

The Journal of Academic Administration In Higher Education

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JOURNAL OF
ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATION IN
HIGHER EDUCATION

JW PRESS

MARTIN, TENNESSEE

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International Journal of the Academic Business World (IJABW)

ISSN 1942-6089 (print)

ISSN 1942-6097 (online)

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THE “COMMODIFICATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION” MYTH

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ABSTRACT

Despite concerns over the commodification of higher education in North America, Great Britain, and Oceania (Shumar, 1997; Sappey, 2005; Kaye, Bickel & Birtwistle, 2006; Lewis, 2010) the evidence does not justify such fears. Drawing on price elasticity of demand data and enrollment patterns for public, elite private (Ivy League) and Council for Christian Colleges and University member schools, it is clear that the market for higher education is anything but commodified. That is, the very low price elasticity of demand across time and types of schools, as well as the thriving of each of the following categories of colleges and universities point to a richly-differentiated, monopolistically-competitive market in which there is room for all college and university types to flourish. We provide an appealing middle ground between those who see no future for higher education in its traditional form and the very micro-oriented studies of price-elasticity of demand for particular schools or categories of schools.

INTRODUCTION

There has been a recent movement within higher education to reduce tuition rates. Administrators and policymakers at these institutions appear to believe that there is a very high price elasticity of demand for their product; that is, that students are making their college choice primarily on the “bottom-line” cost of their education. While price, per se, may affect some student decisions, there are many other factors in a college student’s choice, such as: proximity to home, religious affiliations, availability of major, athletics, and the overall quality of the institution’s reputation. The price of tuition at colleges and universities sends signals to the students about the quality of the education they are receiving. Slashing prices at colleges and universities leads students to believe that they are receiving a lower quality good, regardless of whether they are or not. In economics, the term commodity refers to a good that is highly standardized. Commodities have an extremely high price elasticity of demand due to the fact that they are basically the same product, no matter when you buy them or from whom. Higher education has not been commodified and is not headed down the path towards commodification in the foreseeable future.

A prime example demonstrating that the commodification of higher education is a myth can be found in the elite (Ivy League) colleges and universities. Schools such

as Harvard and Yale charge extremely high prices for tuition, yet each year there is exceptionally high excess demand for their product. Students could attend a junior college for a fraction of the price they would pay to spend their first two years at an Ivy League school. Yet, year after year, those elite colleges and universities are being filled to capacity. A recent article from the Yale Daily News boasted of Yale’s all-time low admission rate of 6.8% for the class of 2016 (Giambrone, 2012). Giambrone’s article demonstrates how admission rates in Ivy League schools vary from Harvard’s rate of 5.9% to Cornell’s at 16.2% (2012). These extremely low rates of admission at Ivy League schools are indicative of the attractiveness of these institutions, regardless of the high cost. Students are willing to pay more for an Ivy League education because it sends signals to future employers. Employers see the name of that elite college or university, and their attention is immediately perked towards that candidate. With the status associated with their name, those colleges and universities have the ability to charge higher prices and still consistently fill to capacity. In a study of the revealed preferences of 3,240 high-achieving high school students, the top ten schools were very expensive private schools, with several being Ivy League schools (Avery, et al, 2004). In descending order, the top choices were: Harvard, Yale, Stanford, Cal Tech, MIT, Princeton, Brown, Columbia, Amherst and Dartmouth.

Another interesting phenomenon comes from the explosive growth of the Council for Christian Colleges and Universities (CCCCU). The CCCCCU states its Mission and Objectives as follows: “The Council for Christian Colleges and Universities (CCCCU) is an international association of intentionally Christian colleges and universities. Founded in 1976 with 38 members, the Council has grown to 118 members in North America and 53 affiliate institutions in 19 countries” (www.cccu.org). The schools have been growing in number and size in recent years. With CCCCCU schools all being private institutions that have, on average, much higher tuition than most public universities, a follower of the commodification of higher education theory would expect a large decrease in enrollment over time at such schools. However, that is not the case that is playing out in Christian colleges and universities. CCCCCU schools are able to charge higher prices than a traditional public university because they offer differentiated qualities to students. Students at CCCCCU schools expect to have spiritual leaders, fellowship, and relationships with Christian friends at their institutions. Data show that from 1990-1996, public universities and colleges experienced a growth rate of 3%. CCCCCU schools experienced a growth rate of 36.9% during that same period of time. In 2006, from the previous year, public colleges and universities grew 13% and private colleges and universities grew 28%. Enrollment at CCCCCU schools grew by an astounding 70.6% during this time (Joeckel & Chesnes, 2011). The differentiation and increase in the size and scope of CCCCCU schools further illuminate the lack of commodification in higher education.

LITERATURE REVIEW ON TUITION PRICE ELASTICITY OF DEMAND

While making a higher education decision, students take more into account than the net price that they will be paying. Yang (1998) points out the importance of factoring-in two more economic variables that represent students’ opportunity costs of attending college; those two variables are the wage rate and the unemployment rate in the civilian labor force. If a student can receive a high wage rate without attending college, that student’s opportunity cost of attending college will be significantly higher, *ceteris paribus*. Vice versa, if the unemployment rate is high, students realize that their chances of finding work are worse. *Ceteris paribus*, this will lead more students to pursue a degree in higher education. The opportunity costs of attending a college or university are important factors that students take into account before making a college decision.

In addition to the wage rate and unemployment rate, there are other quantifiable factors that affect one’s col-

legiate decision. The first number that tends to catch one’s attention is tuition at prospective schools. Schools tend to give scholarships to those students that have the highest price elasticity. A student’s price elasticity is derived from a combination of his or her need and academic or athletic prowess. Because the best and brightest students are so sought after, they realize their ability to attend different schools or universities. On the other hand, students with fewer financial resources do not have the capability of attending many different schools. They are forced to attend whichever schools they are able to afford. In both cases, students have a higher price elasticity of demand. In order to attract these types of students, colleges and universities direct their scholarship opportunities towards these two groups of prospective students.

Reviewing various literature and studies of elasticities in higher education leads to a better understanding of the lack of commodification in higher education. Using data from 1919-1964, Campbell and Siegel (1967) performed various studies estimating the demand for four-year colleges and universities. They found an own-price elasticity of demand -0.44. This number represents an aggregate that does not separate private and public institutions. Hight (1975) studied this issue utilizing data from 1927-72 and separated his study of public and private institutions. Hight found own- price elasticities of -1.058 for public schools and -.6414 for private four-year colleges and universities. Yang’s study (ibid), utilizing data from 1965-1995, confirm these earlier findings, with an average own-price elasticity coefficient of -0.797 for public institutions and -0.154 for private institutions. These numbers present a strong case against the commodification of higher education. If higher education were commodified, one would expect price elasticity to be much higher and nearly identical at public and private institutions. Hight’s and Yang’s work sheds light on the subject and demonstrates that students are less sensitive to prices at private institutions because of other factors that are affecting their college choices.

The Ohio State University and Mount Vernon Nazarene University (a CCCCCU member institution) are located approximately one hour away from each other. The two universities are extremely differentiated. OSU is an very large, public higher education institution. MVNU is a small, private, Christian institution. An Ohio resident can attend OSU for a fraction of the price that they would pay to attend MVNU. In a study completed by OSU, research found that price elasticity at MVNU varies from -0.12 to -0.30 (Bryan, 1995). These price elasticity numbers exhibit how MVNU is able to not only survive, but even compete, in the same market with OSU. Students are making their choice between MVNU and OSU based on much more than just the price of tuition. If higher educa-

tion was commodified, The Ohio State University would have driven Mount Vernon Nazarene University out of business long ago.

The University of Western Florida (UWF) assigned a task force to look into its pricing plan for undergraduate tuition. This study was completed in 2009 and is of particular interest because it carried critical practical importance for UWF Administrators and was not just another empirical study of elasticity by academic economists. The conclusions of this task force would directly affect the tuition rate at UWF. After extensive research, the task force found a price elasticity of -0.20 for UWF (King, 2009). Drawing from its results, the task force advised the university that price was not the main factor that students were examining at UWF. The task force recommended raising tuition because the university would be able to increase revenue while maintaining enrollment levels (King, 2009). Vedder (2010) cites a study by Narcotte and Hemelt, which found evidence of even lower overall price elasticity of demand than determined in the UWF study, with an estimated coefficient of -0.10 for four year schools (with an emphasis placed on research universities).

Lastly, Craig Gallet, from the California State University, Sacramento, completed a meta-analysis of the demand for higher education. In his study, Gallet analyzed data from 1969-2004 and compiled the results from over 250 private and public higher education institutions. Gallet found tuition price elasticities of -0.31 and -0.46 (2007). The meta-analysis of the demand for higher education institutions, as well as the studies done by the UWF, do not support the idea that higher education has been commodified.

IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUDING REMARKS

In conclusion, the theoretical arguments and the empirical data presented have provided a preponderance of evidence against the commodification of higher education. Colleges and universities need to be aware of the lack of commodification in the higher education market, because it has important implications for these institutions. Schools need to focus on maintaining the quality of the education and the overall experience that students will receive at their school. Quality at these institutions should not be sacrificed in order to reduce the cost of attendance. Students are making their college decisions based on the differentiation between schools. Because of this fact, there is room for public, private, 2-year, and 4-year institutions alike to thrive and flourish in the higher education market. Higher education institutions need not drop the price of tuition; they need to find creative ways to separate themselves from the other competing institutions.. Schools that believe in the commodification myth will

suffer, as they will remain too price-focused. The evidence supports the desirability of maintaining or enhancing the differentiation and quality of the education and programs colleges and universities offer rather than engaging in a destructive “race to the bottom” on price.

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**STRATEGIC PLANNING FOR ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATORS;
PANNING IN A COLLEGE OF BUSINESS:
THE CASE OF NIKITA COLLEGE OF BUSINESS**

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ABSTRACT

In the face of stiff competition for scarce funds to effectively navigate the affairs of business schools, college deans have to come up with strategic plans to ensure that various opinions and inputs of stake holders including faculty and staff are accommodated. Additionally, such deans are expected to come up with goals and objectives designed to strengthen their colleges, and at the same time satisfy the internal and external constituents about the feasibility of such a plan. One of the popular approaches used is through strategic plan as deployed by Nikita college of business.

INTRODUCTION

What are the challenges today's Business Schools administrators face? Business Schools are undergoing changes as profound as those that transformed to days businesses and industries to the dynamic and global enterprises that they have evolved. These changes are part of a larger transition in our society-the transition of strategic planning in higher education into the "information age" as well as transition into the "global age". The influence of economic, social and cultural forces, some friendly and some hostile, is growing at an exponential rate. Today, however, business schools have to be more competitive and, as a result, have become more quality driven and assessed on the basis of value added per dollar of student investment in tuitions.

Today's dean has to be not only an academic leader, but also an entrepreneur, a financial analyst, a market and competitive analyst, and a public relations specialist. Additionally, a dean is expected to be a general manager and a team builder. It is evident that traditional methods of short range- planning, with their focus on budgets, staff, tuition, grants, etc, have become inadequate for our business schools. Faced with much the same situation, the profit sector institutions have over the past decade, developed a body of concepts and techniques known as

"strategic management". Strategic management provides a framework for expanding the dean's role and helps them respond to a rapidly changing technological and competitive global environment.

As business school needs change, the most successful schools will be those that respond proactively to the new demands. In addition, changing social values and increasing governmental interaction will demand response from business schools if they are to thrive and succeed, instead of being reluctantly carried along into the twenty-first century.

Contemporary strategic management differs from traditional long-range planning in that it emphasizes discerning and understanding an organization's external environment, including competitive conditions, threats, and opportunities. Strategic management helps managers develop a greater sensitivity to the changing external world and helps an organization to thrive by capitalizing on its existing strengths and avoidance of potential threats.

In its simplest form, the strategic management process can be structured round six basic questions and processes.

QUESTIONS	PROCESSES
Where is the school currently?	Situation audit
Where do we wish it to be in the future?	Mission, Objectives, Goals
What steps do we take to achieve the desirable state?	Strategy Formation
Who will do what?	Structure, Tasks Forces
What is the schedule of events?	Action Plans, Timetables
Is the school going where we planned for it to go?	Outcome Assessment, Corrective Actions

These questions are consistent with Drucker’s (1974) question, “What is our business”

Strategic management implies more than just the construction of plan for directing the business schools. It is, more importantly, an approach to management that encourages key administrators and faculty members to think innovatively and act strategically-with the future in mind. It is a way of thinking that can best be compared to that of sailboat skipper who checks the conditions, knows his craft’s capabilities, senses opportunities and threats, and, based on this information, continually repositions its craft in a manner gauged to make the fastest progress towards a changing destination.

Strategic management is especially relevant in the business schools because of the dramatic changes taking place in the world of business and industry who hire the business graduates and in light of the following:

- Government at several levels is becoming increasingly involved in defining standards for the university services for which it invests and funds.
- The current abundance of business schools and rapidly changing technology may lead to more competition and diminishing resources.
- Competition among business schools is increasing for limited qualified faculty on demand, locally and internationally.
- New b-schools are emerging locally and globally to compete with existing business school.

This turbulent environment raises the need for a process, a way of thinking, an attitude that encourages deans of colleges of business to continuously monitor the environment and orchestrate the use of available resources so they can gain a competitive advantage.

Strategic management and planning will enable an institution to attain desired goals, meet community and societal expectations, anticipate future problems, take advantage of “profitable” (in the larger sense of the word) opportunities; in short, it can provide the member of the institution with a “game plan.” It should be pointed out that the most difficult stage in strategic management process is strategy implementation. Successful strategy implementation hinges on the ability of managers and deans to motivate their subordinates, which according to David (2011) is more an art than a science. It also involves adopting the right leadership style Watkins (2009), determining the necessary cornerstone in the implementation process Crittenden (2008), as well as those involved in the strategy implementation Miller and Wilson (2008).

STRATEGY FORMATION

The Hour-Glass Model

Any comprehensive model used to analyze the universities strategic management process must be a dynamic one that considers the system open and changing constantly. It must focus on the effect society and the environment at large has on an organization, and how an organization’s actions, in turn, affect the environment and society. Many of such comprehensive models exist and include those of Hitt, et. al (2011),Wheelen & Hunger (2004), and Fred (2011, p.15).

One model, however, that is very useful in describing the process of strategy formation is the Peters and Tseng model. Peters and Tseng (1983) identify the following succession of steps as basic to strategic planning which is in line with the questions and processes set earlier:

1. Identifying the organization’s current position including present mission, long-term objectives, goals, strategies and policies.
2. Analyzing the environment for opportunities and threats.
3. Conducting an organizational audit and self assessment.
4. Identifying the various alternative strategies based on the situation audit and relevant data.
5. Selecting the best alternatives and prioritizing them.
6. Gaining acceptance of the chosen strategies from the constituency.

7. Preparing long-range and short-range plans to support and carry out the strategy.
8. Implementing the plans and conducting an ongoing evaluation and assessment of progress.

To apply strategic management in any four year institution’s college of business, will utilize the above steps and the questions and processes framework in a model portrayed as “Hourglass Model”. The proposed model is an adaptation of the “hourglass” model by Simyar (1977, 1985, 1988), See Figure 1. This model employs an open systems approach in which the strategic management process is affected by a number of external and internal environmental factors or “inputs,” and the system produces actions or “outputs” which, in turn, affect the environment and, as a result, the inputs. The dynamic nature of the model is well-suited to the diverse and ever-changing environments faced by most complex organizations, particularly the turbulent environment faced by the business schools and institutions in the higher education sector. The validity of the hourglass model framework is not affected by the complex, often vague, and sometimes contradictory functions of the education sector; rather, it can be

used to show how these complex functions are related and interact with each other.

THE HOURGLASS MODEL

The hourglass model depicting strategic planning and implementation process, received its name precisely because it is analogous to an hourglass. The inputs (environmental factors) enter at the top of structure; and the outputs (the organization’s actions) exit at the bottom. In other words, the particles flowing from top to bottom are environmental variables affecting the organization. These variables must be scrutinized and assessed so that the organization can formulate and implement a proactive, successful and effective strategy. In addition to environmental variables, the model allows for two other forces which should be assessed and strongly considered in the process of strategy formation, namely, (1) the expectations and values of the organization’s stakeholders and, (2) the organization’s internal strengths, limitations, and values, as well as the results of the past actions (see the following illustration in Figure 2).

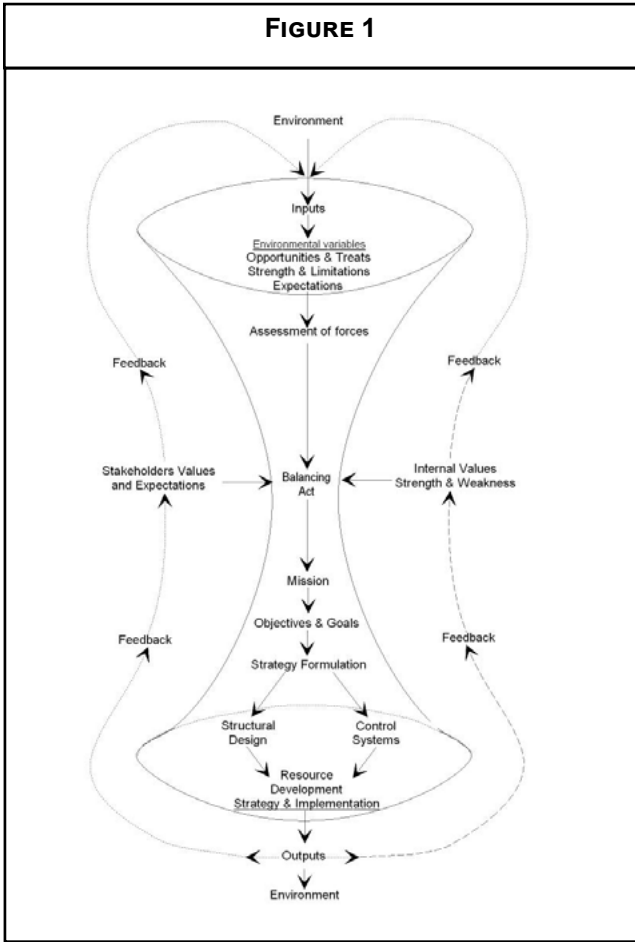
The stakeholders represent the local and federal governments, the general public, politicians at the appropriate levels (federal, state, and municipal), and other members of the government involved that monitor the educational services, students and alumni, university officials and other colleges in the university, and members of the profession. Stakeholders may be either individuals or groups, and their relative power can and does change over time, as do their expectations and values.

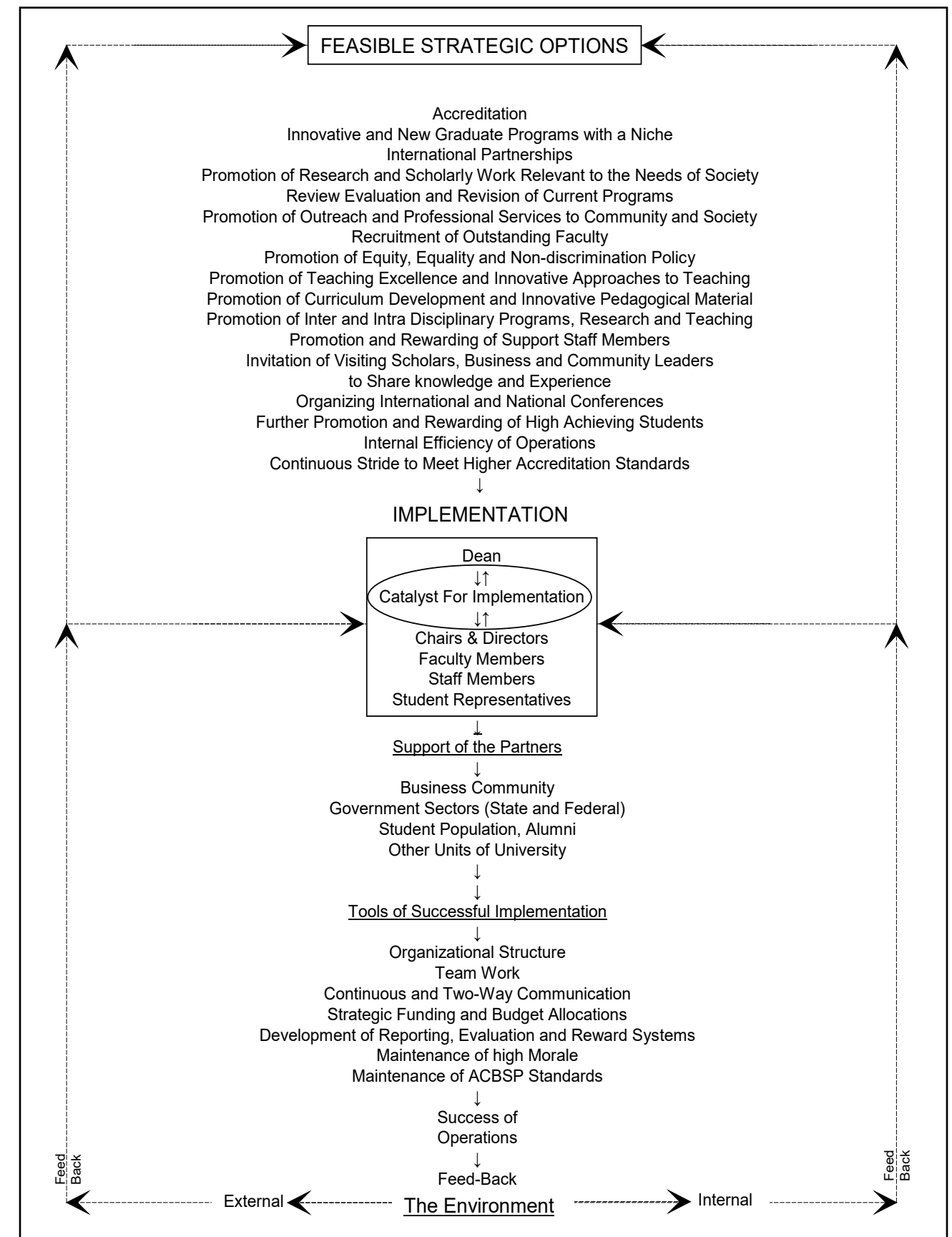
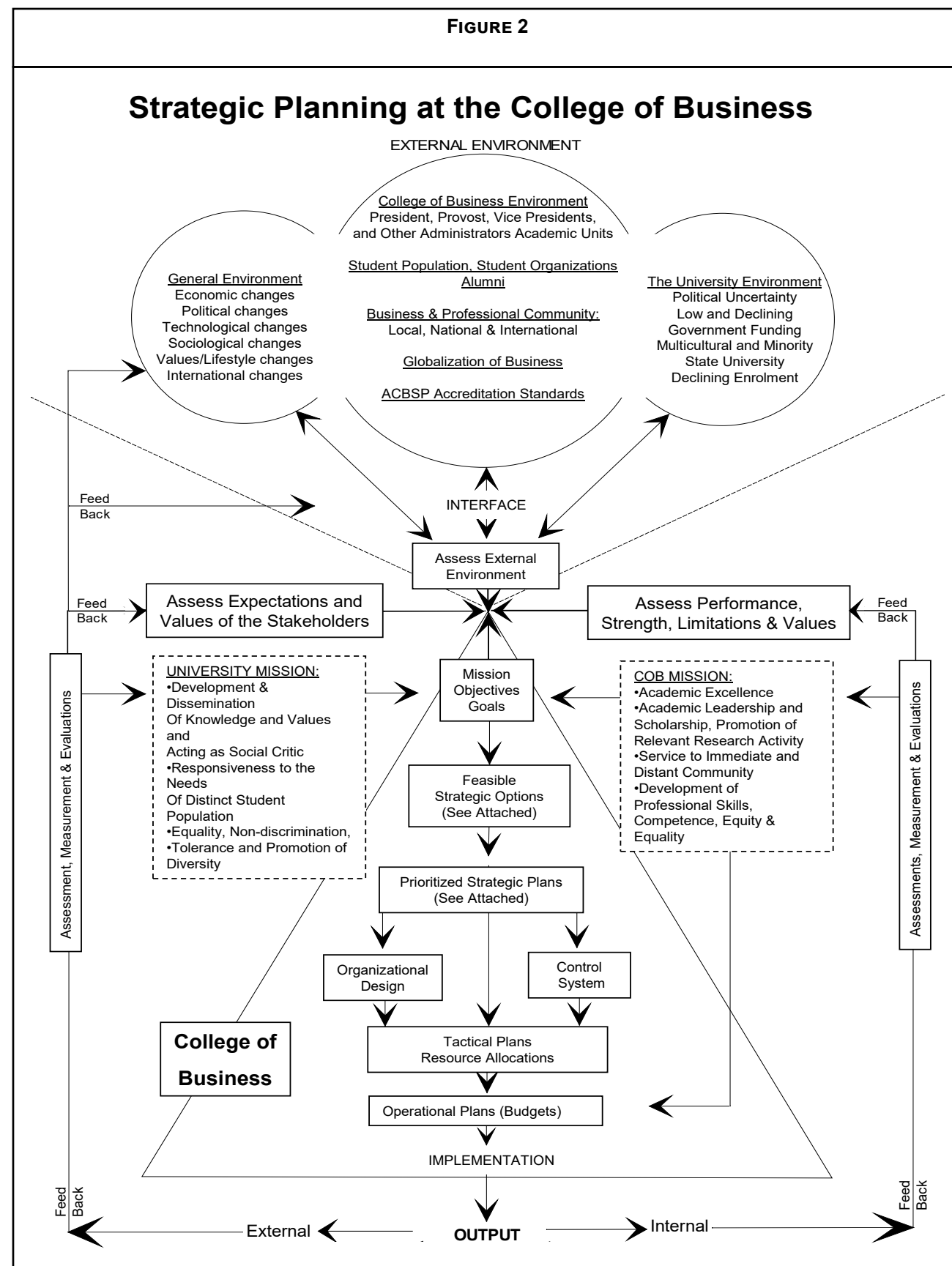
Deans (the agents of the stakeholders) must assess the impact of all forces on the college and maintain a delicate balance among them in order to achieve optimum efficiency and effectiveness in setting goals and in formulating and implementing an appropriate strategy. Simyar (1985), refers to this as a “balancing act” or even “balancing art”. Successful strategists are those who reach a level of competence (or perhaps perfection) in this “art” given a specific context or environment.

Figure 2 illustrates how the hourglass model can be adapted to a particular environment and characteristics of any college of business (COB), and how it is utilized for strategy formation and implementation.

The Model’s Components and the Criteria Utilized in Strategic Planning and Implementation

Effective planning and strategy implementation require providing answers to all the relevant questions (a – h) asked hereunder. The responses provide perspective, and





insight to the entire process, and the first useful question is:

- 1. Do you use a formal process to set the strategic direction for your business school or program?

