

The Journal of Academic Administration In Higher Education

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The Journal of Academic Administration in Higher Education.

JAAHE is devoted to providing a venue for the distribution, discussion, and documentation of the art and science of administration of academic units in colleges and universities. A cornerstone of the philosophy that drives JAAHE, is that we all can learn from the research, practices, and techniques of administration in discipline-based units other than our own. The Information Systems Chair can share with and learn from the Chair of the English Department. To enhance this cross pollination, submitted manuscripts should not dwell on the disciplines involved but rather the methods, techniques, environments, etc that make administration more or less effective or efficient.

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ARE FIRST YEAR FACULTY MEMBERS AT A DISADVANTAGE WHEN STUDENT EVALUATIONS OF TEACHING ARE INCLUDED IN PERFORMANCE REVIEWS?

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ABSTRACT

The use of student evaluations of college instructors has historically been controversial even as the results have been widely used as a measurement of teaching effectiveness. In particular, several researchers have highlighted the variables that affect the student evaluations. The focus of this paper is to examine the student evaluations for first year faculty compared to veteran faculty members at a small regional university. The results show that first-year faculty members receive significantly lower scores than veteran faculty members. The conclusion is that first year faculty should be given some leeway if student evaluation results are used as a major factor in evaluating teaching.

Introduction

Student evaluations have become a prime ingredient in the evaluation of faculty over the last several years. As administrators look for some objective measure of teaching effectiveness, the quantifiable nature of student evaluations has provided an attractive source of information. Many studies have been completed over the years to examine the factors that affect student ratings of teaching at the collegiate level. Some of these studies question the validity of using these ratings as a prime factor in evaluating effectiveness of teaching; however, most colleges and universities continue to collect the data and use it to some extent [Seiler and Seiler, 2002, p. 39]. As a result, it becomes very important for new faculty members to be aware of how their careers will be affected by student evaluations of their teaching.

First year faculty members endure several obstacles as they face the first semester in a full-time position. In many cases, these faculty members have only limited exposure to teaching, typically as a teaching assistant and/or as an independent instructor of one or more lower level classes at the university where graduate studies were completed. The individuals may have been exposed to student evaluations in those settings; however,

different courses and different student groups provide different challenges. In addition to limited experience as an instructor, first year faculty members are trying to adjust to a new organization and a new role with expectations that are based not only on teaching but also on professional development and service obligations and perhaps academic advising responsibilities.

For faculty members who leave a large university to become professors at a smaller institution, the reality of expectations can be a shock as they discover the students are different, the colleagues are different and the teaching load typically may include classes for which they have not specifically prepped. As a result, the first semester is a time of great adjustment. Even seasoned faculty members face some adjustment when they change institutions and they have much more experience on which to draw.

The focus of this paper is to examine student evaluations of first year faculty members. The purpose of the analysis was to determine whether the evaluations of first year faculty are significantly different from subsequent evaluations and whether the evaluations are significantly different from their colleagues. A small regional university provided the data. The data covers 10 years of student

evaluations for the College of Business and Public Affairs which includes faculty members in disciplines from business, political science, and sociology.

At this regional university, first year faculty members are evaluated in February for reappointment. That means that only a limited amount of data is available upon which to judge their performance during the first reappointment recommendation. For teaching, the student evaluations from the fall semester make up the only hard data for comparing performance in the classroom. Many first year faculty members are not prepared for the results and feel anxious that the performance may not measure up to expectations. Ad hoc reviews of the data suggest that first year faculty typically receive lower ratings than more seasoned faculty members. However, the focus of this analysis is to determine if first year results are significantly lower on a consistent basis. If that is the case, then it will indicate that some sort of intervention is indicated. Also, it will be clear documentation that reappointment committees need to be extra careful in using the results of student evaluations in the review of first year faculty members.

The instrument used for student evaluations is the IDEA survey instrument developed by Kansas State University. The instrument is norm referenced to a national data set and also provides institutional and discipline comparisons for the faculty members. The regional university has been using the instrument since 1992 in one or more departments. Currently, academic departments can choose the instrument or develop an in-house instrument. The departments in the College of Business and Public Affairs have chosen to use the IDEA instrument consistently.

Review of Literature

Previous studies have shown that factors such as the enthusiasm exhibited by the instructor affect student ratings [Lang, 1997]. Other research has indicated that grades affect the ratings given by students [Isley and Singh, 2005, p. 29]. Some research questions the validity of using student evaluations in any capacity due to questions about accuracy [Stanfel, 1995].

In this section, we highlight some of the research findings of previous studies that are relevant to the discussion of the relationship between first year faculty status and course evaluations. First, note that support exists in the literature for the sheer notion that new faculty members may not be likely to receive very high course evaluations. Some authors propose that the wide array of difficulties associated with being a new faculty member may

be partly to blame for relatively lower course evaluations among new faculty members (Hoytt and Pallett 1999). Examples of such challenges facing new faculty include factors such as developing new courses, adjusting to the culture and procedures of a new academic institutional setting, and adjusting to a new environment. In one study (Perry et al. 1997) examining the relationship between teaching experience and teaching evaluations, the authors even proposed that dealing with the challenges of being a new faculty member may have outweighed the benefits that would have normally be gained from prior years of college teaching.

Next, realize that very few studies have examined the relationship between first year faculty status and course evaluations. However, the studies that have been undertaken have yielded findings that are suggestive of the notion that there may be a relationship between new faculty status and the quality of course evaluations received. First, the results from a study by Centra (1978) revealed that newer faculty members received lower student evaluations than did other faculty members. The analysis of data collected from faculty members from about a hundred colleges and universities revealed that first and second year teachers received lower ratings of teacher effectiveness from students than did other faculty members. Another study (Rabalais 1977), which examined the evaluations of faculty at a junior college, also provided some degree of support for the notion that newer faculty members receive lower evaluations than do other faculty members. The study found that the overall rating of faculty members as instructors received by faculty with three or less years of teaching experience was slightly less than those with four to seven years experience and slightly more than those with eight or more years of experience. Finally, the results from a more recent study (Boice 1991) of faculty members at a relatively large university suggested that course evaluations of new faculty were mediocre at best. Relatively high percentages of new faculty members had evaluations that fell below their departmental means. Further, the findings also revealed that new faculty members' evaluations showed little improvement over the first several semesters.

Overall, the previously referred to studies provide some support for the notion that being a first year faculty member may be associated with lower course evaluations. However, note that several of the studies referred to above are rather dated. Moreover, since so few studies have examined the topic of course evaluations of first year faculty, it is difficult to draw conclusions about the course evaluations of first year faculty. Consequently, a

new study with the main focus of examining the course evaluations of first year faculty members is warranted.

In a discussion of the relationship between first year faculty status and course evaluations, some research findings pertaining to the impact of faculty rank and faculty experience on course evaluations are also worth mentioning. Some researchers have suspected that there is a relationship between the amount of teaching experience and the course evaluations received with more years of experience leading to higher course evaluations. Indeed, some research findings have supported the notion that the number of years experience is related to course evaluations (Centra 1978; McPherson 2006). Other research findings have however failed to support the notion that the number of years experience is related to course evaluations (Bausell and Magoon 1972; Freedman, Stumph, and Aguanno 1979; Perry et al. 1997). Further, some researchers contend that amount of experience may be positively related to higher course evaluations, but only to a certain extent (Centra 1976; Longbein 1994). For instance, Longbein (1994) found that increasing levels of experience were associated with higher evaluations only until the mid-teen years of experience. After that point, additional years of experience were no longer associated with higher evaluations.

Another factor that is related to the topic of first year faculty and course evaluations that merits mentioning is faculty rank. It has often been hypothesized that faculty rank is related to course evaluations in that lower rank is associated with lower course evaluations. In particular, the results of numerous studies revealed that professors tend to receive higher course evaluations than do teaching assistants (Brandenburg et al. 1977; Centra & Creech 1976; March and Dunkin 1992). Beyond this finding though, it is difficult to draw conclusions about the relationship between faculty rank and course evaluations. Some studies have failed to find a relationship between rank and course evaluations (Aleamoni and Yimer 1973; Freedman, Stumph, and Aguanno 1979; Grant 1971); while other studies have produced some support for a relationship between rank and course evaluations in that those faculty members with higher rank receive higher evaluations (Aleamoni and Thomas 1977; Bausell and Magoon 1972; Langbein 1994).

Despite the fact that there has not been much research examining first year faculty status as a factor influencing course evaluations, there is a very long list of other factors that have been hypothesized to affect course evaluations. First, some factors related to the course, commonly referred to as course characteristics, have been shown to impact the evaluations given to courses

by students. Among such factors are class size (Feldman 1978, Franklin et al. 1991, McKeachie 1990; Williams and Ory 1992), discipline of the course (Cashin 1992), whether the course is introductory or upper level (Feldman 1978; Marsh 1987), and the difficulty level of the course (Marsh 1987). In essence, courses that are small in class size, within the arts and humanities fields, upper level, and relatively challenging tend to receive higher evaluations from students.

Next, some factors related to the students of the course have been shown to affect the evaluations of courses given by students. A student's level of motivation, prior interest in the subject, prior expectations of the course and instructor, and whether or not the course is within the student's major have all been shown to affect course evaluations. Studies have typically shown that students who are highly motivated and/or interested in the subject matter (Cashin 1988; Marsh and Cooper 1981; Prave and Baril 1983), are majoring in the discipline of the course (Centra and Creech 1976), and have positive expectations with regard to the course and instructor (Koerner and Patelle 1991; McKeachie 1979) tend to provide more favorable course evaluations than those who do not have such characteristics.

Further, some factors related to the instructor have been shown to affect course evaluations. In addition to the factors of rank and experience that were discussed earlier, additional factors such as the level of expressiveness of the instructor (Abrami, Leventhal, and Perry 1982; Marsh and Ware 1982; Naftulin et al. 1973) and the personality of the instructor (Murray et al. 1990) have also been shown to affect the evaluations that students give to instructors. Other characteristics related to the instructor that have been hypothesized to affect course evaluations include the instructor's gender, age, reputation, and race/ethnicity, but the importance of those factors in course evaluations is inconclusive due to either lack of research or lack of substantial evidence. Finally, even some factors associated with the circumstances under which course evaluations are administered have been shown to affect the evaluations given to courses by students. Factors such as whether or not the instructor is present in the room during the administration of evaluations (Feldman 1989), whether the evaluations are given close to an exam date (Aleamoni 1981 and Braskamp et al. 1984), whether the students have to identify themselves on the ratings (Feldman 1979 and Blunt 1991), and the content of the evaluation instructions (Braskamp et al.; Centra 1976; Feldman 1979) have all been shown to influence students' evaluations of courses.

Data and Methodology

Data for this study was collected from student evaluation of courses taught by the College of Business and Public Affairs (COBPA) at Lander University, Greenwood South Carolina from Fall semester 2004 to Spring semester 2006. There were 356 courses evaluated over this time period. Courses taught by part-time instructors were omitted from the sample.

Student evaluations are conducted using the Individual Development & Educational Assessment (IDEA) survey. The surveys are administered at the end of the semester by a faculty member that is not the instructor of the course. The surveys are collected by a student and delivered to the COBPA office. Completed surveys are mailed to the IDEA Center at Kansas State University for analysis and the results are returned to COBPA. Analysis was conducted based on students' evaluation of faculty members in three areas: progress on relevant objectives (selected from a list of twelve by instructor), was the instructor an excellent teacher, and did the instructor make the class an excellent course.

For this study, three summary measures were the focus of analysis. The IDEA instrument provides much more detailed information for each class taught by an instructor; however, the three summary measures are most often viewed as representative of the performance of the instructor. The summary measures are (1) Progress on Relevant Objectives (which are chosen by the instructor for each course), (2) Excellence Rating of the Instructor, and (3) Excellence Rating of the Course. The data is reported as a standardized "T-Score" which is a transformed raw score with a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10.

Two different tests were completed to analyze the data. First the median scores of first year faculty members were compared to all faculty members using the Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test. The first analysis was to determine if there is a significant difference in the median evaluations between first-semester faculty members compared to veteran faculty members. The second analysis was a comparison of first year faculty to second year faculty with no effort to match the faculty in the sample. The Wilcoxon Rank Sum test is a nonparametric procedure for testing differences between two population medians (Levine, Stephan, Krehbiel, and Berenson p-405 1999). The Wilcoxon test is appropriate to use with either normally distributed or non-normally distributed data.

