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The Clery Act: Student Awareness and Perceptions of Effectiveness at a Public University and a Private College in East Tennessee

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ABSTRACT

The U.S. Congress has recognized that safety is essential on our college and university campuses. Incidents such as the Virginia Tech massacre and the death of Jeanne Clery have emphasized the need for legislation that assists students in selecting a safe college and improves their safety by reducing the incidence of crimes and fires. The Clery Act is a federal law that requires colleges and universities to provide annual information on the number and type of crimes on campus as well as the number and cause of fires occurring in the residence halls. The purpose of this study was to determine the perceived effectiveness of the Clery Act by students at two higher educational institutions in East Tennessee.

This study determined that students are not aware of the Clery Act as it relates to the crime and fire statistics to a significant extent. However, students are aware of the Clery Act as it relates to the issuance of safety notices, emergency notifications, or timely warnings by their institution. Students do not tend to use the Clery Act crime and fire statistics in their decisions as to what college to attend, indicating the limited effectiveness of the Clery Act. Lack of use of the Clery Act crime and fire statistics may be related to a lack of awareness of their existence. Students perceive to a significant extent that the reporting of the Clery Act crime and fire statistics as well as the use of safety notices, emergency notifications, or timely warnings, improved their safety and security while on campus. The Clery Act mandated use of safety notices, emergency notifications, or timely warnings issued by the institution results in students changing their behavior to protect themselves and their property. Students perceive that the reporting of crime and fire statistics as well as the use of safety notices, emergency notifications, or timely warnings, has reduced crime and fires on campus.

INTRODUCTION

Jeanne Clery, a student at Lehigh University located in Bethlehem, Pennsylvania, was beaten, raped, and murdered in her dormitory room on April 5, 1986 (Fine & Gross, 1990). An investigation by local authorities culminated in the arrest of another Lehigh University student who was eventually convicted of murder and sentenced to death. As a result of intense lobbying by her parents, Connie and Howard Clery, and the media scrutiny that followed, the U.S. Congress passed the Student Right-to-Know and Campus Security Act of 1990. This piece of legislation would later become known as the Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Security Policy and Campus Crime Statistics Act, requiring all public and private higher education institutions that receive federal Title IV funding to report their crime data to the Department of Education and publish an annual crime report for the purpose of advancing campus safety and security (McNeal, 2007).

The purpose of this study was to determine the perceived effectiveness of the Clery Act by students at two higher educational institutions in East Tennessee. The following research questions were addressed by this study:

1. Are student's scores significantly different from the test value of 4 as it relates to awareness of the Clery Act crime statistics (campus security report), fire statistics (fire safety report), and the issuance of safety notices, emergency notifications, or timely warnings by their institution?

2. Is there a significant difference of awareness scores between males and females they relate to the Clery Act crime statistics (campus security report), fire statistics (fire safety report), and the issuance of safety notices, emergency notifications, or timely warnings by their institution?
3. Is there a significant difference between the responses of students who experienced a crime or fire prior to attending college and those who did not experience a crime or fire prior to attending college as related to awareness of the Clery Act crime statistics (campus security report), fire statistics (fire safety report), and the issuance of safety notices, emergency notifications, or timely warnings by their institution?
4. Is there a significant difference between responses of campus residents and non-campus residents as related to awareness of the Clery Act crime statistics (campus security report), fire statistics (fire safety report), and the issuance of safety notices, emergency notifications, or timely warnings by their institution?
5. Is there a significant difference between responses of public and private institution students as related to awareness of the Clery Act crime statistics (campus security report), fire statistics (fire safety report), and the issuance of safety notices, emergency notifications, or timely warnings by their institution?
6. For students who are aware of the Clery Act campus security and fire safety report, how were they made aware of the institution's provision of crime and fire statistics?
7. Do students use the Clery Act crime statistics (campus security report) and fire statistics (fire safety report) to a significant extent in their decisions as to what college to attend?
8. Do students perceive that the reporting of the Clery Act crime statistics (campus security report) and fire statistics (fire safety report) improves their safety from crimes and fires while on campus to a significant extent?
9. Do students change their behavior to protect their property or personal well-being due to the use of safety notices, emergency notifications, or timely warnings issued by their institution to a significant extent?
10. Do students perceive that the use of safety notices, emergency notifications, or timely warnings by their institution has improved their security while on campus to a significant extent?
11. Do students perceive that the reporting of crime statistics (campus security report) and fire statistics (fire safety report) reduces crime and fires on their campus to a significant extent?
12. Do students perceive that the use of safety notices, emergency notifications, or timely warnings reduces crime on their campus to a significant extent?

RELATED LITERATURE

The Clery Act, passed by Congress in 1990, requires colleges and universities to report their crime statistics and security policies for the main purpose of (1) providing information to potential students so they can factor campus security into their decision as to what college or university to attend, (2) providing safety notices, crime alerts, and timely warnings to students so they can alter their behavior to protect themselves and their property, and (3) reducing the incidence of campus crime (Janosik, 2004). Colleges and universities must also report various crime occurrences and disciplinary offenses such as murder, robbery, forcible sex offenses, non-forcible sex offenses, burglary, aggravated assault, manslaughter, arson, motor vehicle theft, weapons possession, drug related violations, and liquor law violations (Mann & Ward, 2011). In 2008 the Clery Act was amended by requiring colleges and universities to issue emergency notifications, in addition to timely warnings already required since the law was first enacted, by notifying campus occupants of any emergency situation that constitutes a threat to the safety of faculty, staff, and students. Additionally, the 2008 amendment required reporting of fire statistics through the use of a fire incident logbook, documenting every fire occurrence in the residential facilities for a period of three years. This amendment also required the publication of an annual fire safety report that described the fire protection systems that have been installed in the residence halls, such as sprinklers, standpipes, and fire alarm systems. The annual fire safety report must also include the university's fire safety programs such as the use of fire drills, fire evacuation training, fire code inspections, and fire safety training (Mann & Ward, 2011). Numerous studies (e.g. Gregory & Janosik, 2002b; Janosik, 2004; Janosik & Plummer, 2005) have been conducted with students, parents, college administrators, senior student affairs officers, assault victim advocates, judicial officers, senior housing administrators, law enforcement officials, and women's center directors in an effort to determine the effectiveness of the Clery Act by measuring awareness of the act, student use of crime statistics in their college selection decisions, student change in behavior due to the crime report, and the frequency of the incidence of crimes. The findings of these studies indicate that the Clery Act has not significantly reduced the incidence of crimes or changed student behavior to protect themselves or their property, and that most students and parents are unaware of the Clery Act and do not use the crime report to select a college (Aliabadi, 2007). For instance, Gregory and Janosik (2002a) conducted a study in which 70% of senior university police official respondents believed that crime was not reduced as a result of the Clery Act, while Aliabadi (2007) established that only 18% of student respondents from three California universities changed their behaviors to protect themselves or their property. Additionally, Bush (2011) conducted a study of 1,000 Northern Michigan University students, revealing that only 25% of respondents were familiar with the Clery Act and its requirements. Gehring and Janosik (2003) also surveyed 9,150 undergraduate students in which only 8% of respondents used the Clery Act crime information in making their college selection.

With the adoption of the amendments to the Clery Act in 2008, fire statistics and fire safety are now an integral component of the act. University officials are required to be aware of the act and its fire safety reporting requirements in order to comply with the act and accomplish its goals. Additionally, students and parents should be cognizant of and familiar with the annual fire safety report, using the fire data in choosing their college and changing their behavior to protect themselves and their property from fire. Several studies (e.g. Gregory & Janosik, 2002b, 2009; Janosik & Plummer, 2005) have been conducted to determine if the Clery Act requirements have decreased campus crime, yet none were found that determined if the Clery Act has reduced campus fires.

If students and their parents were unaware of the Clery Act and its provisions, which clearly was the case as shown in numerous aforementioned studies, then students are unable to use this information in their college selection decisions or to change their behavior in protecting themselves or their property since they are unaware of the incidence of crime or fires on their campus (Janosik, 2004). Considering most students and their parents were unaware of the act and do not use the information to change their behavior on campus or make their college selection decisions, it would seem highly unlikely that crime or fires would decrease as a result of the act. Studies have shown that only a small percentage of respondents perceive that crime has been reduced due to the Clery Act. As such, an analysis of the relevant research indicates that the purposes of the act have not been realized, other than the annual reporting of crime and fire statistics, and therefore college administrators and the United States Department of Education need to make changes in implementation to improve the effectiveness of the Clery Act (Gregory & Janosik, 2002a).

METHODOLOGY

This researcher employed the nonexperimental quantitative research design, based on the premise that the research did not manipulate any conditions that were experienced. The population used in this study was composed of 16,200 students attending two higher education institutions in East Tennessee and included undergraduate, graduate, campus residents, and commuters, including specialty college students such as medical and pharmacy residents. One of the institutions was a public university attended by approximately 15,000 students, composed of 12,500 undergraduate, 2,500 graduate students. The other institution was a private Christian College attended by approximately 1,200 students, composed of 950 undergraduate and 250 graduate students. The total sample was comprised of 1,361 students who voluntarily agreed to complete and submit the survey.

The first 11 items of the 28 item survey were demographic in nature, enabling cross-tabulation and comparison of subgroups to ascertain the variance of responses between these groups. The next two items asked respondents whether they had read their institution's campus security report and fire safety report. The next 13 items consisted of Likert-type statements to measure degrees of awareness, decision, improvement, and perception. Each item had seven possible responses: Strongly Disagree -1, Disagree -2, Somewhat Disagree -3, Neither Agree or Disagree -4, Somewhat Agree -5, Agree-6, and Strongly Agree -7. The last two items asked respondents to identify where they observed their institution's crime and fire statistics.

FINDINGS

Research Question 1

A directional, upper tail critical, single sample t test was conducted to evaluate whether responding students were aware of crime statistics, fire statistics, and the issuance of safety notices, emergency notifications, or timely warnings by their institution to a significant extent. This variable was entitled "overall awareness" (Mean = 4.37, SD = 1.34) and was composed of the average scores resulting from three separate Likert-type scale survey statements as follows: 1) I am aware of the Clery Act as it relates to the provision of crime statistics (Campus Security Report) for the college I am attending, 2) I am aware of the Clery Act as it relates to the provision of fire statistics (Fire Safety Report) for the college I am attending, and 3) I read safety notices, crime alerts, emergency notifications, or timely

warnings which are sent out by Public Safety or Campus Security. A test value of 4, which indicated neutrality on the Likert scale, was used for this analysis. The test was significant, $t(1,303) = 10.12$, $p < .001$. Therefore, students are aware of crime statistics, fire statistics, and the issuance of safety notices, emergency notifications, or timely warnings by their institution to a significant extent.

Research Question 2

An independent-samples t test was conducted to evaluate whether the mean score of the overall awareness of the Clery Act by students was different between females and males. "Overall awareness" of the Clery Act by students was composed of the average scores resulting from three separate Likert scale survey statements as follows: 1) I am aware of the Clery Act as it relates to the provision of crime statistics (Campus Security Report) for the college I am attending, 2) I am aware of the Clery Act as it relates to the provision of fire statistics (Fire Safety Report) for the college I am attending, and 3) I read safety notices, crime alerts, emergency notifications, or timely warnings which are sent out by Public Safety or Campus Security. The overall awareness of the Clery Act by students was the variable and the grouping variable was females or males. The test was significant, $t(1,302) = 2.85$, $p = .004$. The "overall awareness" mean for females was 4.44, with a standard deviation of 1.31, while the "overall awareness" mean for males was 4.21, with a standard deviation of 1.40, indicating that females were significantly more aware of the Clery Act crime statistics (campus security report), fire statistics (fire safety report), and the issuance of safety notices, emergency notifications, or timely warnings by their institution.

Research Question 3

An independent-samples t test was conducted to evaluate whether the mean score of the overall awareness of the Clery Act was different between those students who experienced a crime or fire prior to attending college and those who did not experience a crime or fire prior to attending college. "Overall awareness" of the Clery Act by students was composed of the average scores resulting from three separate Likert scale survey statements as follows: 1) I am aware of the Clery Act as it relates to the provision of crime statistics (Campus Security Report) for the college I am attending, 2) I am aware of the Clery Act as it relates to the provision of fire statistics (Fire Safety Report) for the college I am attending, and 3) I read safety notices, crime alerts, emergency notifications, or timely warnings which are sent out by Public Safety or Campus Security. In an effort to effectively address this research question, two separate tests were conducted: 1) a comparison of the overall awareness of the Clery Act with students who experienced a crime prior to attending college and those who did not, and 2) a comparison of the overall awareness of the Clery Act with students who experienced a fire prior to attending college and those who did not. In the first test the overall awareness of the Clery Act by students was the variable and the grouping variable was those students who experienced a crime prior to attending college and those who did not. The test was significant, $t(1,302) = 2.15$, $p = .031$. The "overall awareness" mean for students who experienced a crime before attending college was 4.57, with a standard deviation of 1.42, while the "overall awareness" mean for students who did not experience a crime before attending college was 4.34, with a standard deviation of 1.33, indicating that students who experienced a crime before attending college were significantly more aware of the Clery Act than students who did not experience a crime before attending college.

Research Question 4

An independent-samples t test was conducted to evaluate whether the mean score of the overall awareness of the Clery Act was different between those students who reside on-campus and those who do not. "Overall awareness" of the Clery Act by students was composed of the average scores resulting from three separate Likert scale survey statements as follows: 1) I am aware of the Clery Act as it relates to the provision of crime statistics (Campus Security Report) for the college I am attending, 2) I am aware of the Clery Act as it relates to the provision of fire statistics (Fire Safety Report) for the college I am attending, and 3) I read safety notices, crime alerts, emergency notifications, or timely warnings which are sent out by Public Safety or Campus Security. The overall awareness of the Clery Act by students was the variable and the grouping variable was those students who reside on-campus and those who do not. The test was significant, $t(1,302) = 2.77$, $p = .006$. The "overall awareness" mean for students who reside on-campus was 4.53, with a standard deviation of 1.30, while the "overall awareness" mean for students who reside off-campus was 4.30, with a standard deviation of 1.35, indicating that students who reside on-campus were significantly more aware of the Clery Act than students who reside off-campus.

Research Question 5

An independent-samples t test was conducted to evaluate whether the mean score of the overall awareness of the Clery Act was different between students who attend the regional public institution and students who attend the small private Christian college. "Overall awareness" of the Clery Act by students was composed of the average scores resulting from three separate Likert scale survey statements as follows: 1) I am aware of the Clery Act as it relates to the provision of crime statistics (Campus Security Report) for the college I am attending, 2) I am aware of the Clery Act as it relates to the provision of fire statistics (Fire Safety Report) for the college I am attending, and 3) I read safety notices, crime alerts, emergency notifications, or timely warnings which are sent out by Public Safety or Campus Security. The overall awareness of the Clery Act by students was the variable and the grouping variable was students who attend the regional public institution and students who attend the small private Christian college. The test was significant, $t(1,302) = 2.44$, $p = .015$. The "overall awareness" mean for regional public institution students was 4.41, with a standard deviation of 1.33, while the "overall awareness" mean for private Christian college students was 4.15, with a standard deviation of 1.35, indicating that students who attend the regional public institution are significantly more aware of the Clery Act than students who attend the private Christian college.

Research Question 6

The survey used two separate items to collect data concerning notification, one for crime statistics and the other for fire statistics. The types of notification methods and the corresponding percentage of students who were notified by these methods are listed in the following tables:

Table 1
Methods by Which Respondents Were Made Aware of the Clery Act Crime Statistics (N = 1,361)

Notification Method	n	%
Observed notification of crime statistics on college website	359	28.58
Notified of crime statistics in orientation session	262	20.86
Notified of crime statistics by a Residence Life Official	187	14.89
Notified of crime statistics by a Student Affairs Official	177	14.09
Observed notification of crime statistics in catalog	164	13.06
Observed notification of crime statistics on student application	139	11.07
Observed notification of crime statistics in Parent Handbook	97	7.72
Other notification method	93	7.4
Note: Approximately 550 respondents, or 43.79% of survey participants, did not see any notifications of crime statistics.		

Table 2
Methods by Which Respondents Were Made Aware of the Clery Act Fire Statistics (N = 1,361)

Notification Method	n	%
Observed notification of fire statistics on college website	168	13.47
Observed notification of fire statistics in catalog	153	12.27
Notified of fire statistics in orientation session	128	10.26
Notified of fire statistics by a Residence Life Official	120	9.62
Notified of fire statistics by a Student Affairs Official	86	6.9
Observed notification of fire statistics on student application	69	5.53
Observed notification of fire statistics in Parent Handbook	69	5.53
Other notification method	42	3.37
Note: Approximately 863 respondents, or 69.21% of survey participants, did not see any notifications of fire statistics.		

Research Question 7

A directional, upper tail critical, single sample t test was conducted to evaluate whether responding students use the Clery Act crime and fire statistics to a significant extent in their decisions as to what college to attend. The variable was entitled "Use of Crime and Fire Stats in College Decision" (Mean = 2.52, SD = 1.60) and was composed of the average scores resulting from two separate Likert scale survey statements as follows: 1) I considered the Clery Act crime statistics (Campus Security Report) in my decision as to what college to attend, and 2) I considered the Clery Act fire statistics (Fire Safety Report) as to what college to attend. A test value of 4, which indicated neutrality on the Likert scale, was used for this analysis. The test was significant, $t(1,309) = -33.36$, $p < .001$. However, while the p value indicates significance, because the t value is negative, students do not use the Clery Act crime statistics (campus security report) and fire statistics (fire safety report) to a significant extent in their decisions as to what college to attend.

Research Question 8

A directional, upper tail critical, single sample t test was conducted to evaluate whether responding students perceive that the reporting of the Clery Act crime statistics (campus security report) and fire statistics (fire safety report) improves their safety from crimes and fires while on campus to a significant extent. The variable was entitled "Reporting of Crime and Fire Statistics" (Mean = 4.25, SD = 1.35) and was composed of the average scores resulting from two separate Likert scale survey statements as follows: 1) In my opinion, the reporting of crime statistics (campus security report) has improved my security on campus, and 2) In my opinion, the reporting of fire statistics (fire safety report) has improved my safety from fire while on campus. A test value of 4, which indicated neutrality on the Likert scale, was used for this analysis. The test was significant, $t(1,304) = 6.60$, $p < .001$. Therefore, students perceive that the reporting of the Clery Act crime statistics (campus security report) and fire statistics (fire safety report) improves their safety from crimes and fires while on campus to a significant extent.

Research Question 9

A directional, upper tail critical, single sample t test was conducted to evaluate whether students change their behavior to protect their property or personal well-being due to the use of safety notices, emergency notifications, or timely warnings issued by their institution to a significant extent. The variable was student behavioral change due to timely warnings (Mean = 4.83, SD = 1.66), and a test value of 4, which indicated neutrality on the Likert scale, was used for this analysis. The analysis indicated that the mean is significantly higher than the test value $t(1,295) = 18.11$, $p < .001$. Therefore, students do change their behavior to protect their property or personal well-being due to the use of safety notices, emergency notifications, or timely warnings issued by their institution to a significant extent.

