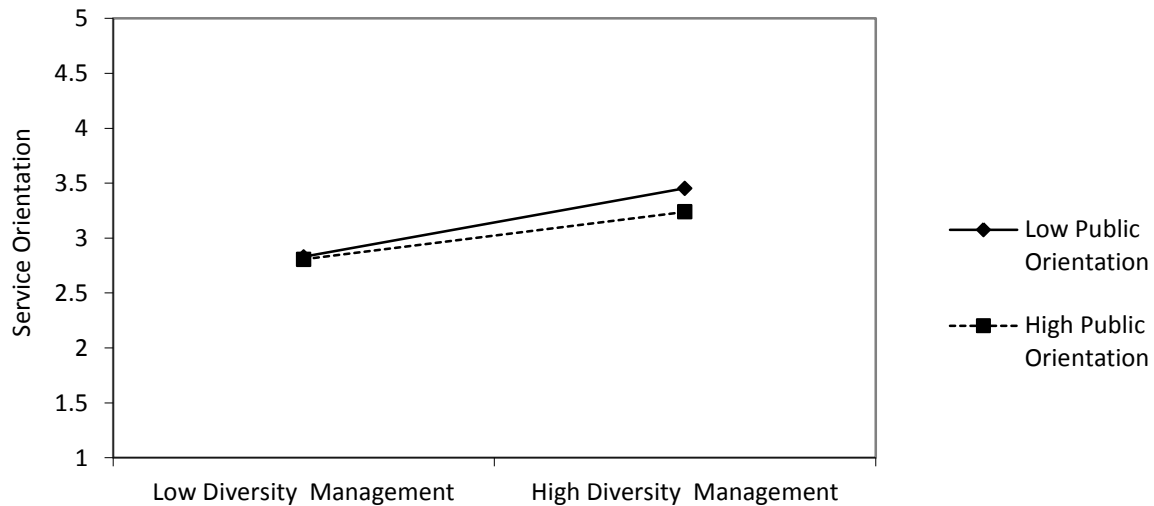
reasonable explanation accounting for this finding lies in the details of the construction of the scale. The rationale for our use of the term *diversity management* to represent that construct stems from the topical nature of the variables used to define it:

- Every employee is valued;
- We work to attract, develop and retain people with diverse backgrounds;
- Work groups are trained to incorporate the opinions of each member;
- Outstanding work is recognized;
- There is a real feeling of teamwork; and
- The people I work with treat each other with respect.

Arguably, such an environment would serve to energize all employees engaged in servicing customers as well as encourage the design, development and delivery of programs and services that meet customer needs. Diversity management enables and encourages action through an appreciation of diverse opinions, the effective utilization of those opinions, and an encouragement of the transformative collaborations that are possible through teamwork and mutual respect. These organizational characteristics inform the nature and quality of the work environment and, according to Herzberg (1959) and others, are considered highly motivational.

Regarding the relationship between public orientation and service orientation, it is an important matter to identify all of the publics engaged by an institution as well as to determine the needs of those publics before

one is properly able to service those customers. This sentiment appears to be reflected in the attitudes of employees who participated in this study as evidenced by the positive and significant, albeit relatively small, beta weight of .14 that exists between the two factors.

The investigation into the interaction effect of diversity management and public orientation on service orientation returned a surprising result. The beta weight of -.08 was statistically significant but indicates an inverse relationship exists between these two factors and their interactive effect on service orientation. In fact, as stated earlier, low levels of public orientation and high levels of diversity management resulted in the highest levels of service orientation generated during the study. Again, the effect size was quite small and as such is of little practical significance. However, the implication of this finding is instructive. Upon a reexamination of these factors, diversity management is likely understood as an introspective construction that deals with the internal workings of the organization. In contrast, public orientation is an external looking construction that denotes employee attitudes regarding, among other things, the amorphous nature of the consumer and regulatory environment in which public universities operate.

The finding appears to suggest that some employees participating in this study may view these publics as inhibitive; in essence, a counterproductive force in their efforts to provide high quality services. Indeed, public universities are particularly susceptible to the decisions rendered by their regulatory and budgetary publics. Unlike internal organizational activities, decisions rendered by controlling publics are often beyond their influence and have profound effects on the workings of these universities. In retrospect, this finding may not be so surprising. As discussed earlier, when describing the various challenges facing public universities, incidents of increased reporting and compliance requirements, unfunded mandates, reduced appropriations, and greater legislative involvement in the delivery of university services certainly all act to restrict their operations and may be perceived as obstructive in nature.

Implications for Practice. Service orientation is critical in higher education for several reasons, including increased competition, public scrutiny, budgetary pressure and the changing student body. Alongside these trends, the workforces of colleges and universities are growing increasingly diverse and these employees are routinely expected to make do with less. Beyond the singular purpose of advancing organizational diversity with a desire to encourage inclusiveness and provide a sustaining, positive, and participative environment for employees of diverse groups, practices that advance an appreciation for the value of employees, incorporate the views and opinions of team and committee members in decision making, encourage teamwork, and require the respectful treatment of employees throughout the organization may well have a positive effect on all faculty and staff members. Arguably, the practices that activate organizational diversity are the very same progressive praxes that lead to the establishment of a workplace that is engaging, participative and supportive in nature. Previous research indicates that such an environment positively influences employee attitudes and productivity (Chung-Chieh & Chih-Jen, 2013; Lee, Lee & Kang, 2012; Perry, Mesch, & Paarlberg, 2006; Kini & Hobson, 2002).

Our principal goal in pursuing this study was to aid managers in instituting sound practices which enhance employee attitudes regarding the quality of service they provide. Our research indicates that one method of doing so may be an encouragement towards the diversification of the workforce and the development of complementary policies and practices that allow for the authentic engagement and contribution of all workers. Additionally, as evidenced in this study, although generating a much smaller effect, awareness of the various publics that they serve and the performance expectations of those publics also appear to influence employee attitudes regarding their service orientation.

While this study explicitly and specifically explores employee attitudes regarding service orientation and factors that influence this attitude, the next step will be to investigate the viewpoints of university stakeholders and their perceptions of the quality of services actually provided to them.

Limitations of this Study. The data for this study were obtained from an existing database derived from a survey instrument that was not constructed for this study. The instrument was routinely and frequently administered in the past but data analysis was limited to much less sophisticated frequency distributions. There had been no prior attempts at analytical modeling of this data outside of this research. Additionally, incomplete records were purged from the dataset utilizing listwise deletion resulting in a loss of some data. There is a remote possibility that these deletions may have inadvertently and unintentionally affected the findings.

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ADMINISTRATOR PERCEPTIONS OF TEACHER LEADERSHIP AT PRIVATE, NOT-FOR-PROFIT, TWO-YEAR COLLEGES

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Research into the broadening topic of teacher leadership has been a growth out of the school improvement movement that has developed over the last thirty years having been largely sparked by the 1983 publication of *A Nation at Risk*. However, concerns of teacher leadership skills have a much older root within the field of education. This is evidenced by the work of Celia Baum (1957) in her research concerning exposure of education undergraduates to group dynamics in order to cultivate democratic competencies and leadership skills amongst teachers. Her work was motivated due to a societal need for "effective teachers with sound conceptual underpinning in human relations…with ability to perform creatively in the act of guiding, directing or influencing people." The foundations of teacher leadership can also be found in the pivotal work of Mary Parker Follett. In her 1928 speech she pointed out the movement of society away from a leader-follower dynamic to a partnered process of collective leadership that has a reciprocal nature (Follett, 1970). This flow of relational leadership focus began to slowly gain momentum within cultural aspects and chip away at traditional hierarchical concepts that within education had its root within the works of Frederick Winslow Taylor and John Franklin Bobbitt.

The hierarchical and bureaucratic framework has been criticized for its lack of promoting overall involvement by educators and due to this aspect can create barriers to school change efforts around improvement and student achievement (Lieberman & Miller, 2004; Patterson & Marshall, 2001; Witcher, 2001). Teacher leadership seeks to prop up the role of the teacher as essential to the governance and administrative operations of the school rooted in the findings that the single most influential factor for student achievement is the teacher (Marzano, 2007, NCES, 2002).   This level of distributed leadership is something assumed indicative of post-secondary education where faculty operate under a principle of shared governance with administrators. However, the level of leadership is impacted by the quality of the teacher

and while there has been policy and research put forth on what a "highly-qualified teacher" is within the PK-12 education, little has been put forth in regards to this within post-secondary education.

The purpose of this study is to identify attributes perceived by academic administrators to begin to structure a concept of teacher leadership at post-secondary institutions. Through a quantitative approach the research hopes to provide insightful results that faculty and administrators may find useful in regards to professional development programming and institutional leadership and governance.

Literature Review

Mark Smylie (1995) points out that teacher leadership has the potential to promote teacher development through its diversification of the human capital within schools offering the possibility to retain quality educators. This is echoed in the research of York-Barr and Duke (2004) who highlight that the development of teacher leadership has positive impacts on schools. Notably that greater teacher participation will lead to deeper commitments by employees, that by promoting teachers to share best practices, to mentor, and to collaborate that this will increase professionalism and mitigate structural isolation, and that the addition of participatory and shared governance practices enable educators to model democratic principles to students. For Smylie (1995, 1992) this shared or distributed leadership allows for increased capacity within the school and is expected to increase student achievement through increased resources and expertise by the formation of a professional working environment.

This is to acknowledge that teacher leadership occurs within a situated context composed of a "social system having formal and informal dimensions" (Larkin, 1973) and it is this environment that produces pressures that may inhibit acquisition of or success in teacher leadership competencies. This addresses leadership as an organizational phenomenon that not only influences but is influenced by the various dimensions it must orient itself within (Yukl, 1994). The school social system is impacted by the community it is within and the school's own organizational and cultural context. Larkin found that the administrative and organizational structures have a marked impact on the teacher leadership roles and play on the power dimensions within the institution's climate. This stream of thought is found within the work of Ann Hart (1995) who urges for communitarian values within the traditional school hierarchy stating "that a healthier and more appropriate workplace relies on a matrix of authority vested in many people rather than a strict hierarchy of authority and power vested in the principal" (p. 11).

A shift from the traditionalist mentality "of most teachers' roles as implementers of curriculum decisions and procedures decided elsewhere in the bureaucracy" (Darling-Hammond, Bullmaster, and Cobb, 1995) is done by cultivating the connection between leadership and learning while structuring them within a system that expands the current roles within regard to influence and capacity. They take the position that the use of professional development school models assist in creating this learning environment that leads to innovation. With the support offered by these schools the teacher is put into a new light as a professional that in turn is

viewed by the administration as capable of taking on expanded roles. The additional benefit here is that with these new roles focused on research, curriculum, decision-making, knowledge production, and coaching the teacher is able to challenge the individual leadership concept and to cultivate the collective leadership of teachers to share in the tasks of the administration. This enhanced learning work environment will further take on the old "policy logic" that sought action without concern for the deeper relations of ends and means; instead moving towards more formal theoretical practices in order to get beyond a limited set of policy oriented questions to broader salient variables that connect action to enduring rationale and logic (Smylie, 1995; Argyris & Schon, 1974).

So a learning professional community is a trademark of increased teacher leadership within a school and this has the advantage of tackling the perception of powerlessness that is reported by Monica Coyle (1997) as a chief compliant amongst school leaders. She points out that within the school there are great tensions concerning power as we have seen the growth of administrative staff within schools to the point that they often outnumber faculty. That the maintenance of formal hierarchies with administrators as head but that these "administrators have little hands-on connection with that reality" of classroom work (Coyle, 1997, p. 236). She goes on to endorse structural change that will provide time for collaboration that in turn for her will go far to reduce teacher complacency and isolation and enable time for teachers to reflect; highlighting this as an essential element for development of leadership skills.

Concepts of shared leadership have been mentioned previously and were a common theme throughout many of studies on teacher leadership. Printy and Marks (2006) highlight that this type of leadership framework goes a great deal in establishing structures that cultivate shared beliefs and visions amongst teachers and assist in maintaining and growing collaborative relationships. Printy and Marks as well as Pounder (2006) and Silva, Gimbert, and Nolan (2000) highlight that a belief in shared leadership as a trademark of teacher leadership have occurred in three stages over time. The first stage was one in which played within the constructs of traditional hierarchy where power would be distributed and implied that there were skills and tasks that could be executed through the school. The second stage brought about a greater focus on instructional leadership roles with the development of teachers taking roles of curricular specialists and designers. This pointed to leadership as relational and multi-directional based on networks and webs within the school; where influence is cultivated around common interests and goals. The third stage is an integrative fashion where leadership and teaching is mixed and taken on by groups or individuals to promote shared understanding and action. This stage is pervasive in the current understanding of teacher leaders as focused "on professionalism and collegiality and is a label reserved for those teachers who improve a school's educational climate by engaging colleagues in various activities designed to enhance the educational process" (Pounder, 2006, p. 534).

Printy and Marks (2004; 2006) go on to hold up shared instructional leadership as the ideal for nurturing teacher leadership; arguing that "teaching is a social practice, not an individual one, and interaction with

school colleagues is a primary source of teacher learning" (2006; p. 127). This connection of leadership with learning as referenced above cultivates the professional development of the faculty as a whole through the shared experiences. Printy and Marks, as also mentioned by Hart (1995) and York-Barr (2004), point out that this professional development should be conducted from on-site colleagues in addition to having peer observations and mentors from on-site faculty. That this experience from on-site colleagues builds trust, confidence, and positive interactions; while using outside personnel for this effort may stymie the climate of teacher leadership since the implicit message by bringing in an outside "professional" is that there are no "professionals" within the school to take on these tasks. By having this dialogue on skills within the school culture sets the conditions for the climate to be one that encourages the creation of new meanings and understanding based from a collective framework. Printy and Marks (2006) hold that such "sense-making discussions makes leaders out of teachers" (p. 127).

The process of sense-making is correlated to ownership of the decision-making process and in turn is held to be tied directly to greater buy-in that can lead to deeper and sustainable innovations within an institution and persistence of teacher leadership characteristics (Stegall & Linton, 2012). David Piercey (2010) goes so far as to make the claim that this shared leadership with the key competency of collaboration is the main factor of school improvement. In referencing the research of DuFour and Eaker, Piercey (2010) holds that collaboration builds teams that have trust, able to openly discuss and confront conflict, possess clear purposes, have shared accountability, and a concentration on group results. Highlighting the centrality of robust and health professional networks focused on shared learning commitments and practice to building teacher leadership capacity. Networks that have at their root a commitment to concepts of authentic leadership with self-efficacy and self-transformation as its root. Once the educator is realized and identified as a leader in their own right they are then able to create organizational change and transformation. Once again we see the call for a flattened hierarchy with distributed power as the necessary ends and conditions for teacher leadership to succeed. That the sharing of leadership roles and duties between teachers and with administrators enable for professional standards and norms to take hold and persist within the school environment with teachers likely to continue innovative practices opposed to the "same old techniques" which can only be achieved by whole school involvement (Printy and Marks; 2006).

Julie Sherrill (1999) laments the lack of a clear definition of teacher leadership and points out that in turn this leads to ill-defined roles and expectations for teacher leaders within their own institutional environments. The risk here is that these roles become highly localized phenomenon that take from the specific teacher leader an overwhelming amount of energy in order to craft this locally defined role. Ann Hart (1995) and Mark Smylie (1992; 1995) also point to this lack of clarity within the larger teacher leadership understanding and fear that ambiguity risks the teacher being left in conflict with peers and having their leadership questioned by administrators with the additional concerns over overload experienced by teachers having to work in unsupportive structures. With Little (1990) holding that this ambiguity can also mistakenly cultivate a

formalized teacher leadership that is an extension of the traditional hierarchy and elevates the likelihood that this role may negatively impact the collegiality that currently exists. These concerns are themselves possibly mitigated by the "sense-making" process as a profession that may be necessary in order to separate the teacher from the traditional hierarchical dichotomy of superordinate and subordinate.

The traditional dichotomy requires administration to assist in defining the roles of the teacher leaders and additionally the possible redefining of the roles of administrators (Hart, 1995; Sherrill, 1999; Printy and Marks, 2006; York-Barr and Duke, 2004). The academic administrator plays a pivotal role in providing the resources and guidance for development of mentor plans, career ladders, and openness for inclusion within decision-making and shared governance supported by distributed leadership. Hart (1995) points out that the concept of a sole leader is a culturally embedded construct and urges that schools take into consideration the unique dynamics of collective enterprises such as a school is that requires a multi-functional approach to dealing with the situated environment. A collective situation requires multi-directional and interactive approaches to communication, processes, knowledge, and efforts which are in contrast to an individual led enterprise.   It is the academic administrator who must take that step to view faculty as full partners; especially within the realm of instructional matters (Printy and Marks, 2006). The distributing of power to the collective of teachers within a school to direct the instructional concerns does not alleviate the academic administrator from this concern; in fact it demands that she provides a guiding vision and supervises the assessment process both to ensure that there is unity of effort and a level of performance accountability. This relationship frees the principal to focus on resource support and strategic leadership while enabling teachers to take on the role of operational leadership.

What Do Teacher Leaders Do?

York-Barr and Duke (2004) in their comprehensive meta-analytical study of this question developed a list of common characteristics and attributes from the past 30 years of research. For them teacher leaders practice by coordinating events that promote both academic inquiry but also discourse and collaboration to routine schedules and additionally monitor improvement efforts along with typical classroom management. At their core they seek to define outcomes and develop curriculum. They are mentors, peer coaches, and model as well as promote all aspects of professional development. They participate in school and district-wide decision-making and are advocates and cultivators for school change in cooperation with their peers. They facilitate learning communities that embrace research and development of organizational policies. They are not afraid to have honest discourses that confront institutional problems and are willing to bulk the status quo. They create, nurture, and maintain relationships and active partnerships with parents and community members. They are involved in their profession through professional associations and organizations and are participants in pre-service teacher education; marking their commitment to lifelong-long learning.

With a foundation of characteristics it becomes easier to conceptualize the possibility of a definition of teacher leadership. However, just as a general of definition of leadership has not been possible so it is with teacher leadership. However, this research was influenced by the definition offered by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) of "teachers who are leaders lead within and beyond the classroom, identify with and contribute to a community of teacher learners and leaders… and influence others towards improved educational practice" (p. 17). This espouses much of what can be seen throughout the research that regarding this topic.

Teacher Leadership within Post-Secondary Education

Leadership by teachers within post-secondary education has a scattered history with much of the original work looking at the role of the teacher as leader within the classroom. This aspect of instructional leadership was looked by Norr and Crittenden (1975), who considered leadership as a human relational concept and structured their study around four dimensions of support, interaction facilitation, goal emphasis, and work facilitation. The authors do acknowledge that development of leadership does have an impact on teacher effectiveness and that even though teachers have a "headship" due to positional power within the classroom may still emerge as leaders if they are provided the ability to conduct situational adjustments that enhance their instructional abilities. This can be related to an essential element of leadership which is the ability to influence and not solely influence people but systems.

Shen (2001) demonstrates that perceptions of teacher leadership are impacted by a variance of attributes (i.e. tenure, socio-economic status, organizational structures, etc.) and even with an increase in rhetoric concerning teacher empowerment issues still linger concerning the level of participation achieved. Miller (2006) built upon earlier Shen's study in order to demonstrate that many of the same variables identified within PK-12 education do influence aspects of teacher leadership understanding within post-secondary education. Post-secondary institutions have had a long history of shared governance principles that by their nature promote collegiality and maintain a role for faculty in participating in the decision-making process. Additionally, the use of shared governance principles that are based on transformational leadership models of distributed leadership for decision-making does promote the ideal that leadership is vested in the collective rather than in a singular. In this the faculty does not necessarily take on administrative roles directly but are empowered to have a level of influence over facets or whole-organizational processes (Miller, 2006). This principle by its nature has historically promoted a model of teacher leadership. Miller and Katz (2004) however point that in many cases administrators only tacitly promote this collegiality and as post-secondary institutions become more affected by outside influences and take on more business and bureaucratic practices the role of faculty as shared decision-makers is becoming more difficult to maintain. As a system shared governance often contradict many management principles due to its often time and labor intensiveness (Smith, 2007; Miller & Katz, 2004). Yet its ability to ensure collegiality is paramount but is put to

the gauntlet over the last several decades as a rise in the commercialization of education began to challenge these principles as well as erode faculty cohesion as programs began to compete for resources (Smith, 2007).

Shared governance is linked to teacher empowerment and this can be seen when teachers turn to collective bargaining after they have felt that they have been slighted by administrators or maybe it could be put more as a sense of being disenfranchised or devalued within the decision-making processes. However, research has demonstrated that maintaining teacher empowerment has wide ranging impacts for the institution with likelihood of retention, increased professionalism, improved instructional techniques, increase of organizational cohesion, and most importantly higher levels of student achievement (Shen, 2001; Miller, 2006). This increase of faculty cohesion when applied to the decision-making process allows for a more holistic and effective defining and solving of institutional problems and challenges (Murphy, 2005; Miller, 2006).