A further test of the hypotheses was to test the mean ratings using a paired t-test. In this analysis, the faculty evaluations of individual faculty members who persevered to the second year are compared to the same faculty member scores for the first year at the same school. There was not an effort to match all courses. In most cases, the faculty members taught the same courses; however some additional variation is likely due to some differences in courses taught.

Results

Summary statistics were calculated for all courses taught by COBPA faculty members during the period of analysis, Table 1. Overall, the faculty members received median scores of 51 for making progress on relevant objectives, 52 for being considered an excellent teacher, and 52 for teaching an excellent course. New (first-year) faculty members received slightly lower median scores for all three areas: 45, 47, and 45 respectively. Conversely, veteran faculty members scored higher in all three areas with median scores of 52, 53, and 53 respectively.

The results from the Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test provide evidence of significant difference between the median evaluation scores for the two groups of faculty members in all three areas, Table 2. The null hypothesis for all three tests is that there is no difference in median evaluation scores between new faculty members and veteran faculty members. The test for making progress on relevant objectives has a test statistic of -7.69 and is significant at the 0.01 level. Similarly, the tests for excellent teacher and excellent course were also significant at the 0.01 level. The null hypothesis is rejected in all tests. Thus, we conclude there is a difference in student evaluations for new faculty member compared to veteran faculty members. Since the sum of ranks is higher for veteran faculty members in all three summary measures, and a higher rank means higher evaluations, you can conclude that the median evaluations are higher for veteran faculty members.

Given the significant differences as shown in Tables 1 and 2, it is evident that first-year faculty members can appropriately be viewed differently when the absolute values of the student evaluations are considered. This preliminary analysis indicates that more in-depth review of the factors affecting the student evaluations could be appropriate. Perhaps, more preparation for the student evaluations could be effective in assisting first-year faculty. Also, Reappointment committees will receive this information and should legitimately compare first-year faculty student evaluation results to previous first-year averages, not to overall averages.

TABLE 1
SUMMARY STATISTICS

	Progress on Relevant Objectives	Excellent Teacher	Excellent Course
Group(n=676)			
Mean	50.00	49.16	50.57
Median	51	52	52
Std. Deviation	9.7	10.89	10.47
Min	4	3	11
Max	72	69	74
New (n=119)			
Mean	42.33	42.5	43.7
Median	45	47	45
Std. Deviation	13.14	14.43	11.73
Min	4	3	12
Max	62	64	69
Veteran (n=557)			
Mean	51.63	50.58	52.05
Median	52	53	53
Std. Deviation	7.92	9.4	9.57
Min	17	16	11
Max	72	69	74
**population 2 = New faculty member			

TABLE 2
WILCOXON RANK SUM TEST RESULTS

Progress on Relevant Objectives		Excellent Teacher		Excellent Course	
Population 1* Sample		Population 1 Sample		Population 1 Sample	
Sample Size	557	Sample Size	557	Sample Size	557
Sum of Ranks	203409	Sum of Ranks	199819.5	Sum of Ranks	202400.5
Population 2** Sample		Population 2 Sample		Population 2 Sample	
Sample Size	119	Sample Size	119	Sample Size	119
Sum of Ranks	25417	Sum of Ranks	29006.5	Sum of Ranks	26425.5
T1 Test Statistic	25417	T1 Test Statistic	29006.5	T1 Test Statistic	26425.5
T1 Mean	40281.5	T1 Mean	40281.5	T1 Mean	40281.5
Standard Error of T1	1933.77	Standard Error of T1	1933.77	Standard Error of T1	1933.77
Z Test Statistic	-7.6868	Z Test Statistic	-5.83058	Z Test Statistic	-7.16528
p-value	1.51E-14	p-value	5.52E-09	p-value	7.76E-13
Reject the null hypothesis		Reject the null hypothesis		Reject the null hypothesis	
*population 1 = Veteran faculty member					

Table 3 compares the evaluations of first year compared to second year faculty. The goal is to see if faculty member evaluations improve over time. The results from the Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test provide evidence of significant difference between the median evaluation scores for first year faculty relative to second year faculty members in all three areas. The null hypothesis for all three tests is that there is no difference in median evaluation scores between first year faculty members and second year faculty members. The null hypothesis is rejected in all tests. Thus, we conclude there is a difference in student evaluations for new faculty members compared to second year faculty members. Again, since the sum of ranks is higher for second year faculty members in all three summary measures, we can conclude that the median evaluations are higher for second year faculty members.

The results shown in Table 2 and Table 3 provide evidence that first year faculty members typically are rated lower than other faculty members when the median scores are compared. In Table 4 the paired t-test results again provide evidence that individual faculty members tend to see significant improvement from the first year to the second year at the same institution. On average, the improvement is about 6 points on the T-score scale used by IDEA.

Summary and Conclusions

The analysis of data provided consistent evidence that first year faculty members should expect to be rated lower by students when compared to more veteran faculty. There is also evidence that faculty members receive significantly higher student evaluation results in subsequent years.

As a result of this analysis, new faculty members are now reviewed differently by Reappointment Committees and by administrators. New faculty members are asked to compare their evaluation results to other first year faculty members not to their mentors or other veteran faculty members. Reappointment committee members are similarly cautioned that care should be taken in expecting first year faculty members to receive student evaluation results equal to more veteran faculty members. Though the authors do not argue that these results can be generalized to all institutions, the argument is made that this study should serve as important evidence that all who evaluate first year faculty should consider.

TABLE 3 WILCOXON RANK SUM TEST RESULTS BETWEEN FIRST AND SECOND YEAR					
Progress on Relevant Objectives		Excellent Teacher		Excellent Course	
Population 1* Sample		Population 1 Sample		Population 1 Sample	
Sample Size	42	Sample Size	42	Sample Size	42
Sum of Ranks	2555	Sum of Ranks	2385	Sum of Ranks	2517.5
Population 2** Sample		Population 2 Sample		Population 2 Sample	
Sample Size	53	Sample Size	53	Sample Size	53
Sum of Ranks	2005	Sum of Ranks	2175	Sum of Ranks	2042.5
<i>T</i> 1 Test Statistic	2555	<i>T</i> 1 Test Statistic	2385	<i>T</i> 1 Test Statistic	2517.5
<i>T</i> 1 Mean	2016	<i>T</i> 1 Mean	2016	<i>T</i> 1 Mean	2016
Standard Error of <i>T</i> 1	133.44	Standard Error of <i>T</i> 1	133.45	Standard Error of <i>T</i> 1	133.45
Z Test Statistic	4.04	Z Test Statistic	2.77	Z Test Statistic	3.76
<i>p</i> -value	0.00005	<i>p</i> -value	0.0057	<i>p</i> -value	0.00017
Reject the null hypothesis		Reject the null hypothesis		Reject the null hypothesis	
*population 1 = Veteran faculty member					

TABLE 4
PAIRED T-TEST RESULTS

Progress on Relevant Objectives		Excellent Teacher		Excellent Course	
Mean –Year 2	48.51	Mean –Year 2	48.52	Mean –Year 2	50.02
Mean – Year 1	42.78	Mean – Year 1	42.79	Mean – Year 1	44.67
Mean difference	5.727	Mean difference	3.314	Mean difference	5.357
Observations	33	Observations	33	Observations	33
Test Statistic	3.76	Test Statistic	1.76	Test Statistic	2.94
<i>p</i> -value	0.0003	<i>p</i> -value	0.043	<i>p</i> -value	0.003
Reject the null hypothesis		Reject the null hypothesis		Reject the null hypothesis	

**population 2 = New faculty member

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MAKE ROOM FOR DADDY...AND MOMMY: HELICOPTER PARENTS ARE HERE!

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ABSTRACT

Universities have always interacted with parents of students and prospective students, usually on tours of the campus, during open house activities, on designated Parents Weekends and in unusual and emergency situations. The number of interactions has risen markedly in the last few years and the types of interactions have changed from what universities considered appropriate to the mundane such as getting the plumbing fixed in a dorm room for their child. Today's parents of college students invite themselves along unless told otherwise. Who are these people invading our campus? They're helicopter parents!

The Characteristics and Definitions of Helicopter Parents

Helicopter parents hover over and around their children interceding as soon as the child faces an unpleasant situation or uncertainty. Currently the term signals the parents are Baby Boomers (born between 1946 and 1964) and the offspring are members of the Millenium generation (born between 1982 and 2002) [Felix Carroll, Albany Union Times]. The term signals the parents are "overinvolved" in their child's life and are overly protective. Parents hover willingly and tirelessly, organizing many areas of the child's life. Even in college and now starting in graduate school, parents stay on the job (Damast, 2006).

Most helicopter parents are just overinvolved, and that means calling or texting their children three-four times a day, reading and proofing their child's papers, making to-do lists for them, driving two hours each way to the dorm every two weeks to clean, do dishes and do the laundry, or calling to wake the children up for classes. Children give their parents their passwords to their college accounts so parents check grades and schedules and may call the dean if they don't like what they see (Shannon Colavecchio-Van Sickler, June 19, 2006, p. 1).

A few helicopter parents cross the line into unethical areas, unwittingly teaching their children it is acceptable to use plagiarism, falsify records such as high school transcripts and bully others to get their way. The latter type of helicopter parents is known as a "Blackhawk" (<http://www.csmonitor.com/2007/0503/p08s02-comv-htm>.) Others refer to the more brazen parents as 'kamikaze parents' (Sue Schellenbarger, WSJ, March 16, 2006, p.

D1) because they have already mowed down the advisors, counselors and admissions officers at colleges and now are aiming to do the same in the workplace.

What Are Experts Saying Are the Reasons Why These Changes in Parenting Are Occurring?

There is a driving force of change occurring in our society—even in the world, that is not showing any signs of reversing. That driving force is the ability to be in constant communication with others. Consider it a permanent change in the structure and fabric of society that drives changes in other areas. The Millennials have grown up with cell phones and for them, constant communication is normal. College students readily admit talking to their parents three or four times a day—exchanging pleasantries and seeking advice. Meno, a University of Indiana-Bloomington psychologist and student counselor, calls the cell phone, a "Virtual umbilical cord (Boen, January 15, 2007 p.1)" Even from afar, then, parents can hover over their children easily. Amy Rainey reports on a study released in March 2006 by the College Parents of America. "Of the 893 parents surveyed, 74 percent communicated with their student two to three times a week and one in three did so at least once a day (Chronicle, 2006)"

Mary Elizabeth Hughes, a sociologist at Duke University, suggests helicopter parenting may be a sign of economic insecurity (Carroll, 2005). The Consumer Confidence index, unemployment rate and outsourcing managerial level jobs have added to people's insecurities about the economy. For example, one Bethesda mother realized there are many things beyond her control that

threaten us such as terrorists and the environment, but she say, "I can control how my daughter spends her day (Strauss, 2006, A08)."

There also has been a change in lifestyles. Those (the Boomers) raised during the turbulent times of the 1960s experienced major social changes in our society and hence, new lifestyles have evolved. These lifestyles include the process of parenting. Boomers have taken the best of their parents styles (emphasizing education, independence and discipline) [Carroll, 2005] and moved away from the authoritarian style to a more co-operative style of parenting. Parents see themselves as responsible for helping their children make better choices—including what colleges to go to, what jobs to take and where their lives lead. A few parents understand they are not their child's friend. This may not be the case with children, however, as several reported their parents were their best friends.

Parents today usually have fewer children than their family of origin. That means more money and time can be spent on each child. Consequently the Millennials are a protected and programmed group. They are the generation of mandatory car seats, bike helmets, play groups, soccer leagues and swim teams (Strauss, 2006, A08).

Parents also admit their own self-worth may be wrapped up in the success of their child. In a study done of 408 parents, Eaton and Pomerantz found that twenty percent of the parents were found to base their own self-worth on the performance of their child (in Schellenbarger, April 14, 2005). Even when their children were doing well, there was no let up of the negative beliefs about themselves.

Who and What Do Helicopter Parents Influence at the University?