Research Question 10

A directional, upper tail critical, single sample t test was conducted to evaluate whether students perceive that the use of safety notices, emergency notifications, or timely warnings by their institution has improved their security while on campus to a significant extent. The variable was student perception of improved security due to timely warnings (Mean = 5.26, SD = 1.44), and a test value of 4, which indicated neutrality on the Likert scale, was used for this analysis. The analysis indicated that the mean is significantly higher than the test value $t(1,300) = 31.52$, $p < .001$. Therefore, students do perceive that the use of safety notices, emergency notifications, or timely warnings by their institution has improved their security while on campus to a significant extent.

Research Question 11

A directional, upper tail critical, single sample t test was conducted to evaluate whether responding students perceive that the reporting of crime statistics (campus security report) and fire statistics (fire safety report) reduces crime and fires on their campus to a significant extent. The variable was entitled "Reporting Reduces Crimes and Fires" (Mean = 4.15, SD = 1.20) and was composed of the average scores resulting from two separate Likert scale survey statements as follows: 1) In my opinion, the reporting of crime statistics (campus security report) has reduced crime on my campus, and 2) In my opinion, the reporting of fire statistics (fire safety report) has reduced fires on my campus. A test value of 4, which indicated neutrality on the Likert scale, was used for this analysis. The test was significant, $t(1,279) = 4.51$, $p < .001$. Therefore, students perceive that the reporting of the Clery Act crime statistics (campus security report) and fire statistics (fire safety report) reduces crime and fires on their campus to a significant extent.

Research Question 12

A directional, upper tail critical, single sample t test was conducted to evaluate whether students perceive that the use of safety notices, emergency notifications, or timely warnings reduces crime on their campus to a significant extent. The variable was student perception of reduced crime due to timely warnings (Mean = 4.33, SD = 1.38), and a test value of 4, which indicated neutrality on the Likert-type scale, was used for this analysis. The analysis indicated that the mean is significantly higher than the test value $t(1,287) = 8.62$, $p < .001$. Therefore, students do perceive that the use of safety notices, emergency notifications, or timely warnings reduces crime on their campus to a significant extent.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Overall, the findings of this study indicate that students perceive that the Clery Act is effective. Students are aware of timely warnings and change their behavior due to these warnings. Students perceive that the Clery Act has improved their safety and security. Additionally, students perceive that the Clery Act has reduced the incidence of crime and fires. There are, though, two areas in which the Clery Act has very limited effectiveness: awareness of the crime and fire statistics and use of the crime and fire statistics in making their selection as to what college to attend.

This study reveals that website postings, student applications, parent handbooks, catalogs, orientation sessions, student affairs personnel, and residence life officials are making students aware of the Clery Act crime and fire statistics, but not to a significant extent. Students should be aware of the existence of Clery Act statistics prior to attending college so that they can use them in making their college selection decisions. The Department of Education should devote resources to advertise the Clery Act and its intended purpose to the general public, increasing awareness of the Clery Act mandates and the usefulness of the information provided by these mandates. College students should be aware of the Clery Act requirements prior to their decision as to what college to attend, making their high school years an appropriate target for disseminating Clery Act information.

Text messages and emails should be used to notify students of the institution's Clery Act crime and fire statistics as well as policies regarding crime reporting, crime prevention, and fire safety. Use of text messages and emails should improve student awareness of the Clery Act as this form of communication has been effective in notifying students of the issuance of safety notices, emergency notifications, or timely warnings by their institution.

Due to the frequent use of the college or university website by students in obtaining Clery Act crime and fire statistics, university administrators should continue to post the Campus Security Report and Fire Safety Report on the school website. University administrators may want to focus on improving the accessibility of the Campus Security Report on their website by posting hyperlinks at various website pages not greater than two clicks from the home page. Accessibility to the Campus Security Report and Fire Safety Report via website searches should be tested and maintained. Operability of hyperlinks should be periodically tested both on and off campus to ensure functionality.

The use of safety notices, emergency notifications, or timely warnings is effective in changing student behavior to protect themselves and their property, having the potential to increase safety and security. Therefore, colleges and universities should continue to advertise and promote the use of an emergency alert system that uses text messaging and email to reach students by cell phone.

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Global Perspective and the Implications for School Leadership

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ABSTRACT

Understanding and implementing a global perspective of business and education is a requisite skill for 21st Century educational leaders. Among principal preparation programs within the United States, there has been limited evidence of embedding the thread of global literacy or aligning curriculum with global-local skills. The purpose of this paper is to address this challenge by sharing an innovative approach that was designed and delivered in the MBA in Education Leadership program at the University of Indianapolis. This interdisciplinary initiative highlighted a thread of global perspective and aligned the thread with course content. In addition to a discussion of how instructors used various teaching methods (including lecture, discussion, hands-on activities) to promote understanding of global literacy and the assessment of student learning, this paper describes candidates' feedback regarding their positive learning experiences.

Keywords: school leadership, education leadership, global perspective, global-local perspective, principal preparation programs, MBA

INTRODUCTION

The American educational system is changing rapidly and being influenced through a variety of global connections. The results of international comparative educational exams such as Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) and Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) play a bigger role in educational policies in many countries; therefore, it becomes essential for American educational leaders to better understand educational reforms in the global context and think critically of those international benchmarks. Closing the international achievement gap has been recognized as a new and significant responsibility for educational leaders (Stringfield, 2011).

Many have argued that the role and skills of leaders in the current American school system need to be transformed. We continue to serve students in school systems that operate on a 19th Century timetable and deliver a 20th Century curriculum (Hayes-Jacobs, 2014). In the 21st century, how is the American educational system preparing children for a future that is connected both locally and globally? To improve the quality of schools and increase student academic achievement, it is critical to develop competent educational leaders who have a solid understanding of global education and who can lead across different cultures.

One critical attribute of effective educational leaders is the capacity to understand and implement a global view of the world, including intercultural competencies. Schools and districts can no longer function independently. School leaders should understand that modern learners need to interact not only in their local community, but also with state, national, and international communities. Global literacy should become an integral part of the school curriculum. Global literacy, as described by Rosenthal Tolisano (2014), is an individual's ability to understand global education and competencies, while being able to switch flu-

ently between local and global perspectives. Students need to recognize the challenges and opportunities of an interconnected world and be able to work in it and improve it (Boix-Mansilla, & Jackson 2011). Therefore, educational leaders must have the knowledge and capabilities to model and create the culture that embraces these literacy skills for students and staff.

Only when education leaders have a clear global perspective can American school systems better prepare youth to be competitive in the ever-changing world. Our leaders should have access and ability to analyze other countries' educational systems to partner and learn from them. The 2012 International Summit on Teaching and Learning in New York City provided an avenue to promote global competencies. Ministers of education and teacher leaders from 23 high performing or rapidly improving countries agreed that "leadership with a purpose" is central to raising student achievement. Several participating countries underlined the central role of high quality training, careful mentoring of new leaders, and ongoing development and feedback (Asia Society, 2012). Acknowledging and utilizing the information from international systems can provide support and leverage to impact the American educational system.

The challenge for school leaders is not simply figuring out which specific activities contribute to fostering aspects of global competency, but also finding out how to integrate those activities into the regular work of schools (Reimers, 2009). In a survey administered by Reimers (2009), fewer than one-half of respondents reported that their schools offer opportunities to develop global competencies or to infuse global competencies throughout the curriculum. These results reflect the importance of educating future leaders in global education and provide strategies to integrate into the curriculum. If our American education system is to support and grow our youth for the future, the leaders must be well prepared. According to Zhao (2009), a paradigm shift in thinking about education, both in what we teach and how we deliver it, is needed.

THE CHANGING LANDSCAPE OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP PROGRAMS

Global literacy is an essential component for training and licensing educational leaders; however, there are few programs around the country that adequately integrate the global/local strands into administrator preparation studies. Brooks and Normore (2010) have advocated rethinking educational leadership for 21st Century schools. They have coined the term, "glocalization" to refer to "a meaningful integration of local and global forces to help educational leaders inform and enhance their pedagogy and practice (p. 52)."

Although the National Education Association (NEA) and educational policy organizations have advocated for global competency as a 21st Century imperative (www.nea.org), there is limited evidence that educational leadership masters programs include curriculum aligned with global-local skills. The Comparative and International Education Society (CIES) reports 36 graduate programs at the Masters and Ph.d. level in the United States. Their curricula are research-based and do not necessarily include courses to meet building-level administrator licensing requirements (www.cies.us). Principal preparation programs seeking National Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation (CAEP) accreditation must demonstrate curricular alignment with Educational Leadership Constituent Council Standards (ELCC, www.ncate.org) pertaining to visioning, strategic planning, supervision of instruction, management and operational systems, school-community relations, social justice, and school law. At the present time, the ELCC standard elements for content knowledge and professional leadership skills reference cross-cultural leadership, but not specific global educational competencies.

A look at international leadership programs reveals a very different scenario. The University of Southampton Education School in the United Kingdom offers a master's in educational management and leadership with coursework in globalization and internationalization in education (www.southampton.ac.uk). Southampton students create presentations and project planning strategies to internationalize educational curricula. Cambridge College students, who are also eligible for licensure in Massachusetts, study Advanced Leadership in Policy and Practice, using simulations and scenarios to examine national and local educational policies (www.cambridgecollege.edu). Future school leaders in Singapore are trained at the National Institute of Education where the focus is on innovation and school transformation. Principals in training complete a school improvement project for their site, visiting an international school utilizing their research (www.ascd.org).

Linda Darling-Hammond (2010) has offered insights regarding how the United States can learn from the success of other countries to solve teacher shortages and improve instruction in our schools. The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) is facilitating multiple strategies to increase communication and interaction among instructional leaders worldwide. Creating an effective environment will necessitate removing barriers to promote global-local learning (www.oecdeducationtoday.blogspot.com). Infusing rigorous global-local threads in principal preparation programs would seem a significant step in preparing 21st Century school leaders.

PROGRAM OVERVIEW

To respond to the pressing need to promote candidates' understanding of global education and intercultural competency, the MBA in Education Leadership program at the University of Indianapolis designed and integrated a global/local thread in their program. In this paper, we will report an innovative approach to embedding global/local strands into administrator preparation studies and review the preliminary results collected from fellows (i.e. graduate students) in the program.

The MBA Fellowship in Education Leadership program that is described in this paper is an example of an effort to develop leadership competency and prepare educational leaders for schools that are experiencing many changes currently. The MBA in Education Leadership program is designed to combine the best practices in business and education with a variety of opportunities for Fellows to apply their learning in a school setting. Coursework in this program utilizes an applied, problem-based approach that is directly related to fieldwork experiences. Fellows receive a full tuition scholarship in this 13-month cohort-based program. The program adopts a "grow-your-own" model. All Fellows in the program have to go through a highly selective nomination process by school districts or charter school authorizers. Throughout the program, Fellows are provided school leadership and business immersion experiences, which are supported by their current district or charter school and include opportunities for Fellows to immediately apply leadership competencies in the field. One of the guiding principles of the program is the combination of the best practices in business and education. The goal is to increase educators' understanding of the highly competitive nature of global business and the need to develop and foster relationships with leaders within the American educational system. The intent is to give the Fellows tools to continually create, develop, and implement educational practices to enable their students to compete in the global arena.

GLOBAL/LOCAL STRAND WITHIN THE PROGRAM

One focus of the program is to cultivate global literacy and the integration of a global and local thread throughout the program. In this strand, topics that are addressed include, but are not limited to:

- How can I bring my understanding of key course concepts to a global level? For key course concepts (e.g., curriculum and assessment, financial resources, etc.), what are other countries' policies and practices?
- How are other countries' educational policies and practices similar to or different from those in the United States?
- How can I bring my understanding of key course concepts from the global level back to the local level? What are the implications of other countries' policies and practices for my school and my school district? Given my global understanding of those concepts, how can I think critically about what is being done in my school and school district?
- This thread was co-taught by a business faculty member and an education faculty member. In this paper, we will share the efforts that the MBA in Education Leadership at the University of Indianapolis made to integrate the development of their understanding of global education and intercultural competency specifically in the areas of instruction, curriculum, and assessment.

GLOBAL/LOCAL UNDERSTANDING OF ASSESSMENT

This paper focuses on promoting prospective educational leaders' understanding of assessment in a global context. Within the program, there are two courses that focus on the assessment of education: (1) Data Analysis and Statistics and (2) Instruction, Curriculum and Assessment. These two courses were dedicated to effectively finding, analyzing, and interpreting assessment data. The global/local session was offered to Fellows on the last day of the two courses. This 4-hour session focused on three modules: (1) Individual Fellow presentations on global data, (2) Introduction to global educational data, and (3) Comparing and contrasting several countries' assessment data. The session utilized various teaching methods, including lecture, discussion, and hands-on activities within small groups.

Individual Fellows "Fact-Sheet" Presentations in A Small Group

The class meeting started with Fellows presentations on their "fact sheets" of global education. Prior to the class meeting time, Fellows were asked to identify a problem or a situation that they identified from their current work and intended to solve. Then Fellows read required course readings to learn more about what other countries have been doing to address that problem or similar problems. The assigned readings (see Appendix) covered two topics: a) global education, and b) entrepreneurship and innovation in education and business.

Fellows' choice was found helpful for this learning activity. They were encouraged to connect their work to the unique needs of their school or school district. Many of the Fellows seized this as an opportunity to conduct in-depth research for their school or school district and seek inspirations and solutions from other countries. The topics for their "fact sheet" and presentation covered a wide range of topics, including retention rate, technology integration, poverty issues in schools, the development of community schools, 21st Century skills, and collaboration between school and corporation. Each Fellow presented in a small group of five. In the presentation, the presenter stressed the significance of the problem and shared what inspiring ideas were discovered from other countries. Discussion time was provided after each presentation, during which group members gave feedback to the presenter. They also asked questions and shared how that issue was approached in their schools or districts. By doing this, the conversation was taken from a global level and applied at the local level.

Introduction to Global Educational Data

A mini-lecture, co-led by School of Business and School of Education faculty, provided multiple resources and databases on global education (e.g., World Bank Education Database, UNESCO database). Instructors showed Fellows how to navigate within each database and how to read those databases. Fellows had access to those databases on their own devices during the session

Comparing and Contrasting Global Assessment Data

Fellows received additional hands-on experiences with finding, analyzing, interpreting, and presenting large-scale data from this small group activity. Numerous sources of international educational data were provided. They were asked to download data from the UNESCO database and to compare their local district with other countries via specific educational variables, such as teacher-student ratio.

Additionally, Fellows learned about the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA), an international assessment that measures 15-year-old students' reading, mathematics, science literacy, and collaborative problem solving in more than 70 countries. Fellows compared PISA scores from various countries and discussed what factors may be attributed to the different performance data among those countries.

FELLOWS' FEEDBACK

Altogether, 35 fellows participated in this pilot program and provided feedback for this innovative approach. When asked about their learning experience in this interdisciplinary session, the majority of the fellows reported that it was helpful, as indicated in Table 1. As to fellows applying the global perspective to their school district, the findings with regards to the neutral and disagree responses could be due to the fellows being in the early stages of developing their transformational educational leadership skills. When Fellows were asked about their overall experiences with the global/local session in their program, the majority of the Fellows reported that those sessions helped them with their understanding of the global/local thread of the program. As shown in Table 1, when asked about how helpful the sessions were in linking the courses together within the educational leadership program, Fellows seemed to have more mixed opinions. While the majority still indicated "Somewhat agree" or "Strongly agree" that the sessions helped them to understand how the courses were linked together within the program, about half of them were not clear about the connections.

TABLE 1
FELLOWS' FEEDBACK FROM OUR PILOT PROGRAM

Statement	Agree (Strongly or Somewhat)	Neutral	Disagree (Strongly or Somewhat)
The global/local assessment session helped me to understand the global perspective of the course material.	90%	10%	0%
The global/local assessment session helped me to apply the course material to my school district.	52%	28%	20%
Overall, the global/local instructors assisted me in the understanding of the global/local thread.	87%	10%	3%
Overall, the global/local instructors helped me understand how the courses linked together within the educational leadership program.	63%	27%	10%

DISCUSSION

Overall, the feedback was positive and suggested that the global/local session was helpful in promoting the fellows' understanding at both the global and the local levels. Fellows reported the session was more helpful in developing their understanding of the global perspective of the course materials than in allowing them to apply the global perspective to their school district. One way to explain this is to look at the results from Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives. Bloom (Seddon, 1978) classified learning goals by the level of cognitive demand. The original Bloom's taxonomy included remembering (the lowest level in the cognitive domain), understanding, applying, analyzing, evaluating, and creating (the highest level). The first feedback question (i.e., Understanding the course content materials from the global perspective) would fall into Level 2 and the second feedback question (i.e., Applying the knowledge to their school district) achieved a Level 3 or higher learning goal.

According to Bloom's Taxonomy, a Level 3 learning goal is higher than Level 2 and would require more knowledge and skills to process the information. It is possible that Fellows felt that the learning activities in the global/local thread were helpful for them to explain related ideas and concepts, but they needed additional support and resources to successfully apply their newly acquired knowledge. Another possible factor for the result is the timing in which this global/local session was offered. The session was provided quite early in the 13-month intensive program, when Fellows still had limited opportunities to systematically apply that knowledge. Applying their understanding of global perspective into their school district would be even harder for Fellows whose primary job responsibility was still teaching, because they would have to switch their perspective from a teacher to a prospective leader.

CONCLUSION AND FUTURE DIRECTION

Given the potential explanations for the results, multiple directs are being considered for future work. First, we may provide the global/local session at a later time in the program, when Fellows have more leadership knowledge, skills, and experiences. Second, we could collect more longitudinal data to understand Fellows' feedback and perceptions of the global perspective. Consideration is also being given to using various formats to collect data, including open-ended questions to obtain more detailed feedback and suggestions from Fellows.

In summary, this new global/local strand provides future education leaders opportunities to examine data, policies, and practices in other countries and think critically about what is going on in their own building or school district. By developing Fellows' understanding of key concepts at both the local and the global levels, this new module has great potential in developing global literacy among future educational leaders. More research is needed to further develop this module and collect more longitudinal data.

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APPENDIX
COURSE READINGS BY THEME

Comparing Global Education

- Education at a Glance 2014: OECD Indicators (retrieved from http://www.oecd.org/edu/Education-at-a-Glance-2014.pdf)
- Global Education Digest 2012: Opportunities lost: the impact of grade repetition and early school leaving (retrieved from http://www.uis.unesco.org/Education/Documents/ged-2012-en.pdf)
- Global Education Initiative–Retrospective on Partnerships for Education Development 2003-2011 Cost (retrieved from http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_GEI_PartnershipsEducationDevelopment_Report_2012.pdf)

Entrepreneurship and Innovation in Education and Business

- Final Report on the Entrepreneurship Education Workstream, Summer 2011, World Economic Forum (retrieved from http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_GEI_UnlockingEntrepreneurialCapabilities_Report_2011.pdf)
- Global Education Initiative LATAM Roundtable on Entrepreneurship Education 2011, World Economic Forum (retrieved from http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_GEI_LAEntrepreneurshipEducation_Report_2011.pdf)
- Entrepreneurship Education at School in Europe: National Strategies, Curricula and Learning Outcomes (retrieved from http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/education/eurydice/documents/thematic_reports/135en.pdf)
- Accelerating the Adoption of mLearning: A Call for Collective and Collaborative Action , World Economic Forum (retrieved from http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_GAC_AcceleratingAdoptionMLearning_2012.pdf)
- Education and Skills 2.0: New Targets and Innovative Approaches (retrieved from http://www3.weforum.org/docs/GAC/2014/WEF_GAC_EducationSkills_TargetsInnovativeApproaches_Book_2014.pdf)
- The New Vision for Education (retrieved from http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEFUSA_NewVisionforEducation_Report2015.pdf)
- Adapting technology for school improvement: a global perspective (retrieved from http://www.unesco.org/iiep/PDF/pubs/F165.pdf)
- World's Most Innovative Companies: Forbes (retrieved from http://www.forbes.com/innovative-companies/list/)

Filled with What?
Leadership and Hope in the Faculty Senate

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ABSTRACT

The current study explored the theory of hope as a characteristic of individuals who engage in shared faculty governance, specifically addressing the question: What are the characteristics of faculty governance leaders, specifically their predispositions to have hopeful attitudes about their college campuses and administration? A survey was constructed around the Trait Hope Scale and administered to faculty governance units in 25 college campuses in the United States. A total of 325 respondents completed the survey. The majority of faculty members serving in representative senates had been involved for a moderate period of time (2-5 years), were faculty members in the liberal arts, an almost half intended to return to their faculty roles upon completion of their terms. All senators identified that they had high levels of Hope for the work they accomplish in their institutions.