From the literature above we have seen the role structuring role of leadership within education shift and develop this concept of teacher leadership. Yet this understanding has only scantily been applied to tertiary institutions. Yet it is visible that a shift has occurred since the introduction of this term in the 1970s from an informal position to teachers now being defined within the scope of formal leadership functions (Andrews, 1974; Hynes & Summers, 1990; Murphy, 2005). This evolution is greatly impacted by the school improvement and accountability efforts and has changed the understanding within education of the distribution of influence, decision-making, and organizational understanding of authority (Cowdery, 2004). Hence a great deal of impact on the perception of teacher leadership is bent by an institution's initiating structures and the relationships between formal administrators and faculty (Andrews & Crowther, 2002; Angelle & DeHart, 2011; Norr & Crittenden, 1975, Williams, 2003). The greater level of empowerment felt by faculty and to share in leadership within institutions based on collaboration garner the greatest levels of teacher leadership (Angelle & DeHart, 2011; Davidson & Dell, 2003, Lortie, 1975). Institutional understanding of not solely the definition of teacher leadership or of its paradigm of governance will necessarily cultivate teacher leaders; it is critical for there to be an understanding of those characteristics that the institution through its formal administrators seek to promote to establish an institutional culture geared towards academic success.

Method

For this study, the researcher crafted his survey based on the findings of Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003); their research was concerned with the leadership aspects that most impacted student achievement through a meta-analysis of seventy studies. The findings of the Waters et al. (2003) regarding the attributes of effective principals was greatly modified to better address necessary leadership attributes that could be perceived as essential for effective teacher leadership and added in questions to better met the research purpose. A large demographic section was also added to the survey protocol to get a clearer picture of the participants.

The target population was academic administrators (in this study academic administrators will be defined as chief academic officers and dean-equivalent positions) at two year private, not-for-profit, Title IV participating, degree-granting colleges. The two year private, not-for-profit, Title IV, participating, degree-granting colleges were selected from those that are accredited by one of the six regional accrediting association and are members of the American Association of Community Colleges and the National Association of Independent Colleges and Universities that grant only associate degrees. The total number of institutions that met this requirement were 12 out of the overall 107 institutions that fall within two year private, not-for-profit, Title IV participating, degree-granting colleges currently active within the United States. This data was pulled from the regional accrediting associations, professional organizations (i.e. American Association of Community Colleges), and the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS) Institutional Characteristics. The sample from these identified institutions will be academic administrators as defined above and the sample will be stratified by gender, institutional affiliation (sectarian or non-sectarian), and size of institutional student population.

The participants identified were 86 individuals and they were contacted via e-mail concerning the purpose of the research and to notify the researcher if they were not willing to participate. From this e-mail the researcher was notified by one individual that they were not willing to participate and one of the e-mail addresses was no longer active. The remaining 84 individuals received a follow-up e-mail one week later with a link for to the survey. A week later from that date another e-mail with the embedded link was sent to the sample with a note expressing appreciation for those how had already completed the survey. A week from that date a final reminder email with the embedded link was sent to the participants notifying them that one week from this e-mail the survey would be closed and once again expressing appreciation for those who had participated. The original pool of participants represented seven (7) sectarian schools and five (5) non-sectarian and two institutions had a student population of over 1,000. The break-out of the original pool of participants by role was 18 were at the associate/assistant dean or higher with the remaining 66 being at program director or department chair level. Further 33 of the original participants are affiliated with sectarian schools and 51 with non-sectarian schools.

Results

Of the 84 participants, 20 responded but only 19 had complete surveys, resulting in a 22.6% response rate. Of these 19 complete respondents there were five (5) at the associate/assistant dean or higher level representing 26% of the respondents which is represents a response rate larger to than their total make-up of the overall population which was originally at 21%. Additionally nine (47%) of respondents were from sectarian schools which represents a higher response rate when compared to their total within the larger population which is at 39%. Participants came largely from institutions that were under 1,000 students (N=14, 73%) and of these 9 (64%) represented institutions under 500 students. For 16 out of the 19 participants

(84%), their institutions where focused on providing liberal or general education with three of the institutions reporting a health or allied health focused curriculum. Close to half of the participants (N=10, 52%) reported that their institution had under 30 full-time faculty members and 12 (63%) reported having under 60 part-time/adjunct faculty members; with the largest single group of 8 (42%) having under 30 within this category.

The respondent population was 68% female, 94% white, 42% were between the ages of 35 and 44 (the next highest responding age group was at 65 or older at a 21% response rate), and 58% had a master's degree. The majority of respondents (16 or 84%) reported that they held an academic rank within their institution at the instructor or higher level and that the same level still carried instructional requirements within their institutions. For reported years within higher education, 8 (42%) reported having been employed within this field between five to nine years; additionally the next highest period was that of 15 to 19 years of service which had 5 (26%) respondents. Service within an academic administrator capacity was for under 10 years for 16 (84%) of the participants.

The instrument contained 29 questions concerning teacher leadership attributes that the participants were asked to rank each items level of importance off a five point likert scale (1 – not important, 2 – somewhat important, 3 – important, 4 – very important, 5 – critical). Therefore, the minimum summed score would be 29 and the maximum summed score was 145. The Cronbach Alpha for these questions is 0.936. The highest mean was tied between two items that both had a mean of 4.26 and were that of "Sensitive to the needs of students" and "Have a student-first attitude." The second highest item was "Passionate about content area" with a mean of 4.21. The two lowest means were for the statements "Expand skillsets to enhance professional career" at 3.11 and "Conducts research to stay abreast of content" at 2.79. The ranking of each item can be seen in Table 1.

An independent sample *t*-test was conducted to compare responses by sectarian and non-sectarian participants. No significant differences were found between the two groups at an ⏹⏹of 0.05 level. These values can be seen in Table 2. Additionally, the researcher conducted a separate t-test to compare responses based off of the full-time equivalent (FTE) reported by participants. No participant reported an FTE above 59 persons at their institution. No significant differences were found between these two groups as well and these values can be seen in Table 3.

Discussion

There are couple limitations to this study despite the strong Cronbach Alpha, recognizing the small number of respondents (N=19) even though it was from a small population within higher education. The generalizability of the results is impacted not only by the participant size, but also within the criteria constraints for the sample selection of institutions which resulted in a small number (N=12) being considered within the confines referenced above in the document. As a result, the findings are reflective of this small population of academic administrators and their type of institutions.

Table 1 - *Evaluation of statements on Teacher Leadership Attributes (N=19)*

Cronbach's Alpha	0.936	

Item	Mean	St. Deviation
Sensitive to the needs of students.	4.26	0.733
Have a student-first attitude.	4.26	0.653
Passionate about content area.	4.21	0.713
Effectively communicate with a diverse populations.	4.16	0.855
Oriented towards student learning outcome achievement.	4.11	0.658
Excellent teaching skills.	4.11	0.809
Accepts responsibility and accountability for student learning outcomes.	4.00	0.816
Able to resolve and mediate disputes or conflicts both with peers and students.	4.00	0.882
Ability to collaborate and build strong trust based relationships.	3.95	1.129
Engages peers and able to influence positive outcomes with peers and students.	3.95	0.911
Provides timely and supportive feedback.	3.94	0.827
Capacity to adapt and adjust to new situations.	3.89	0.737
Ability to motivate others.	3.84	0.688
Is a self-reflective learner and open-minded.	3.84	0.958
Creative in achieving active instructional environments with limited resources.	3.79	0.787
Able to identify and assess student, peer, and institutional needs.	3.79	0.855
Is creative and actively shares innovative ideas.	3.68	0.885
Viewed as a successful teacher by students.	3.68	0.820
Is confident and optimistic.	3.58	0.961
Takes risks in order to work through processes and encourages the change process.	3.58	0.902
Dedicated to expanding knowledge base to enhance instruction.	3.53	0.772
Ability to have a vision that takes into consideration the "big picture".	3.53	0.964
Committed to participating in campus and department service.	3.47	0.841
Interested and participates in institutional governance.	3.47	1.020
Readiness to assume formal leadership roles.	3.42	0.692
Have a concrete philosophy of education.	3.21	1.134
Has a thorough understanding of instructional theory and practice.	3.17	1.249
Expand skillsets to enhance professional career.	3.11	0.875
Conducts research to stay abreast of content	2.79	1.273

Table 2 - *Sectarian vs. Non-Sectarian Institution participants' responses (T-Test)*

Institution Type	Number	Mean	St. Deviation	t-value	p-value
Sectarian	9	106.222	14.481	2.110	0.692
Non-Sectarian	10	109.2	17.351		

Table 3 - *Participants' responses based on institutional FTE (T-Test)*

Institution Type	Number	Mean	St. Deviation	t-value	p-value
1 to 29 FTE	10	108.2	14.203	2.109	0.908
30 to 59 FTE	9	107.33	18.062		

However, while the sample was small, it does confirm what is found in other teacher leadership studies that a student-centric and collaborative working relationships or as Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) posit "teachers who are leaders lead within and beyond the classroom, identify with and contribute to a community…and influence others toward improved educational practice." The focus within the first five items listed above, demonstrates the role of teacher leaders to increase and accept responsibility for student achievement within a community (Durant & Frost, 2003, Leithwood & Riehl, 2003, York-Barr & Duke, 2004). Additionally, this does support other research that teacher leaders, even within the post-secondary level of education, are prized for their capability in having interpersonal skills, to hold a level of superior knowledge of their content area, and have a skills in order to express varied strategies to have a curriculum and instructional method that can be differentiated for the student (Kull & Bailey, 1993, Krisko, 2001, Barth, 2001).

Upon review of the top five ranked items, one can see the perceived role that student achievement plays as can be assumed as part of the trend towards accountability within all levels of education today. Though this aspect within post-secondary education can be traced back to the work of the "Muscatine Report" by the Select Committee on Education at the University of California, Berkley in 1968. But even more recently, Ken Bain (2004) in his book *What the Best College Teachers Do* ranks high the aspects of "caring" for students, passion about topical area, and frameworks for evaluation and assessment for superior teaching. Though from this study aspects of assessment and evaluation come in towards the middle of ranked attributes. Okpala and Eliss (2005) found that college students ranked effective teacher quality with caring, teaching skills, content knowledge, dedication to teaching, and verbal skills as the top five concerns; findings similar to what has been selected by the administrators within this study.

The focus on traditional aspects of teaching effectiveness are well supported by research to be ranked high as perceived attributes for teacher leadership. However, the ranking of the more formal aspects of teacher leadership in this study towards the bottom is of interest to note. Research has focused on the importance of distributed leadership roles within the institutional framework of schools as a measure to increase student achievement (Riordan, 2003; Elmore, 2000). Additionally, the higher level of teacher involvement and desire has been shown to build trust and positive relationship, tends toward clarity in communication and leadership domains, and eliminate a teachers' sense of isolation (Silva et al. 2000; Smylie & Brownlee-Conyers, 1992; Coyle, 1997). Thus the coupling of the three attributes targeting this aspect towards the bottom may be indicate that these institutions have some other avenue of providing teacher involvement in a less direct fashion than the broad statements offered in the survey or possibly that the participants hold a more traditional viewpoint within these regards for departmental and higher governance and leadership.

With the focus on content knowledge and teaching effectiveness as being ranked highly in this study it was surprising to see the lowest items ranked being within the area of research, professional development, understanding of instructional practices and theories, and a teacher's espousal of a concrete philosophy of

education. These aspects all tend to be tied together in demonstrating an ability to gain a clear vision and set values within a professional population. Additionally, engagement in items as professional development have been shown to offer a level of empowerment for teacher concerning their confidence and in building greater collaboration and job satisfaction (Breault, 2007; Hickey & Harris, 2005). These items are further linked in that they are tied together in the aspect that they all play a part in enhancing a teachers' skills and knowledge of who they are, their institution, their field, and how it relates to enhance the learners' experience.

The aspect of teacher leadership within post-secondary education is a topic that can and should be in the opinion of this researcher, be further developed to find correlations as well as divergences between the corpus of research on the topic surrounding PK-12 education. The insights that can be garnered from this research can inform post-secondary administrators on what attributes are prized and if gaps exist within structures or perceptions surrounding empowering faculty while focusing on student achievement. By building an enhanced understanding of these concepts institutions will be better positioned to allocate resources in addition to understanding institutional culture; thus being able to focus on developing a future where a powerful voice can be given to faculty as leaders.

Recommendations for Research

In order to get a more accurate picture of the teacher leadership attributes perceived as important within post-secondary education in future studies, researchers may wish to investigate current levels of governance within institutions. To assess the role of professional development as it is related to content area and to enhancing instructional skills and theory understanding. What role does institutional leadership play within facets of teacher leadership and whether the understanding of teacher leadership within the PK-12 environment translates to a post-secondary understanding of education and faculty roles?

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COLLEGE STUDENTS AND ALCOHOL: CONSUMPTION, PERCEPTIONS, AND ADMINISTRATORS' PREVENTION EFFORTS

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Royce in 1981 emphasized the importance of alcohol abuse prevention. He wrote,

> You do not win a war by treating its victims. It is a fact of medical history that no major public health problem was ever solved by treatment. Smallpox has been practically wiped off the globe, not by daubing the pockmarks with medicine but because Jenner discovered a vaccination. Malaria has been greatly reduced, not by soothing the fevered brow of the malaria victim but by discovering the role of the mosquito and taking appropriate actions. Jonas Salk and his polio vaccine did more than all the devoted therapists massaging the muscles of polio victims. Even tuberculosis, although medical and surgical treatment techniques have greatly improved, has been minimized largely through the education-prevention campaign of the Anti-Tuberculosis League. The analogy is trite but still appropriate. Putting the bulk of our alcoholism funds into treatment rather than into prevention is like running an ambulance at the bottom of the cliff instead of erecting a barricade at the top. (pp. 179-180)

University and college administrators engage in alcohol abuse prevention efforts to reduce alcohol-related problems on their campuses. One of the prevention tools used by prevention specialists is to clarify students' misperceptions regarding their peers' consumption of alcohol. Students inaccurately perceive that their peers drink more alcohol than they do consume. The basic premise regarding this prevention effort is that clarifying students' misperceptions will result in students realizing that they do not need to drink more to fit in because they already fit in, but they do not realize it. Evidence regarding students' perceptions regarding the effectiveness of social norming programs is lacking. The purposes of this study were to examine (a) undergraduate students' drinking patterns (b) their perceptions regarding their peers' alcohol

consumption; and (c) their perceptions regarding the effectiveness of administrators' efforts to clarify students' misperceptions regarding their peers' consumption of alcohol.

Background

Men and women entering universities and colleges often experience a new sense of freedom. They are away from home and parental supervision. This new freedom coupled with our society's acceptance of drinking often sets the stage for students to drink alcohol. Straus and Bacon conducted the first national study on college drinking in 1953. They found that approximately two-thirds of the college population drank alcoholic beverages. Today, one of the most cited sources for information related to college drinking is the Alcohol and other Drug Survey (AOD) developed by the Core Institute at Southern Illinois University Carbondale (Core Institute, 2011).

The Core Institute's most recent findings from 2009 - 2011 based on 168,499 surveys include the following: (a) 81.8% of the students consumed alcohol in the past year; (b) 68.8% of the students consumed alcohol in the past 30 days; (c) 35.4% of the students experienced peer pressure to drink or use drugs during the past 30 days; and (d) 62.3% of underage students (younger than 21) consumed alcohol in the previous 30 days (Core Institute, 2013).

Alcohol Abuse

Binge Drinking. The National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism defines a standard drink as one that contains about 14 grams of pure alcohol, which is found in: 12 ounces of beer which is usually about 5 percent alcohol, 5 ounces of wine which is typically about 12 percent alcohol, and 1.5 ounces of distilled spirits which is about 40 percent alcohol (NIAAA, 2010). The NIAAA defines binge drinking "as a pattern of drinking that brings blood alcohol concentration (BAC) levels to 0.08 g/dl. This usually occurs after 4 drinks for women and 5 drinks for men—in about 2 hours" (NIAAA, 2010).

The Mayo Clinic staff (2014) refers to binge drinking as:

> A pattern of drinking where a male consumes five or more drinks in a row, or a female downs at least four drinks in a row — can lead to the same health risks and social problems associated with alcoholism. The more you drink, the greater the risks. Binge drinking, which often occurs with teenagers and young adults, may lead to faster development of alcoholism. (para. 3)

The difference between men and women is due to the differences in body weight. The National Institutes of Health's booklet ALCOHOL A Women's Health Issue (NIH, 2008) states:

> Alcohol passes through the digestive tract and is dispersed in the water in the body. The more water available, the more diluted the alcohol. As a rule, men weigh more than

women, and, pound for pound, women have less water in their bodies than men. Therefore,

a woman's brain and other organs are exposed to more alcohol and to more of the toxic

byproducts that result when the body breaks down and eliminates alcohol. (p. 3)

The Core Institute does not distinguish between women and men regarding binge

drinking. Binge drinking is consuming five or more drinks in one sitting for males and

females. The Core Institute reported 42.8% of students reported binge drinking in

the previous two weeks (Core Institute, 2013).

Drinking Games. Engs and Hanson (1993) surveyed 3,830 students from 58 American universities

and colleges. A significantly higher proportion of light to moderate drinkers who played

drinking games experienced drinking-related problems.

Beer Pong and chug-a-lug are familiar drinking games on campuses. In addition,

today an online viral social-media game named 'NekNominate' involves players drinking

large quantities of alcohol in dangerous situations, posting the videos, and challenging friends to outdo them

or they would ridicule them online. This dangerous

activity linked to the deaths of five men under the age of 30 shows no signs of ending

(Kuruvilla, 2014).

Blackouts. Blackouts occur when individuals continue functioning, but do not remember

doing so (Hughes & Dodder, 1992; Perkins, 1992). In fact, they are a type of amnesia that is the result of

excessive drinking. Blackouts are not the same as passing out because a person continues to function

normally, but cannot remember his or her activities, such as eating, having sex, and so forth **(**Goodwin, 1995).

White, Jamieson–Drake, and Swartzwelder (2002) found 51% or 393 of the female students experienced a

blackout at some point in their lives and 40% or 309 female students experienced one blackout during the past

year. The authors also reported female students who experienced three or more blackouts experienced

heavier drinking and lower grades. Some students experiencing blackouts learned later that they had

vandalized property, driven an automobile, and had sexual intercourse.

Alcohol Abuse Problems. Problems associated with students' alcohol abuse are numerous. Hingson, Zha,

and Weitzman (2009) studied the numbers of alcohol-related unintentional injury deaths and other problems

using data from Reporting System, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention Injury Mortality Data, National

Coroner Studies, census and college enrollment data, the National Household Survey on Drug Use and Health

and the College Alcohol Study. They found: (a) 599,000 college students were injured because of drinking; (b)

696,000 students were hit or assaulted by another drinking college student; (c) an estimated 1,825 college

students between the ages of 18 and 24 died from alcohol-related unintentional injuries, including motor

vehicle crashes; (d) 360,000 students between the ages of 18 and 24 drove under the influence of alcohol, and

(e) 97,000 were victims of alcohol-related sexual assault or date rape.

The Core Institute's most recent findings from 2011 include the following:

34.2% reported some form of public misconduct (such as, trouble with police,

fighting/argument, DWI/DUI, vandalism) at least once during the past year as a result of

drinking or drug use. 22.6% reported experiencing some kind of serious personal problems

(such as suicidality, being hurt or injured, trying unsuccessfully to stop using, sexual assault)

at least once during the past year as a result of drinking or drug use. (Core Institute, 2013)

Students with high GPAs were less likely to consume alcohol. These students did not experience

problems related to alcohol consumption (Foster, Caravelis, & Kopak, 2014).

Students' Misperceptions Regarding Alcohol Consumption

Perkins and Berkowitz introduced the theoretical construct of university and college students'

misperceptions regarding their peers' consumption of alcohol as a prevention issue in 1986 (Perkins, 1995).

Perkins (2012) stated that "hundreds of studies have documented this phenomenon since it was brought to

light some 25 years ago" (p. 1).

 Recent research showed that college students often misperceived that their peers consumed more

alcohol than they did (Litt, Lewis, Stahlbrandt, Firth, & Neighbors, 2012). The Core Institute (2013) reported

68.8% of the students consumed alcohol in the past 30 days. However, students inaccurately perceived that

88.5% of the students on campus consumed alcohol in the past 30 days.

Rinker and Neighbors (2013) found college students tempted to drink may drink more if they perceive

that the typical student at their school drinks a lot.

Perkins, Haines, and Rice (2005) indicated that the best predictor of how much alcohol students would

consume was students' perceptions regarding their peers' consumption of alcohol compared to other

demographics. Perception of the norm was also a much stronger predictor when compared with the actual

campus norm.

Pape (2012) questioned whether young people exaggerated the overestimation of peer substance use.

Perkins (2012) disagreed with Pape's report. He wrote, "Widespread overestimation by young people of peer

substance misuse and permissive attitudes is real" (p. 1).

Clarifying students' misperceptions might result in fewer alcohol-related problems because perceived

norms lose their influence when consensus breaks down (Perkins, 1991; Prentice & Miller, 1993, 1996).

Students who overestimated others' drinking behaviors consumed alcohol at higher levels than students who

held an accurate assessment of the drinking norms.

The results of administrators' intervention efforts to clarify students' misperceptions and reduce alcohol-

related problems are mixed. For example, Wechsler et al. (2003) examined student drinking patterns at

colleges that engaged in clarifying students' misperceptions regarding their peers' consumption and colleges

that did not engage in social norming activities. They did not find support that social norming programs

reduced alcohol use.