Helicopter parents are influencing the entire university from the prospecting stage before the application process, campus housing, relationships with academic advisors and faculty, and at the exit stage with career services and even on to graduate school, and beyond into employment. Some universities have embraced the involvement using the philosophy the parents are here on campus to stay saying why not "harness" the parents' energy and involvement to our advantage? Others recognize their presence and are using some subtle and some not so subtle techniques to keep them from interfering with the maturation process of their child. Finally, many universities have engaged the services of a

parent co-ordinator, a relatively new full time position on campuses (Lum, 2006).

Universities do have some concerns over the overinvolvement of parents. The primary concern is students are not developing critical decision making skills needed in a complex world despite getting a good academic foundation. Tom Miller, a University of South Florida dean of students was quoted in the St. Petersburg Times as saying, "Where parent behavior becomes a challenge for us is when they encourage dependence, and they become too involved because they are afraid their son or daughter will make a mistake (in Colavecchio-Van Sickler, 2006, p. 1)." Meno states the lack of independence "leads to a lack of confidence in being able to achieve things on (his) own (Boen, 2007 p.1)" Shauna Summers, a psychology instructor, psychologist and personal counselor at Indiana University-Purdue University Fort Wayne says the parent-college student close communication is good if it is used to help make decisions such as, "Should I get a credit card?" But the communication should not interfere with the children learning to function as adults (J. Boen, 2007 p.1)". The biggest public concern of universities appears to be parents inhibiting the development of the students true adults

While some universities are setting up Mother's Clubs and parents Web sites; other colleges and universities are subtly pushing parents to give their children some space. Miami University at Oxford is one that separates parents from their children in summer orientation. They discourage parents from calling faculty about grades and explain to them that "nothing can be done if a professor says, 'This is the grade.'" (Marsh, Spring '07). Many universities are taking the opportunity to have parents alone in orientation sessions to tease them a little about their hovering and still give the message that it is time to back-off and let go. (For a good variety of suggestions about how to handle helicopter parents, see Coburg, 2006.)

Career Services is another area where hovering parents may have hurt their children. Students are so used to being praised and made to feel special, they think the normal starting salary of \$30,000-\$35,000 per year is beneath them. Parents have started to attend job fairs and done follow-up with employers for their children. When given offers, students will stall to seek parental advice about taking the offer or not. Some parents accompany their children to interviews; although, many have the good sense not to sit in even if the company offers.

There are mixed messages also being given by employers. Most of the response is not positive. Many managers see these young prospective employees as too tentative and lacking critical decision making skills. Parental involvement is a turn off for many recruiters and human resource managers.

From a different perspective, companies are recognizing the change and are finding ways to accommodate the trend. Some firms have developed parent kits with information about benefits and company culture. Others invite parents to tour the offices and still others are asking students if there is someone with whom they want to share news of job offers (<http://www.csmonitor.com/2007/0503/p08s02-comv-htm>.) So while human resource directors and company recruiters have to handle a lot of things they never did before—such as a dad calling and trying to renegotiate the starting salary (Shellenbarger, March 16, 2006)—they also realize they need these young people as future employees.

Implications for Future Research and Conclusion

Helicopter parents and their offspring offer a wide open field of research for those interested in college student development and university administration. There are many newspaper articles about the topic but very few scholarly studies about helicopter parents. Additionally, teaching also has the potential to be impacted in many ways—for example, the Millennials students prefer high levels of organization and dislike ambiguity and students and parents not happy with grades of a strict professor can cause undue pressure on professors to change grades or resort to grade inflation. In short, the topic is wide open for research because so little has been done.

In conclusion, until another new way to parent comes along, prepare to have many additional commentators and active participants in the education of the Millennials.

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MORE TROUBLE THAN IT IS WORTH? DETECTING AND PROSECUTING PLAGIARISM IN BUSINESS PLANS¹

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ABSTRACT

The author of this paper is presently prosecuting more plagiarism cases than any other faculty member at an institution with approximately 800 full-time faculty and 23,000 students. During the spring 2007 semester (the most recent as of this writing), twenty instances of plagiarism were detected, ranging from 15 "blatant" and extensive cases to 5 that were less severe. These cases from the most recent semester are in addition to 18 cases that have already been documented during the past two and one-half years of the author's employment in a tenure-track appointment at the institution where he is employed. All 38 cases to date involve entrepreneurship students who were engaged in creating their own individually assigned business plans. The assignment is considered to be a major course component from the point of view of departmental faculty who administer and teach several sections of the course, which is a component of entrepreneurship major and minor programs. This paper discusses challenges for students as well as faculty who may face the issue of plagiarism in an entrepreneurship course (with implications for teaching and learning in other courses).

¹ This paper is a continuation of earlier research from the author: *Plagiarism and business plans: A growing challenge for entrepreneurship education?* Manuscript accepted for journal publication by the Academy of Entrepreneurship Education. New data and analysis have been added to that which was reported earlier, in order to discuss longitudinal findings.

Introduction

From this author's point of view, one of the most emotionally difficult aspects of prosecuting plagiarism is that the values exhibited by those who are found guilty are profoundly different from, and a direct affront to this author's own values. There are really only three main reasons that plagiarism may occur: 1) cheating is a pervasive ethical problem of pandemic proportions; 2) students lack essential competencies and are not able to render an adequate academic performance; or 3) this reason is a combination of the two above -- many students who are caught and admit an ethical breach offer their own lack of skill as their reason for resorting to plagiarism (but none have sought help, either).

Every case with which this author has been associated and is reporting in this paper has undergone a multi-step procedure to ensure students are afforded due process. An "Office of Judicial affairs," which operates at the university level, creates and administers academic integrity policies and provides a system which allows for the independent evaluation of evidence and formal hearings as well as an appeals process. At least insofar

as academic integrity policies at the institution that employs this author are concerned, students are expected to understand what constitutes plagiarism, and that it is not acceptable. Further, faculty are expected to uphold these policies as is clearly stated by the University's Office of Judicial Affairs ("Frequently Asked," 2007):

Am I required to report all cases of academic misconduct that I encounter?

Yes. See the answer to the following question for details on why.

Why can't I just do what I want to the student and not go through the judicial process?

- a. It is against University policy. The instructor should report allegations of academic misconduct to the head of the concerned department and to the assistant dean for Judicial Affairs.

There are also consequences for faculty members who may find themselves in the midst of plagiarists and the acts that they commit. These consequences include stress, and possibly placing one's academic career or personal safety in peril (discussed below).

Prevention Attempts

Despite institutional expectations, and to preemptively address those who may assume the author of this paper is too aggressive in the prosecution of cases (notwithstanding the aforementioned requirement to do so), students who may claim to be naïve are presented with several forms of explicit communication that describe plagiarism, indicate it is completely unacceptable, warn that it will probably be detected, and specify the consequences. One of the primary reasons for this paper is to address this communication in terms of its content, delivery, intent, evolution, and suggestions for use by other classroom instructors. The following list has been identified by the Office of Judicial Affairs as the most extensive inventories of existing tools, techniques and instruments among professors on the author's campus:

- a) A written Amnesty Procedure (an attempt to wrestle with the author's own conscience relative to notions of justice), developed independently, but with feedback from the Office of Judicial Affairs.
- b) A Grading Rubric (distributed on the first day of class in any given teaching term, and continuously available online), which explains what is meant by plagiarism in "clear as a bell" language (quoting reviewer feedback from several sources).
- c) Notices and links on my faculty site (to the Office of Judicial Affairs and its literature), especially at the top of the Entrepreneurship course page.
- d) A two page contract with numerous terms and conditions listed (at the end of my syllabus and signified as accepted by students' initials); among these terms and conditions is one particular passage that explicitly acknowledges the importance and force of the Grading Rubric and its references to plagiarism as an act that is strictly prohibited.
- e) A "Notice of Allegation of Academic Integrity Violation" form.
- f) This semester, the classes were even led in a chant conducted in a sing-song fashion to the effect that the instructor would be looking for plagiarism, tools and software would be used, graduate assistants were trained to do the same; if students cheated, they would probably be caught (and the penalty would be failure).
- g) The aforementioned plagiarism paper (in press), which has been used in discussions, is not a "secret" withheld from students.
- h) Statements about this author's own values, which are derived from parents and upbringing. When explaining how this author views cheating, responsibility and honor, I relate these to experiences as the child of distinguished Air Force pilot, Boy Scout, et cetera, to make the point: "I don't care that 'everybody's doing it' – if you cheat my classroom, I will turn you in, and I will fail you."
- i) Several verbal warnings are delivered throughout the semester.

Meanwhile, the most common excuse offered by students, "I did not know that what I was doing was wrong," is considered a weak argument on the part of students who may be involved in defending themselves in a plagiarism case.

Plagiarism in Business Plans: Blatant and Less Severe

Earlier research by this author tracked plagiarism cases across three semesters, during which 18 cases were reported among 176 students who had submitted business plans during the period under observation (slightly over 10 percent). This present paper serves to update the previously reported data by adding an additional academic year (fall 2006 to spring 2007) to the observation period, during which 104 additional plans were submitted by students in five course sections, and 21 additional cases of plagiarism were observed. It is interesting to note that the total number of plagiarism cases during the most recent semester, spring 2007, is greater than the number of cases observed during the previous four semesters combined (i.e., 19 cases were observed during the previous four semesters prior to the spring 2007 semester, during which 20 cases were observed).

As this research is evolving, along with the learning and experience of this researcher, it should also be noted that some changes are occurring in research methodology as

well as instructional methods, and more changes are in store. As a result of an evolving relationship with the institution's Office of Judicial Affairs, a mutual interest has developed in several areas, including prevention as a first course of action, followed by detection and prosecution of blatant and extensive cases, and the tracking of all other cases, even when a decision is made to forego prosecution. (In addition, this author has created an "Amnesty Program," which has been pilot tested with disappointing results, to date.)

Relative to research methodology, during the spring 2007 semester, this author began to track and report every single case, even those that were characterized as minor. Of the 20 total cases reported during the spring semester, it was agreed that 5 would be characterized as minor, labeled as "technical violations" (in keeping with a grading rubric created by the author and distributed to students early in the semester) and they were not prosecuted. The remaining 15 cases have been characterized as severe and as such worthy of prosecution.

So what is "minor," as it was agreed to be defined with respect to these cases? First, it should be made clear that even these so-called minor violations could have been successfully prosecuted, as per the Office of Judicial Affairs under a strict interpretation of university academic integrity policies. Typically, while these students did indeed violate the "letter of the law" with respect to these policies, they did so while they were concurrently making a systematic attempt to legitimately pursue their business plan writing assignments. For instance, if page after page of legitimate text reflecting what was apparently a competent and honest effort to properly complete the assignment was found, and in the midst of that text there was a sentence that was improperly taken, these instances were tracked, but no notice was served, and no prosecution occurred.

For readers of this paper, the above description of a minor offense may sound like one that should also be prosecuted, or give rise to the question, what is "blatant" or severe? Discerning what is minor from what is severe gives rise to future research questions, and may certainly be worthy of debate. The answer depends on one's own sense of values as well as formal definitions expressed through stated policies, administered at the classroom level or higher up, at the school, college, or institutional level. As for a working definition, as it has been administered in this present situation, blatant (severe, et al) has been interpreted to mean a systematic effort or evidence thereof as seen through the use of multiple sentences and paragraphs (or other content, such as lists or financial data) taken from one or more sources. Typically

these sources are either existing business plans or found on the Internet.

The aforementioned grading rubric defines minor technical violations as well as more severe cases further, for the benefit of students. The following text is taken from that grading rubric, and has been reviewed (and characterized as "clear as a bell") by independent reviewers including Judicial Affairs, colleagues at the author's own and other universities, and blind reviewers who have evaluated the rubric as worthy of publication in a journal article (Lahm, 2007):

Technical Violation of Plagiarism Rules, e.g., improper quotation of sources and other infractions apparently associated with a lack of skill on the part of the author.

Absolute Violation of Plagiarism Rules-Paraphrasing of an existing plan (e.g., rewriting a sample plan, sentences, paragraphs, or passages therein; this includes financial information, tables, charts, etc.); collaboration/sharing of documents, text, phrases, passages, or entire plans (used verbatim or modified); usage of entire sentences, paragraphs, data, facts, plans or other materials without acknowledgement of sources, and submitted as though the work was the student's own work rather than that of the original author. Other violations of Academic Integrity Policies not described here.