Shared governance in higher education is at a critical point in history. Although there are surges in the collective activity of faculty members, their actions have continued to have little meaningful impact on college campus decision making. Events such as faculty protests of the new presidential appointment at Iowa, for example, yielded little change in trustee behavior. Similarly, it took the California Faculty Association nearly a year of negotiation and the threat of a system-wide strike before agreeing to a modest faculty pay raise agreement that was a fraction of the administrative salary increases over the same period of time.

There are at least three prominent perspectives as to why faculty are not able to gain the respect and prominence that many believe is a right and cornerstone of higher education. The first is that the ideal of shared governance has never actually been in full practice in the academy, and that depictions of it truly working have been exaggerated (Baldridge, 1982). The second is that the professionalism and technological advances inherent in the contemporary university restrict and limit what faculty and truly contribute to institutional operations (Miller & Smith, 2017). And the third, is that professional administrators fail to see the value of professorial ranks contributing to making difficult decisions on campus.

Part of the administrative perspective of faculty inability to contribute to decision-making is grounded in the thinking that the faculty members who are the least equipped to be successful are drawn to service activities, such as shared governance. Some of these arguments are based on the notion of a cycle of academic careers, where those in the final years of their professorial career give back

to campus through service late in their professional working life (Knefelkamp, 1990). Conversely, some argue that engagement in certain service organizations are a pathway to other administrative appointments or prominence on campus (Miller & Pope, 2003A). Yet others contend that faculty who are drawn to such service assignments are unsuccessful in their other roles, such as conducting research or teaching.

Individual characteristics may indeed be a key component in determining the effectiveness of an organization's potential, and shared governance bodies have at least some history of relating to human resource theory. Shared governance allows for greater faculty buy-in to decision making and ownership of determining outcomes (Evans, 1999). Additionally, such relationships among and between faculty members and administrators can build a more cohesive institutional environment that is well equipped to make complex decisions (Miller, 2003). Understanding how faculty-led shared governance bodies successfully operate is critical to their survival, and the current study was designed to explore the motivation and perspectives of faculty who lead these governance units. Specifically, the purpose for conducting the study was to describe the characteristics of faculty senate leaders, including the trait of hope among senate leaders.

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Individuals pursuing academic careers undertake a comprehensive and lengthy process of education and training, typically consisting of advanced study and the completion of a significant research project. Such training has been noted to be deficient in terms of teaching preparation, commonly a significant portion of an academic faculty member's work assignment. The preparation of faculty members for academic assignments has also been noted for its lack of preparation of faculty for their service assignments, ranging from professional association involvement to how much service should be devoted to campus activities.

Service has generally been an overlooked and underappreciated component of the faculty member's work assignment, and the tendencies of service devotion are often attributed to mentoring and acculturation by department heads or senior faculty members (Guvendir, 2014; Tareef, 2013). Such a perspective varies based on institutional type, but does impact how a faculty member learns to devote time to different activities. Work in shared governance by faculty members can be similarly attributed.

Participation and service by faculty members has been linked to higher faculty morale, better attitudes about the workplace environment, more creative solution identification to problems, and a greater acceptance of problem solution and decision-making (Evans, 1999). These are general human resource theory driven concepts that have been linked to faculty governance activities, suggesting that faculty role identity is indeed "cognitive and emotive" (Fitzmaurice, 2013, p. 613). This means that self-esteem and a desire to perform well are critical components of the faculty member's life and professional world, and that involvement to service can be attributed many different variables.

Although there are few national studies that report the characteristics of who assumes leadership roles in faculty governance units, at least one identified an approximate even distribution of men and women in these leadership roles, the majority of leaders coming from disciplines in the liberal arts, and that over 60% of these leaders were tenured associate (28%) or full professors (36%) (Miller, 2003). Another study (Pope & Miller, 2005) situated in the community college context identified differences in how institutional leaders and faculty senate leaders viewed issues on campus, and that ultimately, "faculty senates are vehicles for faculty participation that provide important institutional learning and leadership-skill development opportunities" (p. 756). This finding was consistent with Trow's (1990) earlier argument that faculty governance provides leadership exposure and opportunities to learn about collaborative decision making, and that these experiences can serve as enablers to future leadership positions on campus.

Aside from possible future administrative ambitions, faculty members tend to see involvement in governance as a secondary role to other professional responsibilities (Williams, Gore, Broches, & Lostoski, 1987). In one of the few studies available profiling motivation for involvement, a study by the National Data Base on Faculty Involvement in Governance (Miller, 2003) surveyed 100 community college faculty senate leaders and identified the desire for empowerment, a sense of responsibility, and the importance of decision making as the top three motivations to get involved in faculty senate work. The same study identified attitudes toward students, a quest for knowledge, and self-interest as the least strong motivators for involvement.

The assumption of leadership roles by faculty members can be attributed to a number of variables, including feelings of responsibility, ownership of problems or situations, and even personal ambition. McDowell, Singell, and Stater (2011) studied department chairs as an example of entry into administrative leadership positions and noted that such activities can cause significant deterioration of research skills and knowledge, and that such positions, once entered, "can be an absorbing state" (p. 906). They suggested in this language that dealing with administrative and leadership problems and casting a vision over an organization can be addictive and change the focus of a faculty member from discipline specific and curiosity driven work to a service oriented perspective on higher education.

McDowell, Singell, and Stater (2011) also noted that the assumption of leadership roles can come with "substantial earning advantages" (p. 890). Aside from money as a motivator, the desire to be in charge or to assume power can influence a faculty member's interest in leadership positions (Czech & Forward, 2010), as well as mentoring leading to valuing the service and leadership roles of the faculty life (Tareef, 2012).

Although there is little scholarship on the motivation for involvement, there is a growing body of research on purpose in life or outlook as a variable that impacts quality of life (Leider, 2016). This means that those with purpose and an inclination to see opportunities have different perspectives on what to do, how to do it, and the value of different activities. This can be quantified as the positive psychology base trait theory of hope. Hope is a goal directed pathway that differs from optimism in that it is a trait that is learned and is an established part of an individual's character (Dieffenderfer, 2015).

Hope is part of the positive organizational scholarship movement that identifies psychological capital as critical to an individual's work and workplace success. When an individual has a high hope trait in the workplace, the individual is more likely to be collaborative, supportive, and contribute positively to the organization's success. The current study attempted to identify the hope trait among faculty members who have assumed faculty senate leadership positions, hypothesizing that those faculty members who decide to be involved do so because they have a high level of hope for organizational success.

The choice of hope as a variable for inclusion in the study was further validated by work that can be traced to Williams, Gore, Broches, and Lostoski (1987) who developed a six-perceptions of faculty governance model. In this mode, faculty members who decided to become involved were initially classified based on age, concern for governance issues, and confidence in the faculty member's governance role. These three classifications were then rated from high to low, resulting in six different faculty governance member categories (collegials, activists, acceptors, hierarchicals, copers, and disengaged). The research team provided no suggestion of distribution of faculty members across these categories, although the notion of hope for the professoriate as being involved in shared decision making or hope toward the institution are implicit in the discussion of collegials and activists in particular.

A different depiction of faculty governance members was proposed by Miller and Pope (2003B) who classified governance leaders as a rear guard defending the faculty, a politicians who are future campus leaders, those who are puppets of the central administration, rebels fighting the administration, technicians who make systems operate, and idealists who have some similarity with collegians. A strong identification of hope among faculty senate leaders would reinforce both the Williams, et al and Miller and Pope constructions of classifications of faculty senate leaders.

RESEARCH METHODS

The Trait Hope Scale, referred to as The Future Scale, was used to determine the level of hope faculty senators and faculty senate leaders had for their professional lives. The survey, comprised of the 12-point scale, also included four profiling questions, including a self-report of whether the respondent was a faculty senator or senate leader, the length of service on the senate, the respondent's academic discipline, and a question reflecting whether the individual had any interest in moving into an administrative position.

The survey was administered to 25 faculty senates in the summer of 2016. These faculty senates were purposefully identified by meeting the following criteria: willingness to distribute the survey to all senators and senate leaders, an established faculty senate that had been in operation for more than a decade, a comprehensive website that demonstrates that the senates were active (held meetings) in the past academic year, and all were four-year public institutions that were classified as comprehensive or had a research-orientation.

Each institution in the study was emailed a link to the survey, and an introductory email from the senate president (or equivalent titled individual) sent the link to the senators. A total of 325 completed, usable surveys were received from those self-identifying as 'senators' or members of the faculty governance unit (an average of 13 per institution with a range of 8-22) and 72 completed, usable surveys were received from those self-identifying as senate-leaders (title such as president, vice president, president-elect, past-president, etc.).

The estimated population for the faculty senate members, including leaders, was 980. The 397 combined usable responses therefore represented a 40.5% return rate, which was deemed usable for the exploratory nature of the study. As a limitation, the population estimate includes the population of each individual senate summed together; there are, however, multiple senate leaders who return to the senate following their terms as president, for example, and

as a result, the population of senate leaders was unknown, but would be at minimum, 25.

FINDINGS

As shown in Table 1, of the 325 respondents who identified themselves as elected senators, nearly half reported serving 2-5 years on the senate (n=138; 42%), with a near equal distribution of new senators (under two years, n=101; 31%) and over five years (n=86; 26.4%). The distribution for senate leaders was substantially different, with over 80% having served more than five years (n=59; 81.9%), suggesting that there is a process of senators learning the protocol and behavior of the senate prior to being elected into these leadership positions. Yet, nearly 10% of the leaders had served less than two years, and might be a reflection of new faculty moving to an institution and being seen immediately as a leader, or conversely, a faculty senate that has trouble finding someone to assume a leadership position.

Also shown in Table 1 was the distribution of academic disciplines represented on the senate. Nearly half of all senators and senate leaders (combined in the table) held academic appointments in the humanities or liberal arts (n=188; 47.3%), with one-quarter of those elected from disciplines in education or the social sciences (n=99; 24.9%).

Under half of the faculty senators surveyed clearly intended to return to their faculty roles upon completion of their terms in the senate (44.6%), and nearly one-fifth (18.1%) indicated that they would consider moving into an administrative position on a full-time basis. The responses for senate leaders were somewhat similar, with 34.7% of responding senate leaders intending to remain as full-time faculty members following the completion of their senate terms and 15.6% clearly indicating that they would consider a full-time administrative position.

The last section of the survey included the Trait Hope Scale. The 12-item section of the survey included items referred to as The Future Scale, and reflect an individual's outlook on the future, e.g., the person's sense of hopefulness. The survey had a hypothetical range score of 8 (low) to 64 (high). The current administration resulted in a range for the entire group of respondents as 32 for a low to 64. For senators, the range was 41-64 and for senate leaders, the range was 32-58. The overall group mean was 54.6 with a mean of 57 for senators and 50.3 for senate leaders was 43.76.

DISCUSSION

The results of the study suggested that faculty who are involved in faculty senate, generally, are hopeful about their involvement in faculty leadership activities and the system of shared governance. A culture for thoughtful problem solving and inclusion may exist in many of the faculty senates included in the study. This includes the encouragement of professional transition to and from the faculty senate, either returning to a role as professor or succeeding to a leadership role in college and university administration may also be a part of the culture. The results of the study support the notion that hope as a trait reinforces the emotive component of motivation to hold a service role in faculty governance groups. Where hope as a trait is recognizable among respondents, it may not be as apparent in those faculty senators' and leaders' home colleges and academic departments.

Service situates faculty members to have clearer pathways to pursue professional administrative roles, but does much less for individuals who are seeking to earn tenure at their institution or similar institutions. Unlike developing a research agenda or preparing for classes for the academic year, service and the opportunity to become involved in the shared governance process is not as incremental. Faculty can volunteer to serve on committees, organize research talks for students and faculty, serve in their respective professional association, and depending on rank, lobby for administrative positions even with only having a small amount of managerial or leadership experience. The process for publishing and teaching is less straightforward. Faculty, at times, have to advocate to a certain class, or may be pressured to teach classes that do not align with their expertise. Also, depending on the academic discipline, the rigor of publishing can vary. Participating in the publication process can be a year-long process, or more. These examples are noticeably different from the opportunity to serve in more streamlined or contrariwise, cumbersome governance systems.

Developing inter-institutional policies that enable productivity and a shared effort to protect pre-tenured faculty, and faculty who are in the middle of the tenure process, is critical for the efficient and more effective faculty governance structures. The culture for support of this type of approach including to prepare faculty for leadership, in many instances, will depend on senior faculty members taking the time to encourage involvement but dissuade, and even prevent, an overload of service-oriented tasks. Developing policies that prevent junior and mid-tenure track faculty from taking on more assignments or responsibilities than reasonably manageable is important for the success of the professional, but also is a mechanism for establishing or continuing a culture of hope.

Table 1
Participant Identifying Information

Characteristic	n	%
Role in the Senate		
Senator	325	81.8%
Senate Leader	72	18.1
Other	0	--
Length of Senate Service		
Senators (n=325)		
Under 2 years	101	31.0
2-5 years	138	42.4
More than 5 years	86	26.4
Senate Leaders (n=72)		
Under 2 years	7	9.7
2-5 years	6	8.3
More than 5 years	59	81.9
My Academic Discipline (all respondents)		
Architecture	16	4.9
Humanities/Liberal arts	188	47.3
Education/Social Sciences	99	24.9
Health sciences/allied health/medicine	31	7.8
Business	26	6.5
Engineering	17	4.2
Science	9	2.2
Law	4	1.0
Other	0	--
Future post-Senate Plans		
Senators		
Consider full-time administration	59	18.1
Remain full-time faculty	145	44.6
Not certains	121	37.2
Senate Leaders		
Consider full-time administration	11	15.2
Remain full-time faculty	25	34.7
Not certain	36	50.0
Hope		
Average	52	
Midpoint	48	
Range	32-64	

Faculty who participated in the study and demonstrated moderate to high levels of hope related to faculty governance, could be influential in diffusing the multiple ways that skeptical or uninvolved faculty perceive participation in service activities including faculty senates, and other similar bodies. Indicatively, hope is motivation for success and progression; one being an attainment and the other a process that typically most professionals strive to experience.

Creating cultural norms around hope creates an environment for positive work experiences, problem solving, and anticipation for success in a faculty member's professional career. Hope as a mechanism could be used for support and influence of faculty less engaged in decision making

processes, and could benefit the faculty member in their own professional efforts, especially as it relates to negative experiences that may come along with academic politics, bureaucracy, and other challenges. A space for further research to determine whether emotive traits can translate into positive experiences for faculty continues to exist.

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Impact of an Institutional Merger on Four Internal Stakeholder Groups of a College of Business?

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ABSTRACT

This paper compares the pre- and post-impact of a merger of two regional campuses in a statewide university system on its students, faculty, administrative, and professional support staff. Specifically, it looks at stakeholder impacts of the merger of the two Colleges of Business on these regional campuses into one entity. The second year of a two-year study has been completed and the paper compares the results of the pre-and post-merger impact survey. The two surveys are a survey of attitudes and issues regarding the merger. Surveys were designed specifically for the four stakeholder groups with questions uniquely relevant to that stakeholder group. The results in this paper illustrate the evolution of the stakeholder groups toward the merger and the pre-and post-merger responses are evaluated.

INTRODUCTION

Mergers or unifications are the formal union of two or more organizations into a single organization usually designed to deliver a more effective operation to meet external challenges and opportunities. (Harmon and Harmon, 2008). Corporate and higher education mergers are similar. In the case of higher education, strategic mergers are described as strategies of 'merging colleges for mutual growth' (Martin and Samels, 1994; Harman and Harman, 2008). Unifications and mergers have become a familiar alternative for the survival of higher education institutions with recent funding cutbacks and rising competition. Merging and closing smaller campuses are methods being employed by university systems, as the competition for resources becomes more challenging. In the era of global competition, merged institutions can be more efficient and economical but this is not guaranteed, and complications such as the loss of jobs and merging existing institutional cultures must be considered in the merger (Portnoi & Bagley, 2015).

The opportunity to examine the effect on stakeholders in a requisite merger is the topic of this paper. The subjects are two regional campuses in a Midwestern state university system specifically the merger of the two Colleges of Business. The merger involved all units in the two institutions but this study only looks at the merger of the two Colleges of Business. The institutions are both teaching undergraduate and graduate business programs. The Colleges of Business are both accredited but by different accrediting bodies pre-merger. Post-merger the combined unit is AACSB accredited.

While inside the same university system, there are significant differences in the culture and size of the two institutions. One is a large urban campus with approximately 9,000 students serving a very diverse student body that includes a significant international student population. The

other is a smaller campus of approximately 3,000 students in a rural setting with less diversity in the student body.

The decision to merge these two institutions generated substantial concerns and some resistance among the stakeholders. These institutions have existed separately for decades despite their proximity of 30 miles in the region. The differences in size and location have created two very different campus cultures. The colleges approach course scheduling and curriculum from different perspectives and each campus has developed their own student clubs and athletics system. There are many challenges in trying to unify them into one new institution. Each College of Business had its own Dean and faculty structures with similar but not identical policy and procedures for academic matters. The plan to merge them has presented a unique opportunity to examine thoughts and concerns pre-and post-merger and examine what thoughts and attitudes change over the two-year time for the merger. This paper reports the results from the pre-merger survey, the post-merger survey, and the comparison of results.

RESEARCH QUESTION

This study poses research questions regarding the merger with four hypotheses for evaluation. The stakeholders defined as the population for the study are students, faculty, staff, and administrators in College of Business at both campuses. Mergers can produce the touted cost reduction and efficiencies; mergers can alternatively create significant governance problems due to differing academic cultures, and conflicting models of faculty rights or rules of progression for rank, and seniority which can bog down a merger process (Martin & Samels, 2002).

The research question resulting from the merger described in the introduction is "Are there positive impacts from the merger of two regional campuses Colleges of Business on their stakeholders?" The four hypotheses from this question tested in the study are:

- H1 The merger will have a positive effect on administrators in the College of Business.
- H2 The merger will have a positive effect on professional staff in the College of Business.
- H3 The merger will have a positive effect on faculty in the College of Business.
- H4 The merger will have a positive effect on students in the College of Business.