On the other hand, studies have found support for social norming programs. Haines and Spear (1996) building on the Perkins and Berkowitz theory, implemented a change strategy that focused on students' misperceptions regarding binge drinking. They used a media campaign over a period of five years. They found a dramatic decrease in students' beliefs that binge drinking was the norm and that students' consumption of alcohol decreased.

Moreira, Oskrochi, and Foxcroft (2012) used personalized normative feedback (PNF) to clarify misperceptions by providing information. They did find support for the effectiveness of PNF for the prevention of alcohol. Synnott (2000) also found support for providing information to clarify misperceptions for female students, but not for male students.Perkins, Linkenbach, Lewis, and Neighbors (2010) found that a social norms media campaign reached the targeted population, reduced misperceptions, and decreased drinking and driving among young adults between 21 and 34. Neighbors et al. (2011) evaluated two types of online social norming interventions with abstainers or light drinking students. The two types of intervention were personal feedback regarding norms and the second was marketing ads. They found support for both approaches, but more for the marketing approach.

Research regarding students' perceptions concerning administrators' efforts to clarify students' misperceptions associated with their peers' consumption of alcohol is lacking. The null hypothesis for this study is that there will be no significant differences among students regarding their perceptions concerning the efficacy of administrators' prevention efforts to clarify students' misperceptions associated with their peers' consumption of alcohol.

Method

Participants. A representative sample drawn using the systematic sampling technique described by Baum, Gable, and List (1987, p. 54) and Hinkle, Wiersma, and Jurs (1988, pp. 165-166) consisted of full-time undergraduate students attending the a public university in New England. Specifically, every third student from the University's master enrollment list of 4,323, that is, 1,441 students received invitations to participate via email.

The email included a cover letter explaining the study and an Internet link to the questionnaire via SelectSurvey.net. This process assured students that all responses were anonymous. Students received a follow-up email one month later to encourage non-respondents to participate.

Response Rate. Four hundred ninety six students returned completed questionnaires. This represents a 34.42% response rate.

Demographics. Participants included: (a) 177 males (35.9%), 316 females (64.1%); (b) 159 Freshmen (32.2%), 116 sophomores (23.5%), 103 juniors (20.9%), and 116 seniors (23.5%); (c) 324 (65.9%) students lived on campus and 168 (34.1%) students lived off campus; and (d) 63 (13.3%) had a 4.0 G.P.A., 188 (39.7%) a 3.5, 154 (32.6%) a 3.0, 53 (11.2%) a 2.5, 7 (1.5%) a 2.0, and 8 (1.7%) had a G.P.A. under 2.0.

Instrument. An instrument designed for this study examined the following: (a) students' drinking patterns; (b) students' perceptions regarding their peers' consumption of alcohol; and (c) students' perceptions related to administrators' efforts to clarify students' misperceptions regarding their peers' consumption of alcohol.

The first section consisted of six statements (i.e., 18 items). The first three statements related to frequency of consumption. The responses for each statement scored using a five point Likert scale included: 1 = once a year or less, 2 = at least once a year, but less than once a month, 3 = at least once a month, but less than once a week, 4 = at least once a week, but not every day, and 5 = every day. The statements included (a) I, on average, usually drink; (b) The typical male student at this university, on average, usually drinks; and (c) The typical female student at this university, on average, usually drinks.

The second three statements related to quantity of consumption. A drink is defined as 12 ounces of beer, five ounces of wine, or one and a half ounces of 80-proof distilled spirits. The responses for each statement scored using a five point Likert scale included:
1 = 1 drink, 2 = 2 drinks, 3 = 4 drinks, 4 = 6 drinks, and 5 = more than 6 drinks. The statements included (a) I, on average, at any one time usually drink; (b) The typical male student at this university, on average, at any one time usually drinks; and (c) The typical female student at this university, on average, at any one time usually drinks. Dr. Ruth Engs at Indiana University developed these statements regarding the frequency and quantity of alcohol use during the 1973-1974 academic year (Engs & Hanson, 1994). The statements for this study included two modifications, namely, (a) the University's name to make them campus specific, and (b) students' perceptions regarding the typical male student's and the typical female student's consumption of alcohol.

The second section consisted of two statements. First, students responded yes or no to the following question: Have you received instructions regarding students' misperceptions associated with students' alcohol consumption? Second, students responded to the following question: If you answered yes to the previous question, did this information influence you to drink less? Responses scored using a five point Likert scale included (a) 1 = strongly agree, (b) 2 = agree, (c) = neutral, (d) 4 = disagree, and (e) 5 = strongly disagree.

Validity and Reliability. The foundation for content validity for the survey was the review of the literature. The six statements related to frequency and quantity had a Chronbach alpha reliability score of .799.

Consumption. The following shorthand definitions for the statements will make reading easier.

- SELFCON refers to students' self-reports regarding the quantity of
  alcohol consumed

- SELFQUANTITY refers to students' self-reports regarding quantity of alcohol consumed.

- MALEQUANTITY refers to students' perceptions regarding the typical male student's quantity of
  alcohol consumed.

  - FEMALEQUANTITY students' perceptions regarding the typical female student's quantity of
    alcohol consumed.

  - SELFFREQ refers to students self-reports regarding frequency of consumption.

  - MALEFREQ refers to students' perceptions concerning the typical male student's frequency of
    consumption.

  - FEMALEFREQ refers to students' perceptions concerning the typical female student's frequency
    of consumption.

  - ADMINEFF refers to students' perceptions regarding administrators' efforts to lessen drinking by
    clarifying students' imperceptions regarding their peers' consumption of alcohol.

The responses for the quantity items are as follows: (a) 1 = less than one drink, (b) 2 = one or two drinks,
(c) 3 = 3 or 4 drinks, (d) 4 = 5 or 6 drinks, and (e) 5 = more than six drinks. The loadings for quantity responses
are as follows: (a) less than 1 drink = 1.0; (b) one or two drinks = 2.0; (c) 3 or 4 drinks = 4.0; (d) 5 or 6 drinks =
6.0; and (e) more than six drinks = 7.5. See Table 1 for SELFQUANTITY.

Table 1 - *SELFQUANTITY*

	Code	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.00	140	28.2	29.7	29.7
	2.00	104	21.0	2.0	51.7
	4.00	117	23.6	24.8	76.5
	6.00	59	11.9	12.5	89.0
	7.5	52	10.5	11.0	100.0
Total		472	95.2	100.0	
Missing		24	4.9		
Total		496	100.0		

Note. SELFQUANTITY stands for students' self-reports regarding the quantity of
alcohol consumed. Code: 1 = one drink 1; 2 = two drinks; 4 = four drinks; 6 = five or
six drinks; and 7.5 = more than six drinks

The responses for the frequency items were recoded using modified loadings adapted from Engs (1990). The

responses for the frequency are as follows: (a) once a year or less = .02 (1/52); (b) more than once a year but

less than once a month = .23 (12/52; (c) at least once a month but less than once a week = .50 (26/52); (d) at least once a week but not every day = 1; and (e) every day = 7. See Table 2 for SELFFREQ.

Table 2 - *SELFFREQ*

	Code	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	.02	129	26.0	26.3	26.3
	.23	80	16.1	16.3	42.7
	.50	96	19.4	19.6	62.2
	1.00	173	34.9	35.3	97.6
	7.00	12	2.4	2.4	100.0
Total		490	98.8	100.00	
Missing		6	1.2		
Total		496	100.0		

Note. SELFFREQ stands for students' self-reports regarding the frequency of alcohol consumed. Code: 0.02 = once a year or less; 0.23 = more than once a year but less than once a month 0.5 = at least once a month but less than once a week; 1.00 = at least once a week but not every day; and 7 = every day.

Classification. Three drinking categories based on the amount students consumed on a particular occasion based on modifications to Engs' classification system (1977) included the following: (a) less than one drink = 0; (b) one or two drinks = 1.5; (c) three or four drinks = 3.5; (d) five to six drinks = 5.5; and (e) more than six drinks = 7.0+. Abstainers are individuals who consumed less than one drink a year or not at all. Light drinkers are individuals who consumed 1.5 drinks per sitting. Moderate drinkers are individuals who consumed 3.5 drinks per sitting. Moderate to heavy drinkers consume 5.5 drinks per sitting. Heavy drinkers are individuals who consume 7.0+ drinks in one sitting. The majority of the 472 students, that is, 244 (51.69%) with data for this index were classified as abstainers or light drinkers. One hundred forty students (28.2%) were abstainers and 104 students (22.0%) were light drinkers. One hundred seventeen students (24.8%) were moderate drinkers; 59 students (12.5%) were moderate to heavy drinkers and 52 students (11.0%) were heavy drinkers.

Mean Drinks Per Week. Students classified as abstainers were not included in the calculation for mean drinks per week. The calculation for average number of drinks per week resulted from multiplying the recoded quantity scores by the recoded frequency scores (Engs, Diebold, & Hanson, 1996). That is, 3.6445 X .9789 = 3.57. The mean drinks consumed per week by the total sample (n = 493) was just over three and a half drinks. The national average is 4.6 drinks based on the Core Institute's sample of 168,499 (2011). This number (i.e., 3.57) represents this campus's norm regarding students' consumption. Male students' self-reports and female students' self-reports differed regarding the average number of drinks consumed per week. Male students reported drinking more than female students (see Table 3).

Table 2 – *Gender Mean Drinks Per Week*

		N	Mean
SELFCON	Female	**316**	2.89
	Male	**177**	4.09
	Total	**493**	3.57

Note. SELFCON stands for students' self-reports regarding the quantity of alcohol consumed.

A one-way ANOVA showed a significant difference between male students and female students for SELFCON (see Table 4).

Table 4 – *Analysis of Variance Summary for Gender*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
SELFCON					
Between Groups	153.945	1	153.945	33.394	.0005
Within Groups	2152.842	467	4.610		
Total	2306.787	468			

Note. SELFCON stands for students' self-reports regarding the quantity of alcohol consumed.

A one-way ANOVA showed significant differences among students for year in school for SELFCON (see Table 5). This omnibus test was followed-up with the Bonferroni post hoc test in order to determine how the groups differed. This test indicated that there was a significant difference between freshmen and sophomores. Sophomores reported that they consumed more alcohol than freshmen.

Table 5 – *Analysis of Variance Summary for Year in School*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
SELFCON					
Between Groups	50.914	3	16.971	3.495	.016
Within Groups	2263.110	466	4.856		
Total	2314.023	469			

Note. SELFCON stands for students' self-reports regarding the quantity of alcohol consumed.

A one-way ANOVA showed significant differences among students for G.P.A. for SELFCON (see Table 6). This omnibus test was followed-up with the Bonferroni post hoc test in order to determine how the groups

differed. This test indicated that there were significant differences between students' with G.P.A.s of 4.0 and 3.0, and 3.5 and 3.0. Students with the higher G.P.A.s consumed less alcohol per occasion. This finding relates to previous research (Foster et al., 2014).

Table 6 – *Analysis of Variance Summary for G.P.A.*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
SELFCON					
Between Groups	48.510	5	9.702	5.835	.0005
Within Groups	743.190447	5	1.663		
Total	791.70045	2			

Note. SELFCON stands for students' self-reports regarding the quantity of alcohol consumed.

A one-way ANOVA did not show a significant difference between students for residence, that is, students living on campus or off campus for SELCON.

Misperceptions

The differences between the actual norm (i.e., SELFQUANTITY) and the perceived norms (i.e., MALEQUANTITY and FEMALEQUANTITY) represent the misperceptions associated with consumption. Students believe that the typical male student consumes 6.89 drinks and the typical female student consumes 4.48 drinks when they drink alcohol. Paired samples t tests showed there were significant differences between (a) SELFQUANTITY and MALEQUANTITY, $t(467) = -24.548$, $p < .0005$; and (b) SELQUANTITY and FEMALEQUANTITY, $t(467) = -11.622$, $p < .0005$.

For example, 140 students (i.e., 28.2%) reported that they consume less than one drink when they drink. However, the same students perceive that 9 male students (i.e., 1.8%) and 15 female students (i.e., 3.0%) consume less than one drink when they drink. In addition, 117 students (i.e., 23.6%) reported that they consume three or four drinks when they drink and 59 Students (i.e., 11.9%) reported that they consume five or six drinks when they drink. However, the same students reported that they perceive that 150 male students (30.2%) consume three or four drinks when they drink and 179 male students (i.e., 36.1%) consume five or six drinks when they drink. In addition, the same students reported that they perceive that 236 female students (47.6%) consume three or four drinks when they drink and 100 female students (i.e., 20.2%) consume five or six drinks when they drink.

Paired samples t tests showed there were significant differences between (a) SELFFREQ and MALEFREQ, $t(481) = -8.635$, $p < .0005$; and (b) SELFFREQ and FEMALEFREQ, $t(482) = -7.589$, $p < .0005$. For example, 129 Students (i.e., 26%) reported that they drink once a year or less. However, the same students reported that they perceive that 4 male students (i.e., .8%) and 4 female students (i.e., .8%) drink once a year or less. In

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addition, 173 students (i.e., 34.9%) reported that they drink at least once a week, but not every day. However, 362 students (i.e., 73%) reported that they perceived that male students drink at least once a week, but not every day and 344 students (i.e., 69.4%) perceived female students drink at

least once a week, but not every day. Students inaccurately perceive that their peers consume more drinks and drink more often than they do themselves. These are misperceptions because the same students responded to the same items. These misperceptions are important because students may drink more to fit in. They already fit in, but they do not realize it.

<div align="center">Administrators' Efforts to Clarify Students' Misperceptions</div>

Two hundred sixty six students (i.e., 53.63) reported that they did receive instructions designed to clarify students' misperceptions regarding their peers' consumption of alcohol. There were 99 male students and 167 female students that received instruction. Two hundred twenty five students (i.e., 45.4%) reported that they did not receive instructions designed to clarify students' misperceptions regarding their peers' consumption of alcohol.

Fifty-seven (i.e., 11.5) strongly agreed or agreed instructions to clarify students' misperceptions did influence them to drink less. One hundred eight students (40.15%) were neutral. One hundred four students (38.66%) disagreed or strongly disagreed that the instruction influenced them to drink less (see Table 7).

<div align="center">Table 7 – <i>ADMINEFF</i></div>

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly agree	12	2.4	4.5	4.56
	agree	45	9.1	16.7	21.2
	neutral	108	21.8	40.1	61.3
	disagree	49	9.9	18.2	79.6
	strongly disagree	55	11.1	20.4	100.0
M	3.346				
sd	1.11283				
Total		269	100.0	100.0	

<u>Note</u>. ADMINEFF refers to students' perceptions regarding administrators' efforts to lessen drinking by clarifying students' imperceptions regarding their peers' consumption of alcohol

The mean response for all students that did receive instruction designed to clarify misperceptions to influence students to drink less was 3.3346. This is between neutral and disagree. Female students' mean response was 3.2096 and male students' mean response was 3.5556 (see Table 8).

Table 8 – *ADMINEFF GENDER*

		N	Mean
Instruction	Female	167	3.2096
	Male	99	3.5556
	Total	266	3.3346
M	3.3346		
sd	1.11283		

Note. ADMINEFF refers to students' perceptions regarding administrators' efforts to lessen drinking by clarifying students' imperceptions regarding their peers' consumption of alcohol.

A one-way ANOVA showed a significant difference between male students and female students for ADMINEFF. Male students' reports were approximately half way between disagree and strongly disagree, while female students' reports were just over the line from neutral to disagree (see Table 9).

Table 9 – *Analysis of Variance Summary for Gender*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
ADMINEFF					
Between Groups	7.440	1	7.440	6.060	.014
Within Groups	324.109	264	1.228		
Total	331.549	265			

Note. ADMINEFF refers to students' perceptions regarding administrators' efforts to lessen drinking by clarifying students' imperceptions regarding their peers' consumption of alcohol.

One -way ANOVAs did not show significant differences for year in school, residence, or G.P.A. for ADMINEFF.

Discussion and Recommendations

There were significant differences in drinking patterns between male students and female students. Male consumed more than females. In addition, there was a significant difference in drinking patterns between sophomores and freshmen. Sophomores drank more than freshmen. Major findings included there were significant differences among students regarding their perceptions associated with their peers' consumption of alcohol. Students perceived that the typical male student and the typical female student drank more than they did.

Fifty-seven students (11.6%) strongly agreed or agreed that administrators' efforts to clarify students' misperception regarding their peers' consumption did influence them to drink less alcohol. One hundred four students (36.66%) disagreed or strongly disagreed,

There was a significant difference between male students and female students regarding their perceptions concerning the effectiveness of administrators' efforts to clarify students' misperceptions of their peers' consumption of alcohol. Male students' reports were approximately half way between disagree and strongly disagree, while female students' reports were just over the line from neutral to disagree. This resulted in rejecting the null hypothesis, that is, there will be no significant differences among students regarding their perceptions concerning the effectiveness of administrators' efforts to clarify students' misperceptions of their peers' consumption of alcohol.

This finding is important. It may be due, in part, to male students consuming more alcohol than female students. Future research will shed light on this finding.

The high number of neutral students may be due, in part, to the inclusion of students classified as abstainers or light to moderate drinkers. Instruction would not likely influence these students to drink less. In addition, other students may not remember instructions. This may be due, in part, to the fact that the University does not have a program designed to clarify students' misperceptions regarding their peers' consumption of alcohol. Therefore, the students who did receive instruction regarding misperceptions received it before they came to the University. They did not have previous clarification efforts regularly reinforced. This may make a difference.

Moser, Pearson, and Borsari (2014) found that students' perception of the college drinking culture was a stronger predictor of subsequent alcohol use than social norms. They suggested that addressing these perceptions would reduce drinking during the first month at college. Therefore, informing students regarding the school's culture before they arrive is important. Sending students information that is campus-specific regarding the actual drinking norms on campus before they arrive on campus may be beneficial.

Conclusion

Clarifying students' misperceptions regarding their peers' consumption does influence students to drink less alcohol. Fifty-seven (i.e., 11.5%) strongly agreed or agreed instructions to clarify students' misperceptions did influence them to drink less. This finding is encouraging. Administrators' efforts using this prevention method are showing some success. Administrators can improve results by designing and implementing on-going programs to clarify students' misperceptions regarding their peers' consumption of alcohol. Students drinking less alcohol will result in fewer alcohol related problems.

There are potential limitations to this study. First, self-reports were used to measure drinking patterns. Reporting bias may be a limitation, that is, subjects may present themselves in a favorable light. However, Select.net insured anonymity. The assurance of anonymity makes reporting bias unlikely (Prentice & Miller, 1993), and research showed that self-reports are valid (Babor, Stephens, & Marlatt, 1987).This study was conducted at public university New England. Therefore, caution is advised regarding generalizations of the results of this study beyond the Northeast region of the U.S.

The University does not have a program designed to clarify students' misperceptions regarding their peers' consumption of alcohol. Therefore the results may be impacted by the time difference between when students received instruction and this study.

Future research is needed to examine the difference between male students and female students regarding their assessments of administrators' efforts to clarify students' misperceptions.

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PRESIDENTIAL LEADERSHIP: SELECTING COMPETENT LEADERSHIP AT THE NATION'S HISTORICALLY BLACK COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

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In 1837, the first institution for higher learning for African Americans was established – Cheyney University of Pennsylvania. Up until the middle of the 20th Century historically black colleges and universities (HBCUs) were the only viable option available for the majority of Blacks that wanted to continue their higher education. Today, HBCUs must appeal not only to the Black student, but find a way to make programmatic changes and become attractive to a larger population of students that includes non-traditional students, graduate students, and students of other ethnic backgrounds. Most recently, predominantly white institutions (PWIs) have, for the most part, sustained during the 2008 recession by expanding their market to include adult learners, online education, and a more diverse student population to include an increased number of African American students. In addition, PWIs have created academic programs that have strong growth potential in the 21st Century. Meanwhile, HBCUs have experienced stagnant or declining enrollments and have, for the most part, not developed innovative programs that would attract today's student. Moreover, a myriad of challenges are facing HBCUs, such as, poor graduation and retention rates, insufficient resources, dwindling endowments, and poor infrastructure. With declining enrollment and strained financial resources, HBCUs need competent and skilled leaders that have the ability to advance the institutions for which they serve.

The New National Concern

In general, the higher education landscape is changing. Long gone are the days of the whited hair, pipe-smoking, academic president. He is slowly being replaced by non-traditional higher education leaders. Some institutions are looking for more diversity, while others are looking for those with more business-related experiences. With the baby boomers entering retirement, it is anticipated that there will be a 50% turnover

among senior administrators in the next decade. (Betts, Urias, Chavez, & Betts, 2009) Across the higher education industry there is an increased need to fill these vacancies with qualified, competent leadership. (Betts, Urias, Chavez, & Betts, 2009) Additionally, many researchers and experts in higher education have expressed concerns with the need to ensure that proper succession plans are underway to address the large number of vacancies that are expected to occur. "[I]t is imperative that colleges and universities reexamine recruitment, professional development and succession plans currently in place to attract candidates seeking new careers or transitioning into higher education as well as develop leaders internally." (Betts, Urias, Chavez, & Betts, 2009, p. 1)

Within the past few years, the higher education community has begun to voice its concerns with relation to the quality of leadership that have been charged with the oversight and advancement of the nation's colleges and universities. Almost two years ago, while noticing the large number of presidential vacancies at the nation's HBCUs, Dr. Marybeth Gasman, professor of higher education in the Graduate School of Education at the University of Pennsylvania and an expert on HBCUs, reached out to Dr. John S. Wilson, former Executive Director of the White House Initiative on HBCUs and now President of Morehouse, to seek feedback about this new alarming epidemic. During his interview, Wilson argued that many of the challenges that HBCUs are facing – leadership, declining enrollments, and dwindling financial resources – are a result of bad decisions made by their trustees. (Gasman, 2012) Thus, it is possible that the problem rests not only with presidential leadership, but with their trustees.