Evidence of an absolute violation of plagiarism rules shall result in the work in question being referred to the appropriate officials for further action and the issuance of a grade of "F" for the course (as stated in the course syllabus).

Table 1 provides data representing successfully prosecuted cases from spring 2005 to fall 2006 without tracking degrees of severity (i.e., those characterized as minor). As explained in the discussion above, as of the spring 2007 semester, total observed cases have begun to be reported, whether they are deemed to be severe or minor (and are prosecuted, or not, respectively):

Data reflect course records with respect to submitted business plans (as compared to total enrollments, which were higher) and findings from Judicial Affairs wherein students were determined to be "responsible."

TABLE 1 CONFIRMED PLAGIARISM CASES (TERM TOTALS IN PARENTENSES)					
Class Size	Total Cases	Severe	Minor	Time	Days
Spring-2007 Term					
25	9	7	2	12:40-2:05	M-W
24	6	5	1	2:20-3:45	M-W
17	5	3	2	4:30-7:30	M
(66)	(20)	(15)	(5)		
Percent 30% (Total Cases/Total Class Size)					
Fall-2006 Term					
23	1	n/a	n/a	2:20-3:45	M-W
15	0	n/a	n/a	4:30-7:30	M
(38)	(1)	n/a	n/a		
Percent 3% (Total Cases/Total Class Size)					
Spring-2006 Term					
29	4	n/a	n/a	12:40-2:05	M-W
26	1	n/a	n/a	2:20-3:45	M-W
26	5	n/a	n/a	4:30-7:30	M
(81)	(10)	n/a	n/a		
Percent 12% (Total Cases/Total Class Size)					
Fall-2005 Term					
17	1	n/a	n/a	6:00-9:00	W
(17)	(1)				
Percent 6% (Total Cases/Total Class Size)					
Spring-2005 Term					
31	3	n/a	n/a	9:40-11:05	T-Th
27	0	n/a	n/a	11:20-12:45	T-Th
20	4	n/a	n/a	4:30-7:30	T
(78)	(7)				
Percent 9% (Total Cases/Total Class Size)					

As indicated in Table 2 almost 14 percent, that is, 39 of the total number of students (280) from whom business plans were collected over a five semester period were found to be responsible for plagiarism.

Cumulative data reporting number of students, semesters, sections, and cases from course records and findings from Judicial Affairs wherein students were determined to be "responsible."

Figure 1 illustrates the distribution of confirmed business plan plagiarism cases during the five semesters under observation.

TABLE 2 TOTAL CASES DURING OBSERVATION PERIOD			
Term	N (Students)	Cases	Sections
Spring 2007	66	20	3
Fall 2006	38	1	2
Spring 2006	81	10	3
Fall 2005	17	1	1
Spring 2005	78	7	3
TOTALS	280	39	
Percent 14% (Total Cases / Total Students)			

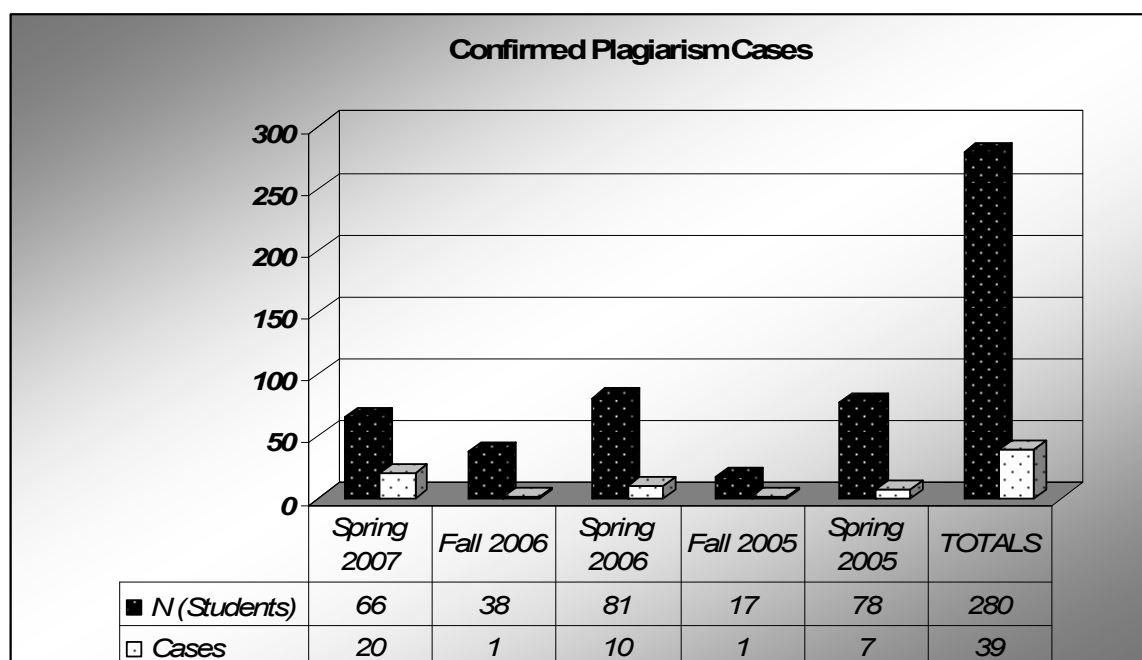
More Trouble Than it is Worth?

Even when one is doing his or her duty in identifying and prosecuting plagiarists, many students exhibit emotional outbursts upon being presented by evidence, and subsequently argue that the consequences they will suffer (which students tend to blame on the faculty member rather than themselves) will exact damage upon them that is unjustified. However, as most managers and administrators (and parents) know, if one sets a policy, then fails to adhere to the policy relative to enforcement, then the policy becomes irrelevant, and cannot be effective.

Hence, in order to be effective, or to even have a chance of being effective, faculty members who intend to enforce (or are compelled to enforce) plagiarism and cheating policies must steadfastly maintain a position that students may view as overly harsh, and unjustified. Namely, that position must be that "once a student is found guilty (especially after being warned, again and again), then he/she will [specify whatever consequence is to be used here]." Exacerbating the issue is the fact that students' values have shifted, and from their point of view, just like driving a few miles over the speed limit, cheating is something that "everybody's doing" (Kleiner & Lord, 1999). Significant consequences such as course failure (the penalty imposed by this author) or expulsion (a consequence imposed by the institution, but typically only among repeat offenders), are therefore, from the point of view of individuals who consider cheating to be a minor offense, probably do seem unfair.

Thus, besides having to endure the time consuming process of detecting, documenting, and prosecuting cases, one must also endure stressful interactions with individual students who are more angry with you as the faculty member who "did this to them" than they are with themselves (except for having been caught). This is because you, the faculty member, are perceived as being "hard-nosed" and impeding the respective student's

FIGURE 1



progress toward whatever career or academic destination he or she had in mind. This logic places the student in a state-of-mind such that he or she is the victim, and you, the faculty member, are the perpetrator of wrongdoing upon them.

Students will also lie in attempts to support their case against allegations of plagiarism, and in the face of hard evidence, they compound the problems that they have created for themselves. Several cases have involved students who blame friends or classmates as their excuse, and since the business plan is strictly an individual assignment, the argument places the student's case in jeopardy from yet another direction. In other words, "they hang themselves," and possibly a friend or classmate at the same time. This, too, is disheartening.

Finally, colleagues and administrators may have doubts about the faculty member's teaching ability and other aspects of the faculty member's performance rather than placing the blame (where it belongs – this author would assert) on the persons who committed plagiarism. At many institutions, especially those that confuse student-centeredness and satisfaction with ethically delivered services delivered by professionals, ratings may be an issue for the faculty member. Student ratings are the only indices of teaching performance that have been mentioned as being relevant in appointment and renewal letters given to this author, so it is apparent that these ratings are the means by which performance, or the lack thereof, is determined. Therefore, popularity is

an overwhelming concern, given that failing grades or other consequences imposed upon individual students (or their cohorts) obviously could have a severe negative affect on students' reported levels of happiness.

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THE POLICE, THE MBA PROGRAM, COMMUNITIES OF PRACTICE, AND FRAUD: A CASE STUDY IN THE UTILIZATION OF COMMUNITIES OF PRACTICE IN DEVELOPING AN MBA CONCENTRATION IN FRAUD EXAMINATION

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ABSTRACT

Organizations increasingly recognize that its most valuable asset lies in the expertise of its employees. Providing opportunities for employees to learn, share, and collaborate are essential for organizations to address the changing needs of their stakeholders.

Beginning in 1998, Saint Xavier University (SXU) began offering its MBA program at the Chicago Police Academy to members of the Chicago Police Department (CPD). At the core of this arrangement were the dual missions of providing a traditional graduate management academic program, while also addressing the organizational needs of the CPD, specifically, to create a forum where participants can engage in knowledge sharing. The creation of such a forum is important in most organizations, but is particularly vital in police departments, where the hierarchical, paramilitary structure can act as an impediment to knowledge sharing. The utilization of the MBA program to develop an energetic "community of practice" has been previously documented by these authors (Watland, Kresse & Hallenbeck, 2007).

Communities of practice theory suggest that as the community evolves, members will increasingly take ownership of the content, direction, and evolution of a community. With the assistance facilitators, members of a community of practice suggest and help to introduce new topics, programs, and structures that address changing organizational needs. When applied to academic programs, this cooperative pedagogical approach to program development stands in stark contrast to the traditional "top-down" method where educators, communicating almost exclusively with other educators, build new program offerings. However, consistent with the community of practice theory, as the SXU/CPD MBA program community continued to grow, community members suggested ideas for new courses to the SXU faculty. One such idea was for a course offering in forensic accounting and fraud examination.

This paper explores how the communities of practice that emerged through the original SXU/CPD MBA program led to a new academic program. SXU faculty members, working with CPD MBA program participants, created an academic program in forensic accounting fraud examination that both addressed organizational needs and maintained academic integrity. This paper will document how this program evolved from a single independent study class, to a pilot class, to a four-course program, to a successful and nationally recognized MBA concentration in Financial Fraud Examination and Management.

Additionally, survey data from Financial Fraud Examination and Management participants evidences that while impediments to knowledge sharing may continue within the greater Chicago Police Department, the forensic accounting and fraud examination program seems to be emerging into another community of practice.

Introduction

The value of management education programs to organizations is widely questioned and debated. There is considerable skepticism as to whether management education programs impact organizations, contribute to organizational goals, provide opportunities to expand practical learning experiences, or encourage employee collaboration. Management education programs are

frequently viewed as necessary for attaining a desired credential, but have little or no relation to the actual practices of the organization. Yet at the same time, the role of employee learning and knowledge is increasingly viewed as a competitive advantage to most organizations. Opportunities to learn, share, and collaborate have never been more important. It is through the collective knowledge and skills of the employees that organizations are positioned to meet the changing needs

of their stakeholders and remain competitive. The true value of an organization increasingly lies in the expertise of the employees rather than in more traditional assets such as technology, machinery, or corporate real estate. Employee learning and employee knowledge are arguably two of the most valuable assets that organizations possess, resulting in many organizations taking a proprietary view on employee knowledge. The ability of a management education program to address the learning and knowledge-sharing needs of organizations, and yet still provide the traditional academic foundation, would be a unique and valuable program distinction.

The purpose of this paper is to encourage discussion of, and consideration for, innovative management education program design. Through the use of a case study, the program design under review can be investigated for its ability to facilitate the sharing of information and collaboration as a means to attaining organizational and professional goals. This paper describes a case study of a Masters of Business Administration (MBA) program that combines traditional business acumen, individual learning experiences, and organizational and professional learning opportunities. This paper provides a review of relevant literature in the areas of management education, employee development, organizational learning, financial fraud trends, and Communities of Practice. The culmination of this case study details the results, and discusses considerations for management education curriculum development, professional practice, and further research.