One aspect of environmental analysis which the hourglass model presents very effectively is the importance of selecting relevant information from the mass of data that could be collected. Any dean of college of business, with a small subcommittee of faculty members, can engage in collection of data and information in order to set the formal process of strategic planning using the framework of “hourglass model”. The information obtained by screening the three forces-environmental factors, stakeholders’ values, and internal strengths and weakness provide the oasis for the establishment of COB’s strategy. Before formulating the strategy, the committee determines the broad mission, the objectives, and goals of the college within that of the university. In doing so, it is instructive for committee members to weigh many internal and external factors that can affect those strategies and the ability to realize them. Some of those factors include current levels of performance, internal strengths and limitations, high expectations, values of the stakeholders and financial resources.

- 2. Do faculty and staff members participate or have a voice in this process?

Faculty and staff members should be active participants in the strategic planning process. The first draft of any proposed “Strategic Plan”, along with the other agenda items and documents can be distributed well in advance or prior to any college special meeting or “college retreat” which can take place in any conference facility outside the campus. In that special meeting, all the faculty and staff of the college of business are expected to attend.

The dean of college can on behalf of the subcommittee, present the committee’s draft proposal and allow discussion to follow. In-puts and recommendations are expected to be made by members of faculty and staff to the draft proposal. Pursuing this, the various strategies identified by the subcommittee, faculty and staff are prioritized, and can be classified as “short and long term strategies” (see Figure 2, Feasible Strategic Options listing). Following the approval of the proposed strategic plan, all the members of the college can be organized and grouped to appropriate task forces to prepare implementation plans and time tables for the action plans of the prioritized strategies. The appropriate task forces are expected to work diligently on their strategic action plans and implementation timetables. On the second day of the retreat, each task force is expected to make a presentation of its proposal. Each proposal should be discussed thoroughly and neces-

sary modifications made and approved by the participating group members. The process is essentially participatory in nature, as it is shared vision and ideas, accepted and committed by members of the college of business. Some of the strategic options could be identified as “Short Term Strategies” and balance as “Long Term Strategies”, to be implemented upon the actualization of the short term strategies. Depending on what is agreed upon, prioritization may be revised or re-prioritized. For example the following task forces could be charged to propose and implement the following Programs where they are required:

- Accreditation Task Force
- Graduate Programs Task Forces:
 - MBA Program
 - Master of Accountancy for Accounting Majors
 - Master of Accountancy for Non Accounting Majors
 - International Programs and Partnerships
- Outreach and Professional Services
- Promotion of Scholarly Activities and Research

With the preparation of this document, each task force or team is expected to work in such a way as to make sure they are on schedule with regard to the timetable and action plans. Any problems or bumps on the road are expected to be reported to the dean for timely action.

- 3. Have you established your business school or program’s key strategic objectives and the timetable for the current planning period?

As stated in part (b) above, the key strategic options have been identified, ranked in order of priority, assigned to task forces with timetables established for implementation. While Figure 2 depicts the process and individuals or task forces involved in design and implementation of the selected strategic options, Table 2.1, is used to list key strategic options and the timetable for implementation.

- 4. Do you have action plans for this planning period?

Table 2.1 above shows how the timetable and action plans are established ranging from what period to submit self study to implementing such goals as higher degree programs in accounting and business administration..

- 5. Do you have long term action plans?

The Bucca State University administration requires all deans to submit an annually revised and updated “Long Range Plan” for their colleges. However, the college of

TABLE 2.1 KEY STRATEGIC CHOICES AND IMPLEMENTATION TIMETABLE		
Key Strategic Choices	Goals	Timetable
1. ACBSP Accreditation	To be granted accreditation from ACBSP	The objective is to submit self study by a definite date.
2. Design and Implementation of Graduate Programs	MS Accounting and MBA Programs	Completion of Programs and implementation, conditional upon approval by appropriate state Board of Higher Education
3. International Partnership Programs	Joint Venture and Exchange with overseas universities	Partnership proposal with overseas universities to be submitted to partners at a specified date
4. Outreach and professional services	To offer certificate and non-certificate programs to the community	Establishment of an Advisory Board.
5. Promotion of Scholarly Activities and Research	To motivate and encourage faculty members research and other scholarly activities	Implementing such measures as monthly luncheon research presentation, Best researcher of the year award, best teacher of the year award, conference travel funding, etc.

business can start its own long term planning process, as indicated through initiating faculty and staff retreat. Strategic Options for longer term are listed in **Figure 2** and beyond the ones identified in parts a) to c), above.

- 6. Do you develop your key human resource plans as part of your business school or program’s short- and long-term strategic objectives and action plans?

This process may or may not be in place as of yet. Some vacant positions at the college of business may exist which need to be filled. For example, a position in management and a second one in finance or accounting can be vacant. However, with a proposed implementation and action plans of the “Graduate Programs” Taskforce, which includes a section of the resource analysis and impact of the programs, the human resource requirements will be met or fulfilled. This will directly tie all the resource requirements to the strategic plans.

- 7. Have you established performance measures for tracking progress relative to your action plans?

The Strategic Management process has just been initiated following the faculty and staff retreat. The only performance measures can be said to be the temporary standards established for accreditation taskforce members on their self study report preparation tasks. All the other strategic choices may be at various design and negotiation stages. However, it is necessary to point out that before implementation of all the newly established “strategic options”, whether short or long-term, performance measures and standards of assessment of outcomes must be established.

- 8. Have you communicated your objectives, action plans, and measurements to all the faculty, staff, and stakeholders as appropriate?

The Dean and the strategic management sub-committee have just prepared and presented the framework of “hourglass model” in order to synchronize, harmonize and enforce goal congruence among the various taskforces. The appropriate task forces are expected to work on their goals and objectives, strategic action plans and implementation timetables during the 2 days of the retreat. Each task force is expected to make a presentation of its proposals, action plans and timetables as well as constraints facing the particular strategic choice. Each proposal should be discussed thoroughly and presented to the members of the college of business and necessary modifications made and approved by group members. The process was participatory, shared vision and ideas, and accepted commitment by members of college of business. The first four strategic options can be identified as “Short Term Strategies” and the balance of strategies as “Long Term Strategies”, to be implemented upon the actualization of the short term strategies. It was agreed that at a later time, the prioritization may be revised or re-prioritized as the case may be.

THE COMPONENTS OF THE “HOURGLASS MODEL”

Mission

The mission of Nikita college of business is a sub-mission of that of Bucca State University (BSU). There should be complete congruence and harmony among the two missions, if not, the conflict and lack of harmony will be dys-

functional and attainment of objectives and goals will be next to impossible. The mission of college of business is stated as follows: “to attract, admit, educate and graduate quality and employable students for the future job markets.” Although this mission statement is not word by word corresponding to the university’s mission, however, the spirit is in compliance with that of the Bucca State University’s mission. This mission statement consistent with any other mission statement, reveals what the institution is, whom it wants to serve, and how to serve those people, David (2011, p.44).

Objectives

Objectives are simple expressions of the desired future states of an organization. Achieving objectives moves an organization closer to achieving its overall purpose or mission. Objectives can be classified into one of three categories: primary, development, or maintenance.

Primary objectives focus on performance improvement. Development objectives focus on the development of new programs and services or existing duties that require re-organization. Maintenance objectives are used to ensure that existing programs and service levels do not deteriorate due to emphasis on new areas. A hierarchy of objectives in the rank order of importance is produced in the hourglass model (Figure 2) should be recommended by the faculty and staff at the end of their retreat. However, given the dynamic nature of environment and the stakeholders, the order and composition of objectives could change.

As previously noted, the achievement of objectives moves an organization closer to achieving its overall purpose. Therefore, objectives should follow the initial purpose or mission of the university as well as the college of business and should not chart new and independent paths. Any one purpose or value can give rise to several objectives. Also, objectives may be continuously refined and updated in response to the feedback information fed into the system from the output loop. Finally, all objectives be they annual or long-term should be measurable, consistent and clear.

Goals

Goals are precise, well specified targets that are to be achieved within a given time frame. Goals should be developed independently of specified objectives, but rather should focus on specific portions of objectives. One objective can give set to several goals, and it should be assumed that when an organization attains one of its goals, it is that much closer to achieving its objective, and, in turn, its purpose

The results specified by goals should be measurable. Those that can be measured directly such as a target number of students to be recruited or a retention rate, are classified as quantifiable goals. “Qualitative goals” must be measured indirectly through the use of indicators. Quantifiable goals permit administrators to measure not only the direction of change in a variable, but also the precise magnitude or degree of change. With qualitative goals, however, administrators can only determine the direction of change, not the precise magnitude. For that reason, qualitative goals should not be used if quantified measures can be found.

Like objectives, quantifiable goals can be classified into categories. Primary goals are aimed at changing existing conditions and improving present levels of performance. Maintenance goals, on the other hand, focus on maintaining existing conditions or levels of performance.

Primary goals can concentrate on changing existing conditions externally or internally. The direction of change has already been specified by the objectives. It is up to the planners to decide what magnitude of change is realistic given existing conditions and resource constraints.

Maintenance goals, similarly, are based on maintenance objectives, and can specify what is to be changed, in what direction, by how much, and when. If specific and adequate attention is not given to maintaining already effective service or levels of performance, they may deteriorate and require an even greater commitment of resources. Obviously, quantifiable goals should specify the results to be achieved, not the activities to be pursued.

Qualitative goals should be used only when:

1. The desired results cannot be expressed in quantified terms, or
2. The desired results can be quantified, but cannot be measured except with considerable difficulty or expense.

Like quantifiable goals, qualitative goals can be classified into primary or maintenance categories. Again, the major difference between quantifiable and qualitative goals is that with qualitative goals, the desired results cannot be easily quantified (that is, it is not easy to define how any existing condition is expected to change). Further, it may be not be as easy to define what is to be changed.

Indicators can be used to assess progress in achieving qualitative goals. Indictors are easily quantifiable results which have a logical relationship to the qualitative goals. Administrators should make sure there is a definite relationship between indictors and a qualitative goal, because while it may be difficult to measure performance improve-

ments using indictors, it may be difficult to justify new programs or the continuation of existing programs in the absence of quantitative data.

ORGANIZATIONAL DESIGN

Many researchers have studied the relationship between organizational structure and strategy. As early as 1954, Peter Drucker carried out a research study involving two organizations and concluded that it took these organizations years to develop the structures they felt best enhanced the implementation of their strategies. Later in 1962, Chandler concluded that, when a business introduces a new strategy, it must also change its structure accordingly if it is to operate at optimum efficiency. More recent studies (Raymond and Snow, 1978) acknowledge that the relationship between structure and strategy is very complex. Byars (1984) states that “a chosen strategy cannot be effectively implemented without developing a sound organizational structure.” He draws four general conclusions based on these studies:

1. Management’s strategic choices shape the organization’s structure.
2. Strategy and structure must be properly aligned if the organization is to be successful in achieving its objectives.
3. Organizational structure constrains strategy.
4. An organization can seldom veer substantially from its current strategy without major alterations in its structure.

Because structure and strategy are so closely linked, a formal strategic management process must involve choosing a structure that will enable an organization to implement plans and attain desired goals. The appropriate structure may take the form of proper reporting relationships or may involve the creation of new sections to more effectively handle problem areas. Nikita College of Business at BSU has recently gone through an organization change to facilitate implementation of its strategic options adopted at its October 2005 retreat. However, further restructuring is a must prior to implementation of its new initiative and implementation of new graduate programs.

Control Systems

In order for strategic management and its implementation to succeed, the administrator must identify control mechanisms which will ensure that planned activities are not only carried out, but are also helping the college move toward the attainment of its objectives. It is crucial

that deanery develop a means to accurately assess measure and identify deviations. Sometimes, the manner in which controls are instituted results in antagonisms, non-compliance, and poor performance on the part of faculty and staff, the need for closer supervision of individuals, and high administrative and monitoring costs. One control system which is becoming increasingly popular is the “identification” with performance goals. Not only is this method more cost- effective than bureaucratic or forced compliance controls, it is also well-suited to educational services because individuals can readily identify with and support the societal objectives behind the performance goals they are expected to pursue.

Resource Development

Changing educational needs (for example, increased demand for a fifth year of accountancy to be able to sit for CPA exam) means that accounting education and training programs must be altered to ensure that colleges of business will be able to satisfy student demands. Facilities must also be altered (or new ones established) and, in time of inflation and fiscal constraint, innovative measures must be taken to obtain funding and appropriate resource allocation for these activities. In other words, there is need for resources to be allocated in ways that are consistent with meeting the needs of the program and all the stakeholders. In this context, the resources required may include human, financial, physical, and technological resources, and their allocation must be prioritized to achieve the desired objectives.

Strategy Implementation

Implementation is the most critical component of strategic management. This can be explained by McConkey’s (1988) assertion that change comes through strategy implementation and evaluation, not through the plan. During each step in the process of formulating, evaluating, and selecting strategic alternatives, deanery must carefully consider the implementation requirement. They should also consider the possibility that stakeholders and other external groups as well as funding agencies may resist a new plan, and determine the optimum way to cope with such resistance, should it occur. Any changes, and the reasons for making them, should be communicated to all stakeholders. Administrators and stakeholders should then agree on the best way to accomplish the changes. Participation in the planning process by representatives of all forces in university or the college will result in understanding, buying into and commitment, improved motivation, productivity, internal job satisfaction, and ultimately, efficient implementation and operation of programs.

This outcome, undoubtedly, requires a supportive culture, and if none exists, should be cultivated to avoid strategy implementation becoming a paper tiger, or buzz word. Once decisions have been made about its future direction, a college must implement a plan, continuously evaluate its progress, and alter it if conditions so dictate.

Output and Feedback

The main function of strategic planning is to satisfy the long-term needs of community and society in general and the stakeholders in particular. The output in the hourglass model can be classified into major groups: community-oriented and stake-holders –oriented. The continuous feedback shows how the outputs affect community, the external and internal environments, and the stakeholders, which, in turn, affect each other, and eventually go back into the system as inputs through the feedback loop. Theoretically, this impact on the system and environment completes the input-output loop of this dynamic hourglass model.

CONCLUSION

College of Business Deans must give more attention to the formulation and implementation of strategies that will put their college in the best position to be proactive to the changes in their environments. Irreversible societal, economic, political and technological trends indicate that universities and colleges must restructure, reorganize, and reconceptualize their strategies and organizations. Strategic management is one approach that any college of business can use to achieve this reorganization and restructuring. A dynamic and complex process, strategic management requires the involvement and commitment of all levels of stakeholders, faculty and staff. Deanery, in particular, must put a great deal of effort into the process if it is to succeed. The utilized model of strategic management is a valuable tool that has enabled the Nikita college of business (COB) to match its strengths and weaknesses with environmental opportunities and threats, and, finally, with the expectations of the stakeholders, to implement its strategies to achieve its objectives and goals.

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ASSESSING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE PROMOTION AND TENURE PROCESSES

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ABSTRACT

Promotion and tenure considerations are equally important steps both for the faculty and institution. For faculty, it's a matter of being able to exercise academic freedom without the fear of repercussion and potentially losing the job. For institutions, it's a matter of how to keep and nourish the best candidates and avoid making a lifetime commitment with a wrong candidate. The key goals of the Promotion and Tenure (P&T) processes are to: (1) keep the processes fair and timely, (2) ensure faculty excellence, and (3) ensure that consistent standards are applied to every candidate during P&T evaluations. Most research focuses on developing effective strategies to evaluate faculty portfolios as well as what faculty should do to develop a good portfolio. However, the underlying processes to make promotion and tenure decisions are usually taken for granted. Many times a decision is going to be as good as the underlying process that was used to reach that decision. This paper focuses on the processes that are used to make promotion and tenure decisions, examines the potential flaws and weakness of those processes, and suggests the three P&T models. The paper also examines the existing processes in several universities across the United States. The review of their P&T processes suggests that in most universities in the United States, these processes are tilted towards either ensuring faculty excellence or applying consistent standards on all candidates. It further demonstrates how those processes can be configured to achieve the desired balance between ensuring faculty excellence and that consistent standards are applied to every candidate during the P&T processes.

INTRODUCTION

Promotion and tenure considerations mark the most significant step in a faculty member's career. It's an equally significant decision for the institution, especially for the institutions with statutory (as opposed to contractual) tenure. Making a lifetime institutional commitment with a faculty member certainly deserves a thorough evaluation and scrutiny. Therefore, there is substantial research that focuses on building faculty portfolios and effective ways to evaluate them (Thomas, Saaty, & Ramanujam, 1983; Rice & Stankus, 1983; Weiser & Houghlum, 1998; Arreola, 2000; Perna 2001; Arreola, Theall & Aleamoni, 2003). For example, what role research, teaching, and service should play in the promotion and tenure considerations (Arreola, 2000; Arreola, Theall & Aleamoni, 2003) or how to judge the quality of one's scholarship (Rice & Stankus, 1983). There is little research or discussion though on the quality and effectiveness of the processes that are used to evaluate faculty portfolio for making promotion and tenure decisions. The best developed strategies for evaluating faculty promotion and tenure cases would not produce desired results if the processes are not properly implemented or are flawed. At the same time, a well prepared faculty portfolio may not help a faculty member

to get a favorable decision on his/her promotion or tenure case due to poorly implemented or flawed processes. This paper reviews the processes that are employed by many institutions of higher education for promotion and tenure review of their faculty. It further discusses how the poor implementation or flaws in processes can compromise the integrity of the promotion and tenure decisions.

Many institutions have a multi-level set of processes for making decisions on P&T cases. At the heart of those processes is the faculty committee(s), commonly known as the Promotion and Tenure (P&T) Committee. Beyond the departmental P&T Committee, P&T Committees can be formed at the college/school or even at the institution level. P&T Committees at the college/school level have different characteristics than that of the P&T Committee at the institution level, which impacts the outcome of the Committee's deliberation during the evaluation process. This paper analyzes the characteristics of the P&T Committees at different levels and defines three different models based on the characteristics of the P&T Committees.

While considering a faculty member for promotion or tenure, we need to achieve three key objectives:

1. Ensure it's a fair and timely process

- 2. Ensure faculty excellence: Conduct a thorough evaluation of a candidate’s portfolio by the experts in areas closely related to his/her discipline
- 3. Ensure that the evaluation standards are consistent across the board.

Achieving these objectives through P&T Committee at any level is not straightforward but rather challenging. Many times apparently benign actions by the members of the P&T Committee leave the process tainted (discussed later). However, specific measures can be taken to achieve objective 1, which is to ensure the process is fair and timely, regardless of the level of the P&T Committee. In general, an appropriately sized P&T Committee at the college/school level provides a more thorough review of the candidates because the members of the P&T Committee are from the disciplines relevant to the candidate’s discipline. An institution-wide P&T Committee, on the other hand, will help ensure that evaluation standards are consistently applied to all candidates; however, the evaluation is not likely to be as thorough as that of a P&T Committee at the college/school level. The reason is that the institution level P&T Committee has a membership that is much more diverse than that of a college/school level P&T Committee.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows: How to ensure that the P&T process is fair and timely is discussed first. The impact of the size of a P&T Committee on its functioning is then examined. The characteristics of the P&T Committees at the school/college and institution levels in terms of the above mentioned three key objectives are discussed next. Based on these characteristics, three models are then defined, and effectiveness of each model is examined. Based on these models P&T structures at a sample of universities across the United States (12 universities in total) are examined and compared. The paper concludes with a specific example of how to apply these P&T models to a small university and the recommendations for further improving the effectiveness of the promotion and tenure processes.

THE PROCESS: FAIR AND TIMELY

Every candidate’s case is unique, and there is no “one shoe fits all” methodology to the P&T review processes. However, all candidates deserve a fair hearing and adequate time devoted to the deliberation of their cases. Two main factors that can taint the P&T review process are (1) conflict of interest and (2) apparently benign actions (bad practices) of the Chair or the members of the Committee.

Conflict of Interest

The following measures are commonly taken (and should be taken if P&T processes at your institution do not already have these measures built in it):

- 1. A member is recused from the deliberations and vote on a candidate from his/her department.
- 2. In a P&T Committee where the membership includes both the Associate and Full Professors, Associate Professors are recused from the deliberations and vote on the Associate to Full Professor promotion cases.
- 3. Administrators are non-voting members of the P&T Committee. Their votes are not needed at the P&T level. Deans need not vote as they provide their independent evaluation of the candidate to the Provost. Similarly, if the Provost is a member of the P&T Committee, he/she need not vote as he/she provides his/her independent evaluation of the candidate to the President.

Bad Practices

There are many apparently benign actions (practices), especially by the Chair of the P&T Committee, which render the P&T review process tainted. Consequently, some candidates, if not all, do not get a fair and timely hearing on their cases. The following are the most common bad practices, which appear to be benign actions, but have the potential to taint the P&T review process:

- 1. P&T Committees are usually chaired by the Deans (at the school/college level) or the Provost (at the institution level). Chairs need to provide only the facts to the members of the P&T Committee and not opinions so that the P&T Committee members could reach their independent decision on the case. Some Chairs have a tendency to “weigh in” during the deliberations clearly indicating which way they are leaning. If before or during the deliberation it becomes clear which way the administration is leaning on a candidate, it fails the purpose of the P&T review process. Here is why: Some members of the P&T Committee may be influenced to vote along the administrative line. Others, especially outspoken faculty members who don’t hesitate to confront administration may over-react and vote against the administrative line. There may be many P&T

members who would still make their independent decisions. However, the mere possibility of even a single member of the P&T Committee making a biased decision because the chair “weighed in” renders the process unfair to the candidate.

- 2. Running the P&T Committee in a time efficient manner is always a challenge for any Chair. However, placing artificial time limits on discussions or cutting off a discussion prematurely is the most common mistake that the Chairs of the P&T Committees make. These actions, at times, render the P&T review process unfair to the candidates. Each candidate’s case is unique and deserves an adequate amount of time for deliberations. Setting a time limit for all candidates is one of the bad practices. If the discussion is terminated because of the time limits with many members still having questions unanswered or concerns unresolved, their votes, at best, will be based on insufficient information. Voting (favorably or unfavorably) with insufficient information has the potential to unfairly harm or benefit the candidate. Even those members who might abstain from voting because they feel that they don’t have enough information, they are in essence, voting unfavorably (abstention is equivalent to a “No” vote). Discussion must go on until all legitimate questions or concerns of the P&T Committee members have been adequately addressed so that the P&T Committee members could make their independent decision. Chairs can take several measures to keep the P&T deliberations moving in a timely fashion such as not allowing the questions/concerns that have already been addressed (unless there is new information revealed). Limiting how many times any member can take the floor so that most if not all members can weigh in.

OVERALL SIZE OF THE P&T COMMITTEES

Committee size is one of the most important aspects that is usually ignored in academia where committees of arbitrary sizes are not very uncommon. Committees in academia are no different than teams in the business world. Both attempt to utilize the collective effort of a group to accomplish a larger and more complex task, which would not otherwise be achievable through individual effort. There has been a lot of research on finding an optimal team size (Latané, Williams, & Harkins, 1979; Kravitz &

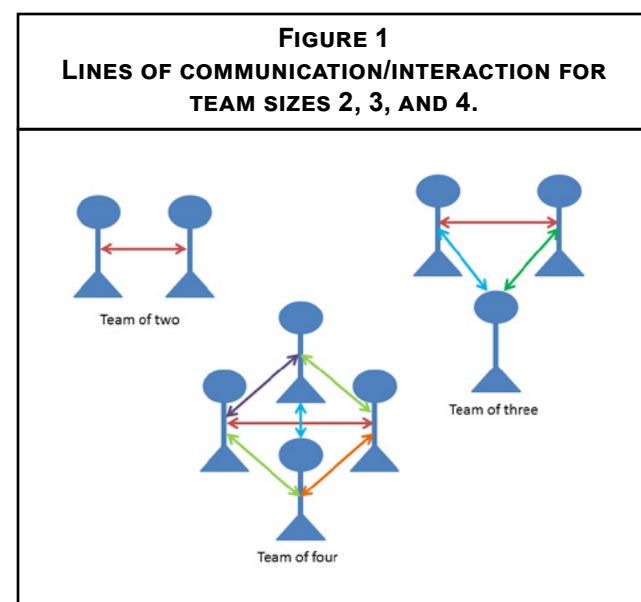
Martin, 1986; Shepard & Tayler, 1999; Latané, Williams, & Harkins, 2004; Lim & Klein, 2006). Too small of a team size is susceptible to a power struggle among team members (two versus one in a team of three; or three versus two in a team of five). Too large of a team suffers from “social loafing,” a term used by Latané et al., to describe a phenomenon when people put less effort as part of a team than what they would have otherwise working alone (Latané, Williams, & Harkins, 1979).

In a team, where members need to interact or communicate with each other, the team size becomes more critical. The reason being that the lines of interaction or communication needed among team members increase at a much faster rate than the increase in the size of the team. Figure one illustrates this concept. In a two-member team, there is only one line of communication/interaction. If we add one more member (team of three) the number of lines of communication/interaction increases to three. If we double the team size to six, the lines of communication/interaction increase to 15, which is a five folds increase. In general, the lines of communication/interaction for a team of size N is given by

Lines of communication/interaction= (N(N-1))/2 (1)

Table 1 shows the lines of communication/interaction for team sizes two through 12. Based on all the factors mentioned above, a reasonable size for the P&T Committee could be anywhere from 7 to 11 members.

TABLE 1 COMMITTEE SIZE AND THE NUMBER OF LINES OF COMMUNICATION/INTERACTION.	
Committee Size	Lines of Communication/ Interaction
1	0
2	1
3	3
4	6
5	10
6	15
7	21
8	28
9	36
10	45
11	55
12	66



college who usually does not have a vote. Membership could be made up of either tenured Full Professors only or tenured Associate and Full Professors with more Full Professors than Associate Professors. As mentioned earlier, conflict of interest is eliminated by:

4. Barring a member from voting on the case of a faculty member from his/her department
5. Barring Associate Professors from voting on the cases of promotion from Associate to Full Professor

Figure 1 shows the structure of the focused model.

Benefits

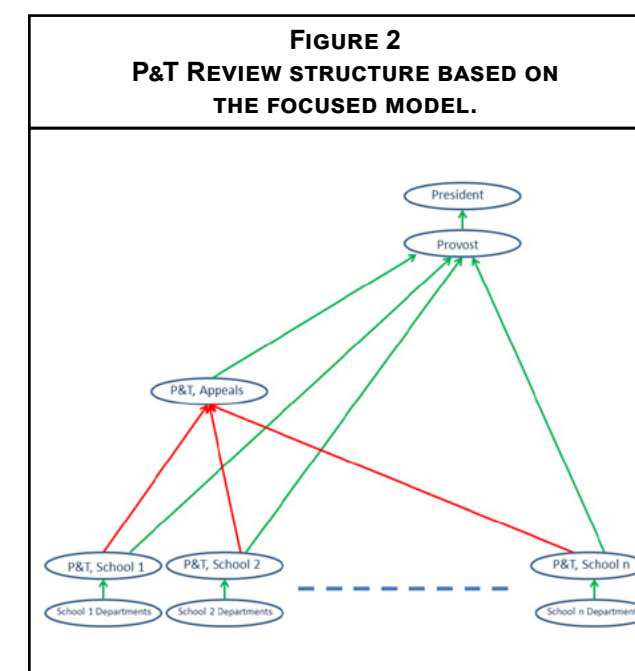
The Promotion and Tenure Committees at school level have faculty in related areas serving as members. There is no question that the experts in relevant disciplines are better suited to evaluate a candidate. They have a better understanding of the norms and standards in the candidates' areas of scholarship. Therefore, they can provide an objective evaluation and render a well informed decision on the promotion and tenure cases.