The HBCU Trustee

It is difficult to examine concerns with presidential leadership without examining the role of the university's trustees. In more recent years, university boards have made headlines for various missteps; much of which is resulting from the changing higher education landscape. (Kiley, 2013) With such a volatile landscape, there is a subsequent need to ensure that board trustees are knowledgeable of the education environment and the competing priorities of education's leadership. In a 2012 interview, Dr. John S. Wilson noted specific concerns related to HBCU trustees. For example, Dr. Wilson affirmed that it is difficult for trustees to understand the skills needed in selecting a good leader as they are unfamiliar with the transformation in higher education. In addition, he explains that "one of their most important jobs is selecting a competent, energetic, and innovative president." (Gasman, 2012, para. 6)

Given the aforementioned inexperience of many HBCU trustees in higher education leadership, it becomes apparent that this deficiency could impact the recruitment, selection and retention of qualified presidential candidates. At two of my previous institutions, the selection of university trustees was often a bureaucratic process that resulted in cronyism. In addition, the qualifications to serve on these boards is questionable.

In accordance with the above, HBCU expert and professor, Dr. Marybeth Gasman affirms that boards must be more deliberate, and diligent, in their efforts to recruit quality presidential candidates. Subsequently, Gasman (2013) wrote:

> "If there is a crisis regarding the unpredictability of presidents at HBCUs, then their respective boards share the responsibility as they need to implement better insight on whom they hire… I do have concerns when presidents at HBCUs (in general) are recycled despite past indiscretions. HBCUs, nor any other institution, can afford to take chances on leaders with bad track records." (p. 7)

Thus, in order to understand the challenge with the HBCU trustee, it is imperative that we examine the history and context of the HBCU. Many HBCUs, like any institution, are rooted in a varying degree of traditions and values. However, many colleges and universities leaders have recognized the need to transform themselves in a timely fashion in order to remain relevant. Nonetheless, for a variety of reasons, HBCUs have been slow to change and this is reflected in the decisions made by their trustees and presidential leadership.

The History, Context and Relevance

Within the HBCU Community, three institutions are credited with being the "first." These are Cheyney University of Pennsylvania, Lincoln University of Pennsylvania, and Wilberforce University. Each, in their own right, is the first at something as it pertains to the education of African Americans in the United States. Cheyney University, formerly the Institute for Colored Youth was the first pre-Civil War institution that offered formal secondary education to African Americans. Its humble beginnings were the forward-thinking of Richard Humphries, a Quaker, and the institution was founded in 1837 in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. Lincoln University was founded in 1854 as the Ashmun Institute by Rev. John Miller Dickey, a Presbyterian minister. It is the first degree-granting HBCU in America. Finally, Wilberforce University, was founded in 1856, and is the first private HBCU in America being owned and operated by the African Methodist Episcopal (AME) Church.

Institutions, such as these, provided many African Americans with an opportunity to obtain formal education in an environment that did not support the education of the Negro. Early on, HBCUs provided African Americas with "basic primary and secondary educational skills." (Albritton, 2012, p. 313) Take, for instance, Cheyney University. In 1837, the institute provided for education of AfricanAmericans in literature, science, agriculture, and the mechanical arts (apprenticeships). (The Richard Humphries Foundation, 2001) More importantly, after the Civil War and the emancipation of the African American slaves, there was a critical need to provide this population with basic education. "When the Civil War erupted in 1861 at least 90% of all African Americans were illiterate, and only 28% had received college-or-university-level training from any American institution." (Albritton, 2012, p. 313) Hence the rise of the HBCU.

The Eduational Context and Relevance of the HBCU

The time frame immediately following the Civil War was a period of transformation for the African American community. It was during this time that large number of African Americans were formally trained to become productive citizens, as well as, become preprared for the responsibilities of freedom. (Wilson, 2010) Moreover, as time progressed and through the Civil Rights Era, these institutions served as the leading institutions for the majority of African Americans nationwide. This phase become known as the DuBoisian Period and it represents the time between 1916 and 1969 with the development of the nation's first African American professional and middle class. (Wilson, 2010) W.E.B. DuBois, a Harvard educated, African American force of the time, believed that Blacks could stive for more than just an industrial training, which built upon the ideal of the *Talented Tenth*. (Albritton, 2012) As a result, HBCUs were the top producers of the nation's doctors, lawyers, and teachers during this time.

However, the Civil Rights Era and the social, political, and economic gains of this period brought about significant opportunities for African Americans. (Albritton, 2012) Prior to the Movement, the United States was rooted in an idealogy of "separate but equal," meaing that African Americans were entitled to education as long as it was contained within a racially segregated school system. Many social activists, such as, Bayard Rustin, Martin Luther King, Jr., and Medgar Evans spoke out against the laws that kept African Americans on an unequal playing field from their white counterparts. Thus, with the passage of the 1954 Brown vs. Board of Education decision, African American students were beginning to gain admission to schools that had been traditionally white-serving. (Albritton, 2012) In addition, the Higher Education Act of 1965 required these insititutions to increase their minority enrollment, and by the end of the 1960s, most leading universities had implemented policies and programs to increase their minority student population. (Albritton, 2012)

Given the historical context of the HBCU, many people question the continued relevance of the HBCU. While HBCUs no longer need worry about the discriminatory laws of the past, today, HBCUs face a new set of challenges. Many of them are plagued with financial instability, unattractive academic programs, and shrinking enrollments; specifically, enrollment. With the desegregation of the public school system and increased diversity efforts at predominantly white institutions, HBCUs are in an ever-pressing position of having to define themselves, discuss their relevancy, and find new ways to attract Black students – who, previously, could only attend an HBCU.

The Ever-Changing Landscape and Inability for HBCUs to Attract Good Leadership

Recruitment of competent, executive leadership may prove to be at a disadvantage as it may be difficult to find top-notch leadership that is up to the HBCU challenge. Many of them are plagued with financial instability, unattractive academic programs, and shrinking enrollments. In addition, efforts across the nation have increased to attract a competent and diverse pool of talent to become leaders at well-established institutions. These factors will impact the trustees' ability to secure a leader that will help to advance the

university. Trustees will be faced with a wide range of challenges over the next few years. Unfortunately, the past and current leadership at many of the HBCUs has not had the vision to anticipate the effect of the changes in the environment, and they are still slow to make the proper adjustments. In my opinion, the trustees at HBCUs need to revert back to basics – student enrollment. Thus, the trustee needs to focus its efforts on attracting and selecting a professional that has a demonstrated ability to understand strategic enrollment management.

Within the past decade, colleges and universities have had to strategically plan for meeting their enrollment targets. Ominous predictions in college enrollment helped to change the enrollment landscape and the way colleges view enrollment management now and in the years to come. Enrollment management may have become more imperative during the 2008 Recession as these institutions began to plan for anticipated drops in enrollment because of affordability. However, this prediction proved to be false. "Enrollments of new students at four-year colleges remained relatively stable. Public institutions, many bursting at the seams and operating on slashed budgets, saw modest increases in all but one year." (Hoover, 2011, para. 5)

As noted above, the majority of the 105 historically black colleges and universities were established after the Civil War and provided African descendants with the only opportunity to further their education on the post-secondary level. Thus, HBCUs only competed against each other for students. "Until 1954 and the U.S. Supreme Court decision in Brown vs. Board of Education, which ended 'separate but equal' school systems, HBCUs were the number one option for most blacks interested in attending college." (Coleman, n.d., para. 5) Today, less than twelve percent of all black college students choose to attend HBCUs. (Dewan, 2009)

For predominantly white institutions (PWIs), the impact of the recession has not been as dreary as anticipated. Even with stagnant or minimally increasing enrollments, these institutions have endowments to help them manage through times of crisis. Larger endowments are important to colleges and universities as it provides a means to offer scholarship assistance to help bridge financial gaps in the cost of attendance for students. According to a 2013 *U.S. News and World Report,* nationally, the average endowment for a college or university was $329.9 million. (Hayne, 2013) However, for historically black colleges and universities (HBCUs), offering scholarship support is even more difficult given the fact that the majority of these schools have small endowments to begin with. "If the endowment of all 105 HBCUs were added up, they'd still amount to less than ten percent of Harvard University's endowment, which is upward of $30 billion, is the wealthiest of any college in the world." (Malveaux, 2013, para. 3)

"[H]istorically black institutions have two significant disadvantages when it comes to weathering hard times: smaller endowments, which mean heavier reliance on tuition and fees," and a higher number of students unable to qualify for Parent PLUS loans due to credit ratings. (Dewan, 2009, para. 6) Since the majority of colleges are tuition driven, it is critical that leadership take strategic action to ensure that enrollment targets are met. HBCUs will need to focus efforts on some of their most threatening issues, which

are declining or stagnant enrollments, low retention and graduation rates, particularly among Black males, financial instability, and a lack of student interest in what such institutions tend to offer. (Kiley, Imagine HBCUs differently, 2011) In response to the economy, shrinking endowments and scarce financial resources, HBCUs have not been as nimble or strategically developing tactics for future growth. Thus, strategic enrollment management strategies will assist in ensuring these institutions create a culture of sustainability.

The New Face of University Leadership

In general, the higher education landscape is changing, and traditional university presidents are slowly being replaced by non-traditional higher-education leaders. Traditionally, those who assumed presidencies possessed an academic background and had risen through the academic ranks. Today, this is not necessarily the case. The new president may not necessarily hold a terminal degree. (Betts, Urias, Chavez, & Betts, 2009) "While 75% of the college and university presidents had earned their doctoral degrees (PhD or EdD), 25% of the presidents had varying educational backgrounds (master's, JD, MD, etc.)" (Betts, Urias, Chavez, & Betts, 2009, p. 5)

Furthermore, an increased number of presidents are bringing a business-based knowledge to the table and implemented management principles adopted from the private sector. (van Ameijde, Nelson, Billsberry, & van Meurs, 2009) Some would argue that these business models are not as effective in higher education given its unique landscape, but that will not be debated as a part of this particular paper. What is important to note is that some institutions have sought out a varying degree of leadership to assist them through the ever-changing ladscape. For example, there are inceased accountability measures in place. "Increasingly, government policies require universities to account for the expenditure of public funds and to provide evidence of the value for money." (van Ameijde, Nelson, Billsberry, & van Meurs, 2009, p. 764) As a result, this has created a need to attract and seek out the new face for higher education leadership that is equipped with the skills needed to lead an educational institution through the changing landscape and adapt its culture toward accountability.

The Board and the New Role of the HBCU President

As stated earlier, the most important job of the Board of Trustees for any institution is to select a competent, innovative president. In order to do so, the Board, itself, must be knowledgeable of higher education and its unique needs. In some instances, HBCUs will need to revisit how their boards are populated and review their Bylaws. While this may take some time, professional development for the Board of Trustees may be a more practical solution. Membership with a national organization, such as the Association of Governing Boards, would assist with the professional development needs for trustees through conferences, webinars, books and other information.

Furthermore, according to the Association of Governing Boards for Universities and Colleges, which "is the only national association that serves the interests and needs of academic governing boards… on issues related to higher education governance and leadership," when recruiting for a university trustee, it is important to look for individuals that have experience with some of the following:

> "Experience with large, complex organizations and an understanding of how to interpret the financial condition of such organizations; an ability to recognize the sometimes ambiguous distinction between management and governance… a record of understanding the importance of advocacy and philanthropy in ensuring institutional vitality, responsiveness, and progress in meeting private and public needs; and an ability to consistently sustain a total institutional perspective in his or her and the board's work, without allegiance or commitment to anything except the good of the institution." (AGB, 2014)

By ensuring that the board is populated with accomplished, selfless, competent trustees, the universities are able to better position themselves for advancement. Furthermore, members would seek out presidential candidates that are aligned with their own respective values and beliefs.

HBCUs need to ascertain what qualities they will need in their president in order to move the institution. It will be the role of the board, working with key campus constituents, to determine what will best serve the institution. However, given the changes to the higher education environment, HBCU presidents must know how to "work with a variety of people and must know how to envision, shape, and grow a first-rate learning environment." (Gasman, 2012). This will involve attracting, selecting, and retaining a leader that understands the different variables that are now impacting HBCUs, such as, their relevancy, enrollment challenges, and financial constraints. In addition, it is important to select an individual that is not only a good manager, but is a leader. Leadership and management are two distinct qualities that boards must understand when selecting the individual who will advance their institution. Good leadership will help the HBCU president set the stage in terms of higher education issues, as well as, taking a stand on major policy issues. (Gasman, 2012)

Given the financial instability of HBCUs, there is a strong need for the presidential candidate to have good working knowledge of strategic enrollment management. According to Noel Levitz, one of the nation's leading consulting firms in enrollment management, strategic enrollment planning is "a data-informed process that aligns an institution's fiscal, academic, and delivery resources with its changing environment to accomplish the institution's mission and ensure the institution's long-term enrollment success and fiscal health." (Noel Levitz, n.d., para. 4) The discipline of enrollment management has been evolving since the 1970s. Originally, it focused on new student recruitment and financial aid leveraging; however, since that time, strategic enrollment management has evolved to become an institution-wide responsibility with the central focus on the university's strategic plan. (Wilkinson, Taylor, Peterson, & Machado-Taylor, 2007) Further, according to the Educational Policy Institute:

"Strategic enrollment management is a comprehensive approach to integrating all of the
university's programs, practices, policies, and planning related to achieving the optimal
recruitment, retention, and graduation of students with 'optimal' defined by the mission,
academic vision, and strategic plan of the institution. Enrollment management becomes
Strategic Enrollment Management when it actively integrates planning, strategies and
structures in the formal enrollment management units with the institution's evolving
strategic planning, its academic vision and its fundamental mission." (Wilkinson, Taylor,
Peterson, & Machado-Taylor, 2007, p.8)

Thus, strategic enrollment management involves a comprehensive, systematic, university-wide approach to
intergrate all functions of the university toward focus strategies to ensure student success and institutional
goals. In order for HBCUs to ensure their viability, it will be necessary to select a leader who has the ability to
focus all university efforts realizing the goals of the strategic plan and aligning enrollment management
activities with the plan.

Conclusion

The vulnerability of the HBCU is quite apparent as these institutions struggle to redefine themselves in
21st Century higher education. In order to do so, the leadership at these institutions, which includes
presidential and board leadership, must be skilled and knowledgeable of the strengths, weaknesses, threats
and opportunities that lie ahead. Moreover, institutions will need to ensure that board trustees are qualified,
accomplish professionals that understand the unique challenges of, not only higher education, but historically
black colleges and universities. Collectively, the trustees must have a sound understanding of the qualities
and skills needed to be a competent presidential candidate who will set the stage to advance the institution.
Together, these two, the board and the president, must create a solid working relationship for the betterment
of the university.

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DO COLLEGE STUDENTS GIVE A FLIP ABOUT FLIPPED LEARNING?

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In recent years, the idea of "*Flipped Learning*" or the "*Flipped Classroom*" has taken off in higher education, appealing to many stakeholders at all levels in academic practice. Indeed, as a term or phrase, "*Flipped Learning*" or the "*Flipped Classroom*" has become common in conversation among many progressive faculty and educators in the United States. This is simply because, for example, a recent meta-analysis of 225 studies conducted by University of Washington comparing student performance in undergraduate STEM courses under traditional lecturing vs. active learning showed that active learning models including the flipped classroom model had a positive impact on student outcomes in comparison to the traditional lecturing model (Raths 2015). However, historically speaking the Flipped Learning idea first started when J. Wesley Baker presented a paper (in 2000) at the *11th International Conference on College Teaching and Learning,* called The Classroom Flip, which used videos to present the material instead of the typical classroom lecture (Hoag, 2013, ¶, 5). From that paper came the mantra, "Become the guide on the side" instead of the "sage on the stage." In the same year, Maureen Lage and colleagues (Lage, Platt, & Treglia, 2000) published in *The Journal of Economic Education* an article where they explored the gap between existing teaching and students' learning styles, and the negative effect of this gap in light of increasing diversity among the student population. They concluded that the advances in the development of technologies and multimedia resources, availability and the easy access in the use of technology, and students' enthusiasm for them, created a favorable environment for integrating technology and multimedia in teaching and learning processes. All

these could help make this type of teaching methodology appeal to all types of learners, and in turn positively impact students' learning and success.

However, the popularity of the idea really originates from 2004 when Jonathan Bergmann and Aaron Sams, who taught at a small rural high school in the city of Wood Park, Colorado, began preparing their chemistry classes together. Many of their students missed too many classes because of sports and other activities. They also spent a great amount of time riding on busses to and from events. Once they were behind in their studies, they found it extremely difficult to catch up with the rest of the class. Then one day Sams encountered an article in a technology magazine that offered software that could record a PowerPoint slide-show (including voice) that it would then convert into a video. He shared this knowledge with Jon and they realized that this could solve their problem of missed classes. In 2007, they began recording videos of their lectures and posted them online for their students. At that time, YouTube and online videos were just getting started, so this method was very new. Their students could now access their missed lessons online, whenever they had time available (Bergmann and Sams 2004; 2012; Bergmann and Bergmann 2012).

Being highly motivated excellent (award-winning) teachers, Bergmann and Sams used this technique to develop classes where the lecture was the homework and the class lesson was devoted to deep learning and labs. They have given presentations on this teaching method all over North America, and their method of Flipped Learning has been adopted to successfully teach subjects like Spanish, science, and mathematics, at elementary school, middle school, high school, and adult continuing education levels. Now flipped learning is being tried by numerous teachers and faculty, at schools and colleges across the country. As young, computer savvy teachers move into the teaching arena, they find flipped learning a natural step easily employed in their classrooms. Today, there is a 'Flipped Learning Network' that has expanded from a few hundred members a few years ago, to over 10,000 members by the summer 2014, with more participants joining every day. If you Google 'Flipped Learning,' you will find numerous training sites that teachers and faculty have created to teach their discipline in a flipped classroom. You will also find schools, school districts, colleges and universities that have been using Flipped Learning with various degrees of success and commitment.

The Flipped Learning model has received support from governments, non-government agencies, and well known people such as Thomas Friedman, Bill Gates, Bill Nye, and US president's Council of Advisors on Science and Technology, etc. who have wrote and spoke about the approach in glowing terms explaining how the flipped classrooms are changing the world (Brunsell and Horejsi, 2013, p.8). For example, with the widespread availability of online video technology, flipped learning has continued to grow, and is supported by the U.S. government, who sees its value in increasing STEM graduates into our workforce. Citing the proliferation of empirical studies concerning the ineffectiveness of traditional lecture, the President's Council of Advisors on Science and Technology Report concluded that "Flipping the classroom, active learning and other more dynamic teaching methods are essential to producing sufficient numbers of science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) graduates to maintain U.S.

preeminence in STEM fields." (Dwortzan, 2012 ¶, 5). Our very health as a nation depends on an education that can bring our students back up to top ranking in a world where science, technology, engineering, and mathematics define our future in the global economy.

In higher education, flipped learning is being driven by a program called University-wide Redesigning the Undergraduate Learning Experience (RULE), which replaces the traditional lecture with more innovative and effective learning methods. Professor Donald Wroblewski, who adopted flipped learning in his aerospace senior design course in 2009, wrote that:

> *One of the greatest benefits of 'flipping' and other active learning approaches is the rapid feedback that students receive at a time when the ideas are still fresh in their mind. Students leave class with a level of clarity and a sense of accomplishment that are hard to achieve in traditional lecture formats.* (Dwortzan, 2012, ¶, 11).

One of the most effective results of the flipped classroom is the collaborative atmosphere among students. They examine, discuss, debate, research, teach, and learn together as a team. They are engaged and involved in their own learning; they have learned how to learn. What could be better than that? But what do students think of the Flipped Learning model? How widespread is knowledge of the model among students? How many of them are even aware of its existence? Which topics or subjects do they think are best learned through the Flipped Learning Model? Given the choice, how many of them would like to take their courses using the Flipped Learning Model?