The subject of this case study is the MBA program offered through an educational partnership between Saint Xavier University and the Chicago Police Department. Saint Xavier University offers an MBA program on site at the Chicago Police Department Education and Training Division. When the university was invited to provide an MBA program for the Chicago Police Department at its Education and Training Division, the invitation was two-sided. In addition to providing the traditional business acumen, the Chicago Police Department management requested the university facilitate and support the organizational learning goals of sharing information and knowledge. They wanted to become more of a "learning organization" and increase opportunities to share expertise across the department. The Chicago Police Department employs more than 13,000 officers across 25 geographical districts. There was a perception within the department that because the department was so large, and because of the inherent hierarchical, paramilitary structure of a police organization, expertise was difficult to locate and often inaccessible. As such, Chicago Police officials feared

that officers were continuously "reinventing the same wheel" across the department. As a result, The Chicago Police Department requested that Saint Xavier University bring to the Education and Training Division an management education program that would "make a difference" to the Department's organizational learning goals, while also serving the needs of individual student participants in the program.

Given this request, the university's mandate was to provide The Chicago Police Department with value-added educational programs. The value in this case is enhancing the organizational learning and information-sharing needs of the Chicago Police Department. Thus, program design considerations need to be both discipline-driven and organizational-need driven. Accordingly, as for providing learning opportunities that would impact learning and stewarding of knowledge throughout the Chicago Police organization, in designing and developing all programming, the university selected program design factors with an eye to the goal of fostering Communities of Practice among the program participants.

It should be noted that the instant case study builds on the findings of an earlier study of the same organization with similar participants (Watland, Kresse & Hallenbeck 2007). In the earlier case study, specific program design factors for maximizing participant interactions, including extensive class discussions and other opportunities, were explored as a means to encourage Communities of Practice within the Chicago Police Department. The focus of this earlier case study was to investigate the emergence and attributes of the emerging Communities of Practice, not specific contents or topics of interest to the emerging Communities of Practice.

The current study examines one of the specific topics of interests to the Community, Financial Fraud Examination. More specifically, the current case study focuses on how members of the Communities of Practice that emerged from the original MBA program worked with Saint Xavier University faculty to develop, launch, and sustain an innovative MBA concentration in Financial Fraud Examination. Further, this case study will examine findings that suggest that a new Community of Practice has emerged from this Financial Fraud Examination program.

Traditional Management Education

Management education programs are directed by academic standards, qualifications, pedagogical, and epistemological issues. One of the most popular management

education offerings is the Master's of Business Administration program. There are more than 100,000 MBA's awarded annually in the United States, and the numbers continue to increase. However, many management experts are critical of the gap between the theory taught in the MBA programs and the actual learning needs of practitioners in the workplace (Spender 2005). Most critics contend that management education, as traditionally delivered, does little to serve as a foundation to develop competent leaders or practitioners, to benefit the organizations in which the employees serve, or to establish a mutually beneficial climate and culture (Rausch 2004). Management education programs often have a greater emphasis on "hard domains" or topics associated with a specific body of knowledge such as accounting, finance, marketing, and technology. Management education programs place less emphasis on "soft domains" such as communication, motivation, employee development, interactions, and building relationships and other professional skills (Rausch 2004). Additionally, the content and outcomes of many management education programs may be developed by academic experts with minimal or no practitioners' experience or input. Consequently, organizations and their practitioners are less likely to accept, or derive advantage from, programs driven solely by academic or discipline standards (Sherwood 2004). While management education and practitioners needs are not synonymous, they are not necessarily mutually exclusive. Sherwood (2004) asserts they are both connected to the acquisition of knowledge and attitudes, and also share goals of enhancing skills and capabilities. Constant change in organizations places increasing demands on practitioners for relevant and sustainable learning opportunities.

Boyatzis, Cowen, & Kolb (1995) observed that while educational programs are not viewed as having a role in organizational change or employee development, given the new challenges facing organizations, and the competing academic forces trying to serve the employees of these organizations, building a structure in the curriculum that addresses organizational and practitioner needs may be a distinguishing factor for an educational program. The ability to serve the students individually and their organizations could be valuable both to the organization and the individual students. If an educational program was designed to provide the students with content and tasks related to their organization, to their needs as organizational practitioners, or the opportunity for communication and feedback from their peers, it may be viewed as having more impact on an organization than more traditional programs (Boyatzis, et. al., 1995). Sarason (1996) builds on this observation by proposing that to serve organizations and society, institutions of

higher learning must be viewed as being part of a larger community, rather than a closed independent system. From this view, it is imperative that an institution looks beyond the library walls to determine the epistemology and pedagogy of an educational program.

Accordingly, Community of Practice theory suggests that where vibrant Communities of Practice are interacting with an educational institution, the process of new program development will change. The traditional method of new program development is "top-down", where educators, communicating almost exclusively with other educators, build new program offerings that are subsequently offered to participants. Community of Practice theory suggests that as the communities that interact with an educational institution evolve, members will increasingly take ownership of the content, direction, and evolution of educational programming. With the assistance faculty facilitators, members of the communities will suggest and help develop new programs that address the changing organizational needs of the communities' overarching organization. Further, in a well-cultivated environment, these new programs will lead to the development of new Communities of Practice.

Connecting a Community of Practice Domain to a Management Education Program

According to Wenger (1999), Communities of Practice are informal networks of individuals brought together through a sense of interest and mission. These groups come together around a specific domain of knowledge and generally share common approaches as well as a passion for working with the knowledge. Communities of Practice are considered to be "natural stewards of knowledge across an organization" (Wenger, 1999). Members of a Communities of Practice openly share knowledge, experiences, and perceptions. This information flows across organizational boundaries and establishes connections between departments or divisions in which the Community of Practice members work.

Accordingly, Communities of Practice serve as effective vehicles to share information and knowledge, especially across organizational boundaries. However, cultivation and sustenance of these elusive communities are extremely difficult tasks (Wenger, 2000).

Some research exists about various efforts to encourage Communities of Practice and their resultant products. There are, however, gaps in the literature regarding the use of management education programs as either a ve-

hicle in, or as an aspect of design directed toward, the fostering of Communities of Practice.

From a Communities of Practice learning construct, acquiring abstract knowledge is insufficient for organizational application and practice. Learning in the workplace is most effective when it occurs in the communal context of practice providing opportunities for practitioners to share learnings, meanings, experiences and expertise.

Development of the Financial Fraud Examination Concentration

Watland, Kresse & Hallenbeck (2007) documented that, beginning in 1998, Saint Xavier University offered its Master's in Business Administration program at the Chicago Police Department Education and Training Division to members of the Chicago Police Department. As discussed above, at the core of this arrangement were the dual missions of providing a traditional graduate management academic program, while also addressing the organizational needs of the Chicago Police Department, specifically, to create a forum where participants can engage in knowledge sharing. It was observed that the MBA program at the Chicago Police Department Education and Training Division led to the development of energetic Communities of Practice (Watland, Kresse & Hallenbeck, 2007).

Consistent with Community of Practice theory, as the emerging Communities of Practice grew and flourished, members of these communities take ownership of the program, evidenced by members suggesting ideas for new courses and programs to the Saint Xavier University faculty involved in the Chicago Police MBA program. One such idea was for a course offering in forensic accounting and fraud examination.

In 2001, a student in the Chicago Police MBA program approached faculty members in the program with a suggestion. This student, who was also a detective in the Chicago Police Financial Crimes Investigations Unit, suggested the development of a course in financial accounting and fraud examination. Working with this student, and other members of the Financial Crimes Investigations Unit, Saint Xavier faculty developed a course in Fraud Examination that was approved as an Independent Study offering for the 2001-2002 academic year. Using only communication channels developed by the emerging Communities of Practice, eight students enrolled in this Independent Study Course.

By the following academic year, and working with Community of Practice members to further develop the course, the Fraud Examination course was approved for a pilot in-class offering. Over a dozen Chicago Police students enrolled in the pilot class.

Working off of the success of the one Fraud Examination course, and utilizing the input and suggestions of more members of the growing Communities of Practice developed from the Chicago Police MBA program, Saint Xavier University faculty members designed a four-course MBA concentration in "Financial Fraud Examination and Management". Upon receiving administrative approval for this new MBA concentration, the program was offered at the Chicago Police Education and Training Division beginning with the 2004-2005 academic year.

Since the initial offering of the Financial Fraud Examination and Management MBA concentration, the program has continued to grow and evolve. Faculty members in the concentration work with Community of Practice members to facilitate and encourage further development in the courses, conscience of the dual missions of building academically excellent course, while keeping the Chicago Police Department's organizational goals moving forward. Currently, an average of 45-50 students enroll in each cohort in the Financial Fraud Examination and Management MBA concentration.

Evolution of the Financial Fraud Community of Practice

Consistent with Community of Practice theory, a resultant product of the Financial Fraud Examination and Management concentration should be the emergence of a new Community of Practice. Spinning off from the communities developed from the MBA program in general, this new specialized community would center on financial fraud examination.

Members of this new community of practice would have a greater overall awareness of fraud issues, would be recognized for their expertise in fraud, would be involved in cross-area communications on fraud issues, and would apply the knowledge gained in the community in settings outside of the community. The authors tested for evidence that this new segment of the Communities of Practice, the Financial Fraud Community of Practice, has developed.

Overview and Methodology

In this study, the participants are police officers in the Saint Xavier University Financial Fraud Examination and Management concentration MBA program. As was done in the previous case study (Watland, Kresse & Hallenbeck), the university continued to encourage or foster Communities of Practice among the MBA program participants by using program design factors that would provide forums and maximize opportunities for program participant interaction. The program design factors included engaging in extensive class discussions, group assignments, and leveraging class break times by providing meals for program participants to share.

The current case study investigated the program participants' interactions and the potential benefits of their interactions to the Chicago Police Department. Currently, more than 140 officers are enrolled in the MBA program offered at the Chicago Police Department Education and Training Division. The program participants are widely dispersed throughout the Chicago Police Department. The participants represent various geographical districts, specialized units, and detective divisions. The participants' experience as police officers ranges from 2 to 25 years. Program participants represent various ranks including police officers, detectives, sergeants, lieutenants, and district commanders.

Data was collected through surveys and interviews of MBA program participants enrolled in a Financial Fraud Management and Examination course. Fifty-two officers are enrolled in this course. The data collected from these participants described the utility of and interest in the topic content for program participants as well as describing the emerging Financial Fraud Community of Practice and the impact this Community of Practice may have on the host organization, the Chicago Police Department. Further, the data provided insight into the role of a management education program in fostering learning relationships critical to an organization's success.

The case study was guided by the following questions:

1. Has participation in this program made you more aware of financial fraud issues in the news?
2. Have you shared any financial fraud information discussed in this program or on the news with other class members?
3. Have you discussed or shared information from this program with someone in your District or Unit?

4. Do you believe you will be able to use, apply, or consider any information from the program in your District or Unit?

Results and Conclusions

Although Financial Fraud Examination is a topic that many officers would find interesting or might draw their attention to the news, we wanted to know if participating in the program increased their interest and awareness of this escalating crime. According to the survey response, 97% of the Financial Fraud Examination program participants have an increased awareness of financial fraud issues in the news. Further, more than 80% observed it had made them more aware of financial fraud issues in their District or unit. One of the respondents noted that the Financial Fraud Examination program has made him "[a]ware of different types of fraud schemes (in his District) and new ideas on how to run investigations".

As previously stated, there was concern in the Chicago Police Department that because of the department's size, and its inherent hierarchical, paramilitary structure, cross-area communications are inhibited, leading to expertise being difficult to locate and inaccessible. This perception seems to be confirmed in the survey. Approximately half of the participants indicated that they generally do not share job-related knowledge with members of their District or unit.

With this general inhibition to cross-area communication as a backdrop, the effect of the MBA program on communications and community building is striking.

Financial Fraud Examination MBA program participants were queried as to whether they discuss fraud issues, theories, or information with other program participants. As stated earlier, program participants are police officers, many with an expertise in financial crimes. Sharing information with other program participants is a means to steward valuable knowledge among officers. Eighty-two percent of respondents reported discussing and sharing information related to financial fraud with other program participants.

One of the goals of the entire management education program is to assist the Chicago Police Department with the sharing of information and expertise across the Department. In that regard, the management education program would be used as a catalyst to encourage discussion and communication across ranks and between and among Districts and Units. The survey of the Financial Fraud Examination MBA program students found that

more than 72% of respondents shared general job-related law enforcement information (i.e., other than fraud-related information) with other program participants. This suggests that among program participants, valuable pockets of expertise were located, shared, and stewarded across rank and departmental boundaries.