Drawbacks

The creation of the silo effect. Silo effect is a phenomenon in which each school/college pursues its goals with no concern of other units' needs; it's marked by the lack of communication and cross-unit support. The possible loss of across-the-board consistency in evaluation standards is also of concern in this model. The faculty members in the P&T Committee of a school/college make decisions for their peers from their school/college based on their standards. The faculty members from a different school/college have no opportunity to weigh in on those decisions. Therefore, each P&T Committee works in a silo, which makes it difficult to maintain across-the-board common standards. In this model, area Deans, essentially, provide oversight of the P&T Committees in their schools/colleges. A school's P&T Committee could use lower standards and approve weak candidates for promotions and tenures despite the efforts of the School Dean to maintain a higher standard. In this case, the Provost, and ultimately, the President would be left holding the bag—making unpopular decision of declining weak candidates' promotions and/or tenures. Most administrators would do that; however, this may not be the best way to run an institution where there is always an unnecessary tension between the administration and faculty.

Another problem with this model is that smaller institutions may have difficulty recruiting enough Full Profes-

sors to populate the P&T Committees. As mentioned earlier, using a committee size of five or less has the potential of creating a power struggle among members, which would result in loss of objectivity. The only other option to maintain a reasonable committee size would be to include tenured Associate Professors in the P&T Committees, which is not a good idea especially for the cases of promotions from Associate to Full Professor.

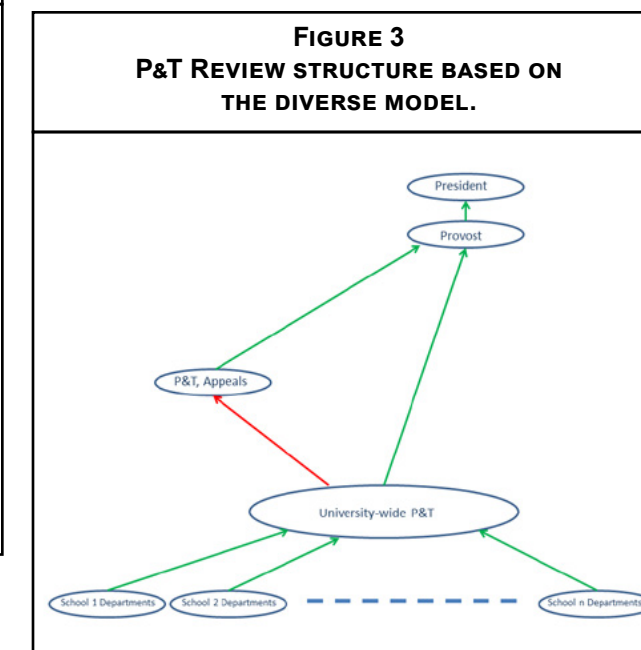


Diverse Model

In this model, an institution level P&T Committee reviews the promotion and tenure recommendations from the departments and makes its recommendations to the Provost. The P&T Committee in this model will have a representative from all academic departments, ideally one per department. In institutions where librarians are considered faculty, the Library will also be represented at the P&T Committee. Figure 3 shows the structure of the diverse model.

This is the way the promotion and tenure process works at many CUNY campuses. Faculty members (department Chairs) from all departments representing a wide range of disciplines are members of the promotion and tenure committee (Personnel and Budget Committee or P&B Committee in the CUNY system). The idea is that such a diverse group would provide an objective evaluation, minimize silo effect and maintain consistent evaluation standards across the board. In order for this model to provide the desired results, the faculty members (Chairs) from unrelated disciplines have to be "active participants" and

not "observers." By "active participants" I mean that they are the people who review the candidate's files/portfolio and then provide an objective evaluation/scrutiny of a candidate's credentials. The observers may not review candidate's files/portfolio; they may have on-the-spot questions/comments and, use clues from active participants' arguments to make a decision. An overly diverse body is more likely to have more observers. The more observers a decision-making body has, the more likely it is that the decision will be marred by the group thinking syndrome. That is, a few members would sway or control the opinion of the Committee and ultimately influence the final vote.



Benefits

A diverse single P&T Committee eliminates the silo effect and ensures that uniform standards are applied to candidates from all disciplines. This helps maintaining across-the-board quality control. Also, the total number of faculty members needed for the P&T review process is greatly reduced, which makes it more feasible to have a P&T Committee comprised of Full Professors only. Another benefit is that because there is only one P&T Committee, the Provost, and President may have an opportunity to attend the P&T Committee meeting and participate in the deliberations despite their busy schedules.

Drawback

A single large P&T Committee is susceptible to social loafing by its members as during the deliberations over any given candidate there will be more members from the irrelevant disciplines than from the relevant disciplines. If

MODELS OF THE PROMOTION AND TENURE PROCESS

We now define three models of the promotion and tenure process based on the above mentioned objectives:

1. Focused model: This model primarily helps to achieve faculty excellence.
2. Diverse model: This model primarily helps to achieve consistency in evaluation standards.
3. Hybrid model: This model provides a balance between the level of achievement of faculty excellence and consistency in evaluation standards.

Focused Model

Increasing faculty excellence requires a thorough review of the candidate's credentials. The best people to conduct a thorough review are the experts in candidate's discipline. However, finding a sufficient number of experts in every candidate's area within an institution, which can form the P&T Committee, is practically impossible. In practice, a thorough review of the candidate's credential will be conducted by the people who are, at a minimum, familiar with the candidate's discipline. That leads to the P&T Committee, which is made up of people in relevant disciplines, and we call this the focused model. Schools or colleges are formed by grouping relevant disciplines together. The P&T Committees in the focused model will be formed at the school/college level with membership, usually elected at large, coming from the same school/college. The committee is chaired by the Dean of the school/

many of them are not active participants, they will have little interest in the deliberations and would opt for social loafing. A byproduct of this state of the Committee would be that the decisions on candidates suffer from the group thinking syndrome.

Hybrid Model

This model is a combination of the diverse and focused models that potentially brings the benefits of both of them. That is, a hybrid P&T Committee would have both experts in areas relevant to the candidate’s discipline as well as faculty from unrelated disciplines. Ideally, one can ensure excellence both at the candidate as well as institution level by conducting a focused (thorough) evaluation with a minimal silo effect and still maintain across-the-board quality control. However, realistically, the hybrid model can provide a trade-off between ensuring excellence at the candidate level and consistency in evaluation standards applied to all candidates. A properly executed hybrid model can allow an institution to create the desired balance between maintaining excellence at the candidate level and consistent application of evaluation standards to all candidates. Institutional priorities determine the balance between achieving faculty excellence and applying consistent evaluation standards to all candidates. We define institutional priorities for achieving faculty excellence versus applying consistent evaluation standards to all candidates in terms of the consistency factor. The consistency factor defines the level of priority an institution places on having consistent evaluation over assuring individual faculty excellence. The P&T structure for the hybrid model is the same as the focused model; however, committee membership in a school P&T Committee is determined based on the desired consistency factor.

In a school P&T Committee of size “L,” there will be “M” members from the relevant disciplines (from the same School) and “N” members from the irrelevant disciplines (from outside of this School) for a desired consistency factor “C” where,

- C = N/M
- $\emptyset \leq C \leq N$
- $N \geq \emptyset$
- $M \geq \emptyset$
- $M + N = L$

The consistency factor “1” ($C = 1$) means the institution has an equal priority for achieving faculty excellence and applying consistent evaluation standards to all candidates. The consistency factor of less than “1” ($C < 1$) means that it is a higher priority for the institution to achieve faculty excellence than to apply consistent evaluation standards to all candidates. That is, for $C < 1$, the hybrid model is tilted towards the focused model. A consistency factor more than “1” ($C > 1$) means that it is a higher priority for the institution to apply consistent evaluation standards to all candidates than to achieve faculty excellence. That is, for $C > 1$, the hybrid model is tilted towards the diverse model. Note for $C = \emptyset$, the hybrid model turns into the focused model. Similarly, for $C = N$, the hybrid model turns into the diverse model.

Most institutions have promotion and tenure committees at the school/college level where each P&T Committee is formed by elected faculty members of that particular school/college. These committees effectively achieve objective 1 and follow the focused model; however, they suffer from the silo effect, and the across-the-board quality control is very difficult to maintain. Many campuses in The City University of New York (CUNY) system have an institutional level promotion and tenure committee, called the Personnel and Budget Committee (P&B). This committee consists of the department heads of all academic departments. The functioning of this committee primarily helps achieve objective 2 and, therefore, follows the diverse model. The hybrid model strives to capture benefits of both the focused and diverse models.

The review of the P&T processes in a sample of US universities is given in Table 2. The P&T processes at 12 universities were reviewed. The universities were chosen with no preference except that their P&T processes are included in publicly available documents. Furthermore, roughly equal number of universities was selected from the four regions: north east, south east, mid-west, and west.

TABLE 2 SUMMARY OF THE P&T MODELS USED BY A SAMPLE OF THE UNIVERSITIES IN THE UNITED STATES									
Institution	Model	Committee Structure and Faculty Membership							Comments
		Size	Chair	FP	AP	ASP	Elected*	Term (Years)	
College of Staten Island	Diverse	24	President	Y	Y	Y	Y	3	Committee members are the elected department chairs. Positive decisions go to the president as recommendations. Negative decisions can be appealed to the Appeals Committee that has six elected faculty (tenured, Associate and Full Professors only).
New York University	Diverse	12	Faculty	Y	N	N	Y(6)	3	Faculty of Arts and Science (FAS) at the New York University is used here as an example. P&T Committee has representation from all three divisions of the FAS. Six members of the Committee are elected, and the Dean of FAS appoints other six. P&T make recommendations to the Dean of FAS.
Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute	Focused with Oversight	Varies with school Oversight: 8	School level: Dean Oversight: Provost	Y	N	N	Y	3	School P&T Committees are made of department chairs as well as faculty representatives. Oversight is provided by the Faculty Committee on Promotion and Tenure (FCPT), which has representation from each School. Provost separately receives recommendations from the Committee of Deans (CD). The Joint Committee on Promotion and Tenure (JCPT), which is a combination of FCPT and CD, make a final recommendation on the candidates to the Provost.
Pennsylvania State University	Focused	5	Faculty	Y	Y	N	Y (4)	2	P&T Committees are at the school level. School of Information Science and Technology is used here as an example. There are four elected faculty members, and the Dean appoints one. There are separate committees for tenure and promotion. Tenure Committee members are also the members of the Promotions Committee; however, the Promotions Committee requires having at least three Full Professors. Therefore, the Dean appoints one Full Professor to the Promotions Committee. Members from outside the school can be appointed by the Dean to support cross-discipline fields.
San Francisco State University	Diverse	5	Faculty	Y	N	N	Y	2	The University Tenure and Promotion Committee (UTPC) is made up of five elected members with a faculty rank of Full Professor. Departmental P&T Committee’s Chair and area Dean send their recommendations to the Provost. The UTPC considers those recommendations along with the Provost’s review for its recommendations on candidates.

TABLE 2 SUMMARY OF THE P&T MODELS USED BY A SAMPLE OF THE UNIVERSITIES IN THE UNITED STATES									
Institution	Model	Committee Structure and Faculty Membership						Comments	
		Size	Chair	FP	AP	ASP	Elected*		Term (Years)
Stanford University	Focused with Oversight	Varies with school	Faculty/Chairs	Y	Y	N	N	1	Departmental decisions go to the School level Appointments and Promotions Committee (A&P). A&P is made of senior faculty, or in some schools, of department Chairs. An area Dean appoints A&P members. A&P make its recommendations to the Dean, who sends his/her recommendations to the Provost. The Provost makes the final decision and submits it to the Advisory Board of the Academic Council, which acts as an oversight Committee.
Tulane	Focused	9	Faculty	Y	Y	N	Y	2	P&T Committees are at the school level. P&T Committee of the School of Science and Engineering is used here as an example. Committee must have at least five Full Professors.
University of Miami	None	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Only department level P&T Committees exist. Department Chair and area Dean submit their independent recommendations along with the departmental P&T Committee's recommendations to the Provost. Provost makes the final recommendations to the President.
New Mexico State University	Focused	7	Faculty	Y	Y	N	Y	3	P&T Committee of the College of Arts and Sciences is used here as an example. College P&T has a total of seven members. Department Chairs cannot participate in the departmental P&T Committees.
University of Wisconsin, Madison	Focused	≥ 12	Faculty	Y	Y	Y	Y	3	University faculty members are divided into four Faculty Divisions. Each Division has its own Divisional Executive Committee, which reviews the departmental recommendations for tenure from its Division. Divisional Dean sends the recommendations of the Divisional Executive Committee along with his/her independent recommendations to the Provost. The Provost makes the decision.

TABLE 2 SUMMARY OF THE P&T MODELS USED BY A SAMPLE OF THE UNIVERSITIES IN THE UNITED STATES									
Institution	Model	Committee Structure and Faculty Membership						Comments	
		Size	Chair	FP	AP	ASP	Elected*		Term (Years)
Rice University	Diverse	8	Provost	Y	N	N	Y (6)	3	P&T consists of six elected tenured Full Professors from all Schools. Provost appoints two additional full Professors to the Committee. However, P&T does not use traditional voting system to approve or disapprove the tenure and/or promotion. Instead, it uses a graded scoring system with a score for different attributes of the candidate’s portfolio. P&T send its recommendations to the President of the University, who make the final determination.
South Dakota State University	Diverse	8	Provost	Y	Y	Y	Y(4)	3	The university-wide Tenure and Promotions Committee consists of four elected faculty members, and the President appoints other four members. There is no restriction on elected faculty members in terms of rank or even tenure. Even untenured faculty can get elected and serve on the Committee; however, they cannot serve during the year in which their case for tenure or promotion is brought up. The Committee makes the recommendations to the President who makes the final decision.
FP: Full Professor; AP: Associate Professor; ASP: Assistant Professor Y: Yes; N: No; N/A: Not applicable. * Y in this column means all faculty members of the P&T Committee are elected at large. If some are elected at large and the rest are appointed then the number in parenthesis represents the number faculty elected at large.									

EXAMPLE OF IMPLEMENTING P&T MODELS

All three models mentioned earlier will be analyzed for a small university in the North East United States. Let's call it North East University (NEU). NEU has over 15,000 students with five schools, which have 30 departments in total, and a total of 375 full-time faculty members. Schools in NEU include School of Business, School of Education, and School of Health Sciences, School of Humanities and Social Sciences and the School of Natural Sciences and Engineering. Table 3 shows the full-time (FT) faculty affiliation schools in all ranks (Lecturer to Full Professor) who are actively employed at NEU. The size and composition of the P&T Committee vary from

institution to institution. However, for the analysis in this paper, the P&T Committee size of nine members will be used. What follow next is several possible compositions of P&T Committees for small institutions like NEU that can be tailored to specific needs or priorities of the institution.

Focused Model

It is obvious from the Table 3 that the focused model of the P&T review process with Full Professors only membership is not feasible because of the lack of enough Full Professors in several schools. Therefore, NEU would need to expand the pool by including tenured Associate Professors as well. Other options would be to consider either a

TABLE 3 FULL-TIME ACTIVE FACULTY AFFILIATIONS AT NEU (As of Fall 2014)						
School	Lecturer	Assistant Professor	Associate Professor	Full Professor	Totals	
					All Faculty	Associate & Full only
Business	4	14	12	7	37	21
Education	0	7	13	3	23	16
Health Science	6	9	5	6	26	11
Humanities and Social Sciences	13	56	54	46	169	100
Natural Sciences & Engineering	12	23	43	42	120	85
Total	35	109	127	103	375	230

diverse model of the P&T review or a hybrid model (discussed later).

Figure 4 shows the structure of focused model for NEU. The model consists of five School P&T Committees and one University-wide P&T Appeals Committee that hears appeals against the negative decisions made by School P&T Committees. NEU would need nine tenured Associate or Full Professors from each school that are available and willing to serve on the P&T Committees. The structure assumes that the Deans of the Schools chair the P&T of their School and forward all positive P&T Committee's recommendations, along with their independent recommendations, to the Provost. Negative recommendations of the P&T Committees can be appealed by the candidates and would be dealt with by the University-wide Appeals Committee. The focused model would require a commitment from 54 tenured Associate and Full Professors, which is approximately 23.5% of the Associate and Full Professor population at the NEU. In other words, under the focused model, one out of every four Associate or Full Professors needs to be involved in the P&T process. Experience shows that this is too much of a commitment to ask from many faculty members, especially the ones active in research.

As mentioned earlier, the focused model suffers from the silo effect. The impact of the silo effect can be minimized by adding an oversight to the School P&T Committees. Note that there is a built-in oversight of the School P&T Committees through the Deans and the Provost. However, this leaves the administration making unpopular decisions of denying tenure or promotion to the weak candidates forwarded by the department. This would potentially create a constant confrontational environment where administration would be perceived as faculty un-

friendly. Therefore, it would be prudent to add a faculty oversight to School P&T Committees. Figure 5 shows the focused model with a faculty Oversight Committee. An oversight of School P&T Committees is incorporated in the focused model by adding an institution-wide Oversight Committee that would receive recommendations from the School P&T Committees and make its recommendations to the Provost. The oversight P&T would need members from across the University. Assuming a nine-member Oversight Committee, the total number of faculty needed for the focused model with Oversight would increase to 63 faculty members at the Associate or Full Professor level. This is a fairly large number for a small institution such as NEU.

Diverse Model

In the diverse model, NEU will have one institution wide P&T Committee with representation from all academic departments. That means it will be a committee of 30 faculty representatives, five Deans, the Provost, and possibly, the President. That makes it a committee of 37 members, which is a fairly large committee. Figure 6 shows the structure of the diverse model. However, it's a single committee system. With a nine-member Appeals Committee the total number of faculty needed for P&T processes is 39. That is almost half the number of faculty needed in the focus model with oversight. Finding 39 Full Professors would still be a challenge for NEU; however, it is certainly a possibility. On other hand, a committee of such size with disciplines on both sides of the spectrum makes the committee extremely diverse. Therefore, for any candidate being considered for promotion and/or tenure the proportion of the members from the irrelevant disciplines will be very high in comparison to members from the relevant

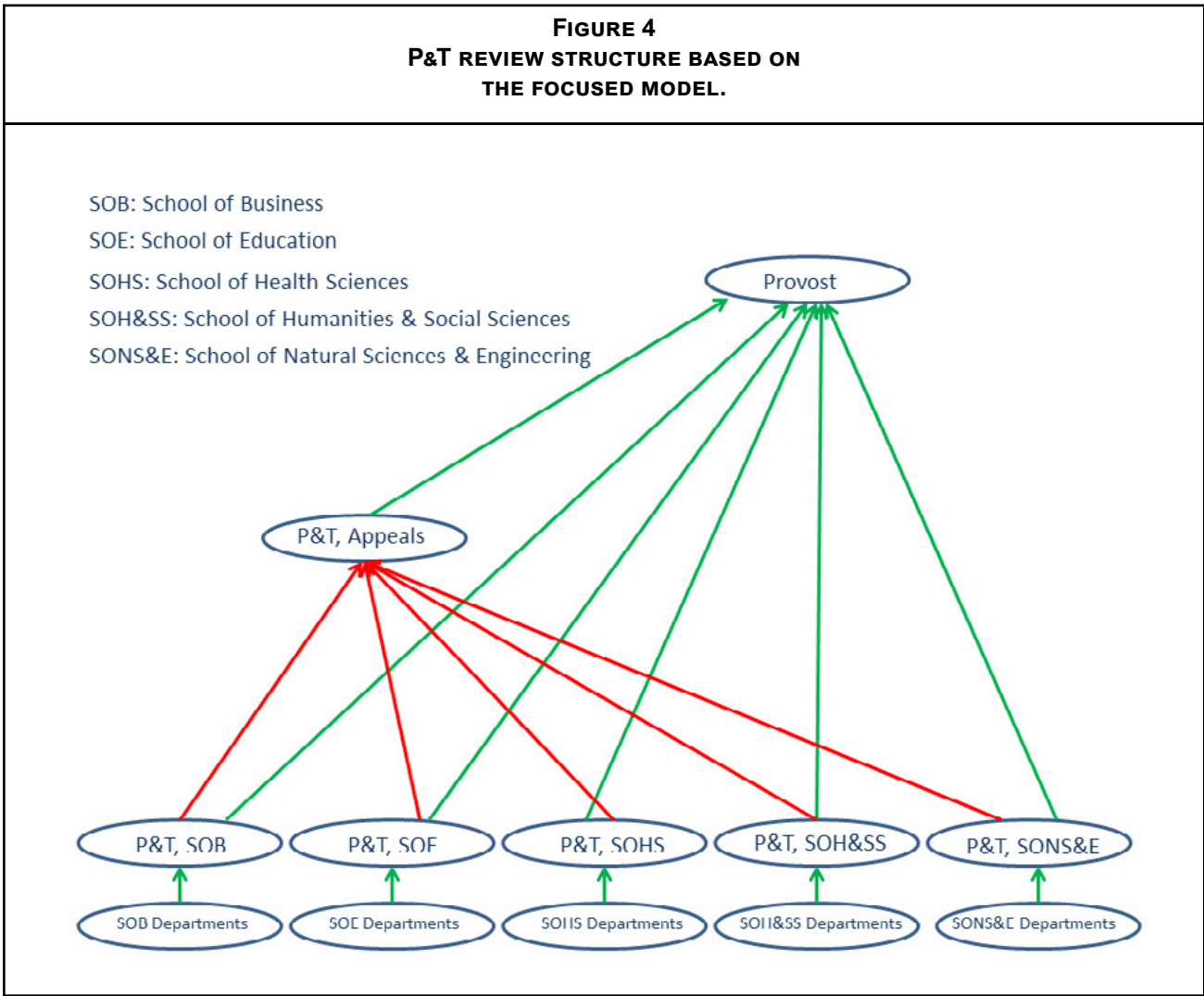
disciplines. If the committee is not properly guided, there will be many more observers than active participants during the consideration of any candidate. Consequently, this committee will be susceptible to social loafing and group thinking syndrome in which consistent standards are likely to be applied on all candidates; however, the standards are also likely to decline over time. Periodic review of the committee's work and training of the committee members might help to curb the decline in standards.

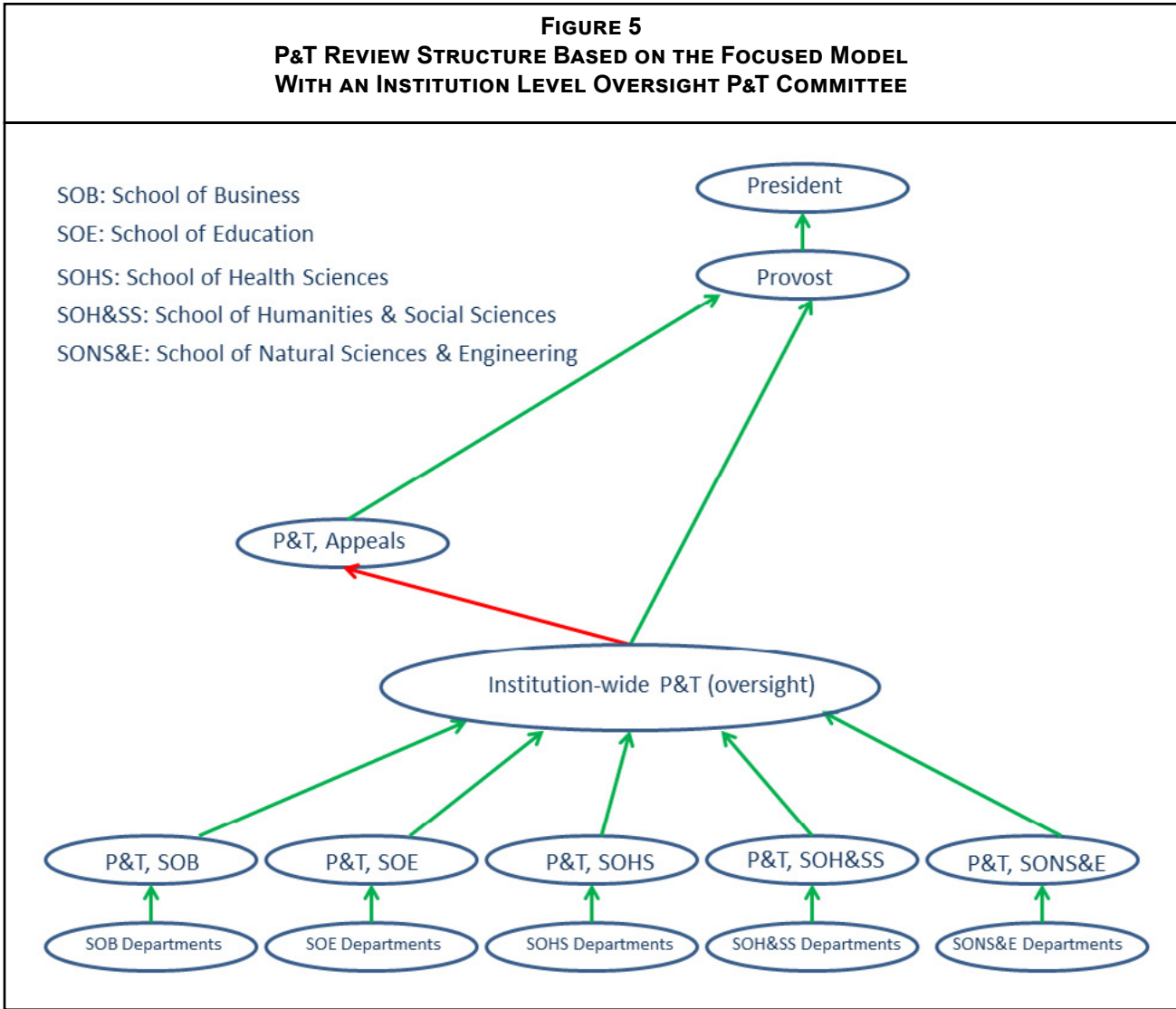
Hybrid Model

In the hybrid model, NEU will have hybrid P&T Committees at the School level. Using a Committee of nine members and a consistency factor of as close to one as possible, every School P&T will have five members from the same School and one each from the other four schools. Finding five Full Professors for the School P&T is feasible for every school of NEU except the School of Education.

If the same five Full Professors also serve on P&T Committee of other Schools as well, NEU needs only 25 Full Professors for the five School P&T Committees and nine Full Professors for the Appeals Committee. Therefore, a total of 34 Full Professors are needed to implement a hybrid model, which is highly feasible for a small institution such as NEU. The hybrid model for NEU requires the least number of faculty members with the most robust P&T Committees in terms of their susceptibility to social loafing and group thinking syndrome. The hybrid model will provide a very focused review of the candidates with consistent application of University standards, which are not likely to decline because of minimal social loafing and susceptibility to group thinking syndrome.

Personally, I would like to have a balance between achieving faculty excellence (thorough evaluation) and application of consistent standards on all candidates with a thorough evaluation as my primary objective. The reason





is that there are many places other than the committees on personnel matters where actions can be taken to minimize the silo effect and ensure consistency in standards among different Schools. However, in most if not all cases, a thorough evaluation of a candidate by the experts in relevant disciplines can only happen through the P&T committees. Table 4 summarizes the pros and cons of three models for NEU.