The Flipped Learning Model

The Flipped Learning model is a learning approach that "flips" the lecture or information part of the lesson onto the students, and frees up the class period (formal learning environment) for deeper learning, clarification, and other aspects of learning, such as group teaching, inquiry, discussion and debate, critical thinking, and labs. It is a student-centered learning approach that harnesses the power of the internet and web-based technology to flip the order of teaching new materials in the form of lecture and homework. In other words through technology and internet the teaching and the learning are flipped so the lecture becomes homework and class (formal learning environment) time is for practice and real learning by doing, analyzing, investigating, etc. The whole concept is to ensure that students come to the formal learning environment (class) not only ready to learn, but also to really understand what they are learning and to be engaged in the process of learning. The promise is that by reversing the focus of the learning environment from "teacher centered" to "learner centered," faculty create an environment that engages students, enhances learning, and creates an exciting classroom atmosphere for deep and effective learning (MAGNA 2013, ¶, 7). The common approach for the Flipped Learning model is that as their homework assignment, the students watch the lectures on pre-recorded videos by the instructor(s), before they come to class (formal learning environment), as many times as they want to. With this preparation as background, the instructors can use class time to do

more examples, discuss specific issues in more depth, work in groups, investigate problems and/or work with students one on one, and introduce more lab and other hands-on learning activities that promote deep learning and higher cognitive development.

Philosophy and Rationale

The philosophy and the rationale for using the Flipped Learning model is the promise that this design promotes more interactive and engaging learning experiences for students, allowing them to come to class not only prepared for the class, but also motivated enough to be engaged in the overall learning process. Doing so requires making the paradigm shift from focusing on the instructor to focusing on the students, not only to come to class (formal learning environment) prepared and ready to learn, but also to be engaged in learning that takes place outside the class environment.

Simply stated, the Flipped Learning model requires faculty and students to reverse what happens "in" and "out" of the classroom. Specifically, it means reversing whatever the students must do outside the class time including homework and other related activities and what ever happened during the class time including lectures and other related activities. As homework, students watch videos of lectures, critically review and analyze recent related literature, or conducting research. Students then come to class to engage in problem-solving, analysis and in-depth discussion, lab investigation and related activities. However, as Honeycutt and Glova (2014) argue,

> *At its core, the flip means shifting the focus from the instructor to the students. You can do this by inverting the design of the course so students engage in activities, apply concepts, and focus on higher-level learning outcomes (Honeycutt & Garrett, 2013). Using this definition, the flip moves away from being defined as only something that happens in class vs. out of class. Instead, we focus on what are students doing to construct knowledge, connect with others, and engage in higher levels of critical thinking and analysis. This applies to both the online and face-to-face environment. The real flip is not about where activities take place—it's about flipping the focus from you to your students.* (Honeycutt and Glova, 2014, p. 9)

But again, what do students think of the Flipped Learning model? How widespread is knowledge of the model among students? How many of them are even aware of its existence? Which topics or subjects do they think are best learned through the Flipped Learning Model? Given the choice, how many of them would like to take their courses using the Flipped Learning Model?

This Study

We conducted a study with 435 students from two-year and four-year colleges. We asked them to answer eight (8) questions related to the Flipped Learning model, probing how much they really know about the approach and its use and usefulness for learning. In this paper we will share the results and discuss the

implications of the findings on students, instructors, curriculum, and academic leaders. Being aware of how students themselves perceive the effectiveness of the Flipped Learning model is a necessary first step in creating pathways for students to support and accept it as one of the better methods for facilitating their own college learning.

Students' perspectives can also help instructors decide how to integrate Flipped Learning approaches into the curriculum when designing their courses, selecting learning materials, and selecting teaching strategies to achieve higher rates of success in the intended learning objectives and outcomes of their classes. The goal is to find workable pedagogical options that can lead to an increased rate of student success measured in terms of higher student satisfaction, and better academic performance and long term retention of their understanding of learned concepts.

Methodology

The methodological research strategy applied in conducting this study consists of four main integrated stages. (1) Preparing the Questions for the Survey; (2) Constructing, Distributing, and Collecting the Survey for the Study; (3) Analyzing the Data; and (4) Interpreting the Results and Making Sense Out of the Findings.

Stage I: Preparing the Questions for the Survey

A final survey was prepared containing eight (8) multiple-choice questions related to the Flipped Learning model to determine how much students really know about the approach and its use and usefulness for learning. One additional question was optional, covering personal information including the participants' college level, academic major, gender, number of years in college, and student status. To prepare the final set of questions and the final survey for the study:

1. We reviewed related literature to get a sense of what is there. As a result of this, we generated twelve (12) multiple choice questions directly related to students' knowledge and awareness of learning models and the flipped learning approach.

2. We selected ten (10) students and asked them to complete the initial survey which contained the twelve (12) multiple choice questions.

3. Generated data from answering the twelve (12) questions. In addition, the type of answers the ten (10) students provided us were used to determine which questions would be most useful, and what potential answers may arise. This helped us to construct the final survey with its eight (8) multiple-choice questions.

Stage II: Distributing and Collecting the Survey for the Study.

Copies of the final survey were distributed to 600 students from two-year and four-year colleges (including graduate students) located in a large metropolitan area in the Midwest, USA. Out of these 600, 435

were completed and returned with an overall 72.5% rate of return. Participation in the study was voluntary and responses were anonymous with no notation of name or other form of information that could be used to associate a particluar student with a response.

After the surveys were collected, a copy of each was distributed to four reviewers (two were co-authors of the study and two were not part of this study). Each of the reviewers read, identified, and compiled the students' answers to the questions. Upon completion, the reviewers compared their data and findings. Where ever the findings of the four reviewers were not identical, the reviewers re-read the students' answers for the disputed questions. When there were no more discrepancies, the data was accepted as the students' final answers to the survey. Furthermore, as a strategy to get even deeper insight on what the participants had provided us, a follow-up oral discussion was also conducted with 45 students out of those 435 students who completed the survey for the study (see figure 1).
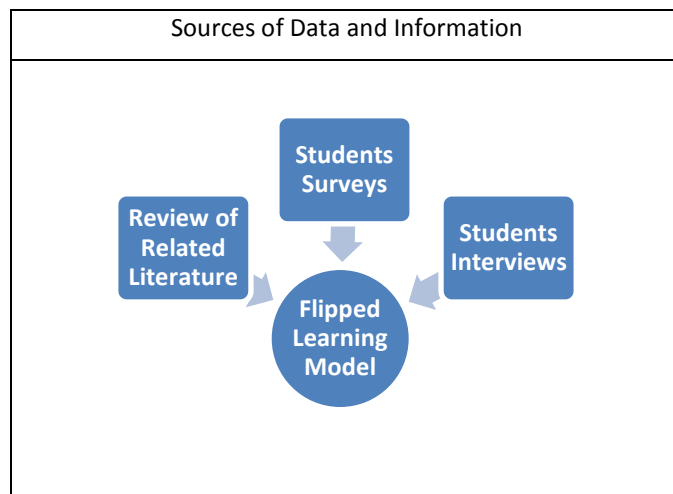

Figure 1 - Sources of Data and Information on College
Students' Perspectives on Flipped Learning

Stage III: Analyzing the Data

Participant Survey Data - Part 1. The participant data is contained in Tables 1 through 5. They cover data about the rate of return of the surveys, the breakdown of gender, STEM or non-STEM major, number of years in college, and student status (full-time or part-time students). Out of 600 surveys distributed to students, 435 completed surveys were collected, or an overall 72.5 % rate of return *(see Table 1).* The rate of return was significantly higher at 4-year colleges (89.4%) than at 2-year colleges (64.6%), and much lower at the graduate level (42%).

Table 1 - *Distributed and Collected Surveys for the Study*

College Level	Distributed Surveys	Total Collected	Rate of Return
2-Year	150	80	64.6%
4-Year	350	313	89.4%
Graduate	100	42	42%
Total	600	435	72.5%

The study comprised more female (42 %) than male (38%) participants. In addition, there were more 4-year college students (313 or 52%) than 2-year college students (80 or 13%) who participated in the study, and only 7% (42) graduate students (Table 2). This is also the case among those who participated in the oral in-depth-discussion.

Table 2 - *Personal and Optional Question: Gender*

Personal and Optional Question: Gender (N=435)				Total	
Student Participants (N=435)	College Level				
	2-Year	4-Year	Gradate	#	%
Male	21	132	12	165	38%
Female	43	120	20	183	42%
No Response	16	61	10	87	20%
Total	80	313	42	435	100%

Academic Major: As shown in Table 3, 40% of the participants are majoring in non-STEM areas, 30% are majoring in science, and 9% are majoring in mathematics. This is also the case among those who participated in the oral in-depth-discussion; there were more students majoring in non-STEM subjects, compared to STEM majors.

Table 3 - *Personal and Optional Question: Academic Majo*r

Personal and Optional Question: Academic Major				Total	
	College Level (N=435)				
	2-Year	4-Year	Graduate	#	%
Science Major	43	89	11	143	33%
Math Major		33	6	39	9%
Non-STEM Major	17	140	17	174	40%
No response	20	51	8	79	18%
Total	80	313	42	435	100%

Number of Years in College: As seen in Table 4, the majority of the participants (263 or 61%) had been in college for two – three years. While 101 (23%) of the participants were in their first year of college, 71 (16%) had been in college for four or more years. This means, a total of 77% (334) of the students had been in college for 2 or more years.

Table 4 - *Personal and Optional Question: Years in College*

Personal and Optional Question: Years in College				Total	
	College Level (N=435)				
	2-Year	4-Year	Graduate	#	%
1st Year	18	74	10	101	23%
2nd Year	17	109	9	134	31%
3rd Year	29	88	11	129	30%
4th Year	16	43	12	71	16%
Total	80	313	42	435	100%

Student Status: As seen in Table 5, more than half of the participants (253 or 58%) were full-time students, while 24% (105) of the participants were part-time students.

Table 5 - *Personal and Optional Question: Student Status*

Personal and Optional Question: Student Status				Total	
	College Level (N=435)				
	2-Year	4-Year	Graduate	#	%
Full-time	40	197	16	253	58%
Part-time	22	67	17	105	24%
No Response	18	49	9	77	18%
Total	80	313	42	435	100%

Participant Survey Data - Part 2. This section includes data from the eight (8) questions in the survey which is summarized and displayed in tables 6 - 13. The following is the description of flipped learning that was included in the survey instrument and which every student was asked to read before answering the survey.

> *"Flipped Learning" (alternatively termed the "Flipped Classroom") is a technology-driven teaching method that flips the traditional model of classroom lecture followed by homework exercises; the lecture becomes homework and class time is for practice. Specifically, students spend class time doing practice problems in small groups, taking quizzes, explaining the concept to one another, reciting equation formulas in a loud chorus, doing hands-on labs and experiments, and making their own videos—while the teacher moves from desk to desk to help students who are having trouble or need help. In short, the promise of flipped learning*

approach is to replace passive learning with more active learning experiences including laboratory investigation and collaborative problem solving (Brunsell & Horejs 2013; Hoag 2013).

Question 1: As stated above, have you ever heard of "Flipped Learning" model? Table 6 and figure 2 summarize the participants' responses regarding their own awareness of the Flipped Learning model. Three-fourths (328 or 75%) of the students indicated that they have never heard of the Flipped Learning model before. Only one-fourth of the participants (107 or 25%), indicated that they have heard and/or experienced the Flipped Learning model before.

Table 6 - Student's Awareness of "Flipped Learning" Model

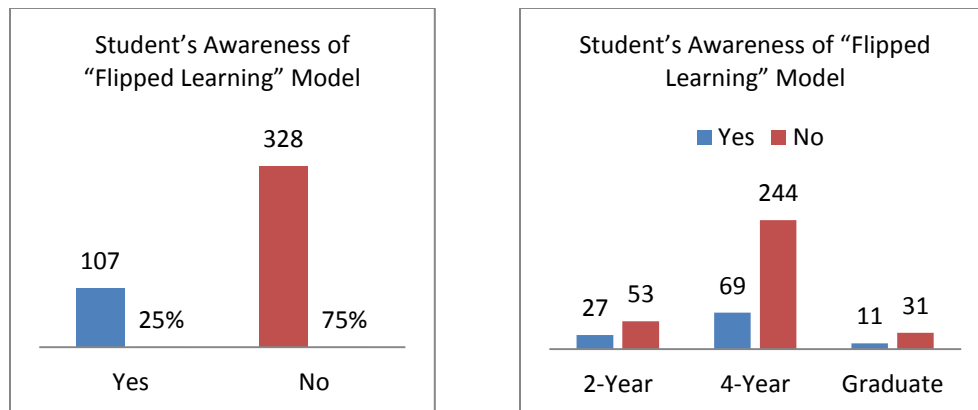| As stated above, have you ever heard of "Flipped Learning"?				Total	
	College Level (N=435)				
	2-Year	4-Year	Graduate	#	%
Yes	27	69	11	107	25%
No	53	244	31	328	75%
Total	80	313	42	435	100%

Figure 2: Three-fourths of the students indicated that they have never heard of the Flipped Learning model before.

Question 2: What do you think of "Flipped Learning" model as described? As shown in Table 7 and figure 3, when the participants were asked what they think of Flipped Learning model as described, half of the participants (225 or 51%) indicated that they liked the Flipped model of learning. However, while only a total of 71 (15%) of the participants didn't like the Flipped model of learning, 139 (32%) of the participants couldn't say because they had not experienced it yet.
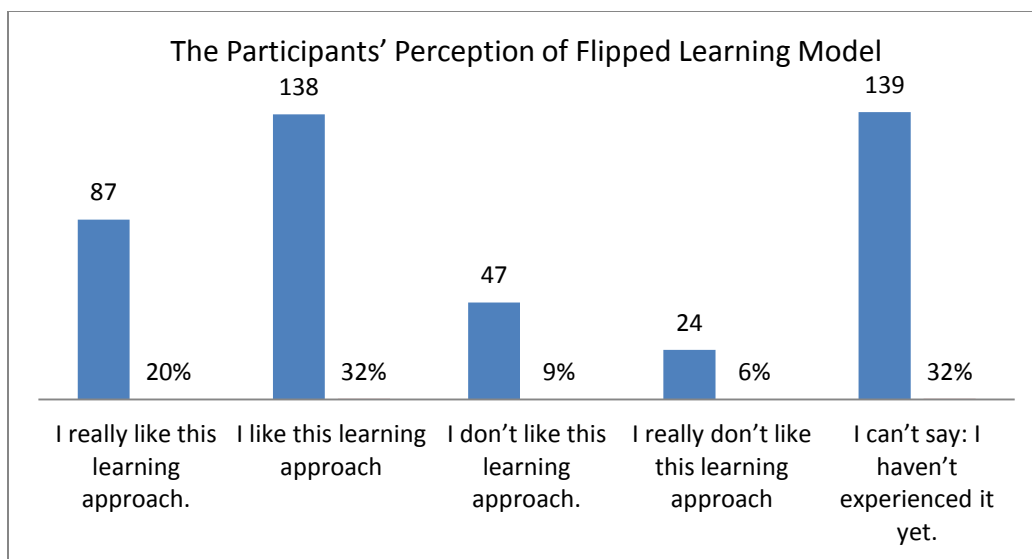
The Participants' Perception of Flipped Learning Model

I really like this learning approach.	I like this learning approach	I don't like this learning approach.	I really don't like this learning approach	I can't say: I haven't experienced it yet.
87	138	47	24	139
20%	32%	9%	6%	32%

Figure 3: A total of the half of the participants (225 or 51%) indicated
that they liked the Flipped model of learning.

Table 7 - What do you think of "Flipped Learning"?

	What do you think of "Flipped Learning"?				Total	
		College Level (n=435)				
		2-Year	4-Year	Graduate	#	%
a	I really like this learning approach.	19	61	7	87	20%
b	I like this learning approach	23	106	9	138	32%
c	I don't like this learning approach.	11	29	7	47	9%
d	I really don't like this learning approach	9	14	1	24	6%
e	I can't say: I haven't experienced it yet.	18	103	18	139	32%
	Total	80	313	42	435	99%

Question 3: As stated above, do you think "Flipped Learning" matches your learning style and problem-solving approach? Table 8 and figure 4 summarize the participants' responses to whether or not the Flipped Learning model matches their own learning style and problem-solving approach. A total of 231 (53%) students indicated that the Flipped Learning model as described matches their own learning style and problem-solving approach. While 115 (26%) of the participants were not sure about the answer to this question, a total of 89 (21%) indicated that the Flipped Learning model doesn't match their own learning style and problem-solving approach.

Table 8 - Participants' thought on "Flipped Learning" Model and their
own learning style and problem-solving approach

As stated above, do you think "Flipped Learning" matches your learning style and problem-solving approach?				Total	
	College Level (n=435)				
	2-Year	4-Year	Graduate	#	%
Definitely yes	14	42	7	63	14%
Yes	26	127	15	168	39%
No	12	50	7	69	16%
Definitely no	9	11	0	20	5%
I'm not sure yet.	19	83	13	115	26%
Total	80	313	42	435	100%

As stated above, do you think "Flipped Learning" matches your learning style and problem-solving approach?
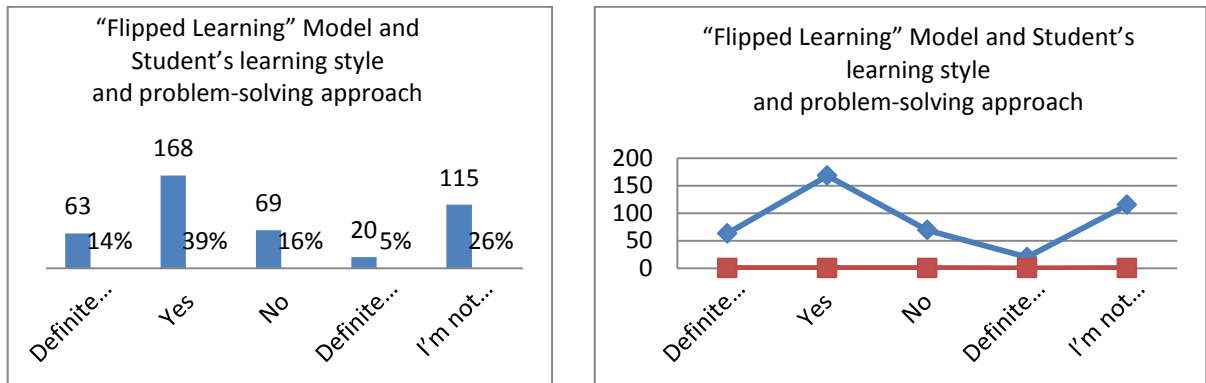
A total of 231 (53%) students indicated that the Flipped Learning model as described matches their own learning style and problem-solving approach.

Figure 4 - Participants' thought on "Flipped Learning" Model and
their own learning style and problem-solving approach

Question 4: Do you think that through "Flipped Learning" you can…. - Table 9 summarizes the participants' perspectives on whether or not they think the "Flipped Learning" model can help them learn certain subjects. While 29% (125) of the participants were not sure yet which subjects the Flipped Learning model could help them learn, the remaining participants are equally divided between those who thought that through the Flipped Learning model they can learn any discipline (35% or 154) and those who thought they can only learn certain subjects, but not all the subjects (36% or 156). This is also the case at the 2-year and 4-year college level.

Table 9 - Through "Flipped Learning" you can….

Do you think that through "Flipped Learning" you can:				Total	
	College Level (n=435)				
	2-Year	4-Year	Graduate	#	%
Learn any subject or discipline you want to.	31	110	13	154	35%
Learn only certain topics, or subjects, but not all subjects.	28	112	16	156	36%
Not sure yet.	21	91	13	125	29 %
Total	80	313	42	435	100%

Question 5: As defined above, which of the following subjects could be easily taught using "Flipped Learning" model? - As shown in Table 10 and figure 5 A&B, math and statistics were mentioned the most frequently with a total of 255 times or 59% followed with natural sciences which was mentioned a total of 108 times or 49%, and business, economics and accounting which were mentioned a total of 190 times or 44% of all the responses. The fourth most mentioned subject was art and graphics, mentioned a total of 155 times or 36%. All the other subject areas were almost equally mentioned with 30-33% of all the responses.