As stated above, the development of a new financial fraud examination community of practice would be evidenced by members being recognized for their expertise in fraud, being involved in cross-area communications on fraud issues, and applying knowledge gained in the community in settings outside of the community. As such, Financial Fraud Examination MBA program participants were also asked if they used and shared fraud-related information within their District or unit. The vast majority, 82%, of program participants indicated that they shared fraud information with others in their District or Unit. Some responses recorded by interview participants include:

"I share important information with co-workers regarding identity theft and fraud controls."

"I worked briefly in the Robbery-Burglary-Theft unit ... I was able to contribute to identifying accounting schemes."

"I often discuss identity theft, computer fraud, fraud controls and corruption in my unit."

"As a Watch Commander and Tactical Lieutenant, I now am able to assist subordinates with fraud matters."

Thus, from the initial Communities of Practice developed from the Chicago Police Department – Saint Xavier University management education program, it appears that a new financial fraud examination community of practice has spun off.

As observed in the initial case study on the attributes of the emerging Communities of Practice, the Financial Fraud Community of practice also seemed to benefit from opportunities for group assignments and projects, "meal breaks", and class discussions, all of which provided the participants with a forum to get to know each other on an academic and social level, rather than on a hierarchical rank or departmental basis. The opportunity to become acquainted during meals and work together on projects provided the participants with opportunities to learn from each other. Working together on

academic projects built a sense of trust among the program participants and provided insight into each other's expertise. (Watland, Kresse & Hallenbeck, 2007)

As shown in the initial case study, and as confirmed in the instant case study, a management education program may be able to improve organizational learning and knowledge-sharing opportunities for organizations through the fostering Communities of Practice. (Watland, Kresse & Hallenbeck, 2007)

This provides implications for both management education program design and organizational learning structures. A primary implication of this case study is the potential role that university management education programs can play in assisting organizations in building, strengthening, or connecting learning communities within organizations. This case study hopes to encourage additional research into the shared goals of management education programs and organizational and practitioners' needs.

Organizations continue to seek opportunities to maximize learning and share information. Institutions of higher learning continue to seek opportunities to serve nontraditional learners. Future research should examine methods for identifying and leveraging the converging goals of traditional management education programs and organizational learning needs.

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24/7 TECHNOLOGY, BUSINESS FACULTY, AND STRESS

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study, which was based on a literature review and earlier exploratory studies by the authors (Totten, et al, 2004), was to identify if technological factors (the "24/7" phenomenon) increase the stress levels of business faculty. Data was collected by distributing the survey to college of business faculty at two Louisiana universities. This exploratory study questioned the impact of 24/7 technology on faculty expectations related to the use of technology and work related stress.

Introduction

College teaching was once considered a "low stress occupation" (Fisher, 1992). Now, college faculty have more demands on their time including teaching, tutoring, career advising, scheduling student classes, conducting research and additional service to their discipline, department, college, university, and community. Frederick Endres and Stanley Wearden (1996) found in their study of full-time journalism and mass communications faculty, that ninety-seven percent reported they experience work-related stress and that this stress had a negative impact on their perceptions of themselves and their work. Walter Gmelch in his book *Coping with Faculty Stress* (1993) noted the negative impact that stress can have on faculty performance. One stress factor Dr. Gmelch identified was "time constraints". The constraint of time can be positively, negatively or not impacted by the adoption of technology and the expectation to continue to adopt new technology. This study was undertaken to determine business faculty perceptions of technology stress.

Mark Bittman is taking a "virtual break" (Bittman, 2008). He was a confessed "techno-addict", one who checks email first and last thing of the day, who must be in touch at all times. He found a term in blogs for a "secular Sabbath", an old-fashioned day not only for rest but relief from technology. He turned off his phones (cell and land line), TV, MP3 player, etc. He read a newspaper without hyperlinks and tried not to think about

what was accumulating in his personal cyberspace. David Levy, a professor in the information school at the University of Washington, stated "What's going on now is insane, living a good life requires a kind of balance, a bit of quiet." He questions if we are able to use all of the information that we are constantly bombarded with from a vast array of electronic media. "Information environmentalism" is Dr. Levy's term, concerning the questions about our brain and body limitations, which are similar to the current environmental movement (Bittman, 2008). As technology is embedded into our everyday lives, how do we find balance and still get it all done? What is the stress of having a gap between our expectations (using all the latest, newest electronic gadgets) and getting our work done? Where do we draw a line between always being available and needing down time? Being in academics the authors felt that we do have stress from ourselves, administrators, and student expectations that we be available anytime and from anywhere. This is especially true with current technology that not only makes this feasible but is hyped as the only way to function in today's fast changing world. To what extent is this stress new and how is it impacting our lives both at work and at home? These are the questions that this study was looking to answer.

In academics, as in other places of employment, employees have many stresses placed on them. As students expand their technology adoption, faculty can feel pressure to adopt new technology. A recent article in The

Chronicle of Higher Education by Jeffrey R. Young (Young, 2008) titled "Forget E-Mail: New Messaging Service Has Students and Professors Atwitter" reports on professors, librarians and administrators adopting Twitter, a microblogging tool that can send short notes (140 characters) to users' cell phones or computer screens. Professor David Parry, an assistant professor of emerging media and communications at the University of Texas at Dallas required the students to read his Twitter feed, although it could be questioned if this was academic since the article cited an instance where "he sent out a message that read: 'Reading, prepping for grad class, putting off running until it warms up a bit.'" He also required students to sign up for Twitter and to use it during the semester. The purpose behind using Twitter was to help the students build a sense of community. According to Professor Parry it is "the single thing that changed the classroom dynamics more than anything I've ever done teaching." However, according to Michael L. Barnett, University of South Florida business professor "instructors should be able to save time and effort by using technology, but in fact we are doing a lot of the administration instead now, so we have to deal with posting materials and learning all the different software and posting grades online and so forth. So our jobs have expanded rather than been shrunk by technology." (How Professors ..., 2008)

With an exponential growth in new technologies, including Web 2.0 and other social networking aspects, this study was initiated to determine whether the addition of technology, especially technology that allows for 24/7 access to and by the students, is positive, neutral, or negative to faculty perceptions of their workload stress.

Based on the literature review that follows and earlier exploratory studies by Jeffrey Totten, Barbara Scholdt, and Duane Donald (2004), the purpose of this study was to determine if technological factors (the "24/7" phenomenon) increase the stress levels of business faculty. We wanted to explore the comparison of what is going on in the business world with the academic world today. Are we expected to be available "On Demand" by our students, as salespersons and other service providers feel with respect to their clientele? Does this create stresses that college faculty were not experiencing five years ago? And what are the perceptions about future technology adoption into the classroom?

The participants of this exploratory study were faculty from two Louisiana state universities' colleges of business – Southeastern Louisiana University and McNeese State University. The study included questions about

the impact of 24/7 technology on faculty expectations related to the use of technology and work related stress.

Literature Review

This study hypothesized that age, years of experience, gender, and currently teaching online would be factors in how technology stress is perceived. The authors hypothesized that technology would cause more work-related stress in older faculty, faculty with more years of teaching experience, female faculty, and faculty not currently teaching online. The following is a review of the relevant literature in this area.

"Technostress," a term labeled by Craig Brod (1984), also known as technophobia and computer anxiety, manifests itself in two distinct but related ways: the struggle to accept computer technology and over-identification with technology. Ragu-Nathan, et al. (2004) identified five components of technostress, including "*Techno-invasion*. Technology invading personal lives, so less time is spent with family or on vacation, giving the time over instead to learning about new technology" (Tu, Wang, and Shu 2005, pp. 78-79). According to Todd Duncan in an article review about his book *Time Traps: Proven Strategies for Swamped Salespeople*, technology time saver devices may actually be a "technology trap" that wastes time (Johnson 2006). Mark Bittman's (2008) personal experiences discussed in the introduction demonstrate his response to the technostress – taking a "virtual break."

In salespersons technophobia was found to be related to age and education level and was a contributing factor to increased role stress (Rich 2000). Salespersons especially need to create boundaries between work and family since providing customers with your cell phone number, email address, and text and instant messaging numbers makes the salesperson accessible 24/7. Ellen Kossek found that "on average people who worked from one office spent 43 hours per week at work, those in two places spent 45 hours per week at work and those working in three places spend an average of 52 hours per week at work." An additional finding was that the employees working in more than one place had lower performance evaluations by their supervisors. Rather than the performance being lower, Dr. Kossek proposed that this "may actually be because supervisors do not know how to manage distance workers" ("Setting Boundaries Between" 2003). Do these observations carry over to academics?

Faculty stress as defined by Elizabeth J. Thorsen (1996, pg. 471): "occupational stress is that which occurs when

one perceives that the demands of the environment clearly exceed one's resources to handle them." Walter H. Gmelch (1993, pg.1) included the possible negative consequences from an inadequate response to the perceived demand adding to the individual faculty member's stress. Interestingly, Dr. Gmelch determined that stress could be positive, neutral or negative. We tend to focus on the negative consequences of stress, when in reality some stress keeps up alert, active and alive.

Virginia K. Hemby in her research about the level of computer anxiety in business communications classes (1998) found that gender was a significant predictor. She concluded that women tend to have less computer experiences and they approach new computer-related activities with less confidence. Hemby also found that self-direction, socioeconomic status and age were additional factors in determining computer anxiety (stress). Paul S. Voakes, Randal A. Beam and Cristine Ogan (2003) surveyed faculty and administrators in journalism and mass communications to determine the impact of technology. Their study was motivated by a national postsecondary faculty survey by the Higher Education Research Institute (HERI) in UCLA (Higher Education ..., 1999). HERI found that the "most frequently cited causes of stress in faculty life were time pressures, teaching load, committee work, lack of personal life, red tape and keeping up with information technology." Keeping up with information technology was reported as a stressor by more than two thirds of the respondents. The Voakes, Beam, and Ogan (2003) study found that "women faculty felt stress more acutely than men in the area of time constraints and professional identity." The results from their multiple regression statistical analysis was that gender and the nature of the course load (application versus concepts) were significant factors influencing technology-related stress, whereas age and tenure track were only marginally significant. Christine Ogan and Deborah Chung (2003) noted that research has shown that young women were driven away from computers and that the computer games and programs were not designed for women in the early stages of computer adoption in education (American Association ..., 2000). It should be noted that women now exceed the number of men doing online applications (More Women Online, 2007). Even with more women online the authors felt that gender would be a factor in technology stress for business faculty.

Elizabeth J. Thorsen (1996) found that stress varied by rank and that women tended to be assistant or associate professors. Thorsen also found that associate professors had the greatest stress when compared to assistant or full professors. Gmelch (1993) and Thorsen (1996) found

that the longer a faculty member had been teaching the less stress he/she experienced. Number of years teaching is often correlated with the rank of the professor, since rank has a years-in-teaching component to it at most institutions. In addition to rank and years in teaching, age would be a factor in technology stress. Leora Friedberg's (2003) research on technology change and older workers found that older workers used computers less than younger workers. However, older workers using computers tended to put off retirement.

An additional area of interest was, has the technology-related stress level increased, decreased or remained the same over the last five years. In a survey by John Kupersmith (2003) of librarians, he found that 59% of the respondents stated that their level of computer-related stress had increased in the past five years, 34% felt it had not changed much and only 4% believed it had decreased. In addition, 65% of the respondents reported that the technology-related stress is a somewhat serious problem for them, 8% said it was very serious, while 27% felt it wasn't serious at all. According to the respondents in Kupersmith's study, the causes of the technostress were information overload, networking problems, security issues, computer hardware and ergonomics, and vendor-produced databases.

According to Lee Schlenker and Adam Mendelson (2008, pg. 22), "the nature of business had radically changed in the past few decades. The image of nine-to-five office has been increasingly replaced by the notion of a business staffed by part-timers and consultants working on an as-needed basis. For many, 'work' is no longer a physical place they go to perform professional tasks, but rather an activity that can be conducted from any place at any time." It is technology that is facilitating this change in the workplace. We have and continue to move into a virtual work place. The technology is only a tool. It however has become a tool that plays a significant component for most of us both at work and at home.