In closing, we have presented three models of P&T Committee processes and examined their effectiveness and implementation issues. The focused model provides a thorough review of the candidate at the expense of sacrificing the application of consistent standards across the institution. The diverse model helps applying consistent standards on all candidates at the expense of sacrificing the thoroughness in the review process. Furthermore, as the P&T Committee size increases the likelihood of still

consistent, but declining standards being applied at the P&T considerations increases. This is due to increasing social loafing and susceptibility to the group thinking syndrome. A large number of observers are responsible for the group thinking syndrome, which is highly undesirable because it fails the purpose of having a diverse group involved in the decision-making process.

The hybrid model provides the most robust structure while requiring the least number of faculty needed for the hybrid P&T Committees. It brings a more thorough evaluation by concentrating discipline relevant experts as well as improving quality control by reducing/eliminating observers on the P&T committee.

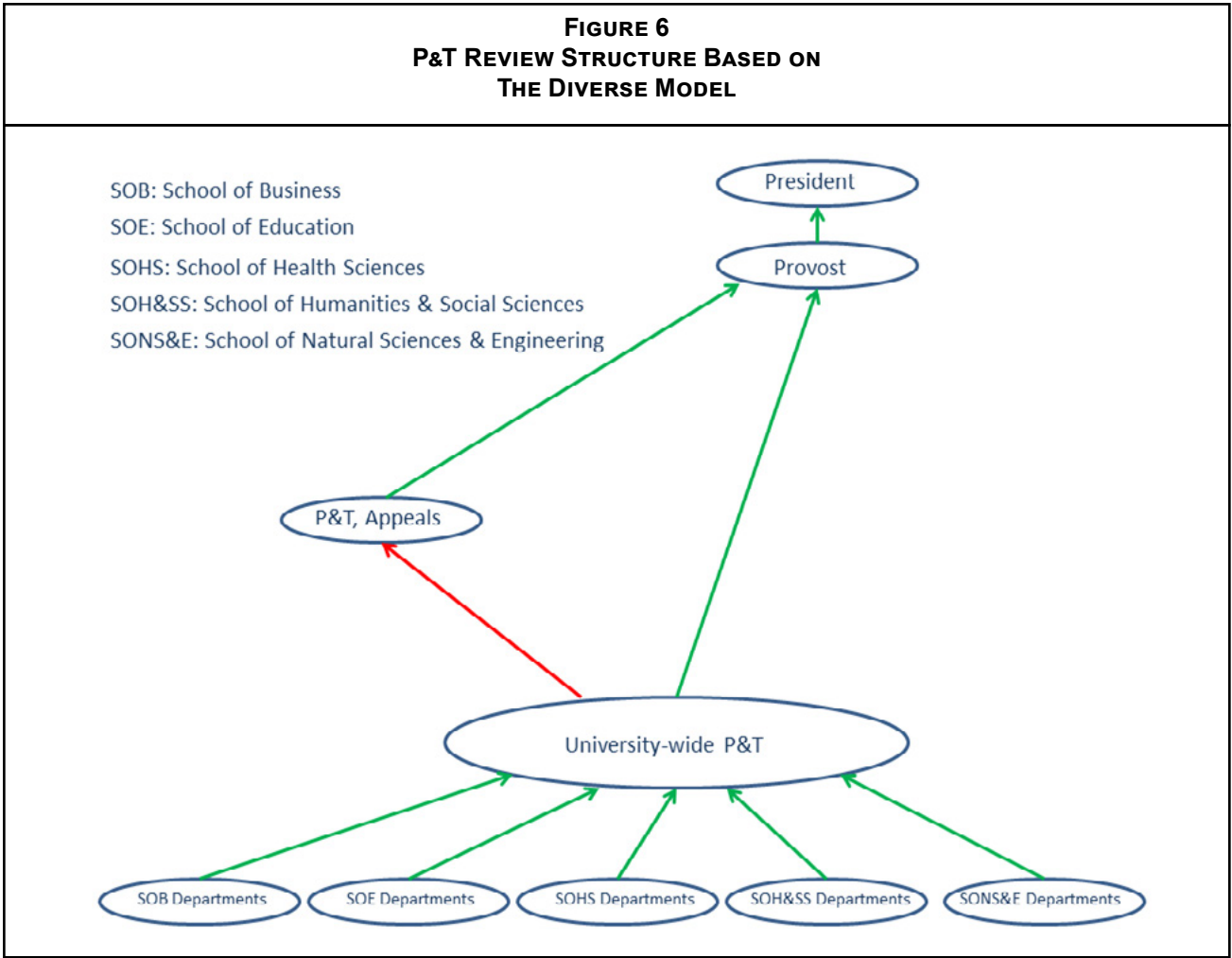


Table 4 Summary Comparison of the Key Aspects of the Three Models Applied to Neu.						
Model	Number of Faculty Needed	Susceptibility			Robustness/Quality	
		Group Thinking	Social Loafing	Silo Effect	Evaluation	Consistency of Standards
Focused	63	Low	Low	High	High	Low-to-Moderate
Diverse	39	High	High	Low	Low-to-Moderate	High
Hybrid	34	Low	Low	Low	Moderate-to-High	Moderate-to-High

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DEVELOPING A MULTI-DIMENSIONAL EVALUATION FRAMEWORK FOR FACULTY TEACHING AND SERVICE PERFORMANCE

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ABSTRACT

A task force was created in a small, AACSB-accredited business school to develop a more comprehensive set of standards for faculty performance. The task force relied heavily on faculty input to identify and describe key dimensions that capture effective teaching and service performance. The result is a multi-dimensional framework that will be used by faculty and administrators to communicate and assess performance expectations. The dimensions for evaluating teaching are 1) quality of instruction, 2) innovative practices, and 3) effort or time commitment. The service dimensions are 1) contribution & leadership and 2) team player. The paper describes the steps taken to develop the framework and build faculty support for its use. The experiences of the task force and the process they used to develop the framework are relevant to those who are interested in revising and clarifying the faculty evaluation process. The final version of the framework is provided in the appendix.

INTRODUCTION

How should faculty of our colleges and universities be evaluated? What criteria should evaluation committees, chairs and deans use to assess faculty performance? The faculty evaluation process within institutions of higher education is of upmost importance in determining progress towards tenure, promotion, and salary. Accrediting bodies such as The Southern Association of Colleges and Schools (SACS) and the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) typically require faculty evaluation. Standard 3.7.2 in the SACS "Principles of

Accreditation" (2011, 31) states, "The institution regularly evaluates the effectiveness of each faculty member in accord with published criteria, regardless of contractual or tenured status." AACSB requires that the faculty evaluation "process should extend beyond student evaluations of teaching and include expectations for continuous improvement" (34).

Despite its importance, faculty evaluation is viewed by many as unsatisfactory (Silva and Thomsen, 2013). Miller and Seldin (2014) concluded that "meaningful evaluation of faculty performance was rare and that judgments fre-

quently were based on information gathered in haphazard, even chaotic, fashion” (p. 35). Research related to performance evaluation is highly developed in the management literature, whereas in higher education performance review has received much less attention (Shepherd, Carley and Stuart, 2009).

Faculty dissatisfaction with the evaluation process was a concern for the dean of the Else School of Management at Millsaps College. The Else School of Management (the business school) is accredited by the AACSB and offers undergraduate, graduate, executive and certificate programs. Annual faculty evaluations begin with each faculty submitting a report documenting activities in the areas of teaching, research and service. The report is submitted to the dean of the business school for review, followed by the dean’s response. There are no formal guidelines specifying content within the three academic areas. According to the college’s Faculty Handbook (2007) tenure guidelines, faculty must demonstrate “sustained, noteworthy teaching,” “serious attention to the duties and responsibilities of a faculty member” and “developed scholarship or noteworthy performance in the creative arts,” (26) but no criteria for the annual evaluation process are identified.

Consistent with the findings of Silva & Thomsen (2013), the Else School of Management faculty expressed dissatisfaction with the evaluation process. In 2013, a survey of the business faculty indicated that only 23% percent were satisfied or very satisfied with how teaching was evaluated and 35% were satisfied or very satisfied with how service was evaluated. In a similar survey conducted 5 years earlier, dissatisfaction primarily involved the extent to which G.P.A. and student ratings were used to assess faculty teaching performance.

In response to faculty concerns, the dean of the business school created a task force charged with identifying the standards that should be used to evaluate business faculty in teaching and service. She chose task force members from economics, management, finance and marketing to serve on the task force. While our business school is unique in that we are small and embedded in a liberal arts college, the concerns our faculty have about the evaluation process are not at all unique. As noted above, dissatisfaction with the faculty evaluation process is common across schools and disciplines. The steps taken by this task force to assess and revise the approach we use to evaluate faculty may be useful to other faculty and administrators who are also dissatisfied with the way in which faculty members are evaluated.

Laying the Groundwork

In our first meeting, the task force identified the fundamental objectives that the faculty evaluation process should achieve, and this informed the steps we took to develop a framework for faculty evaluation. According to Gabris & Ihrke (2001), performance appraisals are often used to: 1) provide feedback; 2) influence employee behavior; and 3) make merit decisions. The task force recognized that these three objectives were relevant for faculty evaluation. We wanted to develop a set of performance standards that would encourage clear communication among faculty and administrators about the behaviors and outcomes that support the college and business school missions and strategies. The framework had to be consistent with the college’s current standards for promotion, tenure and merit pay decisions. Our intention was to create a tool that would help faculty clearly understand performance standards and have access to the feedback that could help achieve them.

The task force also recognized some of the challenges associated with faculty evaluation. Kluger & Densi (1996) found, for example, that feedback does not consistently increase employee performance. Their research indicated that increased performance is less likely when the focus of the feedback is on the person, as opposed to the tasks or the specific behaviors that will lead to improvement. In the case of faculty evaluations, an emphasis on “overall instructor rating,” an item that currently appears on the Millsaps’ student evaluation of teaching form, seems to be targeted toward the individual and may not lead to behaviors that improve teaching effectiveness. Lang & Kersting (2007) found that student ratings did not have an appreciable impact on teacher performance over time.

Another common problem relates to the validity of performance evaluations that do not use objective measures or outcomes. For example, in their review of the literature, Rynes, Gerhart & Parks (2005) noted that individual contributions are difficult to assess objectively when employees work in teams. This is likely to apply to assessment of faculty service, where much of the work is done in committees. Rynes et al. also indicated that interrater reliability is low for behavior-oriented assessment and the link between pay and performance is generally perceived as weak when such assessment is used. Low validity can be the result of poorly constructed evaluation instruments, rater biases, a rater’s limited access to relevant performance information, among other problems. Results-based measures may be more objective, but tend to be deficient in that they fail to account for the full range of performance expected. Validity is likely to increase when evaluations of teaching and service performance is based on multiple

forms of evaluation (Shao et al. 2007; Stark-Wroblewski et al. 2007; Marsh and Roche 1997; Shields 1996).

The ideal performance evaluation process is both valid and perceived as fair by the employees. Perceptions of procedural justice, interactional justice and distributive justice have been found to affect employee reaction to performance appraisal, including responses related to morale, satisfaction, commitment to the organization and intentions to leave (Erdogan, 2002; Flint, 1999; Holbrook, 2002). Perceptions of procedural justice increase when employees are fully aware of the standards of performance, the standards are consistently applied and the employee has input into the process. Interactional justice is a function of the communication between the supervisor and the employee during the performance appraisal process. Distributive justice involves the perceived fairness of the outcomes associated with the performance evaluation process, including ratings, commendations and pay increases.

The primary concern of the task force was on procedural justice. We wanted to develop a framework that faculty members would support, could consistently be applied and effectively used to provide faculty with clear, formative feedback. Interactional and distributive justice issues are largely up to the administrators who would use the tool we designed, but our objective was to offer a framework that would support their responsibilities in maintaining a just process. To facilitate higher levels of procedural justice, the task force determined that it was imperative to have faculty input at every stage of the design. Researchers have consistently found that employee voice is key in increasing perceptions of procedural justice (Erdogan, 2002; Flint, 1999; Holbrook, 2002).

In summary, the task force objectives were to create a set of standards that: 1) were consistent with the college’s mission and strategies; 2) would clarify for faculty and administrators the performance required to be promoted and earn merit awards; and 3) were perceived as fair by faculty. Essentially, we were hoping to improve communication among faculty and administrators, to offer a common language that would give all faculty the opportunity to develop and succeed. In both teaching and service, we wanted to utilize a variety of information sources to enhance the validity of the process. Because the business school at Millsaps College is AACSB accredited, the criteria used to evaluate research productivity are more clearly defined and faculty fully understand the research expectations. The focus of the task force was therefore on assessment of teaching and service, not on research.

What Does Current Research Tell Us About Faculty Evaluation?

The research surrounding faculty evaluations of teaching service can be categorized into two primary streams. The first stream of research examines aspects related to overall faculty performance, and in particular the relative weights given to teaching, research and service for use in promotion, tenure, and salary decisions. The second stream consists of a vast amount of research investigating the use of student evaluations for assessing teaching performance. Both streams are useful in identifying the factors that should be considered in assessing faculty performance.

Teaching Performance

Most studies reported that student evaluations of teaching (SETs) are the primary source of information used to assess faculty teaching performance (Clayson, 2009; Honeycutt, Thelen and Ford 2010; Stark-Wroblewski, Ahlering, and Brill 2007; and Williams and Rhodes 2002). In his meta-analysis, Clayson (2009) found virtually all business schools use some form of student evaluation to assess teaching performance. Much of the research describes the problematic nature of SETs as tools for assessing teaching effectiveness, most questioning their validity and raising concerns about bias (Peterson, Berenson, Misra, and Radosevich 2008; Chonko 2006; Algozzine, Beattie, Bray, Flowers, Gretes, Howley, Mohanty, and Spooner 2004; Engelland 2004; Nasser and Fresko 2002; Stapleton and Murkison 2001; Simpson and Siguaw 2000; and Marsh and Roche 1997). In contrast, Wright & Jenkins-Guarnieri (2012) found that SETs were a valid measure of teaching effectiveness, as measured by student achievement on student final exams and grades. They recommended the use of SETs if used together with “constructive, consultative feedback” (p. 694).

While student evaluations of teaching are the most common tool utilized to assess teaching performance, studies investigating overall faculty performance provide insight into additional approaches used to evaluate teaching performance. Shepherd, Carley, and Stuart (2009) surveyed marketing chairs from AACSB-accredited institutions, including both doctoral-granting and non-doctoral-granting. All institutions reported using student evaluations to measure teaching effectiveness. Other common approaches, in order of popularity, were teaching portfolios, classroom observation, peer review of syllabi, class size, and delivery approach (online or face-to-face). The only significant difference found between the two different types of institutions was that doctoral-granting schools were more likely to consider the number of graduate classes taught.

Three other studies are helpful in identifying the factors that college administrators typically use to evaluate teaching performance. Honeycutt et al. (2010), asked marketing chairs from AACSB-accredited institutions to assign 100 points among various methods used to evaluate quality teaching. Responses among balanced, research-focused and teaching-focused institutions were compared. By far, SETs received the most points by all three types of institutions, followed by observation by peer faculty and unsolicited student comments. Williams and Rhodes (2002) surveyed chief academic officers at four-year colleges and universities and found among all Carnegie classifications student ratings were used to a greater extent than all other methods, followed by chair evaluation, dean evaluation, self-evaluation, and course syllabi/exams/handouts. Committee evaluation, colleague opinions and classroom visits received moderate use. Teaching portfolios, informal student opinions, student exam performance, long-term student follow-up and enrollment in elective courses were used less often in the evaluation of faculty teaching. Miller & Seldin's (2014) survey of deans from four year liberal arts colleges were consistent with Williams & Rhodes (2002), indicating that student ratings, chair evaluations, self-evaluations, classroom visits and committee evaluations were commonly used to evaluate faculty teaching. Over a ten-year period, Miller & Seldin's (2012) found that the use of self-evaluations and classroom observations has increased over the ten-year period between 2000 and 2010.

The above research consists of surveys from administrators reporting current approaches for evaluating teaching. Adding to this literature is a study by Shao, Anderson, and Newsome (2007) who included faculty in addition to administrators when surveying AACSB-accredited institutions. In addition to reporting current practice, the study also asked "what should be used" to evaluate teaching effectiveness. Among 20 general items, SETs ranked first in current practice, and ranked second among those items that should be considered. Respondents believed "current in field" should be the most important, but was only given moderate importance in current practice. Other items that were believed to have too little weight included: peer's evaluations, classroom visits, class assignments, and alumni feedback. And, respondents thought the following received too much weight: teaching awards, use of technology, colleagues' opinions, course level (graduate/undergraduate), course type (required/elective), and class enrollment.

It is clear from the research examined above that the primary means for evaluating teaching performance are SETs. Used to a lesser extent are administrators' evaluations, classroom observation, review of syllabi and faculty self-evaluations.

Service Performance

We found several studies that examined service performance criteria. In the Honeycutt et al. (2010) study, responses were categorized based on institutional importance given to teaching and research. Among institutions that focused on teaching or have a balanced focus on teaching and research, the following activities were identified for evaluating service performance (in order of importance): (1) service to school/college; (2) service to department; (3) service to university; (4) service to discipline; and (5) service to business community. Williams and Rhodes (2002) surveyed chief academic officers at four-year colleges and universities and found among private institutions with bachelor's Carnegie classification the following service activities in order of importance: (1) service on college-wide committee; (2) academic advising; (3) service on departmental committee; (4) department administrative duties; and (5) advisor to student organizations.

Examination of studies involving evaluation of overall faculty performance offers additional insights for evaluating service performance. In Miller and Seldin (2014), deans from accredited four-year liberal arts colleges weighed activities considered 'a major factor' for promotion. Over 70% of deans cited campus committee work as a major factor, an increase from 58% in a 2000 survey. Student advising was cited almost as often as a major factor. The deans were much less likely to rate public service, activities in professional societies and consultation as a major factor in promotion decisions.

More limited in geographic scope, Cipriano and Riccardi's study (2005) compared the perceptions of 917 faculty and 118 department chairs from the Connecticut State University system. Respondents were asked to indicate factors they considered important in making personnel decisions. Department committee work was considered a major factor by most faculty (61%) and chairs (66%). Less than half of both faculty and chairs viewed campus committee work as a major factor in personnel decisions. More dissonance between faculty and chairs was found among other service criteria. Only 28% of faculty weighed activity in professional services as important, whereas 41% of chairs cited it as major factor. Student advising received endorsement as a major factor by 39% of chairs and only 27% of faculty. Differences were also found for service to the community, with chairs at 24% and faculty at 15%, and public service with chairs at 21% and faculty at 10%. Lastly, few chairs and faculty weighed consultation as important, with only 5% considering it a major factor.

Based on the literature review, the most commonly used factors to assess faculty service performance are service to

the department, service to the college and/or university, professional activities, service to the community, academic advising, and consulting. There are no studies describing or evaluating the way in which participation in these activities are assessed.

Summary

Most of the studies we found surveyed administrators and/or faculty to identify the factors that are typically considered when evaluating faculty performance in teaching and service. Across institutions of higher education and among faculty and administrators, there is considerable consistency about what those key factors are. To evaluate teaching performance, student evaluations are used by almost all surveyed institutions. To assess service performance, the factors that are often cited as important include service work on behalf of the institution, service to the discipline and academic advising. However, none of the studies we found provided specific performance criteria. For example, what are acceptable SET scores? What constitutes acceptable levels of performance on a college or professional committee? In addition, we could not find examples of a faculty-led effort to develop specific standards with which to evaluate faculty teaching and service. We hope this paper fills this void by offering direction as institutions grapple with issues surrounding the evaluation of teaching and service performance.

Initial Faculty Input

Our task force generated a list of items that were cited in previous research and should be considered when evaluating teaching and service performance. In addition to the items found in the literature, we considered rubrics employed by previous administrations, conversations with colleagues and the business school dean, past experience in tenure and promotion decisions, and the broad tenure and promotion guidelines found in our faculty handbook.

We designed a questionnaire in order to learn how colleagues felt about possible factors that might be used to evaluate faculty performance. We ultimately identified 23 items related to teaching and 11 related to service, and asked faculty to rate the importance of each. A 5-point Likert scale was employed using "very important," "somewhat important," "neutral," "somewhat unimportant," and "not at all important." The questionnaire was emailed to all 15 full-time faculty, excluding part-time instructors and adjuncts. Anonymous responses were collected from 14 of the 15 full-time faculty members.

The number of faculty rating each item as either "somewhat important" or "very important" for evaluating teaching and service performance were combined and the

results are presented in Table 1. Note that "heavy service" is an imprecise term but is generally understood by the faculty members and administrators to mean serving on committees requiring frequent meetings for which some advanced preparations is required and which attend to crucial institutional matters.

The teaching performance item believed to be very or somewhat important by the greatest number of faculty was "Number of Separate Preparations" with 13 (93%) mentions. Items believed important by more than 11(85%) of the faculty were "Accessibility to Students," "Number of Required Courses Taught," and "Use of Innovative Teaching Practices." More than 10 (75%) of faculty also attributed importance to "Student Ratings of Teaching Behaviors" (e.g., the instructor specifies goals, is well prepared, gives clear direction, etc.), "Student Overall Rating of Instructor," "Class Size," and "Teaching a New or Significantly Revised Course." Items receiving more moderate support included "Supervision of Directed Studies/Internships," "Teaching in Graduate Program," "Number of Elective Courses Taught," "Research in Collaboration with Students," "Teaching College Core Course," "Teaching in Executive Program," "Community-Engaged Learning," "Evaluation of Syllabi," and "Advising of Honors Student." Perceived as lacking in importance by faculty include "Student Mentoring," "Plans for Teaching Improvement," "Teaching in International Program," "GPA Ranking," "Students Course Grade," and "Teaching in Summer School."

Among the activities to evaluate service performance, 13 (93%) of the faculty believed "Heavy Service to the Business School" was important, followed by "Heavy Service to the College" and "Other Service to the Business School." More moderate support was given to "Other Service to the College," "Service to the Profession," "Chaired Committees," "Contribution to Comprehensive Exams," and "Meeting Deadlines." Generating average support from the faculty were "Community Service," "Business School Administrative Duties," and "Consulting." Few faculty believed "Advisor to Student Organizations," or "Teaching in Certificate Program" were important for evaluating service performance.

Identifying Performance Dimensions

Relying heavily on the survey results, the task force proceeded with development of a multi-dimensional evaluation framework for both teaching and service performance. In reviewing those teaching items that received more than 10 (75%) faculty endorsements as important for evaluating teaching, commonality across 3 dimensions became apparent. A first dimension identified, Quality of Instruction, is indicated by the faculty's belief that both

<div>TABLE 1</div> <div>EVALUATING TEACHING AND SERVICE PERFORMANCE</div> <div>Number of faculty members (14) indicating the item was either “somewhat important” or “very important” for evaluating teaching and service performance</div>			
Teaching Items	Number	Service Items	Number
Number of Separate Preparations	13	Heavy Service to the Business School	13
Accessibility to Students	12	Heavy Service to the College	12
Number of Required Courses Taught	12	Other Service to the Business School	12
Use of Innovative Teaching Practices	12	Other Service to the College	10
Student Ratings of Teacher Behaviors	11	Service to the Profession	10
Student Overall Rating of Instructor	11	Chaired Committees	9
Class size	11	Contribution to Comprehensive Exams	9
Teaching a New or Significantly Revised Course	11	Meeting Deadlines	9
Supervision of Directed Studies/Internships	10	Community Service	8
Teaching in Graduate Program	9	Business School Administrative Duties	8
Number of Elective Courses Taught	9	Consulting	8
Research in Collaboration with Students	9	Advisor to Student Organizations	6
Teaching College Core Course	8	Teaching in Certificate Programs	4
Teaching in Executive Program	8		
Community Engaged Learning	8		
Evaluation of Syllabi	7		
Advising an Honors Student	7		
Student Mentoring	6		
Plans for Teaching Improvement	6		
Teaching in International Program	6		
GPA Ranking	5		
Students’ Course Grade	5		
Teaching in Summer School	4		

the Student Ratings of Teaching Behaviors and Student Overall Rating of Instructor should carry weight in assessing teaching performance. This is in line with the research discussed above regarding faculty belief in the importance of student evaluations for measuring teaching effectiveness. However, student evaluations were not the only, or perhaps even the most important, item in evaluating faculty according to the business faculty who completed our survey.

Two similar items endorsed by more than 10 (75%) faculty were Use of Innovative Teaching Practices and Teaching of New or Significantly Revised Course. Thus, a second dimension was titled Innovative Practices to capture items related to innovation. The inclusion of innovation as a dimension for evaluating teaching is affirmed by the fact that the AACSB emphasizes its importance in its accreditation standards (AACSB, 2013). The teaching performance results also indicate the importance of items not directly related to quality of instruction: Number of

Separate Preparations, Accessibility to Students, Number of Required Courses Taught, and Class Size. Research has identified these items as extraneous or situational factors that influence student evaluation scores (Peterson et al. 2008; Engelland 2004; Wachtel 1998; and Marsh and Roche 1997). Given the importance of these items to our faculty, we encapsulated them into a third dimension identified as Effort or Time Commitment. See Table 2 for the breakdown of the dimensions for teaching performance.

<div>TABLE 2</div> <div>DIMENSIONS OF TEACHING PERFORMANCE:</div> <div>QUALITY, INNOVATION, AND EFFORT</div>	
Quality of Instruction	Number (%)
Student Ratings of Teacher Behaviors	11 (77)
Student Overall Rating of Instructor	11 (77)
Evaluation of Syllabi	7 (50)
Plans Teaching Improvement	6 (43)
GPA Ranking	5 (36)
Students’ Course Grade	5 (36)
Innovative Practices	Number (%)
Use of Innovative Teaching Practices	12 (86)
Teaching a New or Significantly Revised Course	11 (77)
Research in Collaboration with Students	9 (64)
Community Engaged Learning	8 (57)
Teaching in International Program	6 (43)
Effort or Time Commitment	Number (%)
Number of Separate Preparations	13 (93)
Accessibility to Students	12 (86)
Number of Required Courses Taught	12 (86)
Class Size	11 (77)
Supervision of Directed Studies/ Internships	10 (71)
Teaching in Graduate Program	9 (64)
Number of Elective Courses Taught	9 (64)
Teaching College Core Course	8 (57)
Teaching in Executive Program	8 (57)
Advising an Honors Student	7 (50)
Student Mentoring	6 (43)
Teaching in Summer School	4 (28)

The service performance criteria clustered around 2 dimensions: Contribution & Leadership and Team Player. Discussion among task force members and among the faculty at large revealed that it was important to make contributions to the business school, college and profession, but it also mattered how well faculty worked with others to achieve outcomes. The Millsaps College handbook states, for example, that “serious attention to the duties and responsibilities of a faculty member [include] . . . evidence of cooperative interaction with colleagues, respect for the abilities of others, willingness to work toward a common purpose . . .”. With only 15 full-time faculty in the Else School of Management, being a team player is critical and thus its perceived importance for evaluating service performance is warranted.