Table 10 - Participants' thought on the Subjects that could
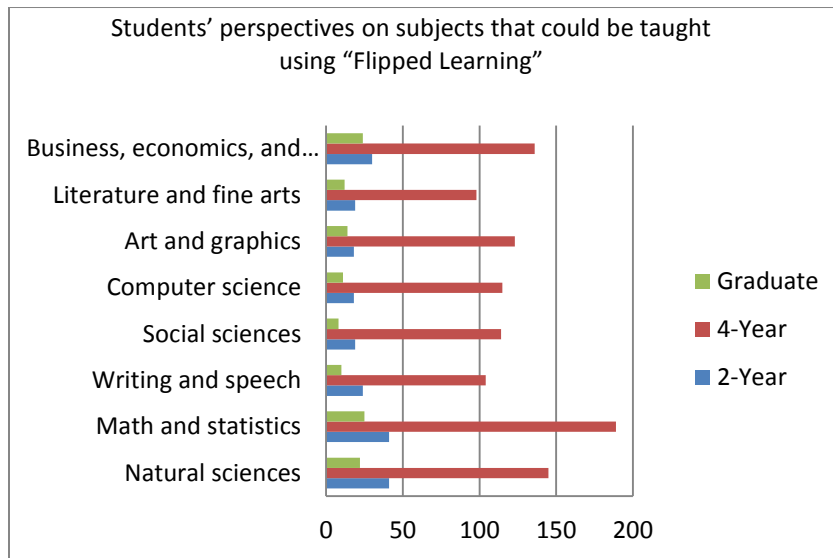be easily taught using "Flipped Learning" Model

As defined above, which of the following subjects could be easily taught using "Flipped Learning"? *(Check all that apply)*				Total	
	College Level (n=435)				
	2-Year	4-Year	Graduate	#	%
Natural sciences	41	145	22	208	49%
Math and statistics	41	189	25	255	59%
Writing and speech	24	104	10	132	32%
Social sciences	19	114	8	141	32%
Computer science	18	115	11	144	33%
Art and graphics	18	123	14	155	36%
Literature and fine arts	19	98	12	129	30%
Business, economics, and accounting.	30	136	24	190	44%
Total	210	1024	126	1360	

Figure 5-A- Participants' thought on the Subjects that could be easily taught using "Flipped Learning" Model
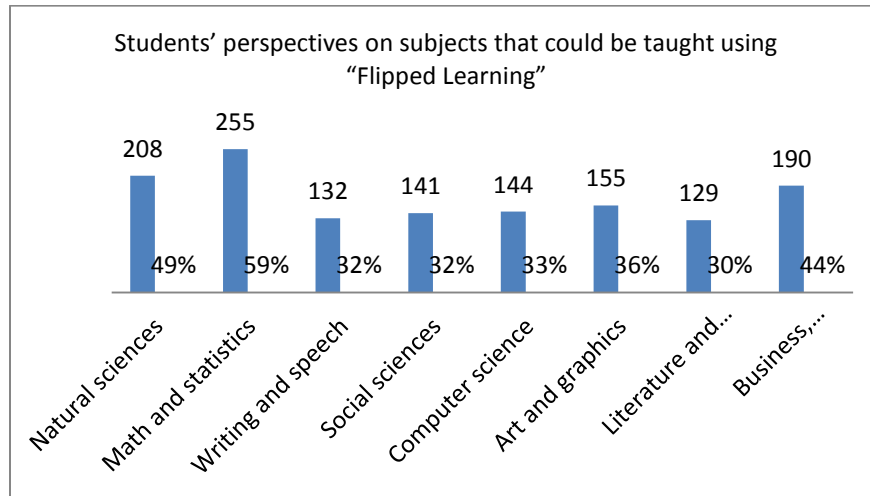
Math and statistics were mentioned the most frequently with a total of 255 times or 59%

Figure 5-B- Participants' thought on the Subjects that could be easily taught using "Flipped Learning" Model by college level.
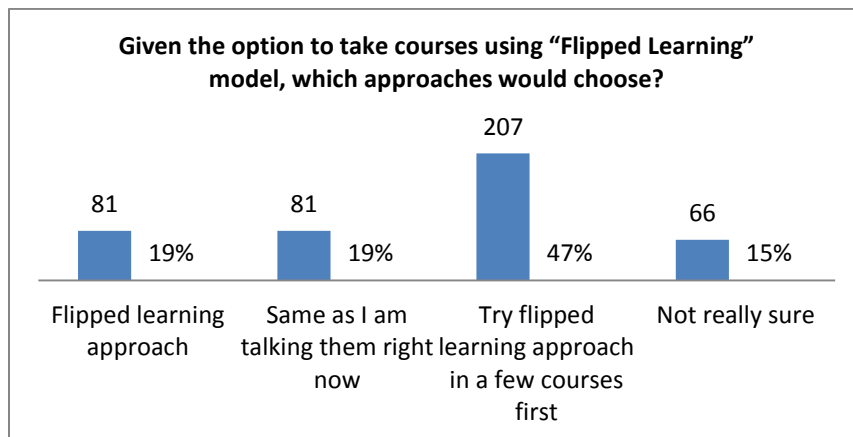

Question 6: *Given the option to take courses using "Flipped Learning" model, as described above, or to take courses as you do today, which of the two approaches would you choose? -* As shown in Table 11 and figure 6, when the participants were given the choice to take or not to take courses using the Flipped Learning model, a total of 207 or 47% of them indicated that they would try the Flipped Learning approach in a few courses first before they commit themselves taking all their courses with the model. While 66 (15%) were not

really sure, equal numbers of students indicated that they were sure to try the Flipped Learning model, or were sure they would rather continue taking courses as they did right now, with 19% (81) each.

Table 11 - Choice to take or not to take courses using "Flipped Learning" Model when the option is available

Given the option to take courses using "Flipped Learning", as described above, or to take courses as you do today, which of the two approaches would choose?				Total	
	College Level (n=435)				
	2-Year	4-Year	Graduate	#	%
Flipped learning approach.	23	50	8	81	19%
Same as I am talking them right now.	16	56	9	81	19%
Try flipped learning approach in a few courses first.	25	163	19	207	47%
Not really sure.	16	44	6	66	15%
Total	40	313	42	435	100%

While a total of 47% of the participants indicated that they would try the Flipped Learning approach in a few courses first, 19% of the participants are ready to take all their courses through their learning model.

Figure 6 - Given the option to take courses using "Flipped Learning" model, which approaches would you choose?

Question 7: As stated above, the "Flipped Learning" approach has been successfully implemented in some high schools and middle schools, and is in the process of being tried at the elementary level. Do you think it could work at different college levels? - Tables 12-A and 12-B summarize the participants' perspectives on whether or not the Flipped Learning model could work successfully at 2-year, 4-year and

graduate levels. Table 12-A gives overall results, while Table 12-B breaks the results down by participants' own college level. Specifically, as seen in Table 12-A 51% of participants overall thought it could work at some college level, another 20% thought it couldn't work, and the remaining 29% were not sure either way. Breaking the data down by college level, 60% of the participants thought Flipped Learning models could works successfully at 2-year college level, 55% of them thought it could work at the 4-year college level, while only 37% of the participants thought it could work at the graduate level. However, for the use of the Flipped Learning model at the graduate level, the participants were equally divided. Specifically, 1/3 of them thought it could work, another 1/3 though couldn't work, and the remaining 1/3 were not sure either way.

In Table 12-B, it is notable that half of the graduate student respondents (21 out of 42) thought that Flipped Learning models would not work in graduate level classes.

Table 12A - Participants' perspectives on whether or not the "Flipped
Learning" model would work successfully at various college levels

Do you think "Flipped Learning" approach could work at:					
	Could Work at			Total	
	2-Year	4-Year	Graduate	#	%
Yes	263	240	162	665	
	60%	55%	37%		51%
No	61	69	131	261	
	14%	16%	30%		20%
Don't Know	111	126	142	379	
	26%	29%	33%		29%
Total	435	435	435	1305	100%

Table 12B - Participants' perspectives on whether or not the "Flipped
Learning" model would work successfully at various college levels

Do you think "Flipped Learning" approach could work at:												
	Participants' College Level											
Could Work at	2-Year Level				4-Year Level				Graduate level			
	Yes	No	Don't Know	Total	Yes	No	Don't know	Total	Yes	No	Don't Know	Total
2-Year Level	41	18	21	80	201	33	79	313	21	10	11	42
4-Year Level	44	16	20	80	177	42	94	313	19	11	12	42
Graduate Level	37	12	31	80	113	98	102	313	12	21	9	42

Question 8: Do you think instructors and faculty who you had before would like to use the "Flipped Learning" approach in their own classrooms? - Table 13 summarizes the participants' perspectives on whether or not their instructors and faculty who they had before would like to use the Flipped Learning approach in their own classrooms. A total of 53% (230) of students thought the instructors who they had before would like to use the Flipped Learning approach in their own classrooms (80 or 19%) or at least most of them (150 or 34%) would use the Flipped Learning model. On the other hand, a total of 18% (79) of the participants thought the instructors they had would not use Flipped Learning model, (41 or 9%), or most of the instructors they had would not use it in the classroom (34 or 9%). Finally, 29% (126) of the participants were not really sure of how instructors they had would react to the Flipped Learning model.

Table 13 - Participants' perspectives on whether or not their instructors and faculty who you had before would like to use the "Flipped Learning" approach in their own classrooms

Do you think instructors and faculty who you had before would like to use the "Flipped Learning" approach in their own classrooms?					
	College Level (n=435)			Total	
	2-Year	4-Year	Graduate	#	%
Yes	21	51	8	80	19%
Most of them Yes	15	122	13	150	34%
No	11	25	5	41	9%
Most of them No.	17	16	5	38	9%
Not really sure.	16	99	11	126	29%
Total	80	313	42	435	100%

Stage IV: Interpreting the Results and Making Sense Out of the Findings

Since 61% (263) of the participants have been in college for two or more years, and 58% (253) of them have been full-time students, we can infer that the majority of them had the opportunity to be exposed to and experience various teaching approaches and learning models. This ensures the validity of their perspectives and the experience on which they based their perspectives in both answering the survey and engaging with us in oral in-depth discussion about the findings of the study. This is not only important but also is essential to any objective inference from the results of this study.

Among all of the participants in this study, only 25% of them were aware of and/or had experienced the Flipped Learning model before. Yet, when asked what they think of the Flipped Learning model as described, 51% (225) of the participants indicated that they liked the Flipped model of learning. Only 15% (71) of the participants didn't like the Flipped model of learning, and 32% (139) of them provided no answers, probably because they have not experienced it yet.

The fact that most of them have not experienced the model, and yet many of them still like the idea in concept, may imply that students saw something in the model that appeals to their learning style or

preference of learning; at least at 2-year (52%), and 4-year (53%) college levels, but the evidence is less compelling at the graduate level (36%).

Furthermore, this inference can be supported by the fact that when the participants were asked whether or not they think the Flipped Learning model matches their own learning style and problem-solving approach, 53% (231) of the students indicated that it does. This is the case also at every college level; 2-year (50% or 40) 4-year (54% or 169), and graduate level (52% or 22). Only 21% of the participants stated the Flipped Learning model doesn't match their learning style and problem-solving approach.

However, when it came to whether or not the Flipped Learning model can be successfully used to learn any subject or only certain subjects, the participants were almost equally divided between learn any subjects (35%), learn only certain subject (35%), and not yet sure (29%). As seen in **Table 9**, at each college level, there was no significant difference between the viewpoints that one could learn any subject and could learn only certain subjects.

When it came to identifying specific subject areas, the participants in this study were confident to discriminate between various subjects which could be easily taught using the Flipped Learning model. Specifically the participants mentioned math and statistics the most with 59% (255 times), followed with natural sciences which mentioned 49% of the times (208 times). We can infer here that the students not only understand the promise behind the Flipped Learning model, but also which subjects are more suitable to be taught and learned using the model. This result confirms what has been reported in the educational literature, that is, mathematics, natural sciences and engineering courses have been experiencing better success with the use of the Flipped Learning model than the use of the traditional teaching and learning approaches.

In this study we went further in challenging the students to let us know whether or not, if they had the option, to take courses using the Flipped Learning model, or to take courses as they do today. In response, 47% (207) participants indicated that they would try the Flipped Learning approach in a few courses first before they commit themselves taking all their courses with the model. However, equal numbers of students (19% or 81) indicated that they would try the Flipped Learning model in all their courses, or would rather continue taking courses as they did right now.

When asked whether or not they think the Flipped Learning approach could work at different college levels, the participants seemed to be more confident on making decisions on 2-year and 4- year college level than on graduate level. For example, overall, 51% of the participants thought it could work, another 20% though couldn't work, and the remaining 29% were not sure either way. On the other hands, 60% of the participants thought the Flipped Learning model could work successfully at 2-year college level and 55% of them thought it would work better at 4-year college level, but only 37% of the participants thought it could work at the graduate level.

Finally we asked the participants to reflect on their past experience with instructors and faculty who they had before if they would use the Flipped Learning approach in their own classrooms. A total of 53% (230) of students thought the instructors who they had before would use the Flipped Learning approach in their own classrooms (19% or 80) at least most of them (34% or 150) would use the Flipped Learning model. Only a total of 18% (79) of the participants thought the instructors they had would not use the Flipped Learning model, (9% or 41), or most of them would not use it in the classroom (9% or 34).

Discussion: Advantages and Challenges of Flipped Learning

Advantages. Among the many advantages of Flipped Learning is the improvement in student learning. Students who normally skip reading the textbook or find it difficult to understand can, for example, watch the video lecture instead and replay any section until they understand. Students who miss class for whatever reason can still watch the video lectures at home, and videos are also available for review before exams, etc. Then during class they only need the teacher to clarify material that they didn't understand. As a young student explained, *"It was hard to get used to," said Nguyen, an 11th-grader. "I was like 'why do I have to watch these videos, this is so dumb.' But then I stopped complaining and I learned the material quicker. My grade went from a D to an A."* (USA Today, 2013)

The increased number of science labs is another advantage first realized by Flipped Learning innovator Aaron Sams, who doubled the number of chemistry labs during the first year that he used Flipped Learning. In disciplines such as chemistry, biology, and other physical sciences, the lab is paramount in deep understanding of the subject. Labs allow students to "see" cells, and unicellular organisms, experiment with various chemical reactions, see and measure physical processes in action, create a self-sustaining terrarium, examine the human skeleton, etc. Labs bring the subject to life in a very real hands-on learning environment. You might say that labs bring the minds of students to life as well! So the flipped classroom has raised the interest of students to learn. Greg Green, a high school principal, who converted his entire school to flipped learning in order to address the problem of drop-outs and discipline in his high school, cited by saying that:

> *Flipping yielded dramatic results after just a year, including a 33% drop in the freshman failure rate and a 66% drop in the number of disciplinary incidents from the year before. ... Graduation, attendance and test scores all went up. Parent complaints dropped from 200 to seven.* (Hoag, 2013)

Higher education is no exception as seen, for example, in a Boston University engineering class below:

> *Class meetings are active, engaging, and encourage cooperative learning, said Brad Garner, a LEAP student pursuing an MEng degree in mechanical engineering. Watching condensed*

*versions of traditional lectures at home allows me to reinforce the concepts demonstrated in class without sacrificing the ability to ask questions of Professor Barba or my classmates. (*Dwortzan, 2012)

Similar results have occurred in other schools, colleges and universities across the nation. Besides the actual results, students are getting much more personal attention. Their teachers have more time to spend 1:1 helping students, which builds stronger student/teacher relationships and creates a collaborative learning environment. The videos also make it easier to share information with other faculty, substitute teachers, students, parents, and the community. Everyone benefits from flipped learning, as demonstrated below, to name a few:

- More engaged, deeper learning
- More labs and hands-on activities
- Promotes cooperative learning
- Teaches students how to learn
- More 1:1 time with instructors, building a stronger student/teacher relationship
- Leads to rapid and speedy feedback to students' ideas and inquiries
- Produces more STEM graduates
- Promotes a more creative atmosphere in the classroom
- Reduces drop-out and failure rates
- Increased attendance and reduced discipline problems
- Reduces test anxiety and improves student's performance
- Videos make it easier to share information with other teachers, schools, etc.
- More fun for teachers and students in the classroom
- Increases students and faculty communication and satisfaction.

Challenges, Existing and Anticipated. There are challenges to everything, including flipped learning. To start with, as many would easily agree, it takes more than technology to successfully design and effectively implement a Flipped Learning class that results in desirable outcomes. As Assistant Professor Lorena Barba, from Boston University Mechnical Engeneering, clearly stated:

The challenge of the flipped model, I have found, is designing the class activities by which the students are led to discover the important concepts, and explain them to each other. During these activities, the instructor can walk among the students giving them personalized attention, sometimes giving a tip or asking a question. (Dwortzan, 2012)

Additional time is required to create videos to take the place of the lecture, and new skills are needed to create them. In poorer neighborhoods the students might not have access to computers at home or in school. Using the library or school to watch the video lessons takes away the advantage of 24/7 access to the content of the lecture.

As Jenkins (2012) has argued, time is also needed to create stimulating activities for class time. Designing inquiry, critical thinking, group activities, and other innovative teaching strategies can be challenging and time consuming. A new set of skills will also be needed to design these activities and ensure that they are successful. Some have even mentioned that video lectures create more time that students have to spend in front of a screen.

Conclusion

Flipped Learning, which started as a single article, and was initially applied successfully at just one secondary school, is spreading across the nation, from elementary schools to colleges, and even graduate schools.   Flipped Learning is spreading across the globe and websites to teach 'Flipped Learning' are popping up everywhere. Teachers and faculty are sharing successful lecture videos and web-based resources with other teachers and faculty. Many professional organizations are providing talks, presentations, and workshops about the development and the use of flipped learning. Furthermore, many web-sites are giving step by step instructions on how to create videos, record lectures and load them on the web, and make them accessible for students.

Flipped Learning has definitely taken root in education today, from its earliest conception several years ago to an ever expanding network of educators across the nation and the world. With its focus on the student rather than the teacher's lecture and homework, it is understandably a better way for students to learn, and the classroom activities provide a deeper knowledge and more relevant team teaching, one-on-one time with the instructor, and more time for labs. Research has shown that flipped learning increases retention, test scores, and interest among students, and has resulted in less discipline problems and drop-outs. There is a Flipped Learning Network that helps teachers set up their new flipped classrooms, and numerous online sharing sites for specific disciplines and grade levels. There are also technical sites that suggest various software and hardware useful in creating the videos for the 'homework.'

At the college level, faculty in many universities are engaging in research on flipped learning including at University of Washington, Duke University, Northwestern University, Pay Path University, Wellesley College, Grand Valley State University, The College of New Rochelle, and Boston University, to name a few. For example, Assistant Professor Lorena Barba is using flipped learning in her mechanical engineering classes at Boston University with very positive results. Now most of her class time is spent on team teaching, guiding highly interactive, collaborative problem-solving sessions and walking among the students to give personal

attention. According to Barba, "Creating an active and engaged learning environment is *automatic* when flipping a class, and with today's technology for creating multimedia learning materials, it can be done without losing any of the content." (Dwortzan, 2012)

In short, "Flipped Learning" is here to stay simply because modern learners expect and prefer on-demand and interactive learning materials. In doing so, modern students have become the driving force of the demand for colleges and universities to provide an easy access to the learning materials that are dependent of space and time. In other words, they value webcasting of lectures and other pre-recorded learning materials to be on hand to use when needed. For example,

> *Recent studies show that students today expect and prefer on-demand and interactive learning. A 2008 survey of almost 7,500 University of Wisconsin-Madison undergraduates found that an overwhelming majority of respondents (87 percent) said that they would prefer a course that offered online lecture capture to one that did not, and they would be willing to pay an extra fee on a course-by-course basis for this service. Forty-seven percent of the undergraduate respondents had taken classes in which lectures were recorded and made available online. The main benefits that they noted were making up for a missed class, the convenience of watching lectures on demand, better retention of class material, improved test scores, and help with reviewing material before class.* (TechSmith 2014)

Modern students consider the WiFi as one of the main five of humans needs to survive and live in our society. In a separate study (Cherif, et al, 2014), we found that the majority of students in two-year and four-year colleges purposely searched and used, on their own, YouTube videos to help them in their Biology and/or Chemistry courses, and most of them found the videos to be helpful in a variety of ways. This might not be surprising since YouTube is one of the most used social media sites. But what is significant, is finding that YouTube videos are useful educational tools for many students especially in Biology and/or Chemistry, and could be even more so if intentionally integrated into the design of the course and teaching materials.

Therefore while Flipped Learning is here to stay, we most likely will see various versions of flipped learning approach that are proposed and practiced in different classrooms. For example, Sam Buremi (2014) comes with a new twist to Flipped Learning. He called it *Microflipping: a Modest Twist on the 'Flipped Classroom'*. Buremi argues that in practice, "the flipped classroom often feels like an all-or-nothing endeavor that does not serve students as well as it could. Instructors typically either invest in flipping classes—using social media, video-editing software, or other bells and whistles of educational technology—or they don't. What if, instead, we used a partially flipped classroom—the "microflipped" classroom—that combined the best of the old and new teaching approaches? (Buremi, 2014) He explained that "Microflipping is a "guide on the side" approach that can be highly versatile inside and outside the classroom. He added "The key to

microflipping is to infuse technology (where warranted) with student engagement while intermittently peppering students with content in a lecture or conversation-style format. This gives students more autonomy in the learning process but also allows them to be guided as needed." (Buremi, 2014)

In short, modern learners have told us loud and clear that they like the flipped learning model. They also told us that they want us to communicate with them with language they understand, tools they can use, and technology with which they are familiar. They also want us to engage them in the teaching and learning processes, give them responsibilities that lead to accountabilities, and help them develop higher expectation and then demand higher more from them (Cherif, et al, 2013). Flipped learning model can help in all these aspects. But for Flipped Learning Model to be successful, we need: (1) Lecture-capture technology and web-based learning resources, (2) Internet access for both students and faculty, (3) Faculty who recognize students unique learning styles and the role of technology in teaching and learning, (4) Enrolled students, and (5) Commitment from upper management and academic leaders for a full support to the learning model faculty development, and for digital and IT improvement within their institution. But most of all, we need a definition for flipped learning that can meet both the online and onsite delivery and learning environment. Recently, Honeycutt & Garrett (2013) and Honeycutt, and Glova (2014) started the conversation toward reaching a more comprehensive definitions of the flip.