This opportunity, at the start of a merger process, allows the research to study multiple stakeholder groups at both institutions over a two-year period. The four hypotheses allow for different reactions in the respective stakeholder groups.

The administrative stakeholder group is defined as all academic administrators at the two respective campuses in the College of Business. This group includes deans, associate deans, and department heads. The professional staff is defined as administrative support personnel and included academic advisors, lab managers, administrative assistants, and placement staff. The faculty group was defined as full time faculty including tenured, tenure track, and full time lecturers. For the purposes of this study adjunct faculty were excluded. The student group included all registered students, both undergraduate and graduate, coded with College of Business majors. The four hypotheses are directly related to the four stakeholder groups and determining their outlook on the merger.

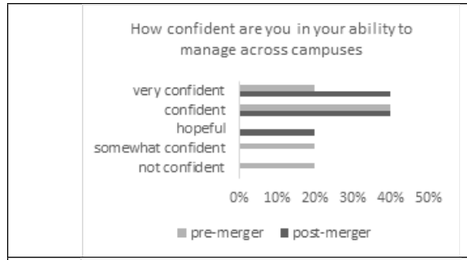
METHODOLOGY

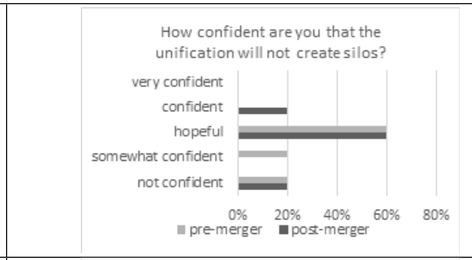
The research design is for a two-year study of pre-merger and post-merger opinions of stakeholder groups on the merger of these two Colleges of Business. The study uses surveys designed to measure issues specific to each stakeholder group. The institutional review board for the university system reviewed and approved the research design and methods.

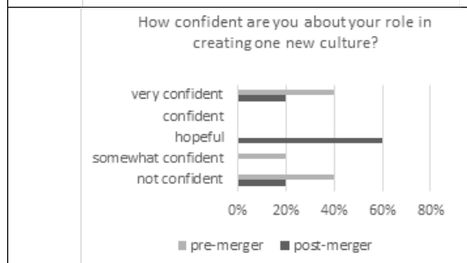
Four different surveys were developed–one for each of the stakeholder groups. There are 10 questions in each survey that were specific only to that stakeholder group. The surveys were administered via Qualtrics. Each group was sent a link to access their survey. The pre-merger surveys were open from January 15 to March 1, 2016. The surveys were repeated post-merger in the same time in 2017 to measure what attitudinal changes occurring in each group. The questions in the survey did not ask for any identifying information. The responses were completely anonymous and kept confidential. The pre-merger survey sample size of stakeholders at both campuses surveyed was 7 administrators, 13 professional staff, 50 faculty, and 1959 students. Response rates for each stakeholder group were 71.4%, 53.8%, 40%, and 11.6% respectively. The post-merger survey sample size of stakeholders at both campuses surveyed was 6 administrators, 15 professional staff, 47 faculty, and 1668 students. Response rates for each stakeholder group were 83%, 73%, 51%, and 8% respectively.

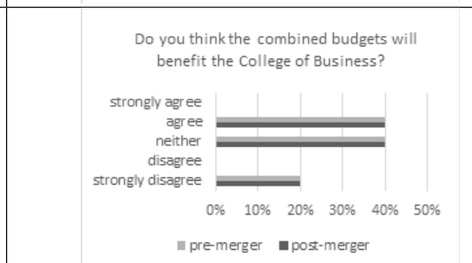
Administrative Survey Results

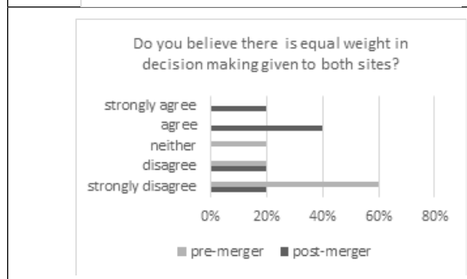
The administrators in the College of Business included deans, associate deans, department heads and academic directors of programs. The merger plan for the institution required the two administrative staffs become one after the merger. The results of the administrative survey are reported in the following graphs:

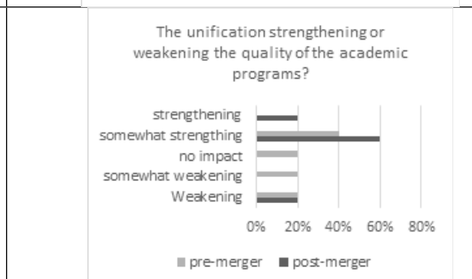


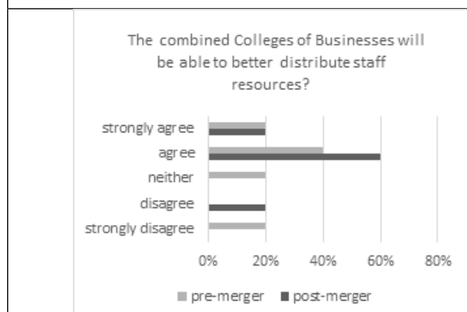


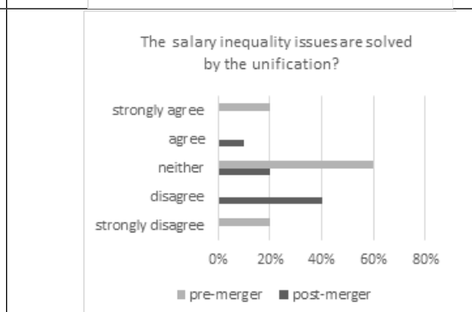


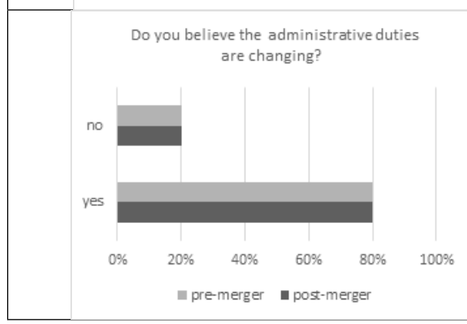


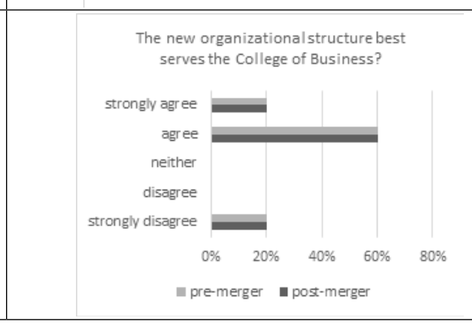












In this survey, many of the responses were similar for the administrators both pre-merger and post-merger. One of the more notable shifts occurred with the question on equal representation on both sites. Pre-merger 60% strongly disagreed while post-merger 60% were agree or strongly agree. The confidence levels for managing across campuses improved after the merger. The opinions on the statement salary inequities are resolved by merger moved to disagreement with that statement post-merger. The questions on decision making and quality of academic programs were more positive post-merger. Overall the responses post-merger were the same or more positive in the post-merger survey. After the merger, the College of Business lost one Dean from one of the campuses as that position was no longer required so there was 1 less administrator responding to the survey post-merger. The remaining administrators were employed at the university both pre-merger and post-merger.

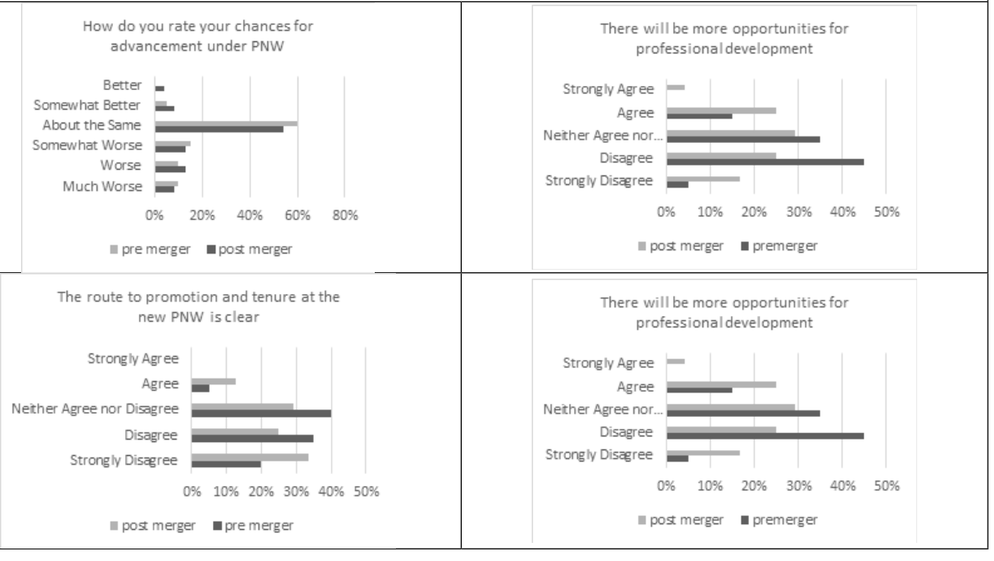
The following sections indicate the responses from the other three stakeholders and a comparison to their pre-merger responses.

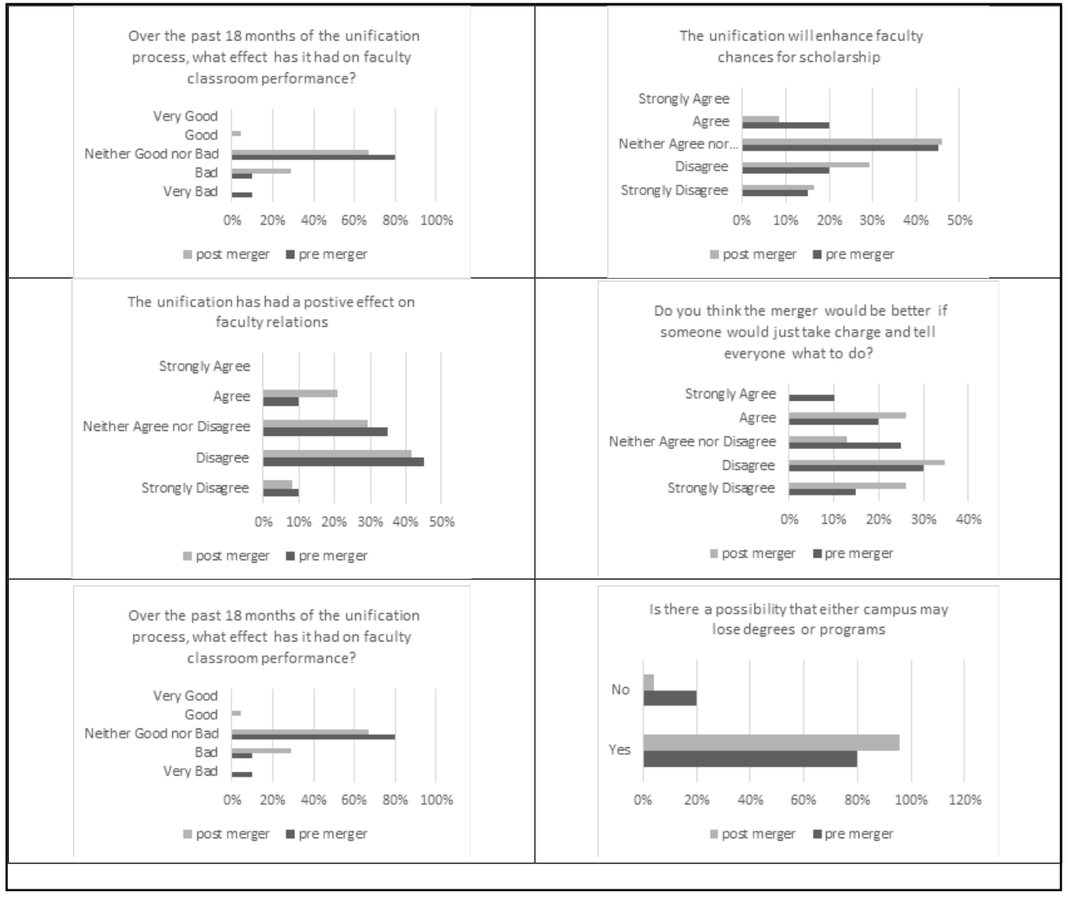
Faculty Survey Results

The faculty surveyed included tenured, tenure-track, and full time lecturers. The lecturers are not in tenure positions and have no scholarship requirements. The adjunct faculty were not included in this study. The composition of the faculty on both campuses were comprised of primarily tenured faculty with some assistant professors and lecturers.

The faculty results post-merger trended to be more negative than positive. The results on the question of clear path to promotion and tenure were trending downward to disagreement with that statement. On the question of a clear mission and vison for the College of Business, post-merger moved to majority of faculty felt it was unclear. A positive trend post-merger was fewer faculty felt that degrees would be lost due to merger. The overall response from the faculty stakeholders were less positive in the post-merger results. This was consistent with the pre-merger results. It is important to note that faculty continued to see no change in impact from the merger on faculty classroom performance. Finally, with respect to professional development and scholarship, faculty responses were more negative even though there has now been an associate dean put in place to address this issue.

Figure 2
Faculty Survey Results





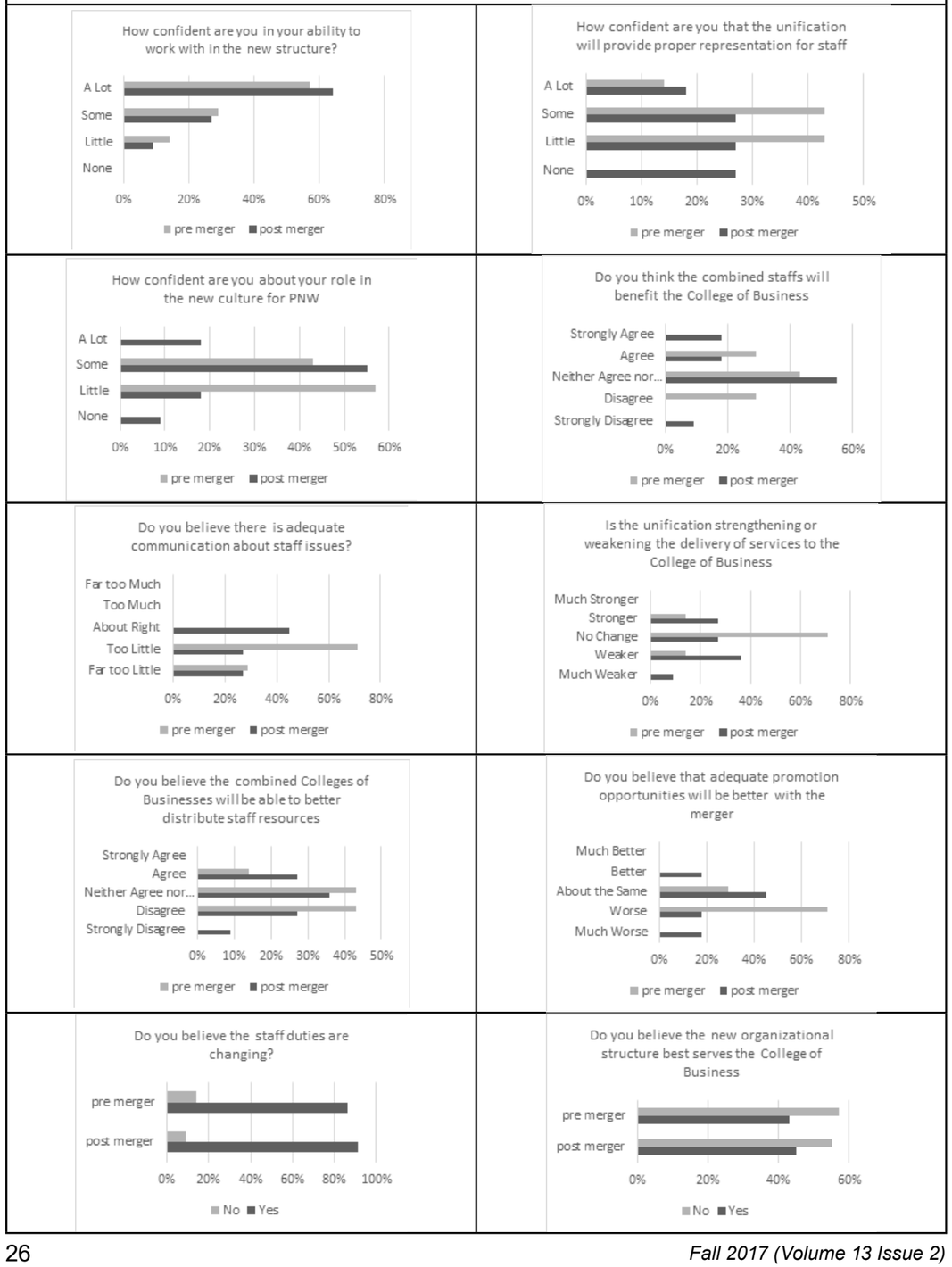
Staff Survey Results

The staff surveyed included advisors, career specialists, secretaries, counselors, and administrative assistants from both campuses. After the pre-merger survey, a new career counselors position has been created as well as a Director for Center of Career Management for the College of Business. The results of the staff survey are reported in the following graphs:

There are several interesting shifts in the opinions of the staff members from pre-merger to post-merger survey results. There is a positive trend in the question regarding how the staff feels about adequate promotion opportunities indicating optimism. The data indicates during the pre-merger survey it was 70%, negative response but that has decreased according to the post-merger survey to approximately 18%. Another positive trend is how confident staff members are about their role in the new PNW culture and that has increased based on the data from the post-merger survey. Communication about staff issues in the merger has gotten better. When asked the question do you believe communication is adequate the post-merger data at 45% tells us it is positive, and that is an improvement from the 70% negative results from the pre-merger survey results. When asked do you think the combined staffs will benefit the College of Business, the responses have shifted somewhat more positive tone. The greatest change was reflected in the question regarding staff duties changing. Pre-merger less than 20% felt duties would be changing while post-merger shows greater than 80% indicated change in staff duties.

As we look at the trends that seem to be moving in a more negative direction, how confident staff is that the unification will provide proper representation has shifted to the

Figure 3
Staff Survey Results



negative. The pre-merger and post-merger survey results stated almost identical responses to the question do you believe the new organizational structure best serves the College of Business.

Student Survey Results

The students surveyed included both graduate and undergraduate students. Some of the students surveyed in the pre-merger survey graduated and new first year students were admitted changing the response pool somewhat. As noted earlier, the response rate for the post-merger survey among students was somewhat lower than that for the pre-merger survey.

The student results tended to be relatively consistent after the merger. A few points stand out that are notable in the results. Students remain concerned that the unification provide both long term and short term benefits to them. Post-merger results show students more concerned about the necessity to travel to take required courses to complete their degrees. In addition, more students are concerned about the need to take online courses to complete their degree although most students remain unconcerned about this. On a positive note, students are less concerned about the transferability of courses regardless of the campus at which they started. Students appear to be less concerned about the impact on tuition of unification. They do appear to value the opportunity to have student organizations on both campuses so that they may participate on their "home" campus. There appears to be little change in the students' concern about availability of graduate programs on both campuses. Students do remain concerned that the University provide employment opportunities for them, although fewer of them are strongly concerned about this. Students appear a bit less concerned that their student government has representation from both campuses. Finally, there is a notable increase in the importance students put on the importance of having athletic teams on both campuses.