Once the five dimensions were defined, the next step in the refinement process was to establish expectations against which faculty are evaluated. The dean asked the task force to describe three levels of performance: meets expectations, exceeds expectations and does not meet expectations. The task force recognized that courses, committees and other responsibilities can vary considerably within a department, and faculty may have little control over variables such as committee assignments or class size. We agreed that it would be impossible to create a checklist or rating system to fully incorporate the many different ways faculty members contribute to the education of our students and the success of our college. Thus, for each of the 5 dimensions, we described multiple examples of activities and behaviors that meet, exceeds or does not meet expectations. The final version of the dimensions and descriptions for each level of performance is provided in the Appendix.

Seeking Faculty Feedback

The next step in the development of these new faculty evaluation dimensions was to introduce the framework to the business faculty for feedback. We first sent the document to the faculty via email. At the following faculty meeting, we briefly discussed the task force objectives and the process used to develop the performance dimensions and descriptions. Although a few questions arose at the meeting, the task force wanted to create additional opportunities for faculty to express their questions and concerns.

The task force invited faculty to informally discuss the proposed evaluation framework over food and beverages. We decided to meet in small groups to encourage an honest and thoughtful exchange of ideas, so we offered multiple meeting times. No administrators attended these meetings. Sixty percent of the faculty attended one of the meetings we offered. The meetings led to lively discussions

about the task force proposal and the faculty evaluation process in general. The teaching dimensions and descriptions dominated the meetings; no changes were made to the task forces' original recommendations regarding service. With respect to the teaching dimensions, some of the suggestions were minor, such as those involving specific wording or adding items to the dimension descriptions. Other concerns reflected more fundamental differences about what constitutes effective teaching and service. Significant time was spent debating the validity of SETs.

A couple of participants were content with the school's heavy reliance on SETs. These faculty expressed a belief that, on average, students could judge effective teaching. Others disagreed, suggesting that students were not trained to evaluate teaching and were susceptible to a variety of biases. There is research that supports both viewpoints (e.g., Clayson, 2013; Wright & Jenkins-Guarnieri, 2012). Several faculty members noted that the new standards would be a success if they replace the current emphasis on student evaluation ratings with a more balanced view of teacher effectiveness.

If SET scores are used to make personnel decisions, the question becomes, what ratings define "meets expectations" and "exceed expectations"? At Millsaps College, the teacher ratings on most items average around 6 on a 7-point scale. On the rating form, a 6 is described as "excellent" for overall ratings of the course and instructor or "typically accurate" for such behavioral items as "is well prepared". Some participants in the meetings argued that a rating of 4 or above should meet expectations because, if the evaluation form is taken literally, this rating reflects "average" on overall quality or "moderately accurate" on desirable teacher behaviors. Ultimately, the task force decided to include SET scores in the dimension "Quality of Instruction". We recommended that SET scores could be used to help evaluate either "meets expectations" or "does not meet expectations". Under the standard "meets expectations," we wrote "[the instructor] received satisfactory student ratings (for example, as measured by a rating of 5 or above, or within a standard deviation of the college mean)". We added that all of the 23 items on the student evaluation form needed to be considered, as opposed to relying solely on an overall quality rating. This decision reflected a compromise we hoped all sides could accept. Importantly, the task force recommended that SET scores be considered in addition to numerous other instructor behaviors and activities.

We were surprised when one participant took issue with the dimension, "Innovative Practices". This faculty member suggested that innovation was not relevant for some classes. Most survey participants gave innovative teaching practices a high rating (see Table 1), so the task force be-

lieved it was important to keep. It was possible, however, that our description of each level of performance (i.e., does not meet, meets, exceeds expectations) on this dimension was deficient. For example, another faculty member complained that we had defined innovation too narrowly with a focus on technology. We modified the description of this dimension, including phrases such as "experimented with new . . . teaching strategies," and "used realistic and current examples, cases, simulations and other exercises," which should be applicable to all instructors, including those who teach highly technical, content-intense courses.

A couple of faculty members commented that the descriptions for each teaching dimension were biased in favor of experiential learning and community engaged learning. A few people noted that lecturing is a valuable teaching method, especially for content that is difficult to understand. The task force acknowledged this and added the phrase, "[the instructor] was especially adept at helping students understand difficult concepts" as an example of "exceeds expectations" under the dimension, "Quality of Instruction".

The final major concern expressed involved the validity of the dimensions and descriptions for each level of performance. A faculty member asked whether we could statistically validate the instrument that we use for evaluation. It is important to note that this framework is not a rating instrument or a checklist. It provides a list of behaviors and activities that help administrators and faculty understand what is expected. Nevertheless, it could be argued that the framework has content validity. It is consistent with the evaluation items listed in the literature and is aligned with our own faculty's expert opinions about what constitutes effective teaching and service. Because this framework clarifies the types of behaviors and activities that are expected for each level of performance, it has to be more valid than our current system, which offers only the vague requirement for "sustained, noteworthy teaching" and "serious attention to the duties and responsibilities of a faculty member," as written in the faculty handbook.

Perhaps the most important consideration is whether this framework will help administrators and faculty better understand expectations for faculty performance and provide them with a tool for identifying areas of strengths and concerns. In fact, this framework has already begun to engage our faculty in discussions about what constitutes effective teaching and service. For example, the conversations about classroom innovation, the use of lecture and community engagement encouraged critical thinking about pedagogy and the connection between classroom experiences and the school's mission and strategic plans.

Decision-makers must make sure they apply this framework in a manner that increases perceptions of proce-

dural, interactive and distributive justice because doing so leads to better work outcomes (Erdogan, 2002; Flint, 1999; Holbrook, 2002) and reduces the chances of illegal discrimination. In addition, administrators should regularly evaluate ratings, promotion and pay decisions to ensure that no adverse impact has occurred. Although the Supreme Court ruled that formal statistical validation is not a requirement for cases of discrimination in personnel decisions, courts will review a variety of evidence to determine whether the decisions were both fair and valid (Lee, Havighurst & Rassel, 2004).

Based on the feedback from the small group meetings, the task force revised the proposed framework and sent the revision to the faculty via email for final review. At the following faculty meeting, those present unanimously accepted the dimensions and descriptions, with the exception of one abstention. The framework will now be used to guide faculty as they write their annual reports and the dean as she evaluates those reports. The final version of the framework is in the Appendix.

CONCLUSION

Faculty evaluation is mandated by various accreditation bodies such as SACS and AACSB, and if done effectively, can provide clear expectations for performance and assist with faculty development. Currently, an overreliance on SETs and vague standards of performance introduce considerable bias and uncertainty into the evaluation process, promoting dissatisfaction among faculty. We have described a process in which faculty were directly involved in the refinement of a business school's faculty evaluation standards. Although the task force did not eliminate the subjectivity associated with faculty evaluations, the framework that was developed makes clear the behaviors and activities associated with not meeting, meeting and exceeding expectations for faculty performance in teaching and service. Because we relied heavily on faculty input from the beginning of the development process, faculty satisfaction of the evaluation process should increase. The almost unanimous vote to adopt the framework is one indication of faculty satisfaction. The steps we took and the framework we developed for evaluating faculty offer direction for others engaging in review and refinement of the faculty evaluation process. The final product will vary by institution, depending upon a school or department's mission, strategic plan and learning environment. Nevertheless, many of the issues and concerns addressed in this paper are universal and the process we used to clarify our standards may also bear good results for others.

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APPENDIX

Dimensions and Criteria for Assessing Teaching and Service Performance

This document is intended to build a common understanding of what is expected of faculty in the areas of teaching and service. The examples provided for each level of performance reflect the fact that there are a variety of ways to meet or exceed performance expectations. It is impossible to create a checklist or rating system to fully incorporate the many different ways faculty members contribute to the education of our students and the success of our College. Examples provided for each level of performance are therefore not intended to be exhaustive; faculty or the Dean of the Else School may identify additional behaviors that exemplify "meets," "exceeds," or "does not meet" expectations. Greater clarity about performance expectations should enhance the communication among faculty and with the dean and is intended to provide a positive resource for faculty development.

Quality of instruction

Meets expectations: Demonstrated competence in teaching learning objectives.

Examples to consider include: had learning objectives that were consistent with the learning outcomes designated for each course taught; met with class regularly; used class meeting time effectively; employed pedagogy appropriate for learning objectives; received satisfactory student ratings (for example, as measured by a rating of 5 or above, or within a standard deviation of the college mean; consider all questions posed on the evaluation instrument); issued fair grades that reflected learning objectives achieved; assigned papers or projects as required for comprehensive exams; participated in the comprehensive exam process; provided students with syllabi that contained learning objectives, grading criteria, a schedule of reading and written assignments; was accessible to students outside of class to clarify instructions, course content or feedback.

Exceeds expectations: Demonstrated excellence in teaching learning objectives.

In addition to items listed under 'meets expectations,' the faculty member demonstrates excellence through examples such as: utilized relevant assignments (case studies, business problems, simulations, community engagement activities) that challenged students to rise to higher levels of performance than typically expected; developed and utilized learning activities that led students to solve actual problems in the community or participate in competitions; was especially adept at helping students understand difficult concepts; utilized a variety of teaching methods, media and/or technologies in ways that highly motivated students to achieve course learning objectives.

Does not meet expectations: Did not effectively teach learning objectives.

Examples to consider include: learning objectives for the course were not clear or consistent with learning outcomes designated for the course; was not prepared for class or did not use class time effectively; there was no distinction made in the content and performance expectations for a class taught to undergraduates and graduates; used learning activities that were not effective in meeting course objectives or did not engage students actively in learning; received unsatisfactory student ratings (for example, as measured by a rating below 5 or below the standard deviation of the college mean; consider all sur-

vey questions); issued grades that did not reflect student performance or were inconsistent with grading criteria described in the syllabus; project or paper assigned for the comprehensive exam did not sufficiently assess learning outcomes assigned for the course; did not participate in the comprehensive exam process as needed; syllabus was incomplete, unclear or not followed; was inaccessible to students outside of class to clarify instructions, course content or feedback.

Innovative practices

Meets expectations: Utilized engaging learning activities to meet course objectives.

Examples to consider include: utilized media and technology in an effective way to engage students in problem solving or critical thinking; taught an established course abroad; used realistic and current examples, cases, simulations and other exercises to actively involve students in learning the course objectives.

Exceeds expectations: Developed new teaching strategies or utilized creative and engaging learning activities to meet course learning objectives.

Examples to consider include: developed or utilized learning activities or assignments that encouraged students to identify and/or solve real problems in an organization within the community; experimented with new technology or teaching strategies; taught a new, innovative course; taught a new course abroad; created and implemented new cases, simulations and other exercises to actively involve students in learning the course objectives; significantly revised a course to incorporate new cases, simulations, exercises, media and/or technologies; taught interdisciplinary courses with colleagues from other divisions or disciplines or served as a guest lecturer in classes or events across campus.

Does not meet expectations: Demonstrated no attempt to update content or utilize new approaches to engage students to meet learning objectives.

Examples to consider include: used outdated texts or reading materials; relied heavily on one or two types of learning activities that encouraged passive learning; learning activities did not engage the students in higher level thinking.

Effort or time commitment

Meets expectations: Had teaching commitments that required time and effort consistent with most other faculty in the business unit.

Examples to consider include: taught an average number of preparations; taught classes that were average in size (15-18 students in this case); supervised a small number (one to three in the case of Millsaps College) directed studies/internships, supervised an honors program student or a student in a program intended for undergraduate students interested in college teaching to shadow a faculty member; provided quality advising/mentoring to assigned students; agreed to teach in summer school or the college's Executive program when asked; taught at night or less desirable times slots; submitted information about student progress in a timely manner for assessment.

Exceeds expectations: Had teaching commitments that required more time and effort than what is typically required for faculty in the business unit.

Examples to consider include: taught more preparations than the average number required; taught more students per class than the average faculty member; supervised numerous directed studies/internships and perhaps also an honors program or shadowing student; taught one or more courses he/she had never taught before; taught in several graduate level courses; taught in the college core curriculum; taught in several less desirable times slots, such as multiple night classes in a semester; attended seminars, colloquies, symposiums, professional meetings, etc., to improve teaching effectiveness; filled in for a colleague who was unexpectedly absent for a significant period; shared teaching materials and/or techniques with other colleagues; guided students in community engagement learning activities.

Does not meet expectations: Spent minimal effort on teaching duties in ways that led to an increased burden for colleagues and/or had a negative impact on the quality of students' experiences.

Examples to consider include: refused to teach required or elective courses in the fall or spring semesters as needed, or refused to teach in the times needed; refused to teach new courses as needed; cancelled classes frequently without justification; was inaccessible to students for advising.

Contribution and leadership

Meets expectations: Demonstrated serious attention to the duties and responsibilities of a faculty member.

Examples to consider include: regularly attended all committees assigned and engaged in the work of the committee; submitted assignments or action items on time; provided quality advising and career support to students; supported efforts to satisfy accreditation requirements; served as advisor for student organizations; participated on temporary task forces or project teams such as search committees; participated in off-campus initiatives such as the unit's community outreach program; may have organized, lead, or otherwise participated significantly in local field trips and/or out-of-town student trips; served the community outside one's official role as faculty member; provided consulting services in a manner that brought attention to the business unit; or served as a reviewer for academic journals; supported assessment efforts.

Exceeds expectations: Initiated projects or programs and/or provided leadership on committees or as the director of a program that led to significant improvements and the enhanced reputation of the business unit, the college and/or the profession.

In addition to items listed under 'meets expectations,' the faculty member demonstrates excellence through examples such as: played a key role (as a committee chair or member, a program director, or an individual) in an initiative that enhanced the quality of the student's educational experience, financial security of the business unit or college, or reputation of the business unit or the college; advised students in off-campus competitions; led temporary task forces or project teams such as search committees with valuable results; played an instrumental role in community outreach efforts such as the unit's community engagement program; engaged in outreach to alumni that led to job opportunities for students or enhanced fundraising efforts; served as an officer or chair for professional organizations; served as an editor for an academic journal.

Does not meet expectations: Played no role in helping the business unit or the college achieve their goals or advance their programs and/or reputation.

Examples to consider include: did not regularly attend or share the workload of the committees to which s/he was assigned or elected; failed to submit or was consistently late in submitting assignments or

action items related to committee work, assessment, accreditation, etc.; was not accessible to advisees and did not respond to their emails; did not attend major college and unit events, such as graduation, awards ceremonies, important unit events, etc.; did not complete tasks that were assigned by the Dean or other superior.

Team player

Meets expectations: Was communicative, cooperative and respectful to colleagues on committees, in the unit and across campus.

Examples to consider include: willingly participated on committees as needed; listened to colleagues with an open mind; compromised when appropriate; demonstrated respect for colleagues; responded to requests for data in a timely manner; attended major college and unit events, such as graduation, awards ceremonies, important unit events, etc.; supported on-campus recruitment events.

Exceeds expectations: Words and actions created a more collegial environment on committees, in the business unit and across campus; behaviors enhanced communication, problem solving and commitment to committee, divisional and/or college goals.

Examples to consider include: volunteered to fill roles or committee assignments; actions and initiatives brought people together from across campus; diffused conflict when it occurred in meetings or among colleagues; stepped in for colleagues on committees or class when they were unable to fulfill their role; in addition to major college and unit events, attended numerous faculty, student, prospective student, and/or alumni gatherings, receptions, sporting events, etc.; participated in off-campus recruitment events.

Does not meet expectations: Words and actions damaged collegiality and were detrimental to progress on committee, business unit and/or college goals and problem solving.

Examples to consider include: refused to take on roles and tasks when doing so would have helped spread the workload among colleagues; after agreeing to do tasks, did not follow through; words and actions fueled conflict within committees and among campus groups; refused to compromise when appropriate; dominated discussion in meetings and refused to consider other ideas or perspectives; rarely attended major college and business unit events.

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INSTRUMENT DEVELOPMENT FOR EXAMINING STUDENT ATTRITION

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ABSTRACT

Instruments designed to track student changes in higher education are essential for monitoring program development in competitive higher education markets. As part of a developmental evaluation, a student questionnaire was developed and piloted to examine attrition rates in college programs. The purpose of the questionnaire was to explore factors influencing students' decisions to leave college programs prior to completing their studies. Three factors believed to influence students' decisions to withdraw from programs were related to wellness, finances, and the overall college experience. A survey consisting of 20 items was piloted with 30 individuals who imagined they made the decision to leave a college program. This pilot study provided an overview of the changing Canadian post-secondary enrolment landscape, instrument enhancement, and procedures for analysis followed by ideas for implementing the questionnaire.

INTRODUCTION

As one of four primary community colleges in Atlantic Canada and the sole community college on Prince Edward Island, Holland College has supported the learning goals of local, regional, national, and international students since 1969 (MacKinnon, 2008). Similar to other jurisdictions, students' learning goals change as they align their post-secondary training with the demands of the workforce. In Atlantic Canada, college programs are also responding to changes impacting workforce demographics where it has been predicted that the 18 to 24 year old population in the region would decrease by 14% between the years of 2008 and 2018 (Maritime Provinces Higher Education Commission, 2007). Such a decrease in enrolment would result in an inevitable reduction in college applications from regional high school graduates. The changing employment market combined with a decrease in student population was a catalyst to launch a new academic model at Holland College in 2011.

The intent of the model was to address this drop in student enrolment and better meet the learning needs of career changers, partial degree earners, international students, and those seeking individual course credits (Association of Canadian Community Colleges, 2010). The new academic model provided students with the opportunity for

increased academic choice as they registered for individual courses or an entire college program (Howard, 2011). This approach was envisioned to address the decline in regional, secondary school graduates by marketing individual courses alongside full programs thus making registration more streamlined and attractive to a broader applicant population. To remain abreast of shifts in students' career choices, enrolment patterns, and overall satisfaction of the college experience, Holland College has systematically and strategically monitored changes in student enrolment patterns. Unfortunately, the traditional, college-initiated status forms and satisfaction surveys did not capture relevant data regarding changes in student enrolment. For example, the traditional documentation failed to identify reasons why a student requested changing their full-time enrolment status to part-time status or decided to discontinue their studies. Was the change due to dissatisfaction with the program, a career opportunity, financial struggles, or perhaps a personal family reason? Given the inadequacy to capture reasons why students changed their program status it is not possible to make informed modifications to current programs or create new programs. Furthermore, the dependence on faculty and administrators to interpret or infer reasons or explanations to changes in program status for a student was not reliable given that

the information relied on inferences and lacked a systematic means of gathering this information.

Historically, a faculty member initiated enrolment changes, such as program discontinuation or course de-registration, on behalf of a student at Holland College. These changes were communicated with the Admissions Office through an electronically submitted, standardized form. Although this electronic document included a section for the faculty member to add comments to describe the student's situation, as a senior administrator and author of this paper, I can attest that faculty rarely added any comments. As noted above, the little information that was captured was based on the perspective of the faculty member rather than the student given that the faculty member. Consequently, the reliability of the information collected was questionable because it was second-hand and for the little information that was collected, it was too small to make any generalizations.

The implications of this method of attempting to monitor student attrition resulted in unreliable data that led to unfounded speculation (often negative) by college faculty, administrators, and senior executives regarding student attrition. For example, accusations that a decline in student enrolment for a particular course or program was due to poor quality instruction, was highly speculative and damaging to faculty profiles. On many fronts, a well-designed survey which could be completed by the student would serve the accountability needs of the institution and thereby guide future development of college programs in a manner better suited to the learning needs of students.

The sustainability of college programs in the competitive 21st century education market is dependent on knowing the learning needs of students. Without monitoring changes in student enrolment patterns it is possible that the skills gap in the Canadian workforce would continue to widen given the misalignment between student learning needs and college programs (Association of Canadian Community Colleges, 2010).

PURPOSE

The purpose of this developmental program evaluation was to create an instrument that would capture student enrolment changes within various college programs and then pilot the instrument with a pseudo group of participants to evaluate its effectiveness and applicability in a post-secondary environment. The key evaluation question posed for this study focused on determining factors influencing student changes in enrolment. This study was launched acknowledging these factors would guide the development of the instrument that would ultimately be

used to survey students whenever they made a course or program change.

Developmental Evaluation Framework

Given the need to create an instrument to monitor reasons influencing student attrition, a developmental evaluation (DE) framework was selected to guide the process of instrument development (Patton, 2008). The developmental nature of this evaluation is based on learning rather than accountability given the proactive initiative to create an instrument to guide the growth and prosperity of Holland College. DE are effective approaches within organizations, such as community colleges, which are observed as constantly evolving, adapting, and growing during times of change (Gamble, 2008); as was the case at the time of this evaluation. This evaluation model is also noted for its strong social innovation platform (Gijjt, Kusters, Lont, & Visser, 2012), which aligns with the mandate of Holland College. Lastly, the DE framework allowed the author to assume an integrated, consultative role within the evaluation that, in turn, challenged the author to manage personal and professional biases regarding student attrition (Rey, Tremblay, & Brousselle, 2013).

Such a participatory lens would also promote buy-in from stakeholders (e.g., college faculty, administrators, and senior executives) that would create a transformational learning opportunity within the organization. This occurrence would aid in helping stakeholders understand what is needed to meet their goals (Preskill & Torres, 2001); and subsequently promote utilization of the final instrument (Cousins & Earl, 1995).

Contextual Literature

In 2012, administrators and faculty at Holland College, one of four primary community colleges in Atlantic Canada, revised its institutional mission statement. This activity was undertaken because the previous mission statement was approximately 15 years old and no longer represented the direction of the institution. Presented as "Learning for Life in a Dynamic World", the new mission statement described the belief that learning was a life-skill applicable throughout society (Holland College, 2010). In doing so, Holland College reaffirmed its position as an institution embedded into the social fabric of every student.

By assuming a position of lifelong learning, Holland College accepted responsibility to support students who experienced challenges within traditional program pathways. This commitment to lifelong learning also reflected the learning needs of 21st century students who will undoubtedly pursue more than one career in their lifetime.

Such mobility will be realized through training beyond an initial post-secondary program as a result of the changing job environment; a condition of today's globalized and interconnected economy (Schleicher, 2010). The new vision for Holland College would adopt a student-centered academic model responsive to learning needs characterized by uncertainty in the workforce.

A culture of change (Fullan, 1999), regarding faculty and student attitudes towards attrition was identified as key to this investigation. This orientation was employed to open new lines of communication between faculty, part-time students, career changers, and international learners and contributed to a deeper awareness of learners who presented new motivations as to why they were in college (Willcoxson & Wynder, 2010). By considering the manner in which adult learners in community colleges attempted to connect institutional learning to real-life situations (MacKeracher, 1996), expanded awareness of the relationships between faculty and students remained an important aspect of ensuring quality within the teaching and learning dynamic and managing student attrition. By accepting the notion that increased levels of teacher-student engagement resulted in decreased levels of student attrition (Crosling, Heagany, & Thomas, 2009), the concept of learner engagement became integral to stakeholder's understanding of the importance of teacher-student engagement. Thus, learner engagement served as the main focus of the instrument development to capture both student and college influenced reasons regarding enrolment changes. This rationale was supported by theories of institutional learning which are described as a function between teachers, students, and content (Corso, Bundick, Haywood, & Quaglia, 2013).

Although the significance of teacher-student engagement has been linked to quality learning experiences, up to 60% of American high school students remained chronically disengaged (Klem & Connell, 2004). For reasons such as this, the importance of investigating student attrition was connected to helping faculty refine their own teaching and learning practices with a new generation of students. With new student populations accessing community colleges, teaching could not continue as it had in the past (Canadian Education Association, 2013), because communication practices, workplace competencies, and technological advancements in industry have each contributed to a new graduate profile calling on the student to demonstrate skills beyond the scope of simple knowledge transfer. As a result, increased opportunities for learning engagement was needed to create graduates competent to compete in the new workplace (Gallup, 2013).

By examining a student engagement core model (Bundick, Corso, Quaglia, & Haywood, in press) that focused on

curricular relevance, expertise, and relationships between students, teachers, and content, an opportunity was presented to make deeper connections as to why students left their program of choice. In addition, engagement in the forms of thinking, feeling, and acting were a result of the student believing their teachers were available, concerned, impartial, and respectful (Wentzel, 1998). This perspective was supported by Silverman (2007) and Chan (2004) as their research concluded that the beliefs and attitudes of teachers had a direct impact on both students and the teaching and learning dynamic. Thus, the tenets surrounding these beliefs were presented to stakeholders for consideration in designing a questionnaire to track student enrolment changes.

METHOD

Instrument Design

In consultation with stakeholders via individual interviews and group meetings, three principal areas influencing changes in student enrolment were articulated: a) changes related to well-being, b) changes affected by insufficient financial resources, and c) college-influenced changes (e.g., dissatisfaction with a course, course was too challenging). These three areas framed the construct of student attrition for use in the item development phase for the questionnaire. In consultation with a measurement specialist, questionnaire items were developed and the resulting 20 items capturing reasons for changes in student enrolment is presented in Appendix A (Change of Enrolment Survey). A four-point rating scale anchored at each end with the expressions: *this is not me at all* and *this definitely applies to me* was used to capture students' beliefs influencing their change of enrolment. These anchors were designed to appeal more to a student audience in comparison to the traditional anchors of *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. A four-point scale was selected over the more common five-point scale to eliminate clumping of responses on the middle response option that is probable when using smaller populations (Dawes, 2008). Reducing the size of the scale would also minimize the number of potentially empty cells that might contribute to a Type II error (indicating a statistically significant difference between groups when there actually is no difference).

The questionnaire also included an open-ended item for students to add relevant information, in the form of narrative feedback, which could be used to attend to quality discrepancies in a program and help others more fully understand the financial, psychological, and societal complexities experienced by community college students not otherwise considered (O'Banion, 1997). In addition to these items surveying the construct, additional items doc-

umented students’ program status (including current program), academic year, and confirmation of either full- or part-time study. The paper-based survey was intended to be voluntarily and anonymously completed by a student when they met with a faculty member to request a change to their enrolment status. After completing the survey, students would seal it in an envelope addressed to an administrative assistant responsible for collating the surveys. This survey was designed to be brief (i.e., efficiently capture reasons for change with the minimum number of items) so that the student did not feel overwhelmed during an otherwise already stressful time in their life; while recognizing that longer surveys (i.e., more items) are generally more reliable.

Piloting the Survey

Given the need to complete the developmental phase of the evaluation, the questionnaire was piloted before implementing it with 30 pseudo students in a post-secondary context. The data gathered from this pilot study allowed us to examine the utility of the instrument, obtain an initial measure of the reliability, and prepare statistical procedures for analyzing the data. The 30 pseudo students were currently or had previously been enrolled in a post-secondary program. They were instructed to imagine themselves as full-time students enrolled in one of three programs (i.e., Business Administration (BA), Medical Support Services (MSS), and Tourism and Travel Management (TTM)) within a community college Business Studies program division who wished to change to their academic status. Narrowing the pilot to these programs was intended to eliminate the possibility spreading the pilot data too thin as would be the case if all 65 programs at Holland College were included in this small pilot study.