> *In our work, we continue to push the conversations toward more comprehensive definitions of the flip. At its core, the flip means shifting the focus from the instructor to the students. You can do this by inverting the design of the course so students engage in activities, apply concepts, and focus on higher-level learning outcomes (Honeycutt & Garrett, 2013). Using this definition, the flip moves away from being defined as only something that happens in class vs. out of class. Instead, we focus on what students are doing to construct knowledge, connect with others, and engage in higher levels of critical thinking and analysis. This applies to both the online and face-to-face environment. The real flip is not about where activities take place—it's about flipping the focus from you to your students.* (Honeycutt, and Glova, 2014)

Flipping the focus from instructors to students takes more than technology to successfully design and effectively implement a flipped learning model that results in desirable outcomes. It requires transforming the course, the class, and the classroom into an active learning environment where students investigate, discover, discuss, interpret and explain important and complex concepts with fellow students and their instructors. This in turn requires re-designing the courses we teach and the structure of the classes we manage in a way that there are learning activities "Before Class Meeting", "During Class Meeting, and "After Class Meeting". As illustrated in figure 7, before each class meeting, students can be engaged in exploring the learning materials focusing on the what, where, when, and list related matters. During the class meeting, students can be engaged in exploring the "why", "how", "finding relationships", "analysis", etc. for course related matters. After the class meeting, students can be engaged in activities that both evaluate their understanding of

learned concepts and re-enforce their mastery of the learned concepts by "re-interpretation", viewing concepts from different perspectives, "explain your understanding", etc. With this structure, flipped classrooms, and the flipped learning model help creating learning environment where students feel safe, comfortable, and supported not only to be engaged and connected with the learning materials in and outside the classroom sitting , but also to investigate, discover, discuss, and explain complex concepts (Cherif, et. al, 2013, 2014).
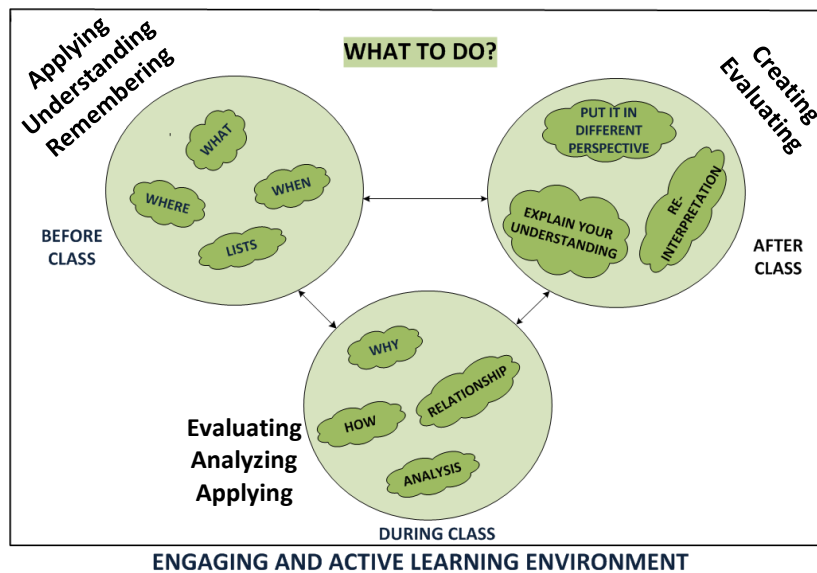
It takes more than technology, to successfully design and effectively implement a flipped learning that results in desirable outcomes. It requires transforming the course, the class and the classroom into a before, during, and after classes learning activities.

Figure 7: What the students need to do before, during, and after class meeting

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THE NEW U: HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE 21ST CENTURY

Daniel Grassian
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The College of the Past, Present, and Future

In my first year of college, I lived in a dormitory modelled after a minimum security prison. My cinderblock walls were slate gray and my used twin mattress sagged in the middle as if it were trying to slither onto the floor. There were three long metal frames drilled into the walls for books and personal items, of which I had very few. There was one phone on the hall for twelve people, none of whom owned a television. Aside from talking to hall mates, listening to music, or playing cards, there was little to do in my room other than study. In those days, I spent many evenings sprawled out in the campus library in overstuffed chairs, where, after I polished off my class readings, I would begin my own personal, shadow studies, hunting through the winding library stacks for new, undiscovered worlds and ideas. I plowed through existential philosophy from Schopenhauer to *Kierkegaard* to Sartre, mysticism and the occult from Swedenborg to Gurdjieff. I read all of Hemingway's works from *In Our Time* to *A Moveable Feast* in chronological order. I discovered Jack Kerouac during a long, marathon reading session in the Student Union. I still remember gazing out of the windows to the pink bruises of the low setting winter sun after having finished *On the Road*, ruminating upon Dean Moriarty and the final vision of the "long, long skies of New Jersey." The Beats led me to Buddhism and jazz, which led me to African-American literature, which led me to postmodernism and so on. There were no Amazon reviews to guide me, no suggested titles based on previous browsing sessions or purchases and no fan sites to find like-minded others. As I immersed myself in the life of the mind and furiously scribbled idea after idea and quote after quote in my journal, I felt like I was on a deeply personal, solitary quest to understand the meaning of things. It was the loneliest, but in some ways, most nurturing time of my life.

My austere experience as an undergraduate at a Liberal Arts college has become nearly obsolete. Those minimum-security based dorms have given way to dorms modeled upon resorts, complete with

business and fitness centers, party rooms, and even dry cleaning services. Instead of disappearing into a world of reading, students are chained by the invisible but all too real, rope-like tendrils of virtual communication and social media that keep them perpetually tethered and rarely ever alone.   Tempting as it might be for many to state otherwise, these changes haven't proven detrimental to all fields in higher education. Coupled with the post-2008 economic downturn, these developments, while taking a toll on the Humanities, Arts, and many Social Science programs, have been a boon to Professional-focused degree programs (e.g., Nursing, Business, Criminal Justice, and Engineering). With technological advancements playing an increasing role in everyday lives, related academic fields in the Sciences, once riddled with stereotypes of catering to misbegotten nerds, now have great cultural and social cache, especially among college-age students. Twenty or thirty years ago it did not take too much courage to major in the Humanities, Arts, and Social Sciences, which were generally thought to be the gateway to professional success. College tuition, while steep, was generally within the grasp of most middle-class families, and students were encouraged to explore while in college instead of the now more typical declaration of a major before a student even sets foot in a college class.

Academic programs are now generally expected to demonstrate the specific value (through learning outcomes and/or job placement statistics, for instance) of their degree programs. Ultimately, students, parents, and accreditation agencies have to be convinced that specific academic programs are worthy of their money or their stamp of approval. For the vast majority of institutions, it is no longer the student who has to prove her or himself worthy, but rather, the institution which has to prove itself worthy of the student. In short, higher education has become more of a buyer's market, with students as the buyers and the college and university as the seller. This shift in power has had dramatic overall effects at colleges and universities, from the allocation of budgetary funds (more money generally goes to programs with higher enrollments and/or capable of producing more revenue for the institution) to the very manner in which colleges classes are taught.

What is a 'Good' Education in the Twenty-First Century?

Not only have Technical and Professional oriented programs grown in number and importance at American colleges and universities[1], the very essence of 'good' teaching has shifted. Decades ago, the standard for college and university teaching was simple and largely unquestioned. Professors, experts in their subject areas, would generally lecture to their students, and, in so doing, purportedly provide them with wisdom and insight. Students, in turn, could or would hardly question the 'wisdom' of their professor's 'knowledge' which had to be accrued book by book, brick by brick, most of which was not accessible to students.[2] Indeed, many of these professors who continue to teach have led a backlash against activity-based 'active teaching,' which they may not view as 'real' teaching at all.[3] Even if their argument were thoroughly convincing, a bigger issue trumps pedagogy: utility. With most 'knowledge' now part of the easily accessible

public/digital domain, it has become increasingly difficult for professors, especially in more abstract fields (e.g., the Humanities and Arts) to quantify or even defend their utility. Still, it has become crucial for academic programs and faculty to do so at the vast majority of non-elite colleges and universities, where name and reputation do not matter as much as the cost, location, and/or social/academic experience. Indeed, in recent years, we can see an increased and distressing bifurcation between elite, well-endowed, predominately research-focused institutions (the proverbial 1%), and the largely teaching-oriented, more budget-strapped, in-person and online colleges and universities (the proverbial 99%). When an institution's name or reputation carries little to no weight, when finances are especially tight, and/or when students work or have child-care obligations that interfere with their ability to attend day classes it only makes sense that many students would gravitate to online programs or institutions.   In deciding to attend college, why wouldn't students and families consider cheaper, easier alternatives like local, community college or seemingly attractively priced for-profit institutions?

These institutions, after all, tend to provide the kinds of programs that are of interest to many students: those that appear to offer a direct line to employment (e.g., Nursing, Business, and Information Technology) and that also appear to offer a specific professional or tangible skill set applicable to their future. For some critics and/or professors, this means that higher education has veered towards training over education, or the technical over the academic.[4] Similarly, many Humanities and Arts faculty fear that their disciplines that may turn nearly or completely obsolete in the future[5], while arguing that higher education is trending neither "higher" nor towards "education," but rather, towards professional and/or technical job training. Although these fears have a strong basis, given the alarming decrease of majors in the Humanities and Arts as well as the influx of career oriented programs and institutions, it is not fair to summarily dismiss professional programs as a form of technical, lesser 'education.'   It is possible for these programs to offer a rigorous course of study that focuses upon critical thinking and communication skills, just as it is possible for Liberal Arts programs to focus more upon rote memorization and regurgitation. Still, the question remains: Do the majority of generally more professionally focused, online, for-profit institutions really provide a solid, rigorous education for their students? As tempting as it may be to respond negatively to this question, I would argue that not only is the question ultimately unanswerable since what constitutes a 'solid education' is subjective, the students themselves have ultimately spoken. At first, they spoke a resounding 'yes' in favor of online, for-profit education. In these salad days of the late 1990s and 2000s[6], for-profit, predominately online institutions swiftly outpaced the growth of non-profit college and universities to the point that they appeared nearly unstoppable.

However, in recent years, for-profit institutions have experienced a backlash of decreasing interest, closer scrutiny, and decreasing profits.[7] For example, in early 2013, the Higher Learning Commission placed the University of Phoenix on accreditation probation for having "insufficient autonomy from its corporate parent [The Apollo Group]" (Kelderman A13).[8] In addition, the Commission "also raised concerns about graduation

and retention rates, assessing student learning, and the **university's** reliance on federal student aid, among other things" (A13). Further, with the proliferation of non-profit online programs and MOOCs, for-profit institutions like the University of Phoenix are finding it increasingly difficult to enroll as many students.[9] In response, many of these institutions have contracted significantly as reflected by their dwindling returns.[10] There have also been multiple reports of for-profit institutions manipulating students into unaffordable loans (Oureshi et al 10-11; Blumenstyk 15). Sadly, for-profit institutions tend to appeal to students least financially prepared to attend college, as noted by how "96% of students at for-profit colleges take out loans. 13% of community college students, 48% of public college students, and 57% of nonprofit private college students do" (Oureshi et al 11). These, at best, sketchy methods of for-profit institutions have certainly deteriorated if not destroyed the financial and professional future of many of their students.[11] Some for-profit institutions have even been sued for posting false information about career placement for its graduates and for deceiving students.[12]

With enrollment at for-profit institutions seemingly on the wane, more progressive non-profits (especially those with a strong online presence) are in a prime position to compete for additional students. The majority tend to be non-traditional students seeking professional advancement or a career change.[13] In other words, they are pursuing a college degree for professional and financial reasons as opposed to an intrinsic interest in higher education. These students tend to view college degrees as a financial investment that they hope will yield significant dividends for them in the future. While some might suggest that this approach denigrates higher education, it is not fair to judge the reasons students may have for pursuing a college degree. Students have every right to view college as a springboard for increased future earnings and viewing it as such is not mutually exclusive with genuine learning. Still, the ramifications are significant. If an increasing number of students are attending college not primarily for reasons of personal or intellectual growth, then there may be less of a general need for more residential colleges which tend to view higher education more holistically. Why wouldn't non-traditional and commuter students who may look at higher education as a way to build a lucrative career be interested in taking a MOOC [14] if they can do so for little to no money? Indeed, many believe that MOOCs are the beginning of the end of higher education as we know it for a sizeable number of students in their game changing potential of mass education for little to no cost.

MOOCs and the Contemporary University

While the evidence does not support anything approaching an oncoming MOOC-led academic Armageddon, it would be foolish to dismiss the potential long-term effects of MOOCs. These long-term effects are largely contingent upon the extent to which MOOCs provide students with a quality learning experience, or whether they can be viewed as more of a "sustaining innovation" rather than a "disruptive innovation."[15] Academic reactions to MOOCs have been widely diverse, from those who view them as part of a wide-ranging cost-cutting corporate effort to marginalize faculty to those who view them as a technological

savior helping level the educational playing field between not only the wealthy and poor in this country but also between first-, second-, and third-world nations. While the latter argument may be attractive, existing data does not support it. American students far outnumber students from other countries in MOOCs.[16] Others argue that MOOCs should be utilized primarily as supplements to existing in-person classes and/or in conjunction with efforts to flip the classroom.[17] Given that a majority of students who sign up for MOOCs already are employed and have college degrees[18], MOOCs can be seen as the latest step in continuing education, either in the hope of professional advancement or for intellectual curiosity. However, as teaching MOOCs generally offers faculty no compensation and typically takes a prodigious amount of time to develop[19], it is hard to imagine that already time-constrained full- or part-time faculty at teaching-oriented institutions will be able to teach them. Further, MOOCs generally tend to look for instructors with name recognition or who are world renowned. These faculty are generally at elite, research institutions. As such, MOOCs threaten to bring forth a virtual chasm between supposed academic superstars and the vast majority of college and university instructors who, in turn, may be deemed less valuable and potentially not even worthy of the protections granted by tenure.

Through this possibility, we can see how MOOCs may adhere to the increasingly popular corporate/business university model that has, in one view, encouraged the disenfranchisement of faculty in higher education, and in another view, held privileged and lackluster faculty accountable. While, currently, MOOCs may be free of charge, MOOCs and any related future developments will not remain free indefinitely. Indeed, Udacity, one of the larger MOOC producers/sponsors, has larger plans to offer their courses as degree-bearing and to integrate their programs with degree bearing programs at established colleges and universities.[20] The first such partnership was a collaboration on a Master's Degree in Computer Science offered at the Georgia Institute of Technology through a combination of MOOCs and existing, credit-bearing courses at Georgia Institute (A6). This program would allow students to complete their Master's Degree "for less than $7,000--a fraction of the cost of a traditional master's program" (A6). Such a program, though, would lessen the role that existing Georgia Institute of Technology faculty play as "Udacity would hire "course assistants" to help Georgia Tech instructors with "academic and nonacademic tasks"" (A6). It is easy to see, through this example, how, in the future, MOOCs could directly threaten established academic programs and faculty. Ironically, MOOCs could also roll back current trends in active teaching by re-emphasizing rote learning and championing the re-emergence of the 'sage on the stage.'[21] Further, they could increase the trend towards lessening if not eliminating tenure at colleges and universities. As it stands, most college and university professors have little to no job security, and a lack of commitment from their institution.[22] With the future of their employment often largely resting on the quality of their student evaluations, they are hardly in a position of power that their academic forebears were in forty or fifty years ago.[23]

While MOOCs will not empower the majority of faculty, this does not mean that they are ultimately counterproductive for students and the college or university as a whole. With potentially more affordable

choices, students may greatly benefit from an increasing number of MOOCs. However, will they effective learn through MOOCs and will colleges, universities, and future employers hold such courses in as much esteem as traditional courses? In order to adequately address these questions, studies must be conducted at the micro-level, for MOOCs may work better for specific academic disciplines and/or classes. MOOCs may be well-suited for larger introductory courses in the Natural or Social Sciences, where certain generally accepted core concepts and applications must be learned and where there is generally more objectivity. MOOCs may be more difficult to streamline in the Humanities, Arts, and some Social Science disciplines (e.g., Sociology) not only because of the wide-ranging course content, but also because the method of evaluation in these disciplines tends to be more subjective. While Udacity and Coursera have attempted to address this by using either holistic/peer grading or by offering to have their own professional staff complete the grading, these methods are questionable at best. Should students currently taking a course evaluate one another's work and how can colleges and universities be reassured that the professional graders have anything approaching the expertise of the primary instructor? As of now, virtually all colleges and universities will not accept MOOC classes for college credits, so their academic legitimacy is definitely in question. It is possible that this might change in the future, but to do so, at the very least, there has to be widespread, convincing support and/or belief that MOOCs are sufficiently academic rigorous and provide a strong learning environment for the majority of their students.

Ultimately, MOOCs may end up becoming an academic wolf in sheep's clothing, seeming to provide more affordable choices to students while they capitalize on the income generated by enrolling masses of students in their courses, not to mention future licensing fees in academic partnerships with existing colleges and universities. If MOOCs do fit best with professional oriented programs (e.g, Information Technology), they will have the greatest chance of success since these programs (especially online programs) appear to be in the most demand.   How, though, do we reconcile this future with the current trend towards increasing amenities at predominately residential colleges and universities?

Just as MOOCs threaten to bring about a chasm between elite or star faculty and the majority of 'normal' college and university faculty, trends in higher education suggest a growing bifurcation between traditional college-age students and/or wealthier students who desire and are able to afford a 'complete' college experience and non-traditional, older students and/or poorer or traditionally underserved students who may look at college as more of an investment and who may shop around for pricing and perceived value. While it might seem that wealthier and/or traditional age college students will receive a better education than their counterparts, that is not necessarily so, and there is a growing critique of residential colleges as catering more to the college experience and less to the academic or curricular experience.[24] In both circumstances, the most vulnerable programs tend to be those with the lowest enrollment and/or with the least potential to bring in money. Generally, these programs tend to be in the Humanities (e.g., Philosophy, Religion, Foreign Languages, etc.)

At the same time, with the growing market of non-traditional students at non-profit institutions, professional based programs (e.g., Nursing, Education, etc.) have grown in size and importance, while degree programs in most fields of the Liberal Arts and Sciences have generally receded. While degree programs in the Liberal Arts and Sciences can provide students with a foundation for multiple careers and pre-professional programs generally only offer preparation for a specific career, the latter tends to be more appealing to older, non-traditional students because they appear more objective and lucrative. In addition, students who already have a career or who are mid-career may not be attracted to a foundation providing degree program (generally in Liberal Arts and Sciences) since they may feel that they already possess those foundational skills or that, essentially, they would be starting their career over.   Still, the problems go beyond the age and career range of students as programs in the Liberal Arts and Sciences have experienced shortfalls even among traditional, college-age students.[25] These more typical undergraduates may not be seeking flexibility, or may not want to expend the additional time, energy, or patience that is often required of a recently graduated major in a more esoteric field like Philosophy or English. In the aftermath of the Great Recession, it is hard to fault students for deciding to follow what they might think is the more lucrative and secure option; however, that seemingly lucrative and secure option may not be as promising in reality.[26]

And What Exactly Do You Do With a Philosophy Degree?

Part of the struggle Department Chairs and Deans in the Humanities have is making a convincing case to students that their respective majors will lead to well-paying and satisfying careers. In the technological driven twenty-first century, it might be difficult to conceive of how the Humanities can maintain or even increase its importance, but, I would argue, the time has never been better for Humanities and Arts majors. In *A Whole New Mind*, Daniel Pink argues that "We are moving from an economy and a society built on the logical, linear computer-like capabilities of the Information Age to an economy and a society built on the inventive, emphatic, big-picture capabilities of what's rising in its place, the Conceptual Age" (2). Building on Pink's argument, in order to be inventive and to conceive of the future, one must have a strong imagination. More than anything else, it is through the Humanities and Arts that the imagination can grow. If Pink is correct that instead of an emphasis upon the "left brain capabilities that powered the Information Age," we are moving into an era in which "the "right-brain" qualities of inventiveness, empathy, joyfulness, and meaning—increasingly will determine who flourishes and who flounders," then the fields best suited for the twenty-first century are ultimately the Humanities and Arts (3). This presents a seeming conundrum. Seeing the Humanities and Arts as the fields of the future takes the analytical and imaginative skills that Humanities and Arts course work provides. Yet, in order to develop those skills, one must enroll in Humanities courses. That's a leap of faith that many students aren't eager to make.

Consequently, in many ways, the Humanities and Arts have never been in worse shape than they are in the early twenty-first century. Unlike pre-professional programs like Nursing, Business, and Education, or

even Liberal Arts fields like Biology, which can provide a sound foundation for medical school, programs in the Humanities and Arts do not generally offer a straight path towards specific employment. Indeed, when I served as Director of various programs in the Humanities, the most common question or concern I received from prospective Humanities majors (and their families) was: What can I do with this degree or what jobs can a person with this degree get?[27] The answer I often give is: virtually anything. This, however, sounds like a non-answer to many students and parents. On the contrary, when a student majors in a profession or near-profession (e.g., Nursing, Education, Information Technology), it appears that the student will be immediately employable and what they will learn in their courses will be practical and useful. However, what students often fail to realize is that it is not the degree that generally lands a person a job and certainly not career advancement; rather, the skills, knowledge, and abilities that a student gains while in college ultimately help propel them towards a successful career.