DISCUSSION

The results of the surveys seem to indicate that the expectations of each of the stakeholder groups did not change considerably after the merger implementation. Each stakeholder group held to its initial views with a few notable shifts. The stakeholder groups most effected based on responses were the faculty and staff. These two groups were less clear about their futures with the merger. Each of the four stakeholder groups seem to indicate a communication lapse with merger plans and implementation. The university was offering faculty early retirement buyouts during the two years this survey was conducted which may have influenced the responses but was not measured in this study. The post-merger survey took place during a presidential election year where there was considerable debate about the future of higher education.

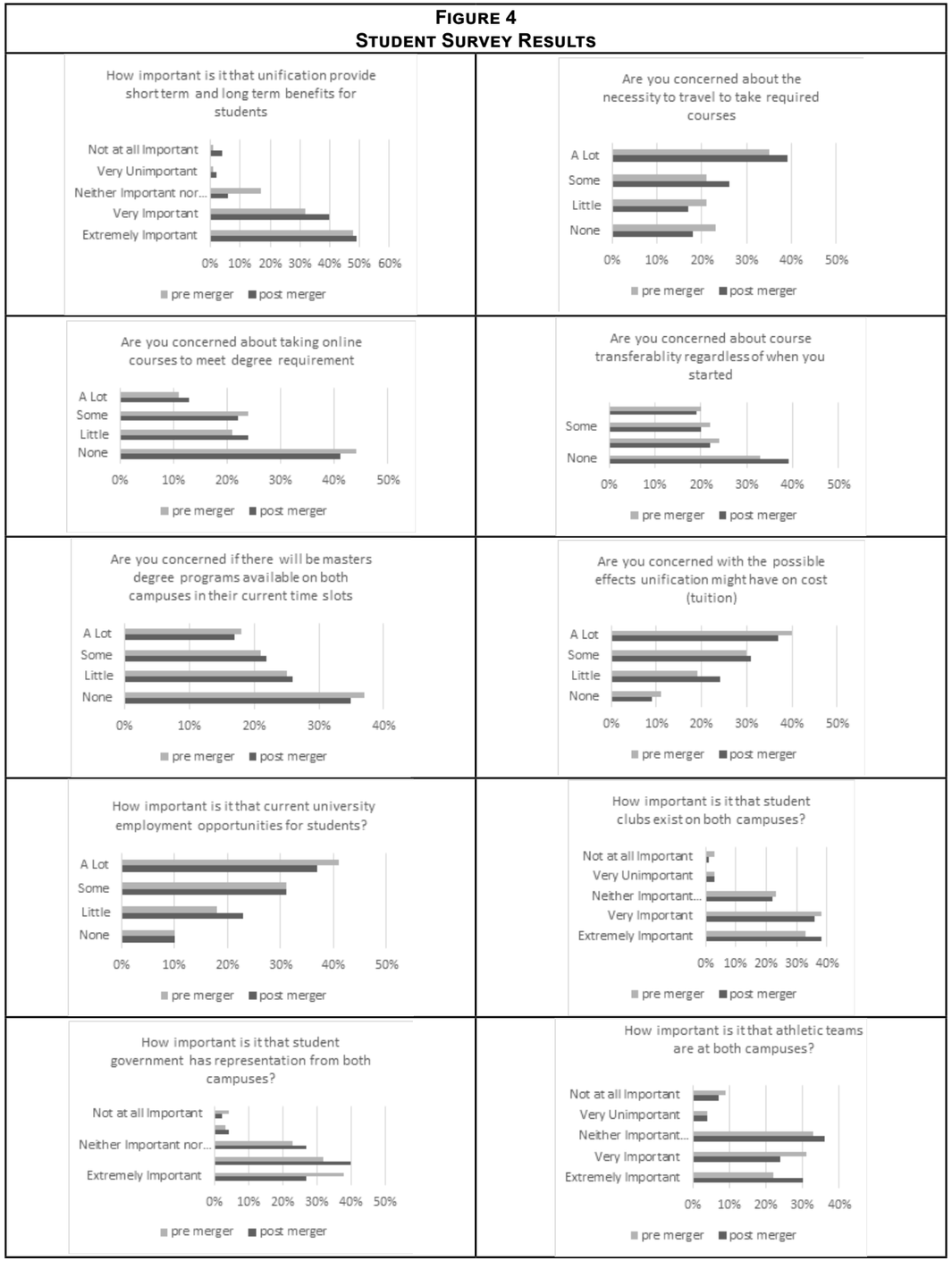
It is likely that the administrators had more access to information and participated in decision making which created a positive environment for them. The equal campus representation issue that surfaced in the administrative survey may be due to one of the Deans positions being eliminated and the remaining Dean being from the other campus and not a candidate from outside the system.

The faculty generally disapproved of the merger prior to the merger and after the merger. Faculty concerns about promotion and tenure merging from two systems with different criteria continues to be a problem. There indication of no clear mission and vision probably results from merging an urban campus with a rural campus.

Merging institutions often requires a restructure of units and job responsibilities change with the new structure. These institutions restructured as they merged to form one new entity. The staff are affected by these restructures and changing job responsibilities. The survey data clearly reflects that in the staff responses. The new structure and staff representation were matters of concern has they tried to understand their role in the new organization.

Students seem to have accepted the merger quite easily and show few significant differences in their responses. The pre and post differences that exist may in large part be attributed to the change in the respondent pool. New, first year students have no other frame of reference and accept the two campus model as their "normal." Although students demonstrate some additional concern about travel, this may be mitigated by the inter-campus bus service which has been initiated and used frequently by students. It is notable that students desire club participation on both campuses and are less likely to travel for those activities. In addition, since most clubs meet in the late afternoon or evening, the final bus service at 6:15 may impact the ability of the clubs to effectively meet only on one campus or to alternate campuses easily. In addition, it can be noted that students on the smaller of the two campuses have undergone more change with respect to their plans of study, advising structure, course designators, and administrative leadership. This may also be impacting the results that are shown. With respect to the change in student responses to the importance of having athletic teams on both campuses, it should be noted that a new athletic facility/conference center was completed between the times the two surveys were completed. There is clearly a desire to see that building used fully and effectively.

FIGURE 4
STUDENT SURVEY RESULTS



RESULTS

The first hypothesis was the merger has a positive effect on the administrators of the College of Business. The finding was the hypothesis after the pre-merger survey was the hypothesis was supported. The finding after the post-merger survey is that the hypothesis is supported.

The second hypothesis was the merger is a positive effect on the professional staff of the College of Business. The finding was the hypothesis after the pre-merger survey was supported. The finding after the post-merger survey is that the hypothesis is supported.

The third hypothesis was the merger is a positive effect on the faculty of the College of Business. The finding after the pre-merger survey was the hypothesis was not supported. The finding after the post-merger survey is that the hypothesis is not supported.

The fourth hypothesis was the merger is a positive effect on the students of the College of Business. The finding after the pre-merger survey was the hypothesis was supported. The finding after the post-merger survey is that the hypothesis is supported.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PRACTICE

This study provides significance to practitioners and researchers by identifying viewpoints of stakeholder groups pre-merger and post- merger. An awareness of stakeholder issues can inform merger planning and implementation practices. Findings can be used to establish the importance of managing perceptions to increase merger success. When a stakeholder group is surveyed, the administrative leadership gain an understanding of the stakeholders' concerns and willingness to accept the proposed change. An awareness of concerns allows for specialized guidance and communication related to the complexities of planning and implementing a merger.

With the understanding that each stakeholder group has unique concerns, the one size fits all communications may not be the best approach. The study provides insight to the process that indicates that the notion that stakeholder groups will change their view of issues after implementation may not be true. Unique conversations may need to occur between each stakeholder group and administrators. A stakeholder group with an understanding of how a merger impacts their stakeholder group specifically is more likely to understand expectations.

Administrators can increase merger success by making sure the issues of importance to each stakeholder group are communicated to them in meetings where questions can be asked not just broadcast announcements. Implementation plans must be carefully thought out and communicated effectively. Financial savings are often cited as a reason for a merger but the true cost of the merger must be identified and the change in flow of budget lines and authority. A clear well thought out change management plan will help eliminate stress and confusion over the implementation process.

Faculty in various stages of the promotion process are most likely to be negatively affected by an institutional merger. All legal and procedural issues regarding promotion should be determined and communicated prior to the merger. All faculty governance issues and procedures should be agreed on and in place prior to implementing the merger. If there are restructuring of academic units, the impact of this restructure should be researched and the results shared with all parties.

Staff issues can be lost in the competing administration and faculty merger issues. Staff jobs have the least protection and changing structure and procedures may considerably change their job responsibilities. Restructure may change the reporting lines and cause staff to adjust to new expectations. The change management process should have a clearly defined path for staff positions and be communicated to the staff prior to the merger implementation.

With respect to students, efforts to communicate with and reassure them regarding impacts to their plans of study and graduation plans are working and should be continued. Continued communication and application of exceptions to teach out programs will be necessary over the next few years. As more and more new students enter the College, we anticipate that the issues raised will become less urgent as a two-campus model is their only frame of reference. Clearly, the availability of transportation and cutting-edge teaching modalities to reduce the challenges of distance will be important. Both should ultimately expand opportunities for students to take courses which may not have been available on their "home" campus. In addition, given the challenge of distance, it is critically important that opportunities for club involvement and professional development remain viable and active on both campuses. Students have an affinity for their "home" campus and tend to live close and are less likely than faculty or administrators whose jobs require it to travel regularly between campuses; it is a 35-45-minute drive between the campuses. The importance of advising for students cannot be underestimated

CONCLUSIONS

The study purpose was to obtain information about the views of a specific group of stakeholders in a merger of two

academic institutions. Mergers happen in numerous colleges and universities across the globe. This study represented a small sample from only one of those universities. A larger and random sample across multiple universities could serve to validate conclusions drawn in this study.

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Attack on Academic Dishonesty: What 'Lies' Ahead?

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to apply corporate fraud fighting methods to develop a framework for fighting academic dishonesty in higher education. The evidence in the literature overwhelmingly supports the existence of academic dishonesty in higher education, with increases in admitted cheating over the past several decades and as many as 80 percent admitting to cheating (Auger 2013) and less than five percent of the students indicating that they got caught cheating (Diekhoff et al. 1996). Drawing from specific findings in the literature and positioned from the four fraud fighting methods (prevention, detection, investigation, and follow-up), an academic integrity framework is proposed.

INTRODUCTION

Academic dishonesty is prevalent in classrooms across the country. A plethora of evidence from the literature exists to substantiate this bold claim. The explosion of online programs on college campuses over the past decade without specific academic dishonesty prevention techniques provides fertile ground to exacerbate the prevalence of academic dishonesty. In addition, the availability of textbook solutions manuals and test banks available for purchase via the internet further intensifies the academic integrity issue. Most recently, it was reported that students are cheating with tiny listening devices that link to MP3 players or telephones (Moore 2017). Now is the time, for all faculty members, administrators, and governing bodies to take the steps necessary to preserve the academy by attacking academic dishonesty and producing graduates with integrity.

The purpose of this paper is to draw on the literature to provide a comprehensive view of academic dishonesty within a framework in which to build an attack on academic dishonesty and encourage dialogue about an epidemic that affects nearly all higher education programs. Prior to the framework, a case for a framework and dialogue among academicians is made.

A CASE FOR AN ATTACK ON ACADEMIC DISHONESTY FRAMEWORK

In addition to producing college graduates with integrity, the merits for dialogue about and a framework to attack academic dishonesty include the lack of a clear definition of academic honesty, evidence from the literature of the existence of academic dishonesty, and the inability to pinpoint students prone to academic dishonesty based on individual characteristics. The inability to pinpoint specific individual characteristics parallels the corporate fraud literature, that states the motivations of perpetrators provides a better indication of those prone to commit fraud. These motivations are commonly depicted by the fraud triangle.

Academic Dishonesty: Defined or Not

The specific definition of academic dishonesty appears to differ from institution to institution and from country to country. Differences may also exist between faculty within the same institution. For example, one faculty teaching an online course may believe cheating occurs when resources are used while completing an online exam, while another professor might assume students will use resources while completing online exams.

Professors might take for granted that students know what constitutes cheating. However, a study that requested students to identify whether they had cheated, both before and after receiving a definition of cheating, reported more cheating behaviors after receiving a definition (Burrus et al. 2007) of academic dishonesty. The definition provided to students was the definition from one of the author's institutions. Elements of the definition included "giving or receiving of illegal aid from other persons or materials," "use of prior knowledge of contents of the test or quiz without authorization from the instructor," and discussions with others that had already completed a test (Burrus et al. 2007, p 4). Another study that highlights the differences in definition of academic dishonesty occurred when graduate-level students received the answer to a difficult quiz question "inadvertently" by a visiting scholar (Woodbine and Amirthalingam 2013). The information was "inadvertent" because the researchers had intentionally provided the information to one section of a course in order to determine whether the students would use the information to their benefit. Students used the information to correctly respond to the quiz question and when debriefed, indicated they did not believe it was cheating. However, students in a control section of the course that did not receive the information viewed it quite differently.

The evidence in the literature also suggests differences in academic dishonesty definitions across geographical boundaries and academic majors. Ukrainian students define academic dishonesty differently than U. S. students (Yukhymenko-Iescroart, 2014). Business students in Iran have a different perspective on serious academic ethical misconduct than do business students from Australia (Mirshekary and Lawrence 2009). U.S. business students view various forms of dishonesty as being more serious than do business students from the United Arab Emirates (Williams et al. 20140), yet U.S. accounting students are more likely to cheat than U.K. accounting students (Salter et al. 2011).

It is clear that the lack of a universally-accepted definition of academic dishonesty exists among faculty and across institutions of higher education, academic majors, and across geographical boundaries. Resurreccion (2012), through factor analysis, produced two overriding constructs to define academic dishonest. These two constructs are those "committed inside" [the classroom] and those committed "outside the classroom." However, online instruction and blended (online homework and/or part of the course online and part of the course face-to-face) may blur the lines between "inside" and "outside the classroom. Despite the differences, students should have a crystal-clear understanding of that which constitutes academic honesty (dishonesty) instituted in the particular environment. Some contend that Millennials need a very detailed and specific definition of cheating, as Millennials are rules-based (Wilson, 2004). In addition to the lack of a clear definition of academic dishonesty, the literature provides evidence that academic dishonesty exists.

Evidence of Academic Dishonesty

The literature overwhelmingly supports the existence of academic dishonesty in classrooms across the United States, across countries, and across academic majors within institutions of higher learning. Albrecht et al. (2009, p 5) reports on several longitudinal studies of cheating in high schools and colleges. The latter studies showed increases in cheating among high school and college students by as much as 55 percent. One study reports 80 percent of the students in the study admitted to cheating (Auger 2013). Another study reported 71 percent of the students admitted to cheating (Williams et al. 2014). However, less than five percent of students state they got caught cheating (Diekhoff et al. 1996). Teixeira and Rocha (2009, p 667) present evidence that shows an upward trend in cheating among economics' and business' students. Students believe that about 30 percent of students cheat on exams and about 45 percent cheat on written assignments (Premeaux, 2005).

Multiple studies report of cheating among students in various countries, including but not limited to China (Ma et al. 2013), the Czech Republic (Preiss et al. 2013), Iran (Ahmadi 2012) and Taiwant (Lin and Wen 2007). In addition, Teixeira (2013) provides evidence that academic cheating by business and economics students correlates with students' respective country's level of corruption. Cheating also crosses academic disciplines as it was found among business (Freire 2014, Smith and Shen 2013, Mirshekary and Lawrence 2009), engineering (Harding et al. 2012), nursing (McCabe 2009), and public relations majors (Auger 2013).

The limited evidence presented confirms the existence of academic cheating. The evidence also makes clear that cheating is not limited to one country, one institution, and/or one academic major. Academic dishonesty is pervasive and needs attention. Multiple studies appear in the literature with a focus on developing a profile of student characteristics that are prone to cheating.

Student Characteristics and Motivations

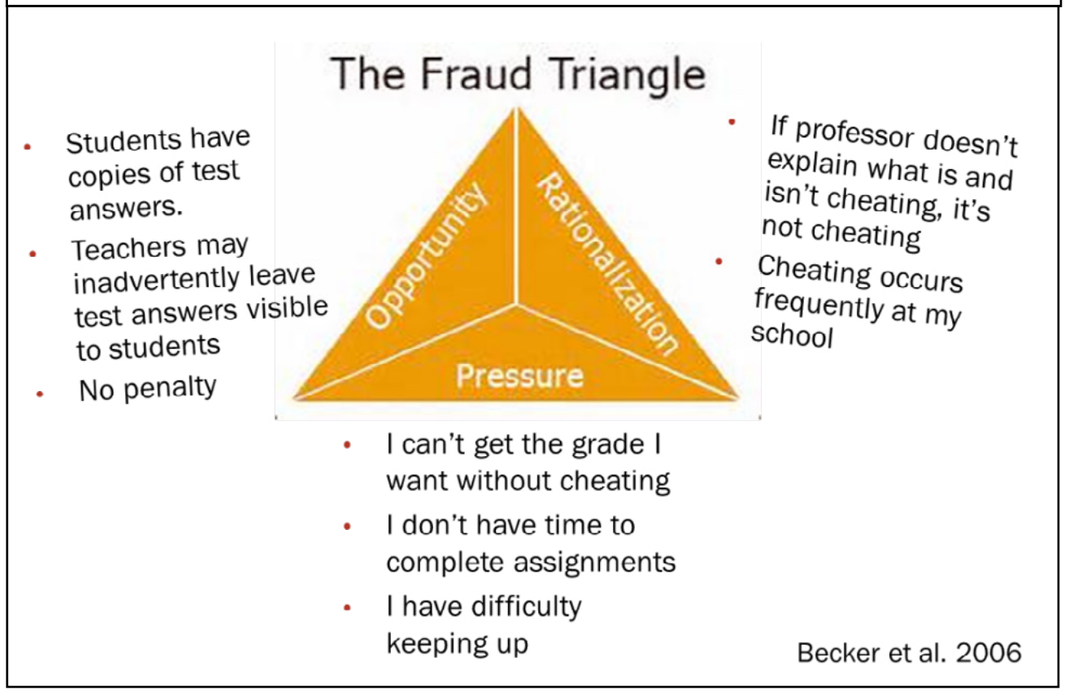
Many studies appear in the literature that attempt to identify characteristics of those inclined to commit acts of academic dishonesty. Similar to the fraud literature, personal characteristics provide little promise for the identification of those that commit acts of academic dishonesty. Gender was not significant on one study (Kerkvliet and Sigmund 1999) where others found females to be less tolerant of unethical practices (Mirshekary and Lawrence 2009) and more likely to report cheating (Smith and Shen 2013). Another study found males to be more likely to assist in cheating and that males believe cheating to be more socially acceptable (Smyth and Davis 2003). However, the same study found females are less likely to admit to cheating (Smyth and Davis 2003). Academic major, alcohol consumption, and average hours a week studying was not significantly correlated to cheating (Kerkvliet and Sigmund 1999). The lack of academic major in Kerkvliet and Sigmund (1999) is in contrast to earlier mentioned studies where differences were found among academic majors (Teixeira and Rocha 2009).