Descriptive and Inferential Statistics

The anonymously completed surveys were manually numbered in sequence from one to thirty and then entered into a statistical analysis software program. The dataset was checked for typographical data entry errors by reviewing the contents within each cell. A minimum and maximum dispersion check of one to four confirmed there were no data entry errors for the 20 survey items. A second, manual check of the dataset confirmed frequencies for the BA, MSS, and TTM case outputs equalled the Total Students case output. Where no data were entered in the dataset, the corresponding cell in Table 1 was left blank. Finally, kurtosis and skewness were used to check for normality, or symmetry of the dataset, which confirmed distribution quality. Frequencies were calculated for all items and were presented as raw data with corresponding percentages. The mean and standard deviation

for the Likert type items was calculated and rounded to two decimal points in order to ensure precision when applying future statistical techniques (Frankfort-Nachmias, 2006). To examine whether the scale was measuring the same underlying construct, known as the reliability of the scale, Cronbach’s alpha was calculated. To further test the applicability of the dataset, differences between the three business programs (grouping variables) and the construct as represented by three dimensions: wellness, finance, and, college experience, were analyzed using a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA).

FINDINGS

Although it was not expected or feasible to believe that the pseudo sample could respond entirely in the mind of a real student going through a change in their college program, we analyzed the data as if our data was representative of a real sample of students. This process would document the procedure for analysis and obtain statistical measures that would serve as indicators of how a real sample would respond and add to the instrument development.

Descriptive Statistical Analysis

Table 1 summarizes the descriptive statistics including frequencies, mean, and standard deviation. Overall there was a good range or spread of responses except for a few items. For example, in item q8, which asked the student to respond to their personal, financial situation, there was a high frequency of responses at the low end of the scale and an absence of responses at the level 4 rating (i.e., this does not apply to me). This finding suggested money was not major factor influencing the pseudo group’s enrolment change. This finding was well aligned with item q5 in which responses were more evenly distributed and only 10% of the participants indicated that they could definitely not afford tuition their program. Overall, the responses clustered at the low end (rating of 1 and 2) of the scale as indicated by mean scores rarely exceeded a mean score of 2.5.

Cronbach’s alpha was used as an initial measure of the internal consistency of the scale. An item analysis revealed that the alpha coefficient for one item (i.e., q2: A personal medical reason requires my attention) was negatively loaded. However, further examination of this item (i.e., $M = 1.90$, $SD = 1.11$) does not suggest this item is performing differently than other items in the scale and this anomaly may be the result of pseudo sample and/or the small sample size. In terms of reliability of the entire scale (including item 2), Cronbach’s alpha was 0.410 (0.499 with item 2 removed). This alpha coefficient is below the acceptable standard of 0.7 (Vogt, 2007); however, as noted above was

TABLE 1
CHANGE OF ENROLMENT SURVEY ITEMS,
FREQUENCIES, PERCENTAGES, MEAN, AND STANDARD DEVIATION

			This is not me at all		This definitely applies to me			
Item		Group	1	2	3	4	M	SD
Wellness Considerations								
Q1	I feel mentally overwhelmed in this program	MSS	3 (33.3)	4 (44.4)	2 (22.2)		1.93	0.98
		BA	4 (33.3)	5 (41.7)	2 (16.7)	1 (8.3)	2.00	0.95
		TTM	5 (55.6)	2 (22.2)	4 (13.3)	2 (22.2)	1.89	1.27
		Total	12 (40.0)	11 (36.7)		3 (10.0)	1.93	0.98
Q2	A personal medical reason requires my attention.	MSS	4 (44.4)	3 (33.3)	2 (22.2)		1.87	1.11
		BA	7 (58.3)	2 (16.7)	2 (16.7)	1 (8.3)	1.75	1.06
		TTM	5 (55.6)	1 (11.1)	4 (13.3)	3 (33.3)	2.11	1.45
		Total	16 (53.3)	6 (20.0)		4 (13.3)	1.87	1.11
Q3	Physically and mentally I feel good.	MSS	1 (11.1)	1 (11.1)	4 (44.4)	3 (33.3)	2.87	1.01
		BA	1 (8.3)	4 (33.3)	4 (33.3)	3 (25.0)	2.75	0.97
		TTM	2 (22.2)	5 (16.7)	4 (44.5)	3 (33.3)	2.89	1.16
		Total	4 (13.3)		12 (40.0)	9 (30.0)	2.87	1.01
Q4	A family medical reason requires my attention.	MSS	2 (22.2)	1 (11.1)	4 (44.4)	2 (22.2)	1.67	0.99
		BA	10 (83.3)	2 (16.7)	1 (11.1)	2 (6.7)	1.17	0.39
		TTM	7 (77.8)	1 (11.1)	5 (16.7)		1.33	0.71
		Total	19 (63.3)	4 (13.3)			1.67	0.99
Financial Considerations								
Q5	I cannot afford tuition for this program.	MSS	1 (11.1)	4 (44.4)	3 (33.3)	1 (11.1)	2.40	0.86
		BA	1 (8.3)	3 (25.0)	7 (58.3)	1 (8.3)	2.67	0.78
		TTM	2 (22.2)	6 (66.7)		1 (11.1)	2.00	0.87
		Total	4 (13.3)	13 (43.3)	10 (33.3)	3 (10.0)	2.40	0.86
Q6	Additional program fees, in addition to tuition, made this program unaffordable.	MSS	2 (22.2)	5 (55.6)	1 (11.1)	1 (11.1)	2.18	0.95
		BA	4 (33.3)	3 (25.0)	3 (25.0)	2 (16.7)	2.25	1.14
		TTM	2 (22.2)	4 (44.5)	3 (33.3)	3 (10.0)	2.11	0.78
		Total	8 (26.7)	12 (40.0)	7 (23.3)		2.17	0.95
Q7	An employment opportunity outweighs the benefits of school at this time.	MSS	4 (44.4)	3 (33.3)	1 (11.1)	1 (11.1)	2.00	1.14
		BA	4 (33.3)	5 (41.7)	1 (8.3)	2 (16.7)	2.08	1.08
		TTM	5 (55.6)	1 (11.1)	1 (11.1)	2 (22.2)	2.00	1.32
		Total	13 (43.3)	9 (30.0)	3 (10.0)	5 (16.7)	2.00	1.11

TABLE 1 CHANGE OF ENROLMENT SURVEY ITEMS, FREQUENCIES, PERCENTAGES, MEAN, AND STANDARD DEVIATION								
			This is not me at all	This definitely applies to me				
Item		Group	1	2	3	4	M	SD
Q8	Money has not been a problem for me.	MSS	3 (33.3)	3 (33.3)	3 (33.3)		2.03	0.77
		BA	2 (16.7)	4 (33.3)	6 (50.0)		2.33	0.78
		TTM	3 (33.3)	6 (66.7)	9 (30.0)		1.67	0.50
		Total	8 (26.7)	13 (43.3)			2.03	0.77
Q9	My commute to College takes too much time.	MSS	2 (22.2)	3 (33.3)	4 (44.4)		1.90	0.96
		BA	6 (50.0)	4 (33.3)	2 (22.2)	2 (16.7)	1.83	1.12
		TTM	5 (55.6)	2 (22.2)	6 (20.0)	2 (6.7)	1.67	0.87
		Total	13 (43.3)	9 (30.0)			1.90	0.96
Q10	The program does not match my career aspirations.	MSS	4 (44.4)	3 (33.3)		2 (22.2)	1.73	0.98
		BA	8 (66.7)	3 (25.0)	2 (22.2)	1 (8.3)	1.50	.091
		TTM	4 (44.5)	3 (33.3)	2 (6.7)	3 (10.0)	1.78	0.83
		Total	16 (53.3)	9 (30.0)			1.73	0.98
College Experience Considerations								
Q11	I thought I would make more friends while at College.	MSS	4 (44.4)	2 (22.2)	2 (22.2)	1 (11.1)	2.17	1.09
		BA	4 (33.3)	4 (33.3)	2 (16.7)	2 (16.7)	2.17	1.12
		TTM	2 (22.2)	4 (44.4)	1 (11.1)	2 (22.2)	2.33	1.12
		Total	10 (33.3)	10 (33.3)	5 (16.7)	5 (16.7)	2.17	1.09
Q12	The quality of instruction is not what I thought it would be	MSS	2 (22.2)	5 (55.6)	3 (33.3)		2.10	0.80
		BA	3 (25.0)	5 (41.7)	3 (25.0)	1 (8.3)	2.17	0.94
		TTM	2 (22.2)	4 (44.4)	2 (22.2)	1 (3.3)	1.89	0.78
		Total	7 (23.3)	14 (46.7)	8 (26.7)		2.12	0.80
Q13	I have lost interest in the subject matter.	MSS	2 (22.2)	5(55.6)	1(11.1)	1 (11.1)	2.03	0.82
		BA	2 (16.7)	7 (58.3)	2 (16.7)	1 (8.3)	2.17	0.84
		TTM	3 (33.3)	4 (44.4)	1 (11.1)	2 (6.7)	1.75	0.71
		Total	7 (23.3)	16 (53.3)	4 (13.3)		2.03	0.82
Q14	The subject matter in this program is not challenging enough for me.	MSS	2 (22.2)	5 (55.6)	2 (22.2)		2.20	0.80
		BA	2 (16.7)	5 (41.7)	4 (33.3)	1 (8.3)	2.33	0.89
		TTM	2 (22.2)	3 (33.3)	4 (44.5)	1 (3.3)	2.22	0.83
		Total	6 (20.0)	13 (43.3)	10 (33.3)		2.20	0.81

TABLE 1 CHANGE OF ENROLMENT SURVEY ITEMS, FREQUENCIES, PERCENTAGES, MEAN, AND STANDARD DEVIATION								
			This is not me at all	This definitely applies to me				
Item		Group	1	2	3	4	M	SD
Q15	I am considering transferring to another program at Holland College.	MSS	6 (66.7)	1 (11.1)	2 (22.2)		1.77	1.01
		BA	6 (50.0)	3 (25.0)	3 (25.0)	1 (8.3)	1.75	0.87
		TTM	5 (55.6)	1 (11.1)	1 (11.1)	1 (11.1)	2.00	1.32
		Total	17 (56.7)	5 (16.7)	6 (20.0)	2 (6.7)	1.77	1.01
Q16	I am considering transferring to a different post-secondary institution.	MSS	6 (66.7)	1 (11.1)	1 (11.1)	1 (11.1)	1.67	0.99
		BA	8 (66.7)	3 (25.0)	1 (8.3)	1 (11.1)	1.42	0.67
		TTM	5 (55.6)	4 (13.3)	3 (33.3)	2 (6.7)	2.00	1.23
		Total	19 (63.3)		5 (16.7)		1.67	0.99
Q17	I wish I could remain in my program.	MSS	2 (22.2)	4 (44.4)	1 (11.1)	2 (22.2)	2.53	1.04
		BA	1 (8.3)	6 (50.0)	3 (25.0)	2 (16.7)	2.50	0.91
		TTM	1 (11.1)	4 (44.4)	4 (13.3)	4 (44.4)	2.78	1.20
		Total	4 (13.3)	14 (46.7)		8 (26.7)	2.53	1.04
Q18	Courses were not offered at a time suitable for me.	MSS	4 (44.4)	4 (44.4)		1 (11.2)	2.03	0.85
		BA	2 (16.7)	8 (66.7)	2 (16.7)	1 (3.3)	2.00	0.60
		TTM	3 (33.3)	12 (40.0)	6 (66.7)		2.33	1.00
		Total	9 (30.0)		8 (26.7)		2.03	0.85
Q19	I do not feel academically prepared for this program.	MSS	1 (11.1)	6 (66.7)	2 (22.2)		2.17	0.87
		BA	2 (16.7)	9 (75.0)	2 (6.7)	1 (8.3)	2.00	0.74
		TTM	2 (22.2)	4 (44.5)		3 (33.3)	2.44	1.24
		Total	5 (16.7)	19 (63.3)		4 (13.3)	2.17	0.87
Q20	I am not making meaningful connections with my teachers.	MSS	3 (33.3)	3 (33.3)	2 (22.2)	1 (11.1)	1.83	1.02
		BA	7 (58.3)	3 (25.0)	2 (16.7)	2 (22.2)	1.58	0.79
		TTM	5 (55.6)	2 (22.2)	4 (13.3)	3 (10.0)	1.59	1.27
		Total	15 (50.0)	8 (26.7)			1.83	1.02
<i>Note:</i> MSS: Medical Support Services students BA: Business Administration students TTM: Tourism and Travel Management students Total: Total of all three student groups Response categories are represented in raw scores with percent in brackets M (Mean), SD (Standard Deviation) SD has been rounded to 2 decimal places.								

likely influenced by the pseudo sample combined with a small sample size.

Inferential Statistical Analysis

To explore differences in response patterns between students enrolled in the Business Studies department in each of the three programs (Business Administration, Medical Support Services, and Tourism and Travel Management) and the construct, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed. Given the multi-dimensional nature of the construct, a subsequent ANOVA was performed using the three sub-constructs, (i.e., wellness, finance, and college experience) in order to explore whether one or more of these sub-constructs was more influential in identifying reasons (i.e., due to finance, wellness, or college experience) students changed programs. There were no significant differences (see Table 2 and Table 3, below) reported between Business Studies and the construct or the sub-constructs.

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Although only a small sample of pseudo-students and programs were included in the pilot for this developmental evaluation, it was a useful analysis in the development of the questionnaire as well as the utility of examining differences between college programs. With respect to questionnaire development, the fairly wide variance in responses in the pilot study suggested that the items were functioning well and there was no need to re-word or create new items. In terms of demographic variables, in hindsight, we remain curious as to whether males changed programs more frequently than females. Hence, a case can be made to examine differences in program changes based on gender. Although our pilot sample did not vary based on the current academic year, it is possible that there may be more changes in one year over another. Hence, including the academic year remains an important independent variable. As an aside, we were cautious of including a wash

TABLE 2 ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE (ANOVA) (CHANGE IN ENROLLMENT VS PROGRAM)				
TTLConstruct	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2	0.15	0.192	.826
Within Groups	26	0.08		
Total	28			
Note: TTLConstruct (Total of Survey Items)				

basin full of demographic characteristics if we could not thoroughly rationale a case for including the independent variable.

This study has proven beneficial to advancing the questionnaire in this area. This developmental evaluation served to create a realistic survey aimed at exploring why students decide to leave a post-secondary program. Acknowledging teachers and administrators have been aware of numerous reasons why students decided to leave a program for many years, a changing student demographic may influence the decision to leave a program in different ways than in the past. Therefore, responsive governance of post-secondary institutions should strategically align with methodologies aimed at gathering information in new ways. To further build innovation as to how colleges may respond to new student populations, this pilot study documented the creation and testing of an alternative strategy for gathering data. We have made a case for post-secondary institutions to be responsive and competitive in the 21st century education market as it moves from a commodity-based, fee-for-service orientation (i.e., courses for tuition) to more of a personalized experience for the student within the context of their own life world.

TABLE 3 ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE (ANOVA) (CHANGE IN ENROLMENT BY SUBCONSTRUCT VS. PROGRAM)				
	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
TTLWellness				
Between Groups	2	0.451	2.315	.118
Within Groups	27	0.195		
Total	29			
TTLFinance				
Between Groups	2	0.263	0.860	.434
Within Groups	27	0.306		
Total	29			
TTLExperience				
Between Groups	2	0.771	0.715	.499
Within Groups	26	0.108		
Total	28			
Note: TTLWellness (Total of Wellness Related Items) TTLFinance (Total of Finance Related Items) TTLExperience (Total of College Experience Items)				

This study illuminated an administrative opportunity to investigate creative strategies to increase faculty involvement with students beyond assigned courses. This was because a number of survey items focussed on the experiential reasons for leaving a program which stemmed from the teacher-student relationship. In doing so, post-secondary institutions could build upon the opportunity to support student growth outside of the classroom thus increasing the manner in which students develop as citizens in their communities. In fact, an opportunity exists to add additional items based on the support teachers provide to their students or create an instrument which solely focus on the student-teacher relationship. Finally, it is important to consider that many of the experiential reasons as to why a student may decide to leave a program could be immediately addressed by faculty and administrators. For example, through in-service training, colleges could place more emphasis on building the student advisory role for faculty from the perspective of activities taking place both inside and outside of the classroom. Such connections may empower faculty, as a front-line resource, to ensure timely interventions in advance of a student deciding to leave their program.

CONCLUSION

With the reality of a shrinking secondary student population on Prince Edward Island and other maritime provinces (Maritime Provinces Higher Education Commission, 2007), an institution such as Holland College must accept the reality of a changing student demographic and commit to new processes in addressing student attrition. As post-secondary institutions redefine their mandates (Northern Alberta Institute of Technology, 2011) and welcome new applicants in order to offset shrinking traditional enrollments, they will undoubtedly face new forms of student attrition over the next decade. Confirmed through the literature, student attrition can be connected to meaningful relationships made between teachers who are available and approachable (Crosling, Heagney, & Thomas, 2009). By celebrating the fact that knowledge construction leads to lifelong learning for students, this developmental evaluation may inform institutional responses to a new wave of student attrition through the voice of the student as opposed to the faculty member. In doing so, post-secondary institutions would take an innovative approach in leading their own investigations into the management of student attrition. This study presented a new way to investigate attrition from student perspectives of personal wellness, finances, and what an institution has, or has not, undertaken to support their individualized learning journey. Employing a developmental evaluation approach we demonstrated that data could be gathered and used to inform administrative strategies

aimed at supporting the needs of the student and the faculty member. This study demonstrated the significant level of support students required as their life experiences blended into their time at college.

This study has contributed to the volume of research regarding post-secondary student attrition in three ways. Firstly, one Atlantic Canadian community college has been provided an opportunity to analyze student attrition in a manner which did not exist prior to the launch of the study. Secondly, other post-secondary institutions may wish to create similar instruments to track and respond to student attrition. In doing so, an opportunity exists for institutions to create research partnerships and learn from each other therefore expanding the academic body of knowledge concerning post-secondary student attrition. Lastly, this developmental evaluation presents an opportunity for further student attrition research between traditional college students and new institutional populations such as career changers, degree completers, and those seeking specific courses for personal reasons. Acknowledging an absence of information in the literature and the need to validate this instrument; further research into this emergent attrition dynamic should be undertaken in preparation for the next decade of post-secondary learning.

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APPENDIX A
CHANGE OF ENROLLMENT SURVEY

Thank you for taking a few minutes to complete this Change of Enrollment Survey. The information you provide is completely anonymous and in no way can be used to identify you. This survey is a tool used by the Program Manager’s Office to inform and plan departmental activities aimed at ensuring the best possible learning and teaching environment for students and staff in the Business, Tourism, and Sport & Leisure Department at Holland College.

My Program _____ I am a full-time student ____ Current Academic Year _____
I am a part-time student ____

Please indicate the extent to which each statement applies to you.	This is not me at all			This definitely applies to me
	1	2	3	4
Section 1: Wellness Considerations				
I feel mentally overwhelmed as a student in this program.				
A personal medical reason requires my attention.				
Physically and mentally I feel good.				
A family medical reason requires my attention.				
Section 2: Financial Considerations				
I cannot afford the tuition for this program.				
Additional program fees, in addition to tuition, made this program unaffordable.				
An employment opportunity outweighs the benefits of school at this time.				
Money has not been a problem for me.				
My commute to College takes too much time.				
This program does not match my career aspirations.				
Section 3: College Experience Considerations				
I thought I would make more friends while at College.				
The quality of instruction is not what I thought it would be.				
I have lost interest in the subject matter.				
The subject matter in this program is not challenging enough for me.				
I am considering transferring to another program at Holland College.				
I am considering transferring to a different post-secondary institution.				
I wish I could remain in my program.				
Courses were not offered at a time suitable for me.				
I do not feel academically prepared for this program.				
I am not making meaningful learning connections with my teachers.				

Please use the reverse of this page to provide additional information you feel is important to share in regards to your decision to change your enrollment status at Holland College.

We are truly sorry that you are leaving your program. If there is anything we can do to help, please do not hesitate to contact Tim McRoberts at tmcroberts@hollandcollege.com or (902) 566-9612. Thank You.

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WEBSITE STUDY: WHAT INFORMATION ARE PROSPECTIVE GRADUATE STUDENTS SEEKING?

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this website study was to get feedback from recently admitted students to discover if the site was meeting their needs and expectations for information regarding the program and processes. Websites are often the first contact a student has with a university and, especially for those seeking a degree online, could potentially leave students with more questions than answers. After a thorough examination of the current website, an open-ended survey was created and distributed through SurveyMonkey in an attempt to gather information regarding the content and usability of the current site.

Because of the responses, changes were made to the content and layout of the website including links to provide easy access to the application, tuition information, and academic calendar. Included in this paper is background information on websites and the department, as well as the purpose, results, list of improvements, and future planned phases. As a result of this study it was anticipated that issues would be brought to light and would lead the department to make effective changes that would improve the experiences of online students that rely on internet based resources for their information.

INTRODUCTION

Almost all major universities allow potential students, undergraduate and graduate, to gather information about the university, learn about departments and majors, apply to the university, start the financial aid process and then when admitted they can register for classes and pay tuition and fees online. The department that was the focus of this study has a totally online component for the Ed.D. degree in certain concentrations. The totally online component was launched in 2012. However, the department has been using online delivery for some courses since 2006. Starting in 2012 all classes and all administrative functions from application and screening interview to dissertation defense can be accomplished online.

RELATED LITERATURE

While the function of a website may seem obvious, a different design and functionality needs to be in place for

degrees that are offered through online delivery. Websites today are considered an essential part of doing business in higher education and have come a long way since the early 1990s when very few prospective students had a personal computer. According to a 2007 study, 98% of the 27,826 respondents reported owning at least two technological devices, and the mean amount of time spent on these devices for all respondents was 18 hours per week (Caruso & Salaway, 2008). In 2013, it was reported by *Marketingcharts.com* that an average 18 to 34 year-old college student owned about 7 technology devices. In 2015 with seemingly constant technological contact, websites are often the first contact a potential student has with a college or university. Websites must now have marketing components while simultaneously acting as a primary hub for information. The design of the website should be efficient and student centered so that students have a positive experience. There is great potential for students to have a negative reaction if their experience with a college website

is filled with inaccurate or disjointed information that is difficult to navigate (Shea, 2005; Shorr, 2014).

PURPOSE

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the existing web-site for a graduate degree department at a regional, 4-year public university that housed four totally online M.Ed. and Ed.D. programs. The study was conducted in three phases. The first phase of the study was to document what information was currently on the website. The second phase of the study was a survey of Ed.D. students that had recently entered the program. This open-ended survey was designed to discover what information students wanted to obtain as of result of an interest in the program. The third phase of the study was to use the information gained in phase two to redesign the department website to include information that prospective students needed to make an informed decision about applying to the program.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The sample for this study was doctoral students in the most recent cohorts admitted to our Ed.D. programs. The motivation for this research was the realization that the department did not know how well we were meeting the needs of prospective students. A survey was created in *SurveyMonkey* and distributed to online cohorts of newly admitted Ed.D. students. We received 53 responses. Questions were developed based on information noted during the first phase of the study to discover what information prospective students were looking for when visiting the department website, and determining if those needs were being met. Each question on the survey gave the students options to choose and a space to fill in their more specific needs or concerns. The following five questions are examples of the type of questions that were asked:

1. How many times did you visit the Department website before deciding the program was the right fit for you?
2. Based on what you found on the website, what influenced your decision to apply to ELPA?
3. What information/resources were you looking for on the Department website?
4. After visits to the website, what information did you find most helpful?
5. What additional features do you suggest to improve the website to meet your current needs and needs of future applicants?

FINDINGS

Data were collected over a two-semester span from the initial distribution. Of the 53 doctoral students that responded over 59% reported that they visited the department website five or more times before deciding the program was the right fit for their needs. Almost all of respondents were influenced to apply to the program based on the program being offered fully online (93%). The reputation of the program (60%), the marketability of the degree (70%), a description of the classes (70%), and conversations held with ELPA staff (62%) were all indicated on the survey by a majority of the participants as being important information about the program. Clear guidelines (30%), tuition assistance information (34%), qualifications of the faculty (42%), and location of University (36%) were indicated less often but were selected by some respondents. Table 1 displays the frequencies and percent of students selecting the choices in question 2.

TABLE 1 FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES FOR QUESTION 2 (INFLUENCES ON APPLICATION) RESPONSES		
What influenced your decision to apply to this program?	N	%
Program totally online	49/53	93
Reputation of the program	30/53	60
Marketability of the degree	37/53	70
Description of the classes	37/53	70
Conversations held with ELPA staff	31/53	62
Clear guidelines	16/53	30
Tuition assistance information	18/53	34
Qualifications of the faculty	22/53	41
Location of ETSU	19/53	36

According to respondents, admission requirements (98%) and course information (96%) were the most sought after information on the department website. The cost of the program (79%) and information on the program expectations and requirements (70%) were also important. Internship and residency requirements and faculty resumes were indicated as being important to more than 50% of the respondents. Table 2 displays the frequencies and percent of students selecting the choices in question 3.

TABLE 2 INFORMATION SOUGHT BY PROSPECTIVE STUDENTS		
What information were you looking for on the website?	N/Total	%
Cost of the program	42/53	79
Course information	51/53	96
Requirements for admission	52/53	98
Expectations and program requirements	37/53	70
Internship information	29/53	55
Residency information	27/53	51
Faculty resumes and accomplishments	27/53	51

When asked about what information was most helpful after visiting the department website, respondents indicated that program information (100%), requirements for admission (100%), information about faculty and staff (83%), and a link to the School of Graduate Studies (74%) were indicated most often as being helpful. Information on internship sites and residency was rated as helpful to 51% of the respondents. Table 3 displays the frequencies and percent of students selecting the choices in question 4.

TABLE 3 WEBSITE INFORMATION THAT WAS MOST HELPFUL		
What information was most helpful on the website?	N	%
Information about programs	53/53	100
Requirements for admission	53/53	100
A link to the School of Graduate Studies	39/53	74
Information about faculty and staff	44/53	83
Residency and internship information	27/53	51
Qualifying exam information	20/53	38

The participants in the study were asked to indicate what additional elements would be helpful in their decision about applying to the program. Easier access to application deadlines (100%), and YouTube introduction videos (100%) were most often indicated as important. Information about graduation rates (79%), an Apply Now direct link to the online applications (81%), and a link to our tuition calculator (70%) were also indicated as desired

elements for the website. A complete list is presented in Table 4.

TABLE 4 ADDITIONAL FEATURES		
What additional features do you suggest for the department website?	N	%*
Easier access to deadlines	41/53	100
YouTube introduction video	41/53	100
Chat area	28/53	53
Videos of expectations	35/53	66
Examples of appropriate internship sites	27/53	51
Time management	14/53	26
Better organization of materials	8/53	15
Statistics on graduation rates	42/53	79
Tuition calculator	37/53	70
Apply now button	43/53	81
*Total percent does not equal 100% because respondents could select multiple items		

Table 5 displays the types of requests for additional information beyond what is on the website. The numbers here seem to indicate that most questions are addressed with the information that is available.