Methodology

The questionnaire was composed of several sections, including the Faculty Stress Index (Gmelch, 1993, pp. 21-23), five scale items on care-giving's impact on one's career (Totten, Schuldt, and Donald, 2004), ten scale items on the impact of technology's 24/7 demand on faculty time, questions about computer usage and specific technologies' usage in the future, and demographics. After approval by both universities' Institutional Review Boards, the surveys were distributed via e-mail attachment to 67 faculty members at Southeastern

Louisiana University, including deans and department heads, and to 27 professors at McNeese State University, including the dean and department heads. Surveys were also distributed in hard copy form to those faculties who requested that format. Data were collected between February 19th and March 30th in 2008. The focus of this paper is on the questions addressing the impact of technology's 24/7 demand on faculty time, computer usage, and use of specific technologies in the future.

Results

Respondent Profile

A total of 54 surveys were returned by the end of March 2008, representing an overall response rate of 57.45%. Forty-two surveys were returned from the lead author's school (62.7% response rate), and 12 surveys were returned from the second author's school (44.44% response rate).

Thirty-four respondents (70.8%, 34/48) indicated that they were tenured or on tenure-track, while the remainder were in non-tenure-track positions. The majority of respondents were Professors (17/51, 33.3%). An equal number were either Associate or Assistant Professors (12/51, 23.5% each). Respondents' ages ranged from under 30 to over 65, with 11 (21.2%) falling within the 46-50 age category and another eight (15.4%) being between 56 and 60 years old. Twenty-six out of 51 who answered the question (51%) reported having 16 or more years of teaching experience. About seven out of ten respondents were male (33/47). Over three-quarters of the faculty were married (41/52, 78.8%), while two-thirds had earned Ph.D.s (35/52, 67.3%). Over a third of the respondents taught in the Management field (20/52, 38.5%), followed by Economics and Accounting (7 each, 13.5% each). Roughly a third of the respondents (19/53, 35.8%) reported that they teach online courses; of the 19, 10 teach more than 50% of the course online.

Cross-tabulations and chi square analysis were used to explore relationships among the demographic variables. Due to the small sample size, the significant chi square relationships found and reported below suffer from cell size problems. Business faculty at McNeese tended to be over 60, while faculty at Southeastern tended to be under 60 ($\chi^2 = 8.127$, $df = 3$, $p = .043$). Eleven of the 12 respondents from McNeese were men ($\chi^2 = 3.546$, $df = 1$, $p = .059$). Women respondents tended to be in non-tenure track positions ($\chi^2 = 11.038$, $df = 1$, $p = .002$). Those with Masters-level degrees or C.P.A.s tended to be in non-tenure track positions ($\chi^2 = 26.074$, $df = 5$, $p = .000$).

Associate Professors and Professors tended to report having 11 or more years of teaching experience, while Instructors and Assistant professors reported having 10 years or less ($\chi^2 = 26.898$, $df = 9$, $p = .001$). Instructors tended to be women ($\chi^2 = 18.25$, $df = 3$, $p = .000$). Professors tended to teach in Management, Marketing or other business fields, Associate Professors tended to teach in Accounting, Finance, Marketing or other business fields, Assistants teach in Economics, Finance, and Management, and Instructors tended to teach in Accounting, Management, or MIS ($\chi^2 = 26.165$, $df = 18$, $p = .096$). Professors tended to be over the age of 50 (when Age was recoded) while Instructors tended to be between the ages of 41 and 60 and Assistants below the age of 41 ($\chi^2 = 27.39$, $df = 9$, $p = .001$). For those teaching online courses, Instructors tended to teach more than 50% online, while Assistant Professors and Professors tended to teach less than 50% online. Associates tended to do both ($\chi^2 = 11.434$, $df = 6$, $p = .076$). Those who teach online tended to be between the ages of 51 and 60 ($\chi^2 = 8.415$, $df = 3$, $p = .038$).

Those with 11 or more years of teaching tended to teach in the fields of Management, Marketing, and other business, while those with six to 10 years of experience teach Accounting, Economics, or Management and those with five or fewer years of experience teach MIS, Economics, or Finance ($\chi^2 = 38.012$, $df = 18$, $p = .004$). Those with 16 years of teaching experience or more tended to be over the age of 50, while those with less than 16 years of experience tended to be age 50 or younger ($\chi^2 = 25.555$, $df = 9$, $p = .002$).

Younger professors (40 or below) tended to be single, while those older than 60 were either divorced or widowed ($\chi^2 = 15.896$, $df = 9$, $p = .069$). Male professors tended to have D.B.A. or Ph.D. degrees, while females had their C.P.A.'s or M.B.A.'s ($\chi^2 = 22.604$, $df = 5$, $p = .000$). Those teaching Finance or MIS tended to be female, while those teaching Management tended to be male ($\chi^2 = 10.844$, $df = 1$, $p = .003$). Women tended to have taught 10 years or less, while males tended to have taught 11 or more years ($\chi^2 = 6.966$, $df = 3$, $p = .073$).

Those with D.B.A. degrees tended to teach Management or Marketing, those with M.A. degrees or their C.P.A.s tended to teach Accounting, Economics and Finance professors tended to have Ph.D.s, and MIS teachers tended to have their M.B.A. degrees ($\chi^2 = 46.462$, $df = 30$, $p = .028$). Those with D.B.A. degrees tended to be over the age of 60, while those with M.B.A.s tended to be between the ages of 41 and 60 ($\chi^2 = 23.231$, $df = 15$, $p = .079$).

Overview of Tech 24/7 Impact

Faculty members were first asked how many hours during an average work day do they use computers. Twenty-nine out of the 54 respondents (53.7%) indicated they used computers between two and five hours during a work day, and 18 (33.3%) indicated usage between six and ten hours. Next, they were asked about computer usage during a typical non-work day. Twenty-eight of the 54 (51.9%) reported using computers less than two hours on non-work days, while 18 (33.3%) used computers between two and five hours on non-work days. Professors were then asked to write in or type numbers that reflected the percent of computer usage that related to their work. The 51 teachers who responded reported

five professors said accessibility had not changed (i.e., “as accessible”).

Ten scale items were developed and a Likert-type rating scale was used for each of the ten questions. Respondents were allowed to indicate “Not applicable” if they felt a question did not apply to their situation. Descriptive statistics for the 10 items are reported in Table 1. The Total column reflects the removal of “N/A” responses and item omissions. A wide variation in responses is noted by the standard deviations for the first, second, and eighth questions.

The last three questions that dealt with technology 24/7 impact involved “check all that apply” responses to: in-

TABLE 1
ISSUES REGARDING TECHNOLOGY’S 24/7 DEMAND ON TEACHING CAREERS

Issue	Mean	S.D.	Median	Mode	N/A	N (total)
I am pressured to use Blackboard or another course management tool.	2.74	1.470	3	1	0	53
I feel pressure to use e-mail to correspond with my students.	2.80	1.497	3	1	0	54
Being accessible in the evenings is expected by my students.	2.98	1.367	3	4	0	54
Being accessible on the weekends is expected by my students.	2.96*	1.414	3	4	1	53
I am pressured to include technology in my classes.	2.78	1.369	3	1	0	54
I am frustrated by the lack of technology at my university.	2.73*	1.315	3	3	2	52
I am frustrated by the lack of funding for technology classroom enhancements.	3.02*	1.229	3	3	2	52
I often purchase my own hardware and technology for use at school.	2.60*	1.455	3	1	6	48
I often purchase my own software for use at school.	2.63*	1.393	3	1	3	48
Students expect immediate response to their communications.	3.57	1.297	4	4	0	54
Scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree; *N/A responses removed before means were calculated.						

percentages ranging from 33% to 100%, with a mean of 75.78% and a standard deviation of 16.681%. The modal response was 80% while the median was 80%. The last question before the 10 scale item questions dealt with accessibility to students versus five years ago. Forty-six (90.2%) out of the 51 faculty who answered the question said technology had made them more accessible to students compared to five years ago, while the remaining

teracting with students via technology at home, plans over the next two years to investigate the feasibility of using certain technology tools (e.g. blogs and wikis), and intentions to implement within the next 12 months these same technology tools. A summary of responses to the question of student interaction via technology at home is provided in Table 2. Responses to the two technology tools questions are summarized in Table 3.

TABLE 2 INTERACTING WITH STUDENTS THROUGH TECHNOLOGY AT HOME HAS ...	
Statement	# Checked
allowed more flexibility to deal with personal issues	20
not interfered with my family time	20
not changed my job	19
made my job more enjoyable	18
interfered with my family time	14
made my job less enjoyable	07

TABLE 3 TECHNOLOGY TOOLS: ASSESS FEASIBILITY OR IMPLEMENT IN CLASSES			
Feasibility	# Checked	Implement	# Checked
Course management software [CMS]	17	CMS	19
Business function specific software [BFSS]	11	BFSS	09
Blogs	07	Youtube	07
Youtube	06	Blogs	05
Podcasts	06	Wikis	04
Wikis	04	Podcasts	04
Myspace	03	Virtual E.	02
Facebook	03	Facebook	01
Virtual environments (e.g., Second Life)	01	Myspace	01

Further analyses were conducted using chi square analysis and nonparametric statistics where appropriate, using most of the demographic variables. As before, there were significant cell size problems with most of the cross-tabulations. First, we look at significant results regarding the computer usage and tech tools questions. Then we look at significant results on the 10 scale items.

Significant Findings: Computer Usage & Tech Tools

School

Professors at McNeese State University tended to use computers more (11 hours plus) during work days versus two to five hours for those at the other school ($\chi^2 = 7.371$, $df = 3$, $p = .061$), and felt that technology had made them as accessible to their students compared with five years ago ($\chi^2 = 4.84$, $df = 1$, $p = .028$). Professors at this school also tended to check that interacting with students via technology at home made their jobs more enjoyable ($\chi^2 = 4.339$, $df = 1$, $p = .044$).

Tenure Status

Professors with tenure or on tenure-track tended to spend two to five or more than 10 hours using the computer at work, whereas those who are non-tenure-track tended to spend six to 10 hours during a typical work day ($\chi^2 = 6.299$, $df = 3$, $p = .098$).

Rank

Associate professors indicated that they plan on using podcasts in their classes within the next 12 months ($\chi^2 = 7.419$, $df = 3$, $p = .06$).

Years Teaching

Professors with less than six years of teaching experience indicated that interacting with students via technology at home had not changed their jobs ($\chi^2 = 7.621$, $df = 3$, $p = .055$). Professors with less than six years of teaching experience plan on assessing the feasibility of using blogs ($\chi^2 = 8.668$, $df = 3$, $p = .034$), Facebook ($\chi^2 = 10.359$, $df = 3$, $p = .016$), Youtube ($\chi^2 = 17.565$, $df = 3$, $p = .001$), virtual environments ($\chi^2 = 7.65$, $df = 3$, $p = .054$), MySpace ($\chi^2 = 9.549$, $df = 3$, $p = .023$), and wikis ($\chi^2 = 16.944$, $df = 3$, $p = .001$) within the next two years. These same teachers will implement blogs ($\chi^2 = 13.159$, $df = 3$, $p = .004$), Facebook ($\chi^2 = 7.65$, $df = 3$, $p = .054$), Youtube ($\chi^2 = 12.797$, $df = 3$, $p = .005$), virtual environments ($\chi^2 = 15.612$, $df = 3$, $p = .001$), MySpace ($\chi^2 = 7.65$, $df = 3$, $p = .054$), and wikis ($\chi^2 = 16.944$, $df = 3$, $p = .001$) in their classes within the next 12 months.

Fields

Accounting, MIS, and Marketing professors indicated that interacting with students via technology at home interfered with their family time ($\chi^2 = 16.114$, $df = 6$,

$p = .013$). Economics and MIS professors plan to assess the feasibility of using Youtube in their classrooms over the next two years ($\chi^2 = 12.672$, $df = 6$, $p = .049$). MIS professors plan on assessing the feasibility of using Myspace ($\chi^2 = 11.707$, $df = 6$, $p = .069$) and virtual environments ($\chi^2 = 25.49$, $df = 6$, $p = .000$) in their classrooms over the next two years, and will implement the use of Myspace within the next year ($\chi^2 = 25.49$, $df = 6$, $p = .000$). They will also implement the use of virtual environments ($\chi^2 = 12.792$, $df = 6$, $p = .046$) and, along with Accounting professors, podcasts ($\chi^2 = 13.103$, $df = 6$, $p = .041$).