Academics could learn from those that fight corporate fraud, by moving away from the characteristics of the offender and to the motivations behind the dishonest act. The fraud literature reveals that the attack on fraud begins with the identification of the elements that appear in the three-pronged fraud triangle: (1) pressure (incentive), (2) opportunity, and (3) rationalization (Cressey 1973).

Becker et al. (2006) research on student cheating resulted in Cressey's fraud triangle to explain cheating. They found a positive relationship between the three elements of the fraud triangle and academic dishonesty. Students completed a Likert-type survey with responses subsequently factor analyzed to identify common constructs (Becker et al. 2006). The resulting constructs were labeled pressure, opportunity, and rationalization; the three points of the fraud triangle (see Figure 1).

The Association of Certified Fraud Examiners (ACFE, The Fraud Triangle) describes a chronology of the three points on the triangle. First, pressure needs to exist. From the perspective of academic dishonesty, this pressure might come from the desire to obtain specific grade within the time frame available for earning that grade (Becker et al. 2006, Kerkvliet and Sigmund 1999). After the pressure appears, the perpetrator identifies an opportunity to commit the dishonest act without getting caught (ACFE, The Fraud Triangle). This opportunity might arise from a lack of proctors, too few exam proctors, graduate assistants proctoring exams (Kerkvliet and Sigmund 1999), other

Figure 1
Academic Dishonesty and the Fraud Triangle
(illustration original to this paper derived from the fraud triangle and Becker et al. 2006 results)



students providing answers to exam questions (Becker et al. 2006), faculty's lack of action to deter academic dishonesty (Becker et al. 2006). Finally, the perpetrator must be able to rationalize, or make the action acceptable to oneself (ACFE, The Fraud Triangle). Rationalizations that appear in Becker et al. (2006) includes, among others, "If a professor does not explain what he/she considers cheating, the professor can't say I cheated" and "The penalties for academic dishonesty at our school are not severe." Additional rationalizations might include "it's only college," "it's only a course," "everybody does it," and/or "it's only required for my major but I'll never need it."

The evidence presented thus far clearly suggests that academic dishonesty is a problem in institutions of higher education. Lacking a clear definition of academic dishonesty as an issue appears with students rationalizing cheating behavior with "faculty not explaining what he/she considers cheating" (Booker et al. 2006). Additional evidence of the problem appears with the limited evidence presented of studies on academic dishonesty and research attempting to identify characteristics of those who cheat.

FRAMEWORK: ATTACK ON ACADEMIC DISHONESTY

The proposed framework draws on the corporate fraud literature that describes method to attach corporate fraud. More specifically, the proposal offers a four-pronged attack on academic dishonesty that includes prevention, detection, investigation, and follow-up (see Figure 2).

Prevention (Deterrence)

The academic community, in many cases, follows the approach found in the corporate world to prevent fraud. That is, prevention efforts predominantly appear in the form of removing opportunities, mainly by implementing controls. Security over exams, calculated questions, different colored paper, different versions of the same exam, a seat between students, online proctoring services, walking around the room while students take exams, etc., represent controls to minimize academic dishonesty. Hollinger and Lanza-Kaduce (1996) reveal that many of these mechanisms reduce cheating in the classroom.

Internal control methods implemented in the corporate world to prevent fraud include a strong tone at the top, meaningful codes of conduct, employee activity monitoring, whistleblower hotlines, and perpetrator punishment (Dorminey et al. 2012). These same mechanisms could easily be implemented in higher education classrooms and/or institutions.

Tone at the Top

As in industry, tone at the top of institutions in higher education is equally important. Tone at the top refers to appropriate modeling of actions and behaviors by those in administrative power. The accounting and auditing profession state the tone at the top is the foundation of internal controls (COSO 1987, 1992, 2004, 2013). Appropriate modeling by those at the top of the organization provides examples from which employees draw when determining their individual actions within the organization.

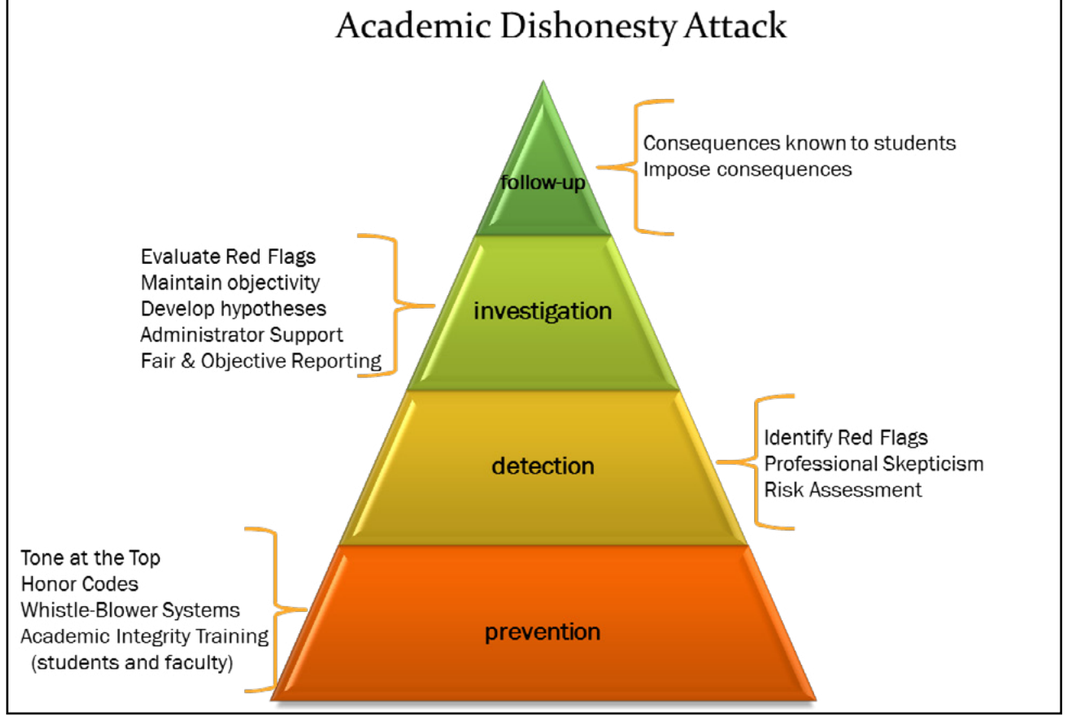
From a student's perspective, tone at the top includes not only the university President, Vice Presidents, and Deans, but also faculty. However students' perceptions of faculty are not so enlightening. Students were found to be more ethical than faculty regarding faculty activities (Marshall et al. 1997). Turkish students' view faculty's classroom and professional behavior is negative (Ozcan et al. 2013). Faculty and/or administrators that ignore suspected cheating send a negative message, as identified in Becker (2006) where students indicated penalties for academic dishonesty were not severe at their school. Despite what might appear as a propensity for students to cheat in school, over 90 percent of 1,045 advertising students view working for a company with high ethical standards as important (Fullerton et al. 2013).

Two studies present evidence that faculty ignore suspected cheating (Tabachnick et al., 1992; Coren, 2011). Keith-Spiegel et al. (1998) report that reasons faculty ignore cheating include "insufficient evidence, stress, effort, fear, and denial" (cf Liebler 2012, p 328). Other studies report that faculty (Volpe et al., 2008) and business deans (Brown et al., 2010) underestimate the amount of cheating that occurs. As a foundational piece to the framework to fight academic dishonesty, it is critically important that faculty and administrators pay heed to the messages sent to students by not giving acts of academic dishonesty appropriate attention.

Honor Codes

Research on honor codes indicates honor codes prove successful in reducing cheating in the classroom (Ely et al. 2013). University honor codes have also shown to reduce cheating in the classroom (Canning 1956, McCabe et al. 1999) and subsequently, in the workplace (Raaf 2004, McCabe et al., 1996, Sims 1993). Burrus et al. (2007) found that students at institutions with honor codes are less likely to admit to cheating than students at institutions without honor codes. Fortunately the studies that found honor codes reduce cheating were based on empirical results and not students' perceptions.

FIGURE 2
ATTACK ON ACADEMIC DISHONESTY FRAMEWORK



The mere existence of an honor code may not be enough to deter cheating. Reminders of the honor code may be necessary to reduce cheating (Bing et al. 2012). In addition, awareness and enforcement of the honor code is critical in deterring student cheating (O'Neill and Pfeiffer 2012, Pauli et al. 2014).

Whistleblower Hotlines

Student monitoring of peers and whistleblowing may be activities that need cultivating. Students may view "ratting out" or "telling" as negatives. A culture that tells one not to be a "tattle tale" from a very young age makes it difficult for many students to reveal known acts of academic integrity. MacGregor and Stucks (2014) find that a group of accounting graduate students "remains fallaciously silent" (p 149) when faced with "telling." Evidence reveals that accounting students are also hesitant to report faculty misconduct (Jones et al. 2014).

The Sarbanes-Oxley Act of 2002 called for the institution of whistleblower systems, with a prohibition against retaliating against whistleblowers. In 2015, the Office of Whistleblowers (OWB) received an increase of 30 percent in whistleblower tips over the number of 2012 tips. The OWB states the increase may be due to the awareness of the awarding of tens of millions of dollars to whistleblowers (SEC 2015, p 1). Most students do not have whistleblower systems, and certainly not a system that provides financial rewards. However, students that admit to having cheated in the past support incentives and cash rewards for whistleblowing (Bernardi et al. 2016).

Academic Training

Albrecht et al. (2009) suggest fraud training as a method to prevent corporate fraud. Extending fraud training to the academic environment, via discussions of ethical issues in class, reveals a reduction of the acceptance of cheating (Molnar and Kletke 2012). Academic honesty train-

ing should extend beyond the basic "rules" of conduct, as Gu and Neesham (2014) reveal that rules-based training without self-reflection does little to internalize, and thus enhance, ethical decision-making (academic honesty). In addition, faculty and administrators, as well as students, should be involved with the training.

Academic honesty/dishonesty training, on a semester-by-semester basis, highlights the importance the university, college, and faculty place on integrity. A beginning of the semester training aligned with a professional organization such as The Center for the Public Trust (multi-disciplinary student and professional organizations with a focus on ethical leadership), Beta Alpha Psi (accounting), local Chamber of Commerce, or DECA (marketing and other business majors) might prove beneficial. The training might be required for all students with the training culminating with a ceremony and signing of a "pledge to integrity" (academic honesty). The training and pledge would serve as a constant reminder of the importance of integrity as a student. Training might address the typical pressures and rationalizations faced/used by students to cheat. Appropriate academic honesty behaviors might also prove beneficial in the training.

Equally important to other elements of training, a clear definition of academic integrity should appear in the training. Vignettes and/or role playing scenarios could be used to highlight what constitutes appropriate behavior. It is also equally important that consequences of academic integrity be an integral portion of the training.

Consequences and Penalties

The fraud literature suggests that known consequences and penalties deter corporate fraud (Albrecht et al. 2009). Crown and Spiller (1998) provide evidence of the same deterrent (preventive) effect on academic cheating. Molnar and Kletke (2012) found that the enforcement of consequences to cheating reduces the acceptability of cheating. As noted in Becker et al. (2006), the lack of follow-through with consequences provides a rationalization for students to cheat.

The ideal environment includes preventive measures to keep all students honest. In addition to specific classroom measures to prevent cheating, an appropriate tone at the top, honor codes, whistleblower systems and academic training may all help to prevent cheating. Despite measures to prevent cheating, most faculty have witnessed indications, or red flags, of cheating.

Detection (red flags)

Detection simply means the identification of suspicious activity, versus a verdict of guilty. Albrecht et al. (2009) states that fraud detection begins with the identification of suspicious activity (red flags, indicators, or symptoms), but also states that the suspicious activity might not actually be fraud (p. 82). They identify methods of detection include chance, reports by others (e.g. hotlines or whistleblower systems), and examining data to identify anomalies (Albrecht et al. 2009). These same concepts apply in the academy; however, faculty and administrators must be willing to acknowledge that cheating occurs. As noted earlier, many faculty prefer not to face the existence of cheating (Keith-Spiegel et al. 1998) and business deans underestimate the amount of cheating that occurs (Volpe et al. 2008).

It is acknowledged that administrators may not support faculty pursuing acts of cheating, and that leaving red flags unnoticed is easier. It is also acknowledged that the red flags may not be cheating or strong evidence of cheating. However, faculty must pursue red flags to build an environment with high academic integrity.

Drawing on the work of Dorminey et al. (2012), detection or the identification of red flags requires professional skepticism and risk assessment. Professional skepticism might suggest that educators pursue that which appears out of the ordinary. For example, a student that earns a "D" two times, in the same course when completed in the face-to-face environment but makes an "A" when enrolled in the same course in the online environment would certainly appear to be out of the ordinary and worth pursuing.

Risk assessment involves evaluating the environment in which the dishonest act occurred, in addition to identifying the likelihood and magnitude of the act (Dorminey et al. 2012). From an academic perspective, the environments include inside the physical classroom, students' study places, and online course delivery. The literature indicates that students are less likely to cheat when they believe they are being watched (Chen et al. 2014). However, many faculty acknowledge students might attempt to cheat right under the professor's nose (e.g. water bottles with material printed and affixed inside of the bottle, cheat sheets attached to the inside of ball caps, and now … small listening devices linked to a phone or MP3 player). Despite the brave that chance in-class cheating activities, online students typically are not being watched. In addition, online homework completed by both face-to-face and online students typically is not "watched."

The magnitude of cheating should be considered in light of the impact on education programs, the academy, the respective professions, and society as a whole. A long-term impact exists with the frauds of the late 1990s that rocked corporate America. The like of the Enron, MCI WorldCom, and HealthSouth frauds resulted in major corporate legislation. Corporate Boards of Directors, CEOs, and CFOs, as well as publicly-traded companies saw additional restrictions and costly documentation procedures, and well as additional responsibilities for financial reporting.

Ignoring red flags (documented by the whistleblower in the Enron case) were overlooked and caused devastation to the organizations and their creditors, employees, and retirees of those organizations. As the producers of individuals that eventually work in corporate America, red flags in the academic environment should not be ignored. All red flags should be investigated.

Investigation

Red flags should be carefully investigated with professional skepticism and objectivity. Faculty should avoid jumping to the conclusion that cheating occurred without properly investigating the red flag. For example, an investigation of two students submitting work from the same IP address (red flag) may indicate they are roommates.

Elements provided by Albrecht et al. (2009, p 85). First, investigations follow the identification of red flags. Second, faculty objectivity is critical. Faculty should avoid personalizing students cheating. Typically, students are cheating to get a better grade, versus "get the teacher." Investigations to "look for" evidence or "to get them" is not objective. Extending the example of the two online students submitting work from the same IP address, might reveal they completed all work at the same time of the day/night. Although somewhat condemning, further investigation might reveal they work and attend school during the same hours, leaving the same hours in which to complete online work.

Third, a critically important component of the investigation is the support of supervisors or administrators in the academic chain of command or others in the institutional environment responsible for academic honesty violations. Fourth, faculty should present evidence objectively and with openness to questions from institution personnel. Above all else, adherence to the institution's written policies and process for investigating acts of academic dishonesty is critical.

Follow-Up

Albrecht et al. (2009) note that perpetrators fear fraud investigations because of the damage caused to one's reputation at work, in the community, and with their family. Similarly, Diekoff et al. (1996) reports students indicate a fear of getting caught as a deterrent to cheating. In addition to serving as a prevention method, following up on acts of academic dishonesty sends a confirming message to students that cheating will not be tolerated, consequences to cheating exist, and consequences will be enforced. Consequences of cheating should appear on the course syllabi and should be adhered to for confirmed cheating incidents.

Vance and Jimenez-Angueira (2014) indirectly imply that faculty should penalize dishonest students, indicating that failure to do such could be viewed as violating the profession's Code of Professional Conduct. Others, possibly disenchanted with the value of the current ethics-type course suggest training that shifts the focus from codes of conduct sessions to ethical situations (Mastracchio et al. 2015).

ISSUES TO ATTACKING ACADEMIC DISHONESTY

Possibly one of the biggest issues to attacking academic dishonesty is the willingness of administrators to acknowledge problems exist and work to minimize the extent to which academic dishonesty exists. This issue is presented as a reality, a reality in which to resolve, not brush under the carpet. Administrator support in modeling appropriate behavior and supporting consequences are both critical. Administrators likely model appropriate behavior; however, imposing consequences may be an issue. Initial efforts to implement an institution-wide academic honesty program (whereby offenders will face consequences) or attack on academic dishonesty may result in numerous student appeals and possibly parents visiting administrators' offices. Care must be taken when handling academic dishonesty in order to prevent reduced enrollments that may result from "news of academic fraud" appearing as headlines in the local newspapers.

A separate issue involves the investment of faculty and administrator time to identify the red flags, investigate, interview alleged offenders, and make the determination that academic honesty was actually breached. Follow-up time investments include written reports documenting due process afforded to the student and adherence to the university-approved process.

SUMMARY

Various pressures, opportunities, and the ability to rationalize serve as the foundation for students to commit academic fraud. This very act comes at the expense of not only the integrity of the academy, but at the expense of the student's integrity.

This paper proposes a comprehensive framework for attaching academic fraud (cheating). Based on the corporate fraud literature, the framework consists of prevention, detection, investigation, and follow-up. As a pre-cursor to the attack on academic dishonesty, academic dishonesty must be clearly defined and the environment evaluated.

This environment includes the tone at the top, or the tone of administrators within the higher-institution environment. These administrators and faculty must walk the walk, and talk the talk. They must support efforts to eradicate academic dishonesty to ensure a successful program. Policies and programs that discourage academic dishonesty (beyond a printed code of student conduct that appears somewhere on the institution's website) should be in place.

Prevention controls, in addition to the tone at the top and specific course controls, to prevent cheating include honor codes, whistleblower hotlines, and academic training for students, faculty, and administrators. In addition, consequences should be well-known and implemented when proven acts of academic dishonesty emerge. Faculty should be mindful of detecting red flags and investigate when appropriate. The investigation should be conducted with an objective mindset and conducted in accordance with institution policy. Finally, following-up on the identified academic cheating incident should result in imposed consequences.

FUTURE RESEARCH

Several research ideas emerge from the proposed framework presented in this study. The results of a study to develop a universally-acceptable definition of academic dishonesty would prove useful as institutions implement a sound attack on academic dishonesty. Specific methods to prevent online cheating, an area more susceptible to cheating would be beneficial to the academy. Research into training methods for students, faculty, and administrators would lead to ideas for academic integrity training programs. A longitudinal study of students that complete training programs specifically targeting academic integrity and institutions that implement such programs would add validity, or not, to the use of training programs. These studies might follow students as they graduate and enter the workforce.

A study of faculty, across institutions, perceptions of administrative support when pursuing acts of academic honesty violations would be enlightening, especially given the evidence that deans of colleges of business underestimate the level of academic dishonesty. A comparison of faculty and other administrators in colleges/universities with and without academic honor codes might also prove valuable. An investigation of institutions' student conduct officers and their methods for addressing academic fraud, the percentage of the student population in which cases were reported, the consequences imposed, and whether repeat offenders were tracked and/or addressed would be of interest.