TABLE 5 REQUEST FOR ADDITIONAL INFORMATION		
Did you send emails for information in addition to what you were looking for on the website?	N	%
Information about the application process	29/53	55
Information about registration after acceptance	29/53	55
Clarification about residency	20/53	38
Clarification regarding internships	17/53	32
Departmental deadlines for milestones	20/53	38
Tuition reimbursement paperwork	9/53	17

Respondents were asked to rate the website in three areas: Ease of Navigation, Organization of the Website, and Content of the Website. A rating of 3 was the most fa-

vorable and a rating of 1 was the least favorable. Figures 1, 2, and 3 display the results of these ratings. For Ease of Navigation, 77.3% of the responses tended to be favorable, either a 2 or 3. When rating the Organization of the Website, the majority of the responses (60.4%) were in the mid-range. The responses for the Content of the Website was very favorable with over 86% indicating a positive rating. Table 6 displays the number of respondents for each of the three areas.

TABLE 6 RATING OF WEBSITE			
Rating the Department Website	N		
	1	2	3
Ease of navigation	12/53	12/53	29/53
Organization of the website	10/53	32/53	11/53
Content included on the website	7/53	12/53	34/53

Improvements

Based on the results from our survey it is evident that we are providing online students with a great deal of important information. However, some potential students are still left feeling disconnected from campus and have unanswered questions. Suggestions from the survey were used to make adjustments and additions to the website in an effort to better meet the needs of our online cohorts. As previously reported, students cited the need for easier access to deadlines and requirements, better organization of materials, cost information, and clearer information regarding application and registration. On the Admission page an “Apply Now” button was added, a link to a tuition calculator, a link to the financial aid department, and a link to the academic calendar. In addition, all information was streamlined to improve readability.

Other changes included updating faculty resumes, condensing information on the homepage for easier readability and the use of “snippets” to give the page a modern feel. It is important to note that the web content management system used at participating university does limit certain changes such as color scheme, placement of items, and headers which are specified by the university. Specific pages that held program details were refreshed to clarify expectations, and links were provided to ease access to certain campus resources such as the Dissertation Bootcamp and the Graduate Student Success Specialist. Pages that house information about areas of concentration were

also updated to clarify information, give more detailed information on expectations, access to the application process, and clarification about online delivery and online cohorts.

Future Phases

The department has made numerous improvements to the website. However, there are future phases for the study and for the site currently being put into action. The department is also currently planning to create *YouTube* welcome videos and other videos explaining expectations and requirements for the programs. Another area that is being studied is a chat area where students can ask questions and get answers through the website or on our social medial sites. Graduation rates and job placement information is another area the department is currently collecting data from the university. This information will be published on the website for prospective students to use in their decision to apply to the program.

CONCLUSION

As a result of the website study, the information provided on the site has been updated to better meet the needs of prospective and current students. The changes that have been made thus far and the changes intended for the future are set in place to ensure that our online students have access to the same resources and feel the same sense of community as our traditional on-ground students. Websites are proving to be one of the most important resources for students, and this survey enabled the department to determine how useful of a resource we have been providing to prospective students in their search for information regarding programs and degrees.

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HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATORS ROLES IN FORTIFICATION OF INFORMATION SECURITY PROGRAM

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ABSTRACT

Information systems produce significant benefits to organizations. Therefore, organizations invest tremendous amount of money and time to obtain and manage information in order to maintain a high level of performance and to remain competitive. There are many factors that can impact the organizational information management and performance. One of the significant factors is to keep organizational environment secure. Information Security program is considered as one of the key factors for making organizational environment more secure and efficient. The aim of this research is twofold: first, to investigate the impact of higher education administrators' roles in strengthen the institutional information security system. Second, to explore the state and the importance of information security program in higher education. This research paper is based on theoretical of the existing information security strategic and approaches and a case study conducted at 59 institutes. The findings indicated the lack support and supervision of the top management for information security program. An alarming and troublesome high rate of unawareness of security with no education and training programs available in the surveyed institutes. The lack of adequate knowledge and security implementation among the majority of the communities of the surveyed institutes showed the need to activate the roles of the administrators to deploy a well-designed information security system.

INTRODUCTION

The continuous adoption of emerging technologies by the government, public, and private sectors to conduct business has influenced many other sectors, including educational institutes to move their operations online. This caused the higher education to move and expand their teaching modality and services and the trend toward online services. The new trend imposes institutes' administrations to allow their community members (faculty, students and staff) utilizing their mobile devices in addition to standard computer devices to do their work. Additionally, it provides relatively open access to its community members and the public off-campus communities (parents, alumni, and cooperating industries).

The increase of such movement leads to increase number of victims to different types of attacks and the number of cybercrimes. There are variety of reasons for the increase of information security incidences including but not limited to electronic data, mobile devices, and lack of information technology (IT) security knowledge among Internet users. "The users are the weakest link which hackers use to break into an organization" (Katz, 2005). Unintentional mistakes caused by the users such as downloading unknown-source attachments are considered one of the

top threats to information security in an organization (Whitman & Mattord, 2012). Therefore, a program such as Information Security Education, Training, and Awareness program that continuously educating professionals and users how to utilize the new and advanced security technology is indeed in dire need. Hereafter, the acronym "InfoSec" in this paper will refer to any Information Security program including Education, Training, and Awareness programs.

Despite the availability of the information security technology and official organization standards, a high percentage of higher education institutes offer no InfoSec to their professionals and users. Refereeing to Marks and Rezgui (2009), only third of the surveyed 435 higher education institutions had a complete or partial InfoSec program. Androulidakis and Kandus (2011) stated that 66% of higher education institutes reported that they have no formal InfoSec program for their community members.

InfoSec program plays a significant role in the process of the overall information security system and should be offered by higher education institutions. Pressure toward having this program in place is likely to come from faculty and the student body, which increasingly handling mobile devices and using them as support tools to their

course work-study. Therefore, initiating and implementing an *InfoSec* program in higher education environment becomes a must and crucial.

The remaining of this paper is constructed in 8 sections. Section two discusses *InfoSec* program background. Section three, presents the literature review of the *InfoSec* program. Section four describes the methodology employed in this research. Section five discusses the data analysis and research findings. Section six highlights the importance of the administrators' roles. Conclusion and recommendations are elaborated in section seven. Finally, limitations of the study and future research are discussed and proposed in section eight.

INFORMATION SECURITY PROGRAM BACKGROUND

InfoSec program enhances educational and training programs by focusing on information security. The purpose of *InfoSec* is to enhance security in three ways: first, building in-depth knowledge, as needed, to design, implement, or operate security programs for organizations and systems. Second, developing skills and knowledge so that computer users can perform their jobs while using IT systems more securely. Third, improving awareness of the need to protect system resources (Whitman & Mattord, 2012). The following subsections present a brief description to the three components of the *InfoSec* program.

Security education

Security Education is defined in National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) Special Publication 800-16 as follows: "The 'Education' level integrates all of the security skills and competencies of the various functional specialties into a common body of knowledge, adds a multidisciplinary study of concepts, issues, and principles (technological and social), and strives to produce IT security specialists and professionals capable of vision and pro-active response." (as cited in Wilson & Hash, 2005, p. 9)

Security Training

The component of security training in the *InfoSec* program trains employees to be equipped with the needed security skills in a manner controlling risks that may threaten organizations' resources and assets. End-user security training component is quickly becoming an integral part of every organization, in particular the large ones (Vacca, 2009; Herold, 2010). An organization may

spend millions of dollars securing their networks, hiring consultants, and hardening their systems. However, without proper security training of the authorized users, these efforts will be futile.

Several methodologies including traditional face-to-face, computer based, online, and a combination of both (face-face, and computer based) can be used to conduct a security training program. Regardless the deployed methodology, security training program is only effective if trainees are able to retain what they have learned and gathered (Herold, 2010).

Security Awareness

Security awareness is designed to modify any person behavior that endangers the security of the organization's information. It keeps information security at the forefront of users' minds on a daily basis (Kritzinger & Smith, 2008). Therefore, it installs a sense of responsibility, which leads users to care more on how to use their devices, what type of information to exchange, and what type of data and information to store in it. Moreover, it minimizes the risk of accidental compromise, damage, or destruction of information. Despite being an effective security method, the concept of security awareness is the least frequently implemented as noted in NIST Sp800-12 (Gurman & Roback, 1995).

Many security awareness components are available at low costs, or virtually no cost except paying for the time and energy of the developer while others can be expensive (Androulidakis & Papapetros, 2008). A security awareness program can deliver its message via videotapes, newsletters, posters, bulletin boards, flyers, demonstrations, briefings, talks, lectures, or short reminder notice at logon. An organization can establish a webpage or a site dedicated to promoting information security awareness such as the capability of informing the employees via email when information related to security is posted.

Effective security awareness programs need to be designed with the recognition that tends to practice a tuning out process. For instance, a security poster will be ignored and blended into the environment regardless of how well it is designed. For this reason, awareness techniques should be creative and frequently updated (Gurman & Roback, 1995; Whitman & Mattord, 2014).

INFORMATION SECURITY PROGRAM EFFECTIVENESS

InfoSec is like any other program that is intended to be implemented in a company, it must be measurable, if the program has not measurable outcomes then management will not be able to determine the effectiveness and savings obtained and may not be willing to invest in such programs. Fortunately, there are several models that are available to measure *InfoSec* program effectiveness. Human Performance Technology (HPT) also referred to as the science of improving human performance is one of the measureable models. HPT is the field of work that uses an engineering approach to attain desired results from human beings. Based in various tenets, the model has a systematic approach comprises several components including: Performance Analysis and Evaluation (Formative, Summative, and Confirmative). Explanation to HPT model is detailed in (Frank S. Wilmoth, Christine Prigmore, and Marty Bray, 2002), (what is HPT, 2014).

Return on Security Investment (ROSI) analysis is another tool that allows for the justification of investments and projects before senior management and the finance department making implementation decision. Also it could help top management administrators to determine the economic savings incurred with the implementation of the *InfoSec* program. (Lockstep Consulting, 2004)

LITERATURE REVIEW

Emerging technologies including mobile devices are becoming an essential element of a higher education environment. A mobile device is an efficient communication device and a vital part of daily life for billions of people around the world. Regardless the purpose of their use, educational, personal, for entertainment or business, the mobile devices have contributed to the escalated growth of the m-education (Traxler, 2007).

The use of mobile technologies can overcome the limitation of educational flexibility with wired technology. The advantages of mobility and mobile wireless technologies help improve efficiency and effectiveness of teaching and learning process (Ally, 2009), but at the same time it raised many challenges particularly the security issues which would be suppressed by deploying the *InfoSec* program.

Thomson and Solms (1998) reported that *InfoSec* program plays a significant role in the process of strengthening the overall information security in organizations, especially in the context of higher education environments. According to Katz (2005) and Eyadat (2015) there is a need for

promoting information security standards and practices within an organization and they proposed that all users should be aware of disciplinary actions resulting from non-compliance with the organization's information security procedures. A successful organizational information security policy should incorporate clear definitions of user responsibilities for information security (Gaunt, 2000; Whitman & Mattord, 2014). Similarly, Banerjee, Cronan, and Jones (1998) reported that organizations should introduce information security awareness and make their ethical policy clear to their employees and ensure that strong deterrents are in place. As an information security professional, the researcher strongly believes these could be achieved through implementing *InfoSec* program in an organization's information systems.

Kim, Mims, and Holmes (2006) indicated that college students possess basic knowledge of most information security topics recommended by NIST Special Report 800-50. In the same report, they recommended that institutes should provide easily accessible security training programs for their students in order to have an effective *InfoSec* program.

Another recent case study conducted by Bere (2013) examining m-learning by exploring the pedagogical application of WhatsApp mobile software. Bere suggested that mobile security threats negatively affected the usage of WhatsApp application for learning. The suggestion was based on several factors. The concern of security was one of the most challenging factors. Fatani, Zamzami, Aydin, and Aliyu, (2013) approved that security issues affected the privacy of student's data. They also indicated that student's awareness level was low. Moreover, Androulidakis and Kandus (2011) and Eyadat and Al Sharyoufi (2014) revealed in their studies that users were unaware of the necessary measures to avoid a possible unauthorized access and/or sensitive data retrieval from their devices, which indicated the lack of knowledge in securing the protection of their data and information.

According to Kim, Mims, and Holmes (2006), to deploy the emerging technologies successfully required the awareness of the security issues might encounter while using these technologies. Therefore, a proper *InfoSec* program should be available for institutes' on-campus and off-campus users

METHODOLOGY

Fifty-nine websites of higher education institutes in Saudi Arabia were examined to understand the types and the extent of the *InfoSec* program included on the institute websites. Using two different browsers, Internet Explorer and

Google Chrome, each site of the institute was surfed three to five times during the research period in 2013. Updates on the *InfoSec* program of the examined institute sites were recorded through the repetitive visitations.

Information security professionals and managers from one of the examined institutes were contacted and invited for face-to-face interview following the preliminary web-site results. Based on their availability, a group of 8 professionals was non-randomly selected and interviewed for their insights on the involvement of the administrators and on the level of *InfoSec* program implemented. Interview questions were adopted and modified from NIST 800-50 (Wilson & Hash, 2005) to reflect the initial findings from the preliminary website results.

DATA ANALYSES AND RESULTS

Quantitative data analysis was conducted on the data collected from 59 Saudi Arabian Institute websites as well as the interview data collected from the information security professional staff worked in one of the surveyed institutes.

WEBSITE DATA ANALYSIS

From the examined 59 Saudi Arabian Institute websites, 32 were recorded as having neither complete nor partial information security program in place as shown in table 1 and figure1. This translates into more than half (54%) of

the institutes examined were at high risk and vulnerable to the information security attacks. Tremendous efforts of convincing the top management administrators to put *InfoSec* program in place should be seriously considered by the information security professionals and managers to protect the resources and assets of the institutes.

Table 1 SECURITY PROGRAM ADOPTION IN 59 SAUDI ARABIAN INSTITUTES		
<i>InfoSec</i> Program-Components Deployed	Number of Institutes	%
1, 2, or 3 Components	27	46%
none of the three Components	32	54%

Frequency and relative frequency of the adoption of the individual category of the *InfoSec* program, namely, security education, security training, and security awareness, from the 59 institute websites examined were displayed in Table 2 and Figure 2.

Twenty-Seven institutes deployed one or more of three components (Table1, Figure1). Of the Twenty-Seven institutes having *InfoSec* program in place, 26 of them have either a complete or a partial awareness component implemented. (Tables 2). Seventeen of them only had the three components implemented, namely, security education, training, and awareness (table3). The remaining 10 institutes, one of them implemented only one component, namely, training security program. The other 9 institutes

implemented only the awareness security program (Table 4). The results reflect deficient attention in regard to the security awareness, training, and education. The importance of implementation of the *InfoSec* program is urgent for suppressing the potential vulnerability to the internal and external threats.

INTERVIEW DATA ANALYSIS

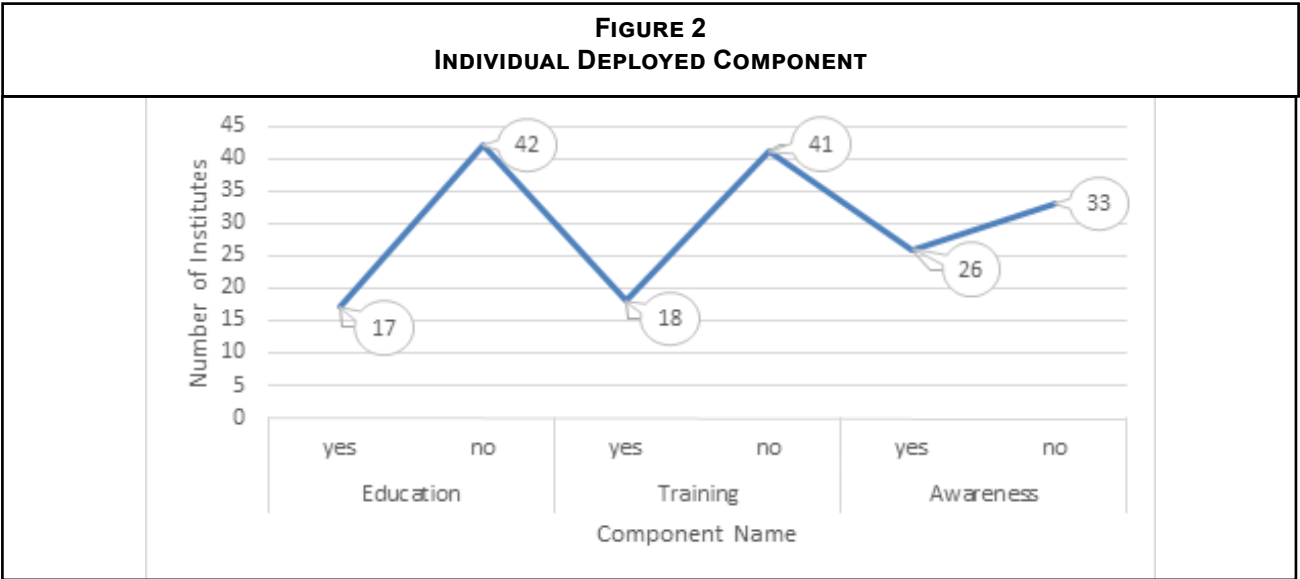
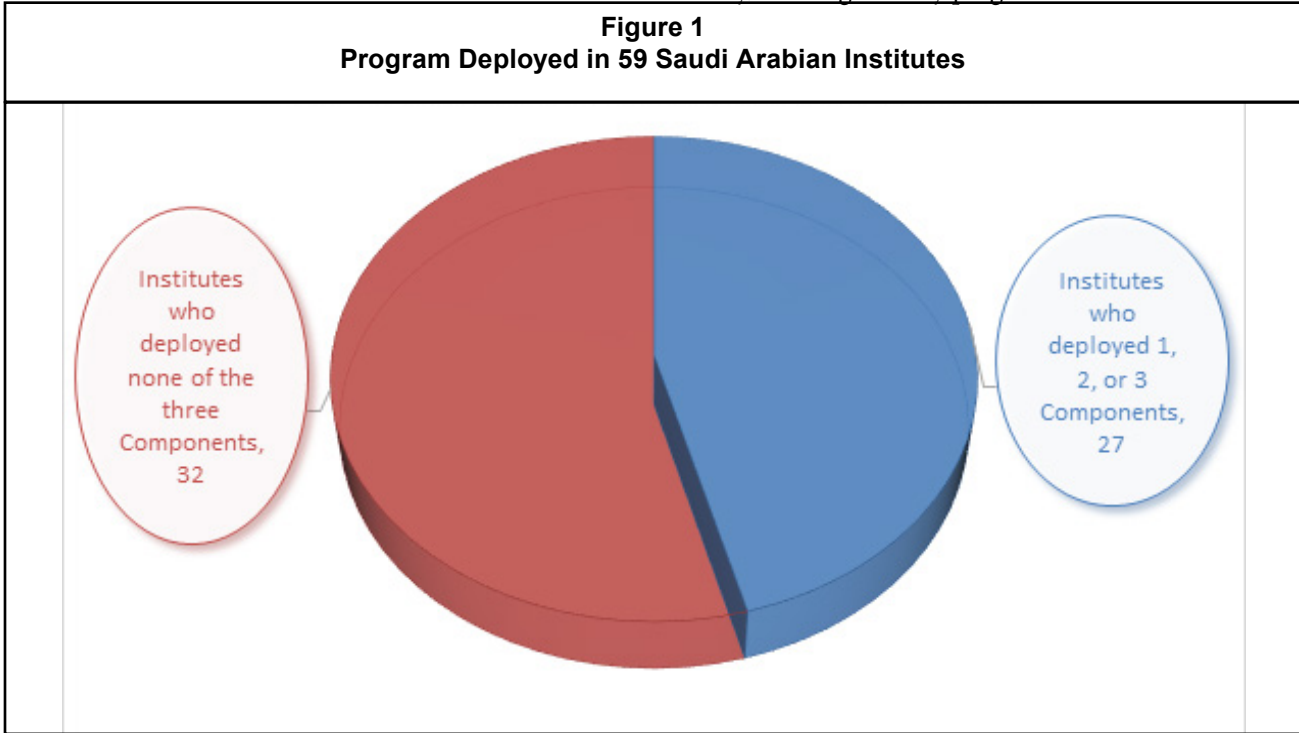
Based on the findings from the preliminary websites examination, five questions were asked during each interview to solicit the interviewee's opinions in regard to the causes of inadequate implementation of the *InfoSec* program. Specifically, the interview questions were:

1. What are the most critical issues facing information security executives to implementing *InfoSec* program?
2. What is the impact of absence of *InfoSec* program in raising security issues among your campus community members?
3. How much agreement is there between the information security professionals and the top management administrators about the importance of deploying *InfoSec* program?
4. Did you have formal training in information and system security? Have employees received adequate training to fulfill their security responsibilities?
5. What is the impact of the cultural practices on the success of information security program?

Table 2 INDIVIDUAL DEPLOYED COMPONENT						
Total Number of Institutes	Education		Training		Awareness	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
	17	42	18	41	26	33
59	29%	71%	31%	69%	44%	56%

Table 3 Categories Deployed By Component	
Number of Components Deployed	Number of Institutes
3	17
2	17
1	27
0	32

Table 4 Distribution of the Deployed Individual Component	
Components Deployed	Number of Institutes
Education, Training, & Awareness	17
Training only	1
Awareness only	9
Total	27



The responses of the interviews showed the top three main reasons for lacking the *InfoSec* program in place. Among the top three main reasons, 94% of the participants revealed insufficient level of knowledge and practices in the *InfoSec* program of information security and IT Staff that qualified them to conduct in-house training or initiated an effective awareness program. Followed by 91% of the interviewees agreed that staff and management managers resisted changes, in particular, related to information technology software, tools, and policies. Finally, 81% of the interviewees revealed that there was no support from the top management administrators to initiate *InfoSec* program.

Although the issues of insufficient knowledge, resistance of change from the staff members, and lacking administrators' support were challenges faced among the institutes examined, almost all (98%) of the interviewees agreed that it was vital and urgent to deploy the *InfoSec* program immediately to prevent potential vulnerability caused by the lack of protection. Furthermore, the interviewees unanimously agreed that the top management administrators' support will play a focal factor in initiating a standard for having *InfoSec* program in place.

NEED FOR ADMINISTRATORS SUPPORT AND OVERSEE

Higher Education Institutes are adopting *InfoSec* program to reduce risks that caused by having too many users connected to the same network including students, faculty, staff, administrative, alumina, parents, and community members. For example the majority of organizations in their websites show information on policies and guidelines, computer and network security, virus alerts, and other computer security awareness information which comply with specific guidelines that align with the organizations' missions and goals. This approach facilitates the way of utilizing organizations resources for all types of users and reduces potential internal and external related security incidents. In turn it will save resources, reduce carry cost, and utilize working time which in turn they are significant factors for improving an organizational performance (Reinhardt, R. (2014).

Having a workforce that is educated and more aware of security areas is like expanding the Information Security department into the whole company. Also it gives the security managers a broader base of brainpower in which they can tap if needed. In other words, instead of having a group of staff trying to secure a specific organization's asset against internal and external threats, it has everyone in the organization looking out for the security interests of

the organization. Stephanie D. Hight (2005), stated that if an organization can make people aware of their surroundings, both physically and electronically, it can help the organization to defend against the known and hidden threats.

It is very common for organizations to underestimate the consequences of security transgression especially on today's organizations that involve online transaction via mobile devices and wireless connections. Therefore, many organizations require high standards in employee's training and education, also they implement and strictly enforce policies that help protect organization's information (Vacca, 2009; Eyadat, 2015). Administrators should acknowledge that employees are the first line of defense in the organization since they have an access to the most crucial company information and systems and know how to distinguish between normal patterns and unusual activity. Consequently, no one is better suited to protect company information, than they are; therefore, their training and awareness should be the main focus when it comes to information security.

The great effort of the administrators in deploying *InfoSec* program will empower the top level management to best utilize and save invaluable resources including time and money. Also it improves the ability of the employees to acquire the required knowledge, skills, and awareness to properly perform their tasks which is vital for an organization to be competitive and enhance its performance (Vacca, 2009).

In summary, top management administrators should support and work together with the information security professionals to assure that a successful *InfoSec* program is in place. Moreover, administrative should strongly support the idea of integrating *InfoSec* into their strategic management model, so to be more effective and then enhance organizational information management and performance.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The security of institute information systems could be enhanced through *InfoSec*; specifically, education and training on the issues of security lead to the improvement of security awareness. The increase of the knowledge on security issues provides a better practices to the institute's community members, which in turn protects the system resources.

This research highlighted the importance of the administrators' roles in deploying *InfoSec* program and examined the current status of the *InfoSec* program employed by the Saudi Arabian higher education institutes. The research

also discovered an alarming and troublesome low rate of having *InfoSec* program in place. The results indicate that 81% of the interviewees revealed that there was no support from the top management administrators to initiate a partial or full *InfoSec* program this led to the other finding which is a high percentage (56%) of the examined institutes offer no *InfoSec* program and only 44% offer a partial *InfoSec* program. The results are aligned to the literature survey findings. A review of the literature in the arena of information security within higher education communities shows a high percentage of lacking in the adequate knowledge and practices of *InfoSec* program due to the unavailability of such program in most of the higher education institutes (Marks & Rezgui, 2009; Androulidakis & Kandus, 2011; Chan, & Mubarak, (2012)).

Due to the rapid evolution of the technologies, the popularity of online learning, and the unawareness of the *InfoSec* program led to an increase in potential threats that could leave the institutes' resources and assets at risk. Thus, to avoid the potential threats that may cause the damage or loss of institutes' data and information, the management should provide the end users with the opportunity to acquire the essential information security knowledge and to receive proper training through the *InfoSec* program. The *InfoSec* program is an essential part of defending information system security and it offers the chance of communicating with the users in regard to the organization's information system policies. In summary, an information system without *InfoSec* program is vulnerable and prone to be hacked.

It is, therefore, recommended that a higher education institute should offer a formal *InfoSec* program, a key factor to the successful use of IT resources, to keep their educational environment secured. It is also recommended that administrators should assure that the *InfoSec* program includes a clear ethical policy and a strong restrictions that are in place. In addition, they should incorporate clear definitions of user responsibilities for information security. Furthermore, an institution must conduct follow up information security activities on a regular basis to ensure that the users comprehend and trust their IT security policy. Follow-ups should also be performed for staff members who configure and use security technologies.

RESEARCH LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

The study focused on one country and this may limit its generalization. Therefore, by including other institutes from different countries and in the same region. This could reflect different *InfoSec* programs' status. Personal

interviews could be increased to include administrators from different levels and different institutes. This could have added invaluable data leads to greater insight into the participants' thoughts and opinions. A standard framework for an effective *InfoSec* program that aligns with the religion, culture, and regulation of that region could be established through further research

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CHARACTERISTICS OF A “TEACHING INSTITUTION”: ADMINISTRATIVE OBJECTIVES, ACTIONS, ACTIVITIES AND ASSESSMENT

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ABSTRACT

All institutions of higher learning offer courses. In that sense all institutions of higher learning can designate themselves as teaching institutions. In this article we point out that, while stated objectives may be similar or even identical, there are differences in the level of commitment to teaching that characterizes institutions of higher learning. We present an outline of actions and activities derived from those objectives that we believe distinguish the level of both human and financial resources that institutions of higher learning should commit to be recognized as a “Teaching Institution” as compared to a teaching institution.