With a rising unemployment rate, an increasing number of families being stretched financially thin, and the rapid pace of tuition and fee increases[28], it is not surprising that a growing number of students and parents want to know precisely what career options a degree will offer. In this environment, it is considerably easier to market a degree program whose main occupation is built into the very name of the degree (e.g., Nursing, Education, Engineering, and Information Technology). Some faculty view these kinds of degree programs as little more than trade or vocational degrees, involving very little real academic education.   If such programs are good for students interested in "honing personal careers," they may not be the best choice for undergraduates who have not yet begun their career (Cote and Allahar 15). Some critics suggest that the recent developments in higher education that seemingly champion training over education are the beginning of the end of the university as we know it.[29]

The Power of Millennial Students and Families

If this is the beginning of the end of the university as we know it, the shape of things to come will probably be increasingly corporate and managerial. In a business or corporate driven college or university, not only does the budget and finances reign supreme, students and families are thought to be more like paying customers with increasing bargaining power. To a large extent, this is already occurring as can be seen through grade inflation, which is common at virtually all colleges and universities.[30] Faculty cannot be held solely to blame. As many administrators base their judgment of contingent faculty mostly or even entirely upon student evaluations, it is difficult for such faculty to avoid focusing on 'pleasing the customer/student.' This might mean higher grades, lower standards, extensions given whenever asked, a lax attendance policy, ignoring plagiarism, and so on. While it is true that, in theory, faculty may feel freer in their methods of evaluation after student evaluations are conducted, by that time, the course will be completed or nearly completed. Further, with the advent of websites like Ratemyprofessor.com, faculty members might feel the

perpetual sting of the wrath of dissatisfied students in perpetuity and those negative comments could influence other students or even other faculty and administrators.

It is hard to deny that undergraduates and their families have more power than ever in the landscape of higher education. To a large degree, parallels can be drawn between the empowerment of students and their general, collective identity as Millennials or Americans born from the early 1980s to the late 1990s.[31] To be certain, many sociologists and cultural critics have critiqued Millennials for being self-involved, narcissistic, materialistic, and generally molly-coddled by their helicopter parents into a kind of generalizable entitled disengagement.[32] These stinging critiques are, of course, generalizations, and hardly tell the whole picture. Most Millennials also have grown up and/or come of age in the aftermath of the September 11th and the Great Recession, so one could hardly fault them for being more concerned with money than previous generations. Others describe Millennials in much more praiseworthy terms: as technological innovators and idealists. For instance, in their book, *Engines of Innovation*, Buck Goldstein and Holden Thorp argue that "Millennials are undaunted when solutions to great challenges are not obvious; their mindset, driven by unprecedented access to information and to one another, makes them willing to take enormous problems with optimism and resolve" (16).[33] To some degree, this may be so, but that same "optimism and resolve" may manifest itself in a boundless overconfidence that 'answers' or 'facts' to issues that are complex and multifaceted are at their command. Further, it can encourage a kind of mental torpor. Instead of thinking through issues in a critical, deliberative manner, Millennials may succumb to the convenience of the Internet to provide 'answers' for them.[34] Other critics suggest that Millennials are caught between conflicting desires and demands: to be successful in era of diminished economic returns, to be independent in an era of mass production, and to find intimacy in technologically depersonalizing era.[35]

Still, it is dangerous to generalize about a generation, most especially with Millennials, where we can see an ever sharper discrepancy between the rich and the poor. Indeed, as Jeffrey Selingo argues in *College (Un)bound*, "In the last decade, the percentage of students from families at the highest income levels who got a bachelor's degree has grown to 82 percent, while for those at the bottom it has fallen to just 8 percent" (xv). What has generally occurred for Millennials, I would argue, is a re-emergence of a small community or local tribe, albeit in more of a virtual form. Compared to the previous generation (Generation X), Millennials tend to include their parents in their immediate circle (Dean and Levine 87), but even more importantly, with the ubiquity of social media and smartphones, Millennials can and often do form close knit groups of friends who can remain in their social circle perpetually, despite whether or not they geographically disperse.

With this occurring more on a widespread level, Millennials may be more focused on themselves and their immediate social circle as opposed to expending the effort to get to know, understand, and even care about those outside their circle. This orientation would explain why, as Dean and Levine argue in *Generation on a Tightrope*, they are "a generation of students with less interest in college governance and campus activism than their predecessors" (117). The challenge, then, for the vast majority of current and future universities is

to engage and educate the now latter portion of the Millennial population (born in the 1990s) in an effective manner. This means making efforts to meet them at least halfway—through social media, with professionally oriented academic programs that can come closer to guaranteeing lucrative and satisfying jobs.

Perhaps one way to reach Millennials is to try to assuage their concerns regarding future employment. Instead, then, of offering a degree in English, one could offer a degree in Professional Writing. Instead of offering a degree in Philosophy, once can create a Pre-Law major or Philosophy with a concentration in Pre-Law. Or, keeping with Michael Crow's (the current President of Arizona State University) practices, one could create new interdisciplinary degree with catchy titles like Entrepreneurship, Educational Leadership, and so on. As much as these new programs could suggest a watered down curriculum, a growing number of colleges and universities may feel like they have little choice. As Goldstein and Thorp suggest, "The challenges are real, and daunting. On average, university endowments are 30 percent smaller than they were at the beginning of the financial crisis, and the situation is much worse for many of the institutions whose budgets depend on state funds. Whether voluntarily or involuntarily, universities must reinvent themselves and at the same time respond to the most serious problems of the day" (151). The danger of this approach is that the institution could rely too much on superficial marketing tools.[36] Others argue that colleges and universities ought to abandon their strong focus on holistic education, while others suggest that a genuine college education is largely contingent upon events and activities outside the classroom.[37] Supporting this is the view is the stark reality that a college education may not be as good of an investment as it used to be. As Christensen and Eyring identify, "In the ten years after 1997, the inflation-adjusted cost of a year of college at the average public university rose by 30 percent, while the earning power of a bachelor's degree remained roughly the same" (47).

It is understandable to promote the holistic value of education as a primary method of self-discovery and self-actualization. In fact, some suggest that higher education needs to move in this direction (or rather, move back in this direction, since these goals were more widespread prior to the 1970s).[38] However, it is my belief that higher education does not have much of a future as a transition between adolescence and adulthood. Not only are contemporary undergraduates growing up much sooner due to the virtual ubiquity of electronic information and images, such a view ignores the stark economic realities that face many undergraduates and recent graduates. For Dean and Levine, the Millennial generation is characterized by contradictions, "a generation that thinks of itself as global citizens but knows little about the world and acts locally," and "the most diverse generation in collegiate history with the strongest relationships between race but they have limited interest in talking about race or reaching across political or generational divides" (x). In the end, with a widespread increased demand for convenience and instant access, it is inevitable that the shape of college to come in the future will continue to morph. Programs that appear to have less direct occupational utility (e.g., the Humanities and Arts) will continue to have to adapt or face growing prospects of being rendered nearly obsolete. Instead of viewing this with cynicism and a defeated attitude, Deans and Department Chairs ought

to embrace the opportunity to reinvent their programs and even colleges. If the primary purpose of the college or university is to prepare an educated workforce, it only makes sense that colleges and universities adapt to the changing culture, occupational needs and public interest. This does not mean adopting a corporate-like customer service attitude, but it does mean relinquishing the view that certain procedures, programs, and practices need to be continued because they are intrinsically valued or they are thought to have always been offered at a college or university. Just as the typical college or university curriculum has radically changed from the 18th and 19th centuries to the 20th century, it only makes sense that this change would continue, if not accelerate, into the twenty-first century. The challenge then is to meet the needs of students and the larger community in an innovative, encouraging way while still maintaining academic rigor.

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End Notes

[1] As Louis Menand identifies in *The Marketplace of Ideas*, "Most of the 4,000 institutions of higher education in the United States are not liberal arts schools: that is, they award fewer than half their degrees in liberal arts fields" (18). Rather, the majority of degrees are granted to students in Professional and Technical programs.

[2] This began to change in the early 1980s with the perceived threat to American economic and educational supremacy coming from the Japanese. It can be seen in the National Commission on Education (NCE)'s 1983 report, "A Nation at Risk," in which they argue "A high level of shared education is essential to a free, democratic society and to the fostering of a common culture, especially in a country that prides itself on pluralism and individual freedom" (par. 8). Central to their essay is a call for commitment to a "Learning Society," in which everyone values education and all are included in the educational process.

[3] My definition of active learning relies on Andrea Revell and Emma Wainwright's excellent and clear article, "What Makes Lectures 'Unmissable'? Insights into Teaching Excellence and Active Learning," in which they state that "Active learning refers to the idea that students are actively engaged in the learning process, rather than passively absorbing lectures" (209). As examples they appropriately cite, "discussion, problem solving, presentations, group work such as buzz groups, brainstorming, role plays, debates—anything that gets students interacting with each other and engaging with the lecture material" (209).

[4] In *Lowering Higher Education*, James Cote and Anton Allahar present a useful distinction between training and education, defining the latter as a "a critical analysis of arguments and the ability to communicate ideas," and the former as "memorization of facts and procedures" (103). Implicit in this definition is the supremacy of the latter over the former.

[5] For instance, Cary Nelson, former president of the American Association of University Professors (AAUP) argues, "As the corporate university increasingly adopts the belief that market forces should set academic priorities, disciplines less able to raise outside funds are regularly threatened with downsizing or local elimination. Even faculty with tenure can be vulnerable under those conditions. Humanities are interpretive social science faculty are the most frequent victims, as they lose the structural support they need to pursue their research and teaching commitments, interests they have long thought were safeguarded by academic freedom. Meanwhile the omnipresence of market logic dehumanizes all university employment" (56).

[6] These salad days reached a peak around 2009 by which time the University of Phoenix "enrolled 355, 800 new students, roughly 150,000 more than the total enrollment of the ten campuses of the University of California" (Christensen and Eyring 8). It has also been estimated that the University of Phoenix had revenues of "$2.5 billion" in 2007 and "$3.8 billion" in 2009 (Christensen and Eyring 8).

[7] The *Chronicle of Higher Education* reports that, "Enrollment in for-profit colleges fell by about 7 percent from the fall of 2011 to the fall of 2012, according to December estimates from the National Student Clearinghouse. That is a much steeper decline than the drop of 1.8 percent for higher education over all during the same period" (Blumenstyk A15). In addition, as Matt Krupnick details for *Community College Week*, "after years of criticism over purportedly fraudulent claims, high costs, and shady recruiting practices, the for-profits have seen deep declines in their numbers of students and been forced to slash tuition. Some have shut down or announced layoffs, and states are stepping up enforcement against questionable practices by others" (10). Further, Krupnick explains that, in 2013, the decrease in enrollment within for-profit institutions is "almost four times as steep as at nonprofit universities and colleges" (10).

[8] According to the same article, "accreditors also recommended probation for Western International University, another subsidiary of the Apollo Group." (A13).

[9] As The *Chronicle of Higher Education* reports, "MOOCs for credit, new ventures like the competency-based degrees from Southern New Hampshire University's College for America, and online programs like the one the University of South Carolina is creating with its Palmetto College are some of the emerging ventures that now offer as much (or more) of the convenience and flexibility that were once for-profit colleges' chief selling point" (Blumenstyk, "Nonprofit Colleges Compete" A1). Further, they suggest that "By the end of 2013, at least 87 percent of the United States population will have the option of taking online courses from an in-state public or nonprofit college" (A1). In addition, they identify how ""progressive nonprofits"--those active in online education, like Western Governors University and Liberty University-- have been growing in enrollment by at least 15 percent a year since 2006, while for-profit colleges' online-

only enrollments began to fall off sharply in 2009--In many cases, those public and nonprofit options are far less expensive than the for-profits are." (A1).

[10] The *Chronicle of Higher Education* reports that "Career Education Corporation announced the closing of a quarter of its 90 campuses and a reduction of 900 positions; Corinthian Colleges took steps to sell or close nine campuses; DeVry announced plans to cut its employee count by 570; and Capella Education planned a reduction of 185. Last month **the** University **of** Phoenix **and** its parent company, the Apollo Group, began the elimination of 115 of its 227 campuses and learning centers, and 800 jobs, in addition to the 700 positions it cut two years ago" (A15).

[11] Supporting this is the evidence that "1 in 25 borrowers who graduate from college defaults on his or her student loans… among graduates of two-year for-profit colleges, the rate is 1 in 5" (Oureshi et al 13).

[12] Supporting this, in *Community College Week*, Matt Krupnick reports that "In New York, Attorney General Eric Schneiderman in August announced a $10.25 million settlement with Illinois based Career Education Corp., a publicly traded chain the state accused of inflating job-placement rates to attract students to its seven New York campuses. That same month, New York sued Donald Trump and his Trump University for allegedly misleading students into believing they were attending a real university when, in fact, the school was unlicensed" (9).

[13] In his article, "What Online Learning Can Teach Us About Higher Education," Peter Stokes identifies "the typical online learner," as "a white female in her late thirties, married, often with children, employed, and with an annual household income of approximately $65,000. Her primary motivations for study are to prepare for a change of career or to improve skills in order to advance in her current field" (207-8).

[14] While there is some debate regarding how MOOCs are to be defined, I side with Brandi Scardilli, who, writing for Information Today, argues that "free courses designed for large numbers of students who attend lectures and interact online" (38). As soon as the number of students enrolled in a MOOC veers closer to a normal online class size (20-35) and as soon as these courses begin charging more than nominal fees, they should be seen as part and parcel of the for-profit corporate and academic world. This does not mean that they are not already a part of this world, as money can still be made from free MOOCs through advertisements and other means.

[15] To clarify, Clayton Christensen and Henry Eyring argue in *The Innovative University* (2011) that whereas higher education used to be driven by "sustaining innovation" which "makes something bigger or better" (longer computer batteries, more efficient planes)," it is now being driven by a disruptive innovation, which they describe as disrupting "the bigger-and-better cycle by bringing to market a product or service that is not as good as the best traditional offering but is more affordable and easier to use" (xi).

[16] According to a study published in the *New Republic*, the United States ranks first in student participation with 34.3%. India is a distant second at 5.76% (Alcorn et al 12).

[17] This is a position held by MOOC instructor, and "recently appointed faculty director of Berkeley's MOOCLab," Armando Fox as expressed in his article, "From MOOCs to SPOCs" (38). In this article, Fox argues that MOOCs can "strengthen academia," mainly by increasing "instructor leverage, student throughput, student mastery, and student engagement" (39).

[18] See the *New Republic* study which identifies that the vast majority of MOOC uses are "male and currently employed" (Alcorn et al 12).

[19] According to a survey conducted by the *Chronicle of Higher Education*, an typical professor "spent over 100 hours on his MOOC before it even started, by recording online lecture videos and doing other preparation," and a prodigious amount of time of additional instruction and upkeep while the class was in session (Kolowich A22).

[20] As Steve Kolowich reports in the *Chronicle of Higher Education*, Udacity plans to "make inroads in higher education," through "technology and support services that prop up credit-bearing online courses at traditional universities" (A6). In addition, Udacity hopes to provide traditional universities with "instructional support" and to create more academic partnerships with colleges and universities on existing and new curriculum (A6).

[21] This can be seen in Justin Pope's essay, "The ABCs of MOOCs." In this essay, Pope, a professor himself, describes his experiences taking a MOOC titled "The Challenges of Global Poverty." While he found the experience "enlightening," and felt that he "learned more than I expected, and worked harder than I expected," he also came to the conclusion that MOOCs lack substance and lasting power. In this course, he describes, "I never made an argument. I was graded almost entirely on multiple-choice questions (sometimes we were asked for a number). I never went through that process of examining disparate evidence, weighing it, synthesizing and articulating an argument that to my mind should be part of any college course, even in economics" (11).

[22] As Gabriel Ehrenberg argues in ""Rethinking the Professoriate," "The most recent data on faculty appointments reveal that slightly more than 50 percent of faculty members at colleges and universities are full-time professors. Of those full-time professors, only about two-thirds of them are tenured or on the tenure-track" (101-102).

[23] To some extent, much of this is inevitable. When making higher education available to a significantly larger percentage of the public, college and universities can no longer sustain the level of support they once offered faculty. To be sure, a number of critics (e.g., Benjamin Ginsberg in *The Fall of the Faculty* [2011]) have raised valid concerns about the swelling of the administrative ranks, but even this cannot be the only reason.

[24] For instance, as Benjamin Ginsberg argues in *The Fall of the Faculty*, "Many schools *have* invested heavily in lovely dormitories, dining facilities, and garages while closing language and philosophy departments for budgetary reasons" (169).

[25] As Louis Menard argues in *The Marketplace of Ideas*, "The biggest undergraduate major by far in the United States is business. Twenty-two percent of all bachelor's degrees are awarded in that field. Ten percent of all bachelor's degrees are awarded in education. Seven percent in the health professions… Only 4 percent of college graduates major in English. Just 2 percent major in history. In fact, the proportion of undergraduate degrees awarded annually in the liberal arts and sciences has been declining for a hundred years, apart from a brief rise between 1955 and 1970, which was a period of rapidly increasing enrollments and national economic growth" (54).

[26] As the *Chronicle of Higher Education* identifies, "While humanities and social-science majors started out near the bottom of all college graduates in terms of salary, the report says, older people who majored in those fields—many of whom also held graduate degrees—outearned their peers who'd picked professional and pre-professional majors" (Supiano, par. 6).

[27] As Stanley Rothman, April Kelly-Woessner, and Matthew Woessner argue in *The Still Divided Academy*, "College students and their parents show increased concern for acquiring marketable skills as opposed to

general knowledge. Students see little purpose in taking costly courses that appear unrelated to their future career goals" (165).

[28] As Jeffrey Selingo identifies in *College (Un)bound*, "Overall, student debt has surpassed a trillion dollars while, since the late 1970s, the annual costs at four-year colleges have risen three times faster than the rate of inflation" (xiv).

[29] For instance, in Lowering Higher Education, James Cote and Anton Allahar claim that they are leading us towards "the ultimate demise of the liberal education for all but the very wealthy, and its replacement by pseudo-vocationalism for the masses, replete with a high-school mentality toward teaching and learning" (191). They argue that this will lead to colleges and universities "simply providing empty degrees that are little more than expensive 'fishing licenses' for lower-level white-collar jobs" (191).

[30] As Selingo explains, "The A is now the most common mark given out on college campuses nationwide, accounting for 43 percent of all grades. (In 1988, the A represented less than one-third of all grades.)" (24).

[31] As with virtually all recent American generations, there is some debate about who exactly are the Millennial generation. Most critics suggest a birth span from the early 1980s to late 1990s. However, the beginning birth date could be as early as the late 1970s and go only as far as the early 1990s. (Goldstein and Thorp 15).

[32] Cote and Allahar, argue that Millennials have the highest levels of classroom "disengagement" of any American generation and that many "now feel entitled to high grades, even when they put out little or no effort. For example, a recent study found that one-third of students expect a B in a course merely for attending classes regularly" (79). It has also been suggested that Millennials have a reduced respect and/or appreciation for higher education. They contend that Millennials' "relationship with college is much like the relationships they have with all the other service providers in their lives—the bank, the phone and Internet and television companies, and the supermarket. They are looking for the same four things from each of them: convenience, service, quality, and low prices" (Dean and Levine 9).

[33] They also argue that Millennials' "standards of intellectual achievement, technological facility, social commitment, and entrepreneurial outlook, make them ideal partners in attacking great problems in a practical and timely manner. Their strong idealism combines with an increasing interest in what has come to be known as social entrepreneurship to create an important and influential constituency ready to engage the world's most challenging and exciting issues" (15).

[34] As Goldstein and Thorp identify, "A third of millennials use the Web as their primary source of news, and an equal number other a blog" (15).

[35] In *Generation on a Tightrope*, Diane Dean and Arthur Levine provided a more balanced view of Millennials as "struggling to maintain their balance as they attempt to cross the gulf between their dreams and the diminished realities of the world in which they live" (ix). Further, they claim that Millennials "desperately want the economic opportunity their parents enjoyed but are coming of age during a deep recession with reduced career prospects. They want to believe in the American Dream and are optimistic about their personal futures but they are pessimistic about the future *of* the country. They want to be autonomous grown-ups but seem more dependent on their parents and the adults around them than any modern generation. They want intimacy—a partner and a family—but they are isolated, weak in face-to-face communication skills and live in a hook-up culture" (ix-x).

[36] For instance, Jeffrey Buller suggests, "For a time in the 1990s, Georgia Southern University's College of Liberal Arts and Social Sciences used the phrase "The College of the Creative Mind" to emphasize the central importance of both creativity and scholarship to its plans for the future" (28). One wonders about the content and rigor of the curriculum in such an abstract college.

[37] For instance, Cote and Allahar argue that "What happens in class at universities is the 'tip of the iceberg,' not the 'iceberg' of learning. Most higher learning occurs outside the classroom, when students read assigned material, think and write about that material, seek to see how it applies to the world-at-large in current and past events, and discuss it with classmates and friends" (86).

[38] For instance, in *Excellence Without a Soul: How a Great University Forgot Education*, Harry Lewis argues that "Universities have lost the sense that their educational mission is to transform teenagers, whose lives have been structured by their families and their high schools, into adults with the learning and wisdom to take responsibility for their own lives and for civil society. The loss of this mission need not be permanent, but the great universities will have to want to restore idealism to undergraduate education in order to realize their potential" (xiv).