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Sexual Assaults on College Campuses

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ABSTRACT

Recent sexual assault scandals have brought public attention to the fact that there is a need for colleges to aggressively address the issues surrounding sexual assaults on their campuses. Studies indicate that one in four women are being sexually assaulted each year, but few women report this. Women suffer major psychological issues when assaulted. Federal laws and college prevention programs seem to have little effect on the occurrence of sexual assaults. Features common to most sexual assaults can be identified. This paper provides information from pertinent statistical studies, the laws addressing sexual assaults, the commonalities within occurrences, and the lack of transparency in reporting crime data. Prevention programs exist but show limited success, and this paper proposes a comprehensive prevention program for college campuses.

Recent accounts of inappropriate, undesired, and criminal sexual activities ranging from groping to rape have highlighted an ongoing problem on college campuses. This is not a new issue. Research studies from as early as 1957 have shown the frequency and commonality of sexual assaults on college campuses (Kirkpatrick & Kanin, 1957; Koss, Gidycz & Wisniewski, 1987; "One in Four," n.d.; Krebs, Lindquist, Warner, Fisher, & Martin, 2007; Krebs & Lindquist, 2014). It is generally accepted that one in four women (25%) on college campuses report being sexually assaulted at some point in their lives, while nationally 17% of American women have been victims of sexual assault (Caruso, n.d.). It is significant that the percentage of women being sexually assaulted on college campuses has not decreased significantly over the years.

SEXUAL ASSAULT LAWS

According to the U.S. Department of Justice (n.d.), sexual assault is defined as "any type of sexual contact or behavior that occurs without the explicit consent of the recipient." This includes rape, attempted rape, fondling, and other forcible sexual actions. Most of the 50 states have criminal laws that address sexual assaults. (Laws in Mississippi and Idaho do not include unwanted sexual touching such as groping and fondling in their definitions.) In most states these acts are classified as misdemeanors or felonies (Yeung, 2015). However, college campuses appear to be independently governed and isolated from the state laws which deal with sexual assault, although some colleges include references to state and federal laws in their policies for handling sexual assaults.

Several federal laws specifically applicable to colleges deal with handling sexual harassment and sexual assault cases and the reporting of criminal statistics. Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 prohibits discrimination on the basis of sex in any educational program or activity that receives federal funding. Title IX addresses sexual harassment, sexual violence, or any gender-based discrimination that may deny a person access to educational benefits and opportunities.

The Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Security Policy and Campus Crime Statistics Act of 1990 aims to guar-

antee transparency regarding campus crime, policies and statistics. All colleges receiving financial aid are required to keep and disclose to the U.S. Department of Education information about crime on or near the campus. The Department of Education can impose penalties up to $35,000 per violation and can suspend financial aid to the institutions found to be in violation (Department of Education, 2016).

Part of the continuing problem with sexual assault on college campuses is that neither Title IX nor the Clery Act provide criminal penalties for failure to adhere to the law. Recent sexual assault scandals have highlighted numerous issues regarding the handling of sexual assaults by colleges and the fact that there is no significant legal penalty for infractions. Sexual assaults involving athletes are of particular concern. Accusations against players can take years to investigate and often action is taken only after external media reports have pressured the colleges to respond.

WOMEN REPORTING SEXUAL ASSAULTS

According to the Department of Justice National Crime Victimization survey1995 – 2013, "only 20% of sexual assault victims go to police" (Hefling, 2014, para. 1). Low as this number is, it may be overly generous. A study by Fisher, Cullen, and Turner (2013) found a reporting rate of less than five percent. Either way a majority of incidences go un-reported. There are many possible reasons for this failure to report sexual assaults. According to Kilpatrick et al., "Major barriers to reporting rape to law enforcement included: 1) not wanting others to know about the rape, 2) fear of retaliation, 3) perception of insufficient evidence, 4) uncertainty about how to report, and 5) uncertainty about whether a crime was committed or whether harm was intended" (Kilpatrick, Resnick, Ruggierio, Conoscenti, & McCauley, 2007, pp. 2-3).

Additionally, women may see little action taken against the perpetrator in the internal disciplinary process. In 2014, Kingkade reported that "less than one-third of students found responsible for sexual assault are expelled from their colleges" (para. 11). Also, simple expulsion still allows a student to go to school elsewhere, since disciplinary actions against students are not usually noted on transcripts. The Association for Student Conduct Administration (ASCA), an association founded in 1986 to support campus judicial officers, does not endorse "punitive" action when handling campus rapes (Kingkade). In most states, sexual assault, rape and statutory rape are punishable with prison time. The disciplinary actions taken by colleges against perpetrators of sexual assaults on campus do not reflect the punitive actions meted out by the law in such cases.

COMMONALITIES OF SEXUAL ASSAULTS

In reviewing the literature with the intent to identify the circumstances most common to sexual assaults, the authors identified the following significant factors.

1. Alcohol Use- is most common risk factor associated with sexual assault on campus, according to a number of studies, including the campus sexual assault study by the National Institute of Justice. "In 72-81% of cases in which a male rapes a female student, the female is intoxicated" (Lisak, Gardinier, Nicksa, & Cote, 2010, p. 13). Another study noted that "the highest rape risk situation for both adult women and college women is not being rendered intoxicated and incapacitated by others; it is being taken advantage by a sexual predator after she has become intoxicated voluntarily" (Kilpatrick, Resnick, Ruggierio, Conoscenti & McCauley , 2007, p. 58).
2. Living in Residential Housing- a 10-year study conducted on Massachusetts's college and university campuses by the Massachusetts Executive Office of Public Safety and Security reported that "81% of all reported rapes and assaults occurred in dormitories" (Peters, 2016, p.7). Additionally, Tomer notes that "90% of all colleges have at least one co-ed dorm and more than 150 colleges ... now allow some or all students to share a room with anyone they choose" (n.d., para. 3).
3. **Sorority Membership-** Research shows that women who belong to a sorority are more likely than non-sorority members to be sexually assaulted. According to the National Institute of Justice, "Almost a quarter of sexual assault victims were sorority members, whereas only 14 percent of non-victims were sorority members" (2008, para. 2).
4. Knowledge of predator- 60% of rapes on college campuses are committed by a person with whom the survivor is acquainted. Additionally, 32% are romantic partners (Zinzow & Thompson, 2011, p. 715).
5. Numerous sex partners- "Women who reported having more sexual partners since entering college were more likely to have reported forced sexual assault" (National Institute of Justice, 2008, para. 3).
6. Freshman and sophomore status- "The first two years of college are the highest risk years" according to the National Institute of Justice (2008, para. 4).
7. Time of year- The highest risk period occurs during the first few months of the academic year according to the National Institute of Justice (2008, para. 4). According to the Rape, Abuse and Incest National Network (RAINN) (n.d.), more than 50% of college sexual assaults occur during the months of August, September, October and November.
8. Day and time of week- More than half of sexual assaults take place on weekends, and more than half occur between midnight and 6 a.m., according to the National Institute of Justice. Campus activities also impact assaults. "Division 1 college football games significantly increase reports of rape involving college-age victims. The estimates are largest for rapes in which offenders are also college-age and are unknown to the victim" (Lindo, Siminski, & Swensen, 2016, p. 21).

MENTAL HEALTH CONSEQUENCES OF SEXUAL ASSAULT

Sexual assaults are traumatic and impact the victim's physical and mental health long after the actual occurrence. "Study findings provided substantial support for the fact that rape increases risk for PTSD, major depression, and substance abuse" (Kilpatrick, 2007, p. 5).

Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PSTD)- "Within the past 20 years, we have learned that the mental health effects of this crime are devastating as rape survivors are the largest group of persons with post-traumatic stress disorder" (Campbell & Wasco, 2005.)

Major depression can lead to thoughts of suicide. According Caruso, 33% of rape victims have suicidal thoughts and 13% attempt suicide. (Caruso).

Substance Abuse- Women who have experienced sexual assaults have a higher risk of problem drinking and drug use (Ullman, Relyea, Hagene, & Vasquez, 2013).

RECENT PUBLICITY FOCUSING ATTENTION ON HANDLING OF SEXUAL ASSAULTS ON CAMPUSES

The Hunting Ground, a controversial documentary released in February, 2015, showcased the stories of women who alleged sexual assaults at their universities and of university administrators who ignored them or made it difficult for them to navigate the system to report their assault. The colleges mentioned included Harvard, the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, Amherst College, and Notre Dame. It also examined the Sigma Alpha Epsilon fraternity (Ziering & Dick).

In December of 2014 Harvard University Law School settled a sex assault case involving two student complaints. The U.S. Department of Education had found that "the Law School had failed to respond properly to two students' complaints of sexual assault and had violated federal rules governing how sexual harassment and assault complaints are handled" (Johnson & Ellement, para. 1). Following this settlement Harvard made changes in its policies for handling reports or sexual assaults and harassment.

Baylor University faced a major scandal starting in 2012 with the arrest and indictment of one former Baylor football player for two counts of sexual assault. After another player was indicted for sexual assault in 2015, Baylor hired an outside law firm to investigate. Their May 2016 report found multiple "institutional failures at every level of Baylor's administration" (Baylor University, 2016, p.5). In October 2016 the federal government announced that it was formally investigating whether Baylor had violated Title IX in its handling of sexual assault on campus. In 2017 a court case was filed alleging that 31 football players committed at least 52 rapes (Mervosh, 2017). Baylor's sexual assault scandal resulted in the firing of the head football coach, Art Biles, along with the athletic director and the President, Ken Starr.

LIMITATIONS OF PRESENT PREVENTION PROGRAMS

While most universities have adopted sexual assault prevention programs designed to provide training and increase awareness among students and staff, the problem persists. At some universities, the number of sexual assault cases is even increasing. The standard approach taken in current preventative programs has several problems:

1. Overall attendance is poor with low male attendance noted
2. Programming may lack a consistent focus on sexual assault
3. Programs may be time-limited, typically offered only during sexual assault awareness week/ month, generally in April

4. Programming may not occur in the Fall when it is most relevant to frequency of sexual assaults
5. Impact measurements were not always performed (O'Donohue, Lloyd, & Newlends, 2016)

Given the seriousness of sexual assault on our nation's universities and the fact that the numbers are higher than within the general population, it appears that more can and should be done to address the issues.

For this paper, the authors reviewed information available from nine universities in three southeastern states. All of the universities address sexual assault/sexual misconduct in their materials and on their websites and employ some type of awareness program. All of them:

- have relevant campus policies including references to Title IX
- provide training or employ programs for all interested students specific to safe conduct in order to avoid being a victim
- have staff/resources designated to support sexual assault victims
- include crime statistics (including sexual assault) for on-campus and off-site facilities

Of the nine universities studied, most emphasize how to avoid being a victim or what to do once a student becomes a victim of sexual assault. Little emphasis is placed on the responsibilities of the male student who (in most cases) is the perpetrator of sexual crimes. Additionally, there is a recent trend in training the "bystander" who witnesses violence against individuals. Bystanders are trained to take some sort of action that interrupts the perpetrator's intentions, real or perceived. Again, while these programs and types of training have merit, more emphasis needs to be placed on the likely perpetrators of sexual assaults. The argument that prevention is key to reducing sexual assaults should be obvious. It is logical to assume that changing the campus culture and mindsets of students should be key to reducing the number of sexual assault victims. Further, "Findings suggest that students are concerned with safety, students want more education regarding sexual violence, and they value services that offer protection from incidents of sexual violence on campus" (Garcia, Lechner, Frerich, Lust, & Eisenberg, 2012, p. 1).

End Rape on Campus (EROC), a survivor advocacy organization founded in 2013 by students, survivors and professors, believes that campus sexual violence must be addressed through a combination of survivor support, direct education, and policy reform (EROC.org, n.d.).

PROPOSED PREVENTION PROGRAM: STRAIGHT TALK ABOUT SEXUAL ASSAULTS

The authors propose a prevention program entitled Straight Talk about Sexual Assault. The prevention program is designed to overcome the limitations of other prevention programs. The program includes: 1) two mandatory courses, one for women and one for men, 2) a clearly defined and communicated process for reporting assaults to hospital, police, and college, 3) a robust crisis/sexual assault counseling center with highly trained personnel, 4) a student advocate service, 5) changes in residential housing, and 6) an impact assessment program to determine the success of the prevention program. The following defines the program.

Mandatory Course: Straight Talk to Women about Sexual Assaults

The mandatory course for women will be taught in the fall semester each year and will contain the following content:

1. Self-esteem, self-worth, and self-value/self-respect education
2. Legal definitions of sexual assault as determined by state laws
3. High risk situations that lead to an increased risk of sexual assault
4. Importance of bystander intervention
5. Self-defense and martial arts training
6. Guest speakers–women who have experienced sexual assaults, hospital personnel who handle sexual assaults, police who handle sexual assaults.
7. Explanation of emotional stages women go through immediately following a sexual assault and the need to move through stages quickly in order to take immediate action
8. Procedures for reporting: calling 911, going to hospital, notifying police and college
9. Support services available: introduction of personnel in counseling center and student advocate services
10. Responsibility and accountability statement for choices and behaviors, with a signed statement of acknowledgement

Mandatory Course: Straight Talk to Men about Sexual Assaults

The mandatory course for men will be taught in the fall semester each year and will contain the following content:

1. Self-esteem, self-worth, and self-value education and respect for self and women
2. Legal definitions of sexual assault as determined by state laws, and legal, social, personal, and career consequences of committing a sexual assault
3. High-risk situations that lead to the increased risk of sexual assault
4. Importance of bystander intervention
5. Guest speakers–women and men who have experienced sexual assaults as victims or perpetrators; police, lawyers and physicians handling sexual assault cases
6. Explanation of emotional stages women and men go through following a sexual assault and the need to move through stages quickly to report immediately.
7. Procedure for calling 911, going to hospital, and reporting to police and college
8. Support services available: counseling center and student advocate services
9. Responsibility/Accountability Statements outlining the responsibilities students have for their own choices and behaviors and the consequences of ignoring these. The statement should to be signed by all students taking the course.

Written Policy and Procedures for Reporting and Handling Assaults to Hospital, Police, College and Family

These policies and procedures will be part of yearly training for all college personnel and will be discussed in the course.

Crisis/Sexual Assault Counseling Center

This center is staffed by counselors highly trained in crisis and sexual assault management.

Student Advocate Service

This would be a service manned by volunteers, such as retired lawyers, police, teachers, victims, and counselors trained to be advocates for students who have experienced sexual assault.

Residential Housing Changes

Reexamine security in residence halls and rethink the use of co-ed dorms given the number of sexual assaults occurring there.

Impact Assessment Program

A formal assessment plan including procedures for data collection, analysis of data, and recommendations for changes or improvements in the prevention program.

CONCLUSION

Media coverage of recent sexual assault scandals on college campuses has brought the continuing occurrence of assaults to public awareness and illustrates the failure of current efforts to combat this problem. The fact that one in four women (25%) experience sexual assault on campuses is not acceptable. Clearly there is a need to review what is being done to prevent sexual assaults on college campuses and improve the situation. Two federal laws aimed at reducing the prevalence of these cases, Title IX and the Clery Act, have not had a significant impact.

A review of prevention programs at nine southeastern universities showed an emphasis on safety training and post-incident support for potential victims. None of the colleges had programs especially aimed at prevention or tailored for the potential perpetrator. Further research identified some common risk factors which could be used to develop a more robust and effective prevention program and improve campus culture to reduce sexual assaults. Using the information garnered from the research, a robust, comprehensive, no-nonsense prevention program has been developed. The proposed program is described in this paper. The authors intend to test the program in the near future. The program assessment component will be used to evaluate overall effectiveness and identify changes needed to improve the program's content and results.

It is believed that implementation of the proposed prevention program can have a meaningful impact on college campuses by reducing the incidence of sexual assault and by expanding and strengthening the services available to victims.

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Assessing the Effectiveness of Learning Opportunities: Improving Course Availability through Demand Balancing

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ABSTRACT

Four-year graduation rates have become a key performance measure for the institutions of higher education. However, with less than 30% of the first-time freshmen being able to graduate in four years from a four-year program suggests an investigation of the factors that affect a timely progress of students through their course of study. Many would argue that the poor college preparation of our high school students is to blame for low graduation rates at the institutions of higher education, a situation, which is really not in the control of these institutions. We propose that course availability can play a significant role in the timely progress of students through their course of study. This element is well under institutional control. Course availability can be affected by the pockets of varying demands of courses/classes, which exist naturally at most institutions due to scheduling constraints and the preferences of different segments of student body. Improving course availability would accelerate students' progress in their course of study, and therefore, would help improving graduation rates. In this research, we examine the course availability to students from an institutional effectiveness perspective. We propose to improve course availability through demand balancing in which the demand is strategically shifted from the high-demand segments to low-demand segments through financial incentives. Our model is based on cost minimization and, therefore, we do not propose imposing a tuition premium on high demand segments. Instead, we propose targeted outreach (marketing) with financial incentives to strategically shift demand from high demand to low demand segments. We also identify key segments of student body for highly target outreach (marketing) for maximizing the effectiveness of the proposed model.

INTRODUCTION

Would you conduct business with a company that can hardly deliver a product, and when it does, it delivers to only 20% of its customers on time? The answer to this question in all likelihood is going to be an resounding "no," no matter whom you ask. As a matter of fact, that kind of business would not remain in business for long. Then, how can we let the institutions of higher education get away with graduating only 20% of any entering class in four years from a four-year program? This seemingly very legitimate question would be mind-boggling for politicians and public alike as the graduation rates are one of the key indicators that are being used by many to assess the performance of institutions of higher education. Despite the emphasis on improving the graduation rates, they continue to be relatively low at public institutions (Hartle, 2011; Linda DeAngelo, 2011). For example, data shows that only 30% of the first-time freshmen are able to graduate in six years (six-year graduation rate) from a four-year program (Linda DeAngelo, 2011). That is, after spending 50% more time, still only 30% of an entering class was able to graduate. In the business world, this would be considered a rather poor performance. So why should we not hold the institutions of higher education accountable? Before we give the institutions of higher education a failing grade, let's take a closer look at the business of higher education. In reality, the institutions of higher education are not like ordinary businesses. Some may even argue that they should not be run like a business at all. Furthermore, the product (or service) sold by the institutions of higher education is also fairly complex.

The institutions of higher education provide a service in the form of learning opportunities or training, etc. A degree or diploma is an attestation of the level of achieve-

ment of learning or training needed in a particular area or discipline. The service provided by the institution of higher education is not to deliver a diploma in four years to the students who are signing up for a four-year program. Instead, the service provided by those institutions is the opportunity to learn and demonstrate the level of achievement in knowledge base and/or skill set needed to earn a diploma within the specific time, which is four years for a four-year diploma. An institution's obligation is to provide the opportunity and student's obligation is to learn and demonstrate his/her learning. So, the cause of failing to graduate students in four years from a four-year program can be attributed to two broad factors: (1) lack of opportunity to learn, which is solely the responsibility of the institution and (2) lack of learning, which is largely the responsibility of the students and, to some extent, shared by the institution. An institution can provide a perfect opportunity to a student to complete a four-year diploma within four years; however, if the student does not put the time and effort in acquiring knowledge and/or skill set needed for that diploma, s/he will not graduate in four years and the institution is not to be blamed for that. However, we must hold the institutions accountable if they fail to provide the opportunity.