The actions and activities we discuss are drawn from the literature on teaching. Objectives and examples of required actions that proceed from the objectives and the activities that proceed from these actions are drawn from the authors’ institution and exemplified by the authors’ record of publication regarding objectives, actions, and activities.

INTRODUCTION

Universities are designed to impart knowledge to students. As such, all Universities are, at least hypothetically, teaching institutions. However, a recent article that appeared in the Chicago Tribune conveyed what are now oft-heard criticisms of colleges and universities: students attend classes in large lecture halls, students and professors don’t have meaningful interactions, students are taught by adjunct instructors and/or TAs, the cost of attending college steadily rises while the quality of instruction steadily declines, universities focus on research rather than instruction, etc. (Grossman 2016). This article is consistent with other articles found in the popular press such as an article reporting that in an effort to cut labor, costs universities and colleges are making extensive use of adjunct faculty as instructors at the undergraduate level

(Elejalde-Ruiz 2015). This article states (on page 2) that according to the American Association of University Professors “the share of faculty appointments held by tenured and tenure track faculty in the US fell to 30 percent in 2011 from 57 percent in 1975... and the share of “contingent “faculty which includes part-time and full-time without tenure grew to 70 percent from 43 percent in the same period”. These concerns that appear in the popular press are echoed by critiques arising from within the academy as evidenced by a professor who recently characterized universities as institutions where the super star professors, whose pictures and biographical summaries are featured in the institution’s brochures and on its web site, devote the greater part of their time to pursuing research grants and honors, publishing the results of their work in books and prestigious scholarly journals with time out for the occasional op-ed or interview with the popular press and,

by doing so, avoiding, as much as possible, any contact with undergraduate students (Collier 2013).

Concern about the state of teaching at colleges and universities is not a new issue. A quarter of a century ago, Boyer (1990) wrote about a framework for building a community of learning focused on the centrality of an intellectual life and the relationship between the educator and the student. These concerns paralleled increasing concerns about the importance of assessment on college campus (Kemp & O’Keefe 1993, 1994). The concerns expressed by Boyer may have been relatively new at the time, but his work has been a catalyst for stimulating concern with the importance of teaching. Since his work, and perhaps from before his work, the concern about teaching on campus has been heightened by pressure from many external sources.

Recently, O’Keefe, Lopez, Xu, and Lall (2014) drew attention to external pressures emanating from “Government agencies that offer grants and from individual and corporate donors who support existing programs are demanding that institutions requesting funding or donations present evidence of assessment outcomes indicating that the goals and objectives made explicit in their mission statements are being met”. The authors also noted that, more recently, accrediting bodies at the college and university levels have been more insistent on the presentation of evidence regarding the institutions’ approaches to insuring high quality instruction and programs of assessment or, better stated, assurance of learning.

Add to these pressures the dissatisfaction being expressed by potential employers who have lost faith in the GPA as a measure of the skills they require (Ehrenfreund 2015) and those students who are deeply in debt but cannot find opportunities in the fields in which their degrees are supposed to be applicable (Bloomberg Business Week 2012). Students may like to think of themselves as customers (Collier 2013) but they are, in fact, the products of institutions of higher learning. If graduates cannot demonstrate that they possess the knowledge and skills expected by potential employers the institution is an easy target for blame (Kline 2014; Krislov 2015).

Last, but certainly not least, are the complaints from parents regarding the ever increasing costs of tuition, books, fees and related educational expenses (Campos 2015). For example, Jacob & Benzkofer (2015 p.14) reported that average tuition and fees at four-year public colleges nearly quadrupled over the past 40 years, from \$2,469 in 1974-75 to \$9,139 in 2014-15 (with both figures stated in 2014 dollars). Despite the sentiments expressed above, prospective students and their families are increasingly finding it difficult to pay for college and increasingly concerned about the value of the college experience (Hanover Research

2014). These concerns about the value of college suggest it is critically important for colleges and universities to focus on teaching; indeed it is typical for colleges and universities to emphasize their teaching as part of their efforts to recruit prospective undergraduate students. However, questions about what factors define a “Teaching Institution” and what activities differentiate a “Teaching Institution” from other types of institutions of higher learning seem difficult to answer. This paper seeks to answer those two questions. But before those questions are addressed, we want to state some basic assumptions relevant to our presentation. First, we understand that while all institutions of higher education can be characterized by some level of teaching activities and some level of research activities, those that we consider to be “Teaching Institutions” are somehow different from both those considered to be teaching institutions and from those identified as research institutions. Second, we assumed that the difference(s) between “Teaching Institutions” and teaching institutions and research institutions could be evidenced by observable activities rather than mere differences in the words institutions employ in their self-designations.

WHAT IS A TEACHING INSTITUTION

Any school may refer to itself as a “teaching institution”. Self-designation, however, is a weak source of validation of that title. An institution of higher learning may harbor and even present its vision of itself as a teaching institution. But as Albert Einstein was reported to have said: “A vision that does not stimulate the institution to relevant and appropriate actions in its support is really no more than a hallucination”. (Berrett 2012, Isaccson 2014).

The term “teaching institution” seems to be used in many contexts without a clear understanding of the operational meaning of the term. For example, the publication US News & World Report equated the term with a commitment to undergraduate teaching.

US News & World Report defined a teaching institution as an institution with “a strong commitment to teaching undergraduates instead of conducting graduate-level research.” While this definition may seem fairly straightforward, it is not clear what tangible and measurable activities are associated with this commitment. The term was defined by examining the responses of “college presidents, provosts, and admissions deans” who were asked to list 10 peer institutions with a “strength in undergraduate teaching”.

Ulrich (2007) offered three definitions of “teaching institution”. The first, which is very similar to the US News definition, defines a teaching institution as “an institution that focuses primarily on undergraduate education rather

than graduate education.” Second, Ulrich stated that a teaching institution can be defined using the Carnegie classification system as those schools classified as either Master’s/Comprehensive or Baccalaureate/Liberal Arts universities and colleges. This definition partly contradicts the first definition offered by Ulrich as Master’s/Comprehensive universities are defined as those institutions that “offer a full range of baccalaureate programs and are committed to graduate education through the master’s degree” while Baccalaureate/Liberal Arts are defined as those that “are primarily undergraduate colleges with major emphasis on baccalaureate degree programs.” This definition seems problematic because it defines a teaching institution by the degrees awarded by that institution rather than by the activities that take place within the institution. In other words, this definition would seem to assume that the interactions between teachers and students are equivalent across all institutions that offer similar or identical degrees. Ulrich’s third definition teaching institution is “an institution that is not a research institution”. This third definition defines a teaching institution by what it is *not* rather than by what it *is* and so fails to clarify those characteristics that define a “research institution”.

Another approach to defining a teaching institution was suggested by the work of Harvey and Green (1993). They defined three types of quality: (1) Quality as value for the money (this definition of quality leads to concerns about *accountability*), (2) quality as fit for the purpose (this definition of quality leads to concerns about *assessment*), (3) quality as transforming (this definition of quality leads to concerns about the institution’s ability to transform students’ perceptions of their world as well as teachers’ perceptions of their roles as teachers). Accepting the premise that the transformative definition of quality speaks to the mission of teaching institutions could lead to the following definition of a teaching institution:

“A Teaching Institution is a university or college whose culture places primary importance on education as a transformative experience for learners and instructors”. (Harvey and Green, 1993; Biggs 2001).

WHAT ACTIVITIES DIFFERENTIATE A TEACHING INSTITUTION

William James once wrote: “The ultimate test of what a truth means is the conduct it dictates or inspires.” (James, 1907) In brief and less elegant language the common phrase is that actions speak louder than words. As an example of extensive words without paired actions, in their recent review of Boyer’s (1990) work, Moser & Bryant

(2014) reported that many institutions of higher learning have given no more than “lip-service” to the suggestions regarding the value of teaching as scholarship that Boyer’s work had suggested be considered. On a higher level, the work of Kemp and O’Keefe (1993 and 1994) suggests that any activities that define a “teaching institution” arise from an institutional culture that is supportive of teaching. These researchers provide a number of factors that characterize this supportive teaching culture (see Table 1

TABLE 1 CHARACTERISTICS OF A SUPPORTIVE TEACHING CULTURE
1. High-level administrative support.
2. Adopts a broader definition of scholarship.
3. Includes a teaching demonstration as part of the hiring process.
4. Frequent interaction, collaboration and communication among faculty.
5. A teaching demonstration used to evaluate candidates for teaching positions.
6. Supportive and effective departmental chairpersons.
7. Rigorous evaluation of teaching included as part of tenure and promotion decision

The key point seems clear and direct: If an institution of higher learning wants to describe itself and wants to be considered by its several constituencies and its competitors as a teaching institution, it should be able to express the characteristics and, importantly, the activities in service of those characteristics that frame and support the credibility of the designation.

Feldman and Paulsen (1999) suggested that the culture of an institution has a great impact on that institution’s goals, activities, and effectiveness of achieving its goals. With respect to teaching institutions, Feldman and Paulsen identified several characteristics of a supportive teaching culture some of these characteristics are paraphrased and included in Table 1. If one accepts the validity of these characteristics, the question then becomes what programs, processes, and policies are likely to result in the given characteristics? Further, these programs, processes, and policies should take into account the nature of faculty at faculty in general and faculty at teaching institutions in particular. While conventional wisdom would suggest that incentives and rewards should be used to mo-

tivate faculty, the work of Tang and Chamberlain (2003) suggests that this approach will have limited effectiveness because the relationship between rewards and teaching seems to weaken as a faculty member’s length of service increases. This implies that methods of motivation that are not reward-based are needed to help create a supportive teaching culture for longer-term faculty.

There is also evidence that the need for non-reward based motivation methods is particularly important for teaching institutions. Faculty at non-research institutions seem to be intrinsically motivated and desirous of support structures that increase the effectiveness of their work. This is evidenced by the work that found faculty at non-research institutions were particularly interested in facilities/equipment, travel/conferences, summer funds, internal grants, and working with students (National Center for Post Secondary Improvement 2000). While some of the items on this list can be viewed as incentives, it is important to note that the incentives stated are concern professional development as much as financial rewards. Combining the characteristics of a supportive teaching culture from Table 1 with the findings regarding the nature of faculty at teaching institutions from the proceeding paragraph results in an understanding of the types of activities in which a teaching institutions should be engaged.

The data reported by the National Center for Postsecondary Improvement (2000) and the items reported by Feldman & Paulson (1993) and paraphrased in Table 1 and our own accounting of activities discussed later in this paper agree that the most important element of creating and maintaining an environment conducive to high quality teaching is an administrative structure than supports both incremental and radical innovative pedagogical methods and curriculum. (O’Keefe & Hamer 2011; O’Keefe 2013) The policies and actions mentioned above are agreed to be important but one must recognize that such policies and actions in support of these policies do not spontaneously arise and become accepted practice. It really doesn’t matter whether the ideas for improvement originate from faculty members and are transformed into practice by administrative policies or, if an administration’s ideas for the improvement of teaching are initially championed by one or a group of faculty members. It is the innovation and continual improvement of the innovation that really matters.

University administrations in cooperation with trustees and boards of directors traditionally set the institution’s short and long-term objectives. The procedure is similar to the “objectives down plans up practices” found in many corporations. The expectation is that each division of the corporation or in our case the university must submit a plan outlining the actions it will put in place in order to

achieve the objectives. There will be some short -term objectives that are specific to units of the institution and others that are long-term and relevant to all units. Objectives concerning teaching are examples of general and long term objectives and so command units to create long-term actions in the service of satisfying those objectives.

OBJECTIVES OF A TEACHING INSTITUTION

In the section to follow we offer two major long-term objectives and go beyond a simple listing to discuss the actions (activities and assessment procedures) that may be used to achieve the objectives.

Objective 1: Become a College Whose Faculty is Recognized for Skill in Teaching

Action 1.1: Examine methods for evaluating teaching skills.

Faculty members recognize the need for both formative and summative student and peer evaluations of their teaching skills. They understand the place of these evaluations in decisions made by departmental, college and university committees and boards regarding contract renewal, promotion and tenure. O’Keefe, Hamer & Kemp (2003) reviewed the presentation of teaching evaluation outcomes in ours and other colleges. They reported that the presentation of summative data was useful in overcoming the frequent complaint that student evaluations of teaching were unreliable. The major conclusion of the study was that the presentation of teaching evaluations by faculty was inconsistent, confusing and, especially when faculty members were ranked, frequently statistically misinterpreted. Rather than a confusing array of averages, the researchers’ suggested that the units agree on expected performance levels, scale these levels as unsatisfactory to outstanding and report the outcome of the evaluations by reference to the scale. This method has become policy.

Action 1.2: Institute an individual teaching portfolio system.

The college has made progress in having a section on teaching included as a section of the individual faculty member’s annual report. Also the entries, syllabi, teaching materials etc., are used as means of peer review and review by the various committees and boards charged with making decisions about retention, promotion and tenure and, where relevant, salary increases and other incentives.

Action 1.3: Establish a program for the enhancement of teaching.

Over the course of several years we had discussed establishing a Program for the Enhancement of Teaching (please see Table 3 for the program’s annual calendar of

events). It began as a traditional mentoring program with senior faculty mentoring junior faculty. In the course of these mentoring activities we noted that mentoring could be reciprocal. Senior faculty could assist junior faculty with syllabi creation and other class management activities. Junior faculty who were better schooled in technology could assist senior faculty in incorporating technology into their classes. We realized the benefits gained by the exchange of information and formally proposed a program aimed at increasing faculty participation. Our experience with leading the AACSB workshops (Kemp & O’Keefe 1994; 1995) was the stimulus for establishing the Program for the Enhancement of Teaching. The program was discussed at several local conferences and a broader account of the program’s activities was published in *College Teaching*. (Kemp & O’Keefe 2003) A listing of the program’s activities is presented in Table 3. While initially a program within our college of business, the University administration expanded the reach of the program by instituting an Office of Teaching and Learning that conducts presentations such as those listed in Table 3.

Action 1.4: Pursue grants focused on dimensions of teaching skills.

Most institutions of higher education have an office devoted to grants and contracts. This action requires that this office search out sources of funds that support the development of teaching skills or recognize skilled teachers.

Action 1.5: Participate in conferences focused on teaching in higher education.

There are conferences devoted solely to this topic. In addition a number of conferences with multi tracks devote sessions and tracks to educational issues. These conferences bring faculty members from different institutions and so result in the exchange of information on issues of relevance to the elements of quality teaching.

Action 1.6: Nominate faculty members for national or regional teaching awards.

Some conferences include invited presentations of innovative approaches to teaching. The participating faculty members are nominated for entry and the prize winners are chosen by vote of a committee composed of representatives chosen by the sponsor. Again these contests may vary in the details of the nominating and vetting processes but they all represent an opportunity for an institution to showcase its outstanding teachers. National awards call attention to the institution and are evidence for its claim of being a “Teaching Institution”. For example, see O’Keefe, Kelly & Kemp (1996 2006(1) and 2006).

Action 1.7: Institute a teaching mentor system.

TABLE 2
ANNUAL CALENDAR OF EVENTS HELD BY
PROGRAM FOR THE ENHANCEMENT OF TEACHING

- Bright Ideas Lunch
- Student Case Method Seminar (3 days)
- Case Teaching Discussion Group
- Classroom Management: What Do I Do Now?
- New Faculty Discussion Group
- Classroom Management: How Students Learn
- Classroom Management: The Effective Use of Technology
- Classroom Management: Master Teacher Seminar (3 days)
- Classroom Management: What is the Most Effective Delivery Method for You?
- Classroom Management: Use of Course Management Tools (e.g., Blackboard)

TABLE 3
ACTIVITIES COMPRISING WORKSHOP ON
DEFINING TEACHING INSTITUTIONS

1. Derive goals and objectives related to teaching from the mission statement of participants’ colleges.
2. Prioritize the teaching objectives derived.
3. Determine which of the objectives had been acted upon by the participants’ institutions. What programs, have been offered and are currently in place.
4. Discuss with the participants their experiences in implementing their programs.
5. Discuss assessment procedures in place to measure the effectiveness of these programs.
6. Discuss the need for an organizational unit to coordinate activities bearing on improving the quality of instruction within the academic programs offered.

Exchanges of information between and among senior and junior faculty are common. These may be one on one exchanges or topics discussed at more formal departmental meetings. The important point is that these relationships represent a foundation on which an academic department, a college or a university might construct an efficient program for enhancing the quality of teaching.

Action 1.8: Achieve recognition by publication in functional disciplines' educational journals.

Every business discipline has one or more journals devoted to publishing articles centered on teaching methods and the results of research into the effectiveness of those methods. All units of the institution keep faculty members apprised of these and of other journals that welcome such articles. Journal publication provides tangible evidence of an institution's interest in and support of quality teaching. Lists of these journals opinions regarding their ranking are readily available online.

Action 1.9: Nominate faculty members for university level teaching awards.

For nearly forty years our college has presented teaching awards to selected faculty members. The awards are described in the section that immediately follows. The recipients of these awards are decided on the basis of undergraduate or graduate student votes. The university also presents Excellence in Teaching awards to faculty members from the several colleges that comprise the university. Faculty members are nominated for the award and submit documentation in support of receiving the award. Members of a faculty committee known as the Quality of Instruction Council (QIC) examine the documentation and decide on the recipients. The award is presented to faculty members at the university convocation.

Action 1.10: Recognize nominees for college level teaching awards.

As mentioned above our college has three teaching excellence awards. There is an undergraduate and graduate award and, a recently added award for an adjunct faculty member. These awards are presented at the college's commencement ceremony. We've noted that several times only one or two votes decided the recipient. Our, as yet unrealized objective, is to recognize the top five vote getters. The faculty member receiving the most votes would be awarded the plaque while the other four would receive an Excellence in Teaching certificate. This suggestion is based on Hollywood's Academy Awards. Nominees for the Oscar receive certificates of nomination. These certificates attest to their talent and are cherished items for display.

As an addition to actions stated above we wish note the importance of cooperation between academic units, departments and programs and the institution's public relations and enrollment management divisions. Public relations representatives have contacts with the traditional and contemporary media and so are in a position to transmit messages about the institution's position as a "Teaching Institution" to audiences beyond our open houses and recruiting events. The PR representatives are also involved in filling requests from the media for interviews with faculty members.

Objective 2: Be Responsive To Our Market Through Innovative Teaching.

The actions and activities relevant to our second objective represent, for the most part, approaches to establishing and maintaining continuous improvement in the interests of supporting high level teaching and encouraging learning.

Action 2.1: Increase the number of technologically equipped classrooms.

Action 2.2: Increase participation in technology instructional sessions for faculty members.

This is an activity that the Program for Excellence in Teaching (PET) found that senior faculty considered to be especially useful. Textbooks and supplementary text materials assume familiarity with contemporary technology.

Action 2.3: Expand Instructional support systems.

Institutions of higher education usually have a centralized Information Technology or Classroom Technology sections. These sections oversee the equipment used to augment teaching. Our college has put in place its own Technology Services office. The office conducts instructional sessions related to the use of technology. These services are offered to groups of faculty members and, frequently, as independent, instructional sessions arranged to assist individual faculty members who are not familiar with the systems in use within the college and the university.

Action 2.4: Institute a course leader system.

This activity is especially critical for multi-section required courses. Because these courses represent a foundation for the more advanced courses, course sections should have the same course teaching and learning objectives and incorporate the same set of topics. A extended discussion of these expectations is presented by O'Keefe & Hamer (2013) and O'Keefe, Lopez, Xu and Lall (2014) Without a course leader who continually monitors the course content and the assessment methods multi-section courses can revert to conditions that approach anarchy. Inconsis-

tency means that assessment or assurance of learning results cannot be considered valid.

Action 2.5: Institute a continuous curricula improvement policy.

As we pointed out earlier in this paper there will always be incremental changes and sometimes even radical changes in a curriculum. The important point is to have a set policy and procedure for adding, combining, replacing and deleting current courses. These issues and applicable policy matters are discussed in Chadraha & O'Keefe (2007): O'Keefe & Hamer (2011,2011) and O'Keefe (2013) The policy we report on has been in place since 1992.

Action 2.6: Expand the ISS 398 undergraduate and GSB 798 special topics courses.

The ISS 398 and GSB798 are designations applied to special interest courses which may be considered for permanent addition to a departmental curriculum, offered from time to time or, after one or two unsuccessful offerings, deleted Again the process for converting a proposed ISS 398 or GSB 798 as a permanent addition is detailed in O'Keefe & Hamer (2011). Our experience has been that it is more efficient to test market the fit and feasibility of proposed ISS 398 and GSB 798 courses rather than simply give them a departmental listing. A lack of policy in curriculum revisions leads to curriculum clutter.

Action 2.7 Experiment with team teaching.

Our research and first-hand experience has shown us that faculty members are divided in their willingness to consider participation in team teaching. We have found that some faculty members are unclear regarding how participation in team teaching will be credited toward the hours (number of courses) that faculty members are expected to teach. This is another instance where there needs to be an accepted statement of policy that faculty members understand and agree to. The terms of such a policy statement have been reported by O'Keefe & Hamer (2012).

Action 2.8: Experiment with "clinical" faculty.

The idea of clinical faculty seems to have originated in colleges of medicine and law. In these colleges clinical faculty could be full time and tenured. They were charged with instructing the students with the more practical aspects of the profession. Law professors instructed students on the theories of legal practice while the clinical faculty members taught them procedures such as preparing and submitting legal briefs and other matters. Our college has benefitted greatly by employing executives in residence.

These have duties that go beyond those expected of adjunct or part time teachers. The executives in residence teach a full schedule of classes, have their teaching evaluated by students, counsel students, attend faculty meetings and assist in recruiting efforts. Though they are encouraged to publish, they are not expected to meet the standards set for tenured and tenure track faculty.

Action 2.9: Expand both case and problem centered coursework.

It seems that every institution of higher learning wants its students to be capable of critical thinking. Case and problem centered coursework provide a venue for assessing whether this very important educational outcome will be assured. To accomplish that desired end the institution must provide facilities that are designed to accommodate group discussion, and , especially for business programs contacts with firms that will provide real world problems and evaluate the solutions submitted by the students. Also the institution should sponsor student groups that wish to take part in graduate and undergraduate case analysis competitions.(O'Keefe & Chadraha 2013)

Action 2.10: Expand teamwork and leadership exercises in classes.

Hamer & O'Keefe (2012) reported that in many instances students claimed that they disliked team projects. Their primary objections centered on their experience with unequal participation by some students in their groups. This meant additional work for the other members. The authors could empathize with the students but also understood that the ability to work efficiently in groups is expected in the business environment. The article referenced above describes an approach to incorporating instruction in group skills within a course that required group projects.

Action 2.11: Explore or expand investment in distance learning.

There is very wide agreement in institutions of higher learning that online courses will continue to reach larger audiences. An institution that intends to include online courses as an integral part of its curriculum needs to be aware that preparation for the addition of online instruction requires a significant investment of both human and technological resources. On the human side there must be an investment in training faculty members to effectively use the online environment and on the technological side equipment that is reliable and equal to the task.

Action 2.12: Explore or expand certificate programs.

Certificate programs designed for the employees of local firms can benefit the institution by providing additional

revenue, offering faculty members opportunities to supplement their earnings and forming sustained relationships with local firms. Also contact with the certificate students can generate positive word of mouth or social media evaluations.

Action 2.13: Install software programs for mathematics and statistics coursework.

Faculty members frequently report that they are forced to dilute their presentation of course materials because both undergraduate and graduate students are to some degree deficient in their ability to apply mathematical or statistical methods necessary to understanding course content. O'Keefe & Hamer (2010; 2011) discussed this problem and offered as a solution what they called the "just in time" method. The JIT method requires that a faculty member specifically states which techniques or tests will be required to both compute and interpret required statistical results.

Action 2.14: Institute a "Writing Across the Curriculum" program.

Another complaint commonly voiced by faculty is that their students cannot seem to write very well. Writing takes practice and the purpose of a "writing across the curriculum" program is to continually provide that practice. Some faculty consider that they are really do not feel qualified to provide in depth evaluations of all aspects of student reports. Others point out the length of time that it takes to wade through the student reports and provide constructive criticism. Students complain that faculty members take too much time in returning their papers and when they are returned they have a grade but very few comments. In order to try to satisfy both students and their instructors we have adopted a "comment code" for evaluating student reports and a grading system that evaluates the structure, substance and style of a student's report. (O'Keefe 1996, 1 & 1996 2.; O'Keefe et.al. 2014; O'Keefe & Lopez 2015) The comment code article was chosen for inclusion in Indiana University's Selected Library of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning <http://www.indiana.edu/teaching/allaboutpubs>.

Action 2.15: Advance the idea that an institution is both "A Teaching Institution" and "A Learning Institution".

This objective concerns a truly important component of the efforts that define the creation, implementation and maintenance implementing and maintaining a comprehensive assessment program. Recently O'Keefe, Lopez, Xu & Lall (2014) discussed the reasons for the importance of assessment. The article referred to the criteria required by the AACSB and other regional or national associations

to gain or retain their accreditation. Our college has been concerned with the issue of formal assessment activities for at least the past 20 years. A number of articles published by our faculty have dealt with the pressures for the assurance of learning. (O'Keefe, Kelly & Kemp 1996 2006; O'Keefe & Hamer 2012,2013; Hamer & O'Keefe 2013; O'Keefe & Lopez 2015. We have had some experience cooperating with faculty groups beyond our own. (Mllin, Ricks, Schiffman, Schaeffer, Wilson & O'Keefe (1995) and those experience lead us to question the utility of centralized comprehensive program. Such programs eventually make compromises that are at variance with their overall assessment objectives. In several of the articles referenced above, we have presented our view that, for a number of reasons, an assessment program must assure that each individual class is assessed in each academic term. This requires leadership on the part of the university and college administrations; departmental chairpersons; faculty appointed as course leaders and importantly the faculty members teaching the classes.

CONCLUSION

While every institution of higher education has faculty and students, they differ on the relative importance placed on the interaction between these two groups and the power of that interaction to transform both parties to the interaction. Thus, not all colleges and universities should be thought of as "Teaching Institutions". This article has presented an operational definition of the designation "Teaching Institution" that focuses on the learning and the transformative nature of education. Further, the work that that we have cited offers guidance to institutions that wish to define themselves as "Teaching Institutions" by suggesting policies, objectives, actions and related activities that can help guide such institutions as they educate their students in the face of a variety of external demands and pressures. As discussed in the body of this paper, many of these actions have been put into place at the authors' own institution, and our assessment activities have lead to a significant strengthening of our teaching mission. The authors, in our roles as administrators have attended and spoken to audiences of prospective students and the parents of these potential enrollees. We have over the years observed that the term "Teaching Institution" seems to resonate well with both the students and their parents.

Our overall goal is not simply to have our audiences attend our recruiting open houses so can tell them that we are a "Teaching Institution". Rather we want them to attend because they have been assured that we are a "Teaching Institution" in the full sense of the designation.

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