So, what are the institutions of higher education? One common definition of an institution of higher education is that they are not-for-profit entities (true for all public and most private institutions) that provide opportunity for learning beyond secondary education with a four-year program leading to a bachelor's degree or, at least a two-year program resulting in a diploma fully applicable towards a four-year degree (20-USC-§-1001). The designation of the higher education institutions as "non-profit" for some means preclusion of business practices that an ordinary business would employ to sustain and thrive. However, institutions of higher education still have facilities to maintain, services to provide, and operations to run, all in support of its core function of providing opportunities for post-secondary education. Some people in academia may still consider the function of the institution of higher education a sacred mission of educating people for the greater good of the society that should not be contaminated by everyday business practices. However, the recipient of the services provided by the institution of higher education—students (as well as their parents) are more and more thinking and acting like a consumer with all the expectations that any consumer would have from a business (Mayes, 2002). Treating an institution of higher education like a business may still not sit well with many intellectuals in academia; however, the call for doing this goes back more than half a century (Fram, 1973; Krachenberg, 1972), where researcher have drawn parallels between business and higher education proposing business-like marketing strategies and variable pricing for tuition.

How can the best practices from the business world help the institutions of higher education to improve their key indicators such as graduation and retention rates? There are many factors that may affect one's progress into an academic program and many of them are beyond the control of any institution of higher education including poor preparation for college, personal priorities etc. However, there are other factors such as advisement and availability of the appropriate courses to facilitate a timely progress of students through the program. Maximizing the availability of the courses can accelerate the progress of students through academic programs. However, maximizing the availability of courses may result in decreased average utilization of capacity in course sections if the institution is running the courses in prime-time slots to full capacity and would end up opening new course sections in relatively less popular time slots. That may result in additional cost, which many institutions, especially public, cannot afford as they are already struggling to survive financially due to a consistent decrease in public support for these institutions over the last decade. The only choice that these institutions have is to reduce the cost of its products or services and improve efficiencies. As a non-profit entity, it is understandable that an institution of higher education's business model unlike ordinary business, should not be based on profit maximization; however, there is nothing that prohibits these institutions from following best practices in the business world to reduce cost and become more efficient. Reduced cost and improved efficiency means more qualified advisors and more course availability for our students, which can help improve graduation and retention rates.

The rest of the paper is organized as follow: Section II briefly reviews the academic product and draws parallels between academic institutions and businesses closest to academic institutions in terms of selling their product and services. Section III describes the proposed model that strategically shifts demand from high demand segments to low demand segments, both at micro and macro levels. Finally, section IV concludes the paper by identifying various target audience(s) for implementing an effective demand shifting strategy.

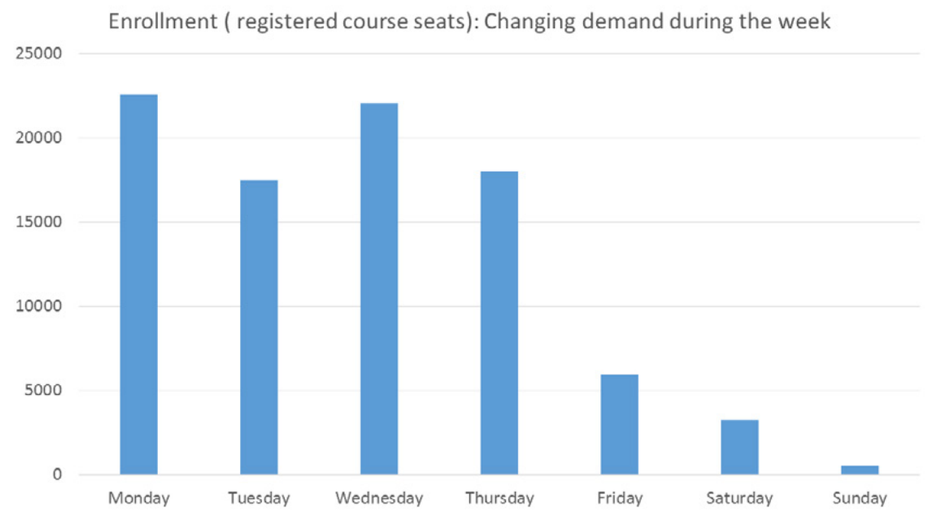
THE ACADEMIC PRODUCT

Before we can develop any framework or model for an academic institution, let's consider what exactly is being produced and sold by an academic institution. Simply put, the core product sold by the institutions of higher education is an academic credit, which is sold in unique groups of variable numbers of credits (in groups of one to four credits at most institutions) through seats in different courses (generally referred to as a course or class). Each course is unique and its demand depends upon many factors. The primary factors affecting the demand of a course are related to the nature of the course such as whether it is a part of the general education component of the curricula or a program in a specific discipline (major); and in the case of a course in a major, which major etc. Among secondary factors affecting the demand of a course is time and/or the day when the course is offered. Other factors such as the course instructor, and the perception of the course (easy or hard) may affect the demand; however, different instructors may teach different sections of the same course in the same semester. Also, in different semesters, instructors can be different thus making impact on the demand short term and individualized. Therefore, we will ignore these factors in our analysis. On the other hand, the product is seldom produced as a single unit. An example of producing a single academic credit would be a one-credit independent study. Instead, it is produced in the form of a preset number of course seats through opening a course section. Each time academic product is produced, it has a specific period of time to be sold. Any unsold products beyond the specific period of time permanently lose their potential of producing any revenue and therefore, are wasted. Clearly, producing and selling academic products (credits) is rather complex and, accordingly, any cost revenue analysis is not trivial. All public and most private institutions for higher education are not-for-profit entities and, therefore, their business model is not based on profit maximization. Instead, it is the cost minimization that can be used to improve the financial viability of these institutions.

The academic product also requires strategic selling for an effective utilization of course seat capacity, which is a challenge for every institution of higher education. Figure 1 shows what segmented demand may look like at micro level, where demand is changing with the time of the day. Figure 2 shows another view of changing demand at the micro level, where demand is changing with the day of the week. Pockets of varying demand of course seats exist both at the micro and macro levels. For example, courses that are offered from 8 AM to 10 AM time slots may not be of high interest to many students in a university in an urban area where this time slot represents a part of the morning rush hours and many people would not choose to commute during rush hour if they had a choice. So 8 AM to 10 AM time slots represent a lower demand segment at the micro level. The 10 AM to 2 PM time slots

FIGURE 1
MICRO-LEVEL VARIATION IN DEMAND
DEMAND IS NOT ONLY A FUNCTION OF A SPECIFIC COURSE BUT ALSO A FUNCTION OF THE TIME OF THE DAY.

FIGURE 2
MICRO-LEVEL VARIATION IN DEMAND
DEMAND IS NOT ONLY A FUNCTION OF A SPECIFIC COURSE BUT ALSO A FUNCTION OF THE DAY OF THE WEEK.



may represent another micro level of moderate to high demand segment as many working people can take a class during their lunch break. However, the 6 PM to 8 PM weekdays time slots represent the highest demand, micro level segment as most working people can typically take courses after work. However, as most of those working individuals want to go home and wind down in preparation for the following working day, the demand in the 8 PM to 10 PM slots may see a sharp decline.

The challenge for academic administrators is to change those pockets of low demand into the pockets of opportunity for increasing course availability and improve capacity utilization. On the other hand, summer or winter sessions represent low demand segments at the Macro level. For an institution in an urban area where there is a significant number of students are working, 6 PM to 8 PM time slots become a bottle neck in their progress towards their degree and, eventually impact overall graduation rates. Other institutions may have different segments of varying demand at the micro and macro levels depending upon their own unique situation. As long as they have the segments of varying demand, they may find our model and techniques useful in improving their capacity utilization (utilization efficiency).

Our proposed model attempts to shift the load from high demand to low demand or underutilized segments through dynamic pricing of tuition both at micro and macro levels. The dynamic pricing in our model does not impose any surcharge on tuition for registering in the peak demand segments, which was the case in previously failed attempts to introduce dynamic pricing in higher education. Instead, under our recommended model, everyone pays the same tuition regardless of the discipline or time and the day of the course. A key difference is, that it provides discounted pricing through rebates for registering the courses in specifically targeted segments such as summer or winter inter sessions, classes starting 8 AM or 8 PM or classes on Friday or weekends. The impact of this strategy is twofold: (1) It gives those people economic incentive to take additional courses who would not have done so otherwise because of financial reasons. The net result is increase in the average credit load of the students and possibly some additional revenue. (2) Anyone who would have taken courses in the peak demand segments in the absence of the economic incentives and takes the

courses in the discounted segments, would free up seats in the peak demand segments, which can then be used by other students who could not register elsewhere.

DEMAND BALANCING MODEL

Our model focuses on increasing the course availability in a cost-effective manner through a combination of strategic course offerings and dynamic tuition pricing. Figures 3 and 4 outline the proposed model at the macro and micro level, respectively. As mentioned earlier, our objective is not to maximize profit but to increase course availability in a cost-effective way. Accordingly, our dynamic pricing is based on the segmented demand and does not differentiate between disciplines. However, increased course availability would bring the most social and economic benefits when implemented strategically targeting the right audience.

Academic product has the two key characteristics (McAfee & Velde, 2006), which make a product very suitable for dynamic pricing for profit maximization. The academic product is good for short windows of time. For example, any unfilled seats in a course are wasted forever within couple of weeks after classes start. This is equivalent to having an expiration date on the product just like perishable items or hotel room or airline seats, etc. Also, the capacity is fixed well in advance (course offerings for upcoming semester, etc.) and adding capacity comes at a relatively high marginal cost. For example, adding another course means a substantial financial commitment at least initially when there are a very few or no students registered yet. Airline and hospitality industry among many, which have products with similar characteristics, have used dynamic pricing for profit maximization. Since our objective in not to maximize profits we propose to use the power of dynamic pricing to minimize the average cost of the academic product.

As mentioned earlier, the purpose of dynamic pricing is to give people incentives to take courses in low demand segments if they are able to take the courses in those segments but would not take them otherwise for whatever reason. Therefore, we propose most discounts for winter and summer sessions which represent the low demand segments at macro level. At most institutions, summer is not part of the academic year. Accordingly, most full-time faculty have their teaching assignments during the Fall

FIGURE 3
THE PROPOSED MODEL AT MACRO-LEVEL.

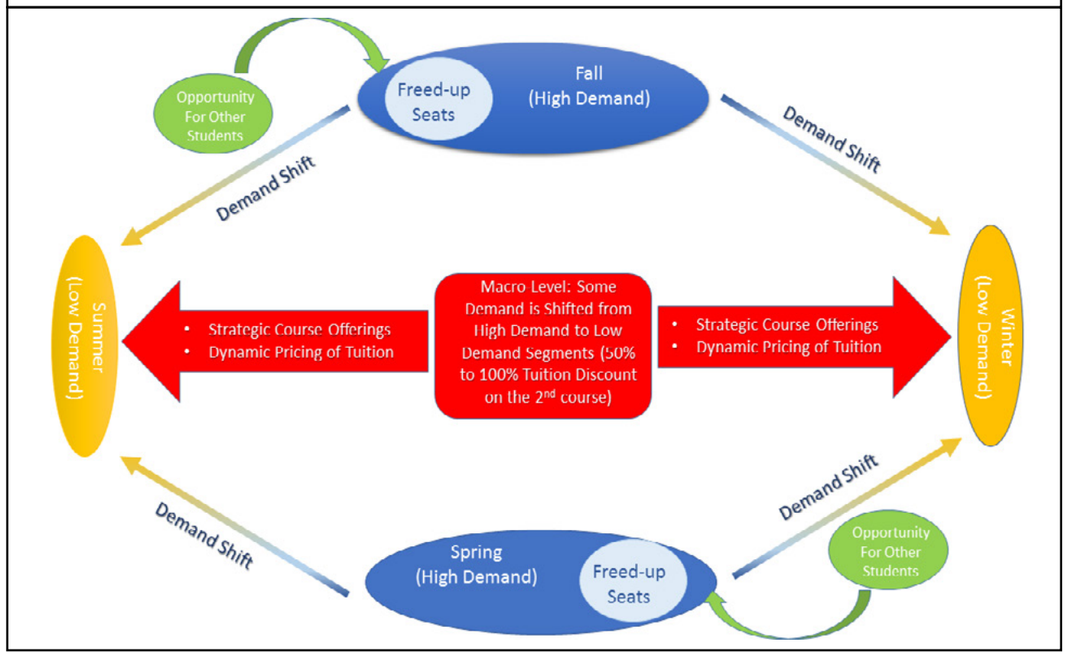
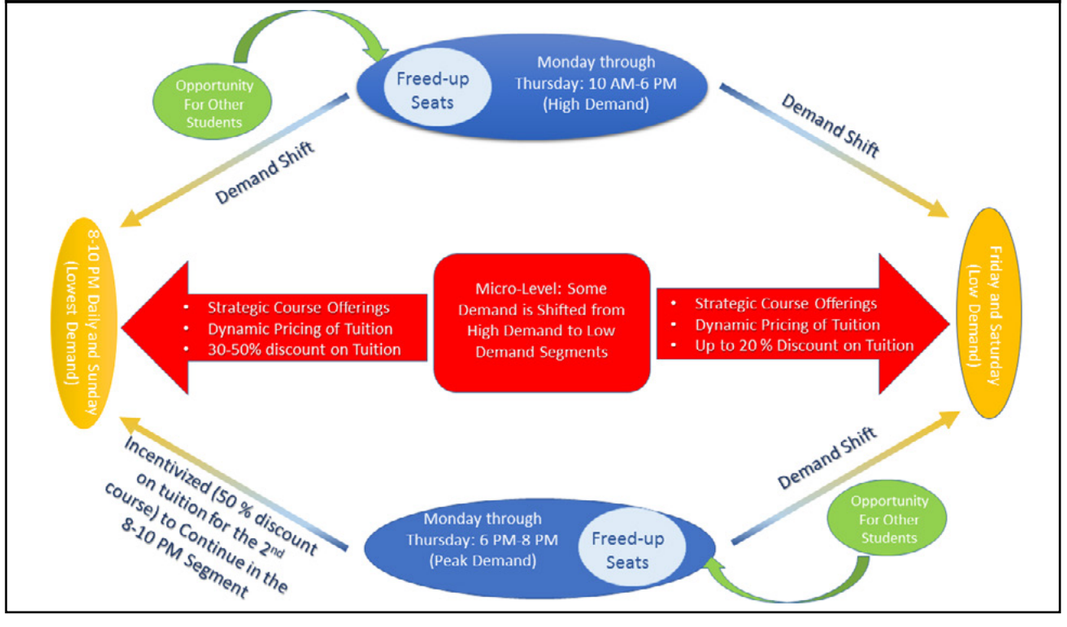


FIGURE 4
THE PROPOSED MODEL AT MICRO-LEVEL



and Spring semesters only. However, the institutions are open year-round. The fixed cost to run the institution that occurs during summer (and winter inter-session, which is a three to four-week period between Fall and Spring semesters) session is largely the same as the cost during the regular academic year. However, most classroom and laboratories are empty and therefore, are not producing any revenue. With a little additional investment (cost) in staffing, the course provides an opportunity for generating additional revenue with pretty high rate-of-return on investment (ROI). Conversely, this also provides an opportunity to the institution to take advantage of a very low marginal cost of the summer session seats and offer heavily discounted tuition pricing. This would result in social benefits such as improving retention and graduation rates as course availability improves and some demand is shifted from the Fall and Spring semesters. For example, incentives such as a second course at the half tuition or even free may be warranted for summer and winter sessions.

Similarly, the low demand segments at the micro-level such as the courses scheduled for 8 PM to 10 PM segment or on Friday through Sunday can be incentivized through varying tuition discounts depending upon the segment's existing demand. For example, 10-20% discount can be offered if one takes a course on Friday and Saturday, which are relatively low-demand segments and perhaps heavier discounts such as 30-50% discount of tuition for courses offered after 8 PM or on Sunday, which may represent the lowest demand segments at the micro level. The level of discount will depend on the institution and intended audience and each institution would need to experiment with different level of discounts to see what works best for that institution.

TARGET AUDIENCE

The best incentives would not produce desired results if they are not marketed to the right audience. What group(s) of people are the right audience for this purpose would depend on each institution's unique situation. However, there are some common traits. Understanding them would be helpful in strategically increasing the course availability as well as developing an effective marketing campaign. Students can be divided into the following broad groups:

Group I: The students in Group 1 have well defined academic goals with minimum constraints. These students would have taken courses in any segment without any incentive. This group would not cause any increase in full-time equivalent enrollment (FTE) as they maintain the same level of course load with or without any incentive. Consequently, there will not be a net gain in the social benefits. However, any financial incentive used by the students in this group may result in a net decrease in the economic benefit to the institution. For example, a student who would have taken a specific course load without any incentive would cause a net decrease in revenue if s/he uses the incentives.

Group II: The students in Group II are the ones who would not have taken the courses in the low demand segments and are drawn to the courses in those segments largely because of the financial incentives. The students in this group are likely to cause a net increase in FTE even if they maintain their course load at the same level as they would have without any incentives. This group frees up seats in high demand segments, which can be taken by the students who are constrained to higher demand segment because of their unique situations. If that happens, it would cause a net increase in FTE as well as revenue. Therefore, the students in this group would generate a net gain in the social and economic benefits. For example, any seat freed up in the 6 PM to 8 PM segment, when taken by a student who is working full time and was previously unable to take a course in 6 PM to 8 PM segment, would cause a net increase in FTE as well as speed up the progress of that student through his/her program of study. This group certainly deserve some marketing dollars, which could result in substantial gains in social and economic benefits.

Group III: The students in Group III are very price conscious and are always looking for bargains. These students would be willing to increase their course load if they find a financial incentive is sufficiently attractive. The students in this group have the highest potential to cause a net increase, both in FTE and revenue. Consequently, any use of incentives by these students would result in a net increase in both the social and economic benefits. This group should be the main target of any marketing campaign.

Group IV: The students in Group IV are specific mostly to institutions in urban areas where many working people attend a college after work making the 6 PM to 8 PM time slot the highest demand segment. As the Figure 2 shows, the utilization in the 8 PM to 10 PM segment, which is the segment immediately after the highest demand segment of 6 PM to 8 PM, drops sharply. Based on the data from Figure 2, at least 85% of those who took a class in 6 PM to 8 PM segment did not stay for another course. It is important to note these students are already on-campus. If there is anything that can keep them there for another couple of hours to attend another class that will be another source of net increase in the social and economic benefits. A significant financial incentive that can keep at least some of the students from 6 PM to 8 PM segment to stay for another class may very well be warranted.

Preliminary research into the Demand Balancing Model shows potential for both social and economic benefits including reduced costs, increased FTE and graduation rates. Our on-going research will focus on quantifying social and economic benefits. We will investigate the possibility of including a marginal cost analysis in the proposed model that can optimize course availability for a desired balance between social and economic benefits.

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We encourage the submission of manuscripts pertaining to pedagogical topics. We believe that much of the learning process is not discipline specific and that we can all benefit from looking at research and practices outside our own discipline. The ideal submission would take a general focus on learning rather than a discipline-specific perspective. For example, instead of focusing on "Motivating Students in Group Projects in Marketing Management", you might broaden the perspective to "Motivating Students in Group Projects in Upper Division Courses" or simply "Motivating Students in Group Projects" The objective here is to share your work with the larger audience.

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