Online

Business faculty who don't teach online classes tended to check "has not interfered with my family time" ($\chi^2 = 5.182$, $df = 1$, $p = .023$), and plan on using business function-specific software ($\chi^2 = 2.885$, $df = 1$, $p = .089$). Those teaching online classes plan on accessing the feasibility of using wikis ($\chi^2 = 2.884$, $df = 1$, $p = .089$ vs. Fisher's $p = .126$). Professors who teach online plan on implementing blogs ($\chi^2 = 4.68$, $df = 1$, $p = .031$), virtual environments ($\chi^2 = 3.719$, $df = 1$, $p = .054$ vs. Fisher's $p = .124$), and wikis ($\chi^2 = 2.884$, $df = 1$, $p = .089$ vs. Fisher's $p = .126$). Finally, business professors who teach online indicated that technology had made them more accessible to the students than they were five years ago ($\chi^2 = 3.125$, $df = 1$, $p = .077$).

Significant Findings: Scale Items

Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted on the 10 scale items by demographic variables that had only two choices (school, gender, online, tenure status). No significant differences were identified by online and tenure status.

One significant and three marginally significant results were found by school. Two-tailed tests of significance were used, since we had no directional hypotheses. McNeese faculty disagreed with the statement, "I feel pressure to use e-mail to correspond with my students," while the lead author's colleagues were more ambivalent (Means: 2.08 vs. 3.00, $Z = -1.838$, $p = .066$). The McNeese colleagues tended to agree with this statement: "I am frustrated by the lack of funding for technology classroom enhancements" (3.64 vs. 2.85, $Z = -1.799$, $p = .072$). Southeastern colleagues tended to disagree with these statements, while McNeese colleagues were more ambivalent, leaning toward agreement: "I often purchase my own hardware and technology for use at school" (2.41 vs. 3.27, $Z = -1.717$, $p = .086$), and "I am

frustrated by the lack of technology at my university," (2.50 vs. 3.50, $Z = -2.251$, $p = .024$).

Three significant differences were identified by gender. A one-tailed test was used, since we expected women to encounter more tech 24/7 stress. Men tended to disagree with the following statement, while women tended to agree: "I feel pressure to use e-mail to correspond with my students" (2.30 vs. 3.79, $Z = -3.111$, $p = .001$ ($p = .002$ for two-tailed test)). Women tended to lean toward agreeing with these two statements, while men leaned more toward disagreement: "I am pressured to use Blackboard or another course management tool" (3.43 vs. 2.48, $Z = -1.994$, $p = .023$ (.046 for two-tailed)), and "I am pressured to include technology in my classes" (3.43 vs. 2.52, $Z = -1.98$, $p = .024$ (.048 for two-tailed)).

Kruskal-Wallis tests were conducted on the 10 scale items for the remaining demographic variables that had more than two choice categories. Significant differences by rank, years of teaching experience, degree earned, discipline taught, and age (recoded) were identified.

Instructors and Associate Professors tended to agree with the statement, "I feel pressure to use e-mail to correspond with my students," while Assistant Professors and Professors tended to disagree (3.7 and 3.5 vs. 2.41 and 2.0, $\chi^2 = 10.472$, $df = 3$, $p = .015$).

Professors with less than six years of experience tended to agree with the statement, "I am frustrated by the lack of technology at my university," while those with 16 or more years of experience tended to disagree (3.40 vs. 2.24, $\chi^2 = 6.544$, $df = 3$, $p = .088$). Those with less than 16 years of experience tended to agree with this statement, "I am frustrated by the lack of funding for technology classroom enhancements," while those with 16+ years tended to disagree (3.43 to 4.00 vs. 2.38, $\chi^2 = 13.423$, $df = 3$, $p = .004$).

Those who have earned D.B.A or M.B.A. degrees tended to agree with "I am pressured to use Blackboard or another course management tool" (3.75 and 3.86 vs. 1.0 – 3.0, $\chi^2 = 9.436$, $df = 5$, $p = .093$), and "I am pressured to include technology in my classes" (3.75 and 3.86 vs. 1.0 – 3.0, $\chi^2 = 11.33$, $df = 5$, $p = .045$). M.B.A.s tended to strongly agree with "I feel pressure to use e-mail to correspond with my students" (4.29 vs. 1.0 – 3.0, $\chi^2 = 10.483$, $df = 5$, $p = .063$).

Finance and MIS professors tended to agree with "I am pressured to include technology in my classes" whereas

Economics professors tended to disagree (4.25 and 4.0 vs. 1.71, $\chi^2 = 13.398$, $df = 6$, $p = .037$).

Younger professors (40 or under) tended to agree with this statement, "I am frustrated by the lack of technology at my university," while those between the ages of 51 and 60 tended to disagree (3.45 vs. 2.14, $\chi^2 = 6.719$, $df = 3$, $p = .081$). Professors who are 50 or younger tended to agree with the statement, "I am frustrated by the lack of funding for technology classroom enhancements," while those between the ages of 51 and 60 tended to disagree (3.5 to 3.82 vs. 2.29, $\chi^2 = 13.102$, $df = 3$, $p = .004$). Professors over the age of 60 tended to disagree with "I feel pressure to use e-mail to correspond with my students," while those between the ages of 41 and 50 leaned toward agreement (2.0 vs. 3.38, $\chi^2 = 6.253$, $df = 3$, $p = .10$).

Discussion

With respect to our tentative hypothesis about age and stress, it appears that we need to rethink it, as we didn't find much evidence of tech stress among the older faculties. They were not as concerned about the lack of technology available at their schools as were younger professors. It could be that they are closer to retirement, so the stress "rolls off" their backs much more often. A colleague, who has since retired, told one of the authors that he had to put himself back in time, so to speak, in order to relate to and answer the survey questions. Another conjecture is that older faculty are not as aware of newer technologies as the younger faculty, therefore would not be as concerned about institutions keeping up with technology, an acceptance of the status quo.

Turning to years of teaching experience and stress, it would appear that our tentative hypothesis is also wrong. More stress, in terms of "frustration," was felt by professors with fewer years of teaching experience. As this variable is correlated with age, the suggested reason mentioned in the prior paragraph would also apply to years of teaching.

Only one indication of possible stress was found with regard to gender. This time, the hypothesis of more stress on women seemed to have some validity, though of course we have a limited sample size and only three significant findings to contemplate.

One interesting finding was the seeming lack of stress among faculty who teach online. Non-online teachers checked that technology had not interfered with family life, but online teachers did not check that it had interfered. Online teachers were more likely to use some

of the newer technology concepts in their classes in the future. While we don't have irrefutable evidence, it appears that we need to rethink our tentative hypothesis that non-online teachers would have more stress.

The next step is to conduct a larger study of business faculty across the United States of America. The larger sample will provide us with a true test of hypotheses as well as allow us to properly evaluate the scale items discussed in this paper. Due to the sample size, factor analysis could not be conducted. The ten items were subjected to reliability analysis; all 10 items remained in the analysis as Cronbach's Alpha was a solid 0.816. From the expanded business faculty study, it would seem to be appropriate to broaden the sample in a third study to include faculty from other disciplines, not just business.

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APPLYING PROJECT MANAGEMENT CONCEPTS TO ACADEMIC PLANNING: UNDERGRADUATE DEGREE AS A CASE STUDY

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ABSTRACT

An undergraduate degree program, much like a conventional business project, is associated with triple constraints of time, cost, and scope. Further, complexity and constraints are common characteristics of both the business project and the undergraduate degree program. It is common practice that universities offer a wide range of courses covering several disciplines to meet student needs. Consequently, students will have a number of choices to make in terms of course selection. However, course sequence, prerequisites, requirement of number of credit hours in different category of courses, major courses, and other degree and college requirements place multiple constraints in planning an undergraduate degree. It is in this context, this paper proposes the use of project planning techniques. After comparing conventional projects and the undergraduate degree program, different project planning tools are presented to demonstrate their usefulness in academic planning.

Introduction

With the growing competition, many academic institutions attempt to attract potential applicants by offering, among other things, the undergraduate degree program with many options in choosing a major and courses from a number of disciplines. New courses, majors, and more options to meet student and job market needs add up to complexity in managing undergraduate programs.

An undergraduate degree program is very much akin to managing a project in that it is constrained by schedule (number of years and number of credits), cost (of tuition, books, room, and board), and scope (the chosen degree academic requirements). Given that projects and undergraduate degree programs have their respective constraints of scope, time, and cost, this paper evaluates the applicability of some of the project management processes, tools, and techniques in order to adopt a systematic approach to academic planning of an undergraduate degree program in such a way that it maximizes the likelihood of successful completion as signified by graduation.

This paper will discuss project and project management concepts, their processes, tools, and techniques with the purpose of examining their relevance and applicability to an undergraduate degree program. The paper will focus on improving efficiency and effectiveness of undergraduate degree program academic planning.

We begin this paper with a comparative analysis of concepts associated with a traditional business project and the undergraduate program to identify and discuss similarities and differences with a purpose to examine its relevance. Project management utilizes several processes, tools, and techniques in different phases of the project management life cycle. In the next section, we have chosen a few relevant tools and techniques to demonstrate the applicability of project management for academic planning. Finally, we conclude the paper with a summary of our analysis and recommendation for applying project management concepts to academic planning.

Relevance of Project Management

Definition of a Project

Several definitions of 'project' are in vogue. Of these, Project Management Institute's definition assumes importance because of its recognition and widespread use in the profession. Project Management Book of Knowledge (PMBOK®) defines 'project' as a temporary endeavor to create a unique product, service, or result. From research and pragmatic perspectives, Gray and Larson (2005) define project as a complex, non-routine, one-time effort limited by time, budget, resources, and performance specifications designed to meet customer needs. PMBOK's definition uses the term 'temporary'

to imply that it has a definite beginning and definite ending. Gray and Larson's definition uses the term 'non-routine,' which suggests that a project is associated with something new.

Therefore, we define project as a distinctly different time-bound effort that has a definite beginning, definite ending. It could also have several related and interdependent tasks to create a unique product or service. Further, a project is usually associated with uncertainties and unknowns. The term time-bound does not mean that project duration is short, just that there is a target duration specified for the project.

Examining an academic degree program such as an undergraduate degree, with project management terminology reveals that it fits the definition of a typical project. An undergraduate degree program is a time-bound effort in that the majority of the students attempt to complete it in four years. The undergraduate degree has definite beginning and definite ending with likely and desired outcome of graduating from the program. Interdependency is a result of the prescribed course sequence such as taking a 200 level course before attempting 300 and 400 level courses. The unique product will be the undergraduate degree, which is often personalized with a unique academic record for each student.

One may argue that going through an undergraduate degree program is more in line to a process rather than a project. The distinction between project and process is that projects are new, temporary, and unique whereas processes are routine, ongoing, and repetitive. We argue that though there are certain elements such as registration, attendance, and repetition of these activities are similar to process, the actual academic work and experience associated with each semester is different and exclusive. It is far more in line with a project than a process. In reality, as is the case with many projects, one can view it as a deliverable-based project if one looks at the final outcome of the four years of effort, which is the diploma. Alternately, it can be viewed as an activity-based project if one focuses on the effort necessary to take the various courses that comprise a particular discipline.

Objectives that Justify the Project

Conceptually, projects can be created and managed to fulfill organizational objectives or strategic needs such as operational necessities, technological advancements, legal requirements, customer, market demand, and social need (non-profit and government). Increasingly, projects have become the vehicles to accomplish strategic objectives and goals of organizations. In busi-

ness, projects are used as means to accomplish various business results such as the implementation of new processes, capital expansion, and new product or service development efforts.

However, in the context of the academic project of an undergraduate degree program, the objective is to complete the degree program on time, within budget, and to fulfill professional, and personal goals. Other possible objectives could be the desire to:

- ▶ Be more intellectually polished
- ▶ Improve the ability to make more money
- ▶ Be Involve in a certain sets of job or professional endeavors

Another subtle goal would be to have the opportunity to make friends with a particular segment of the society or to have the prestige of having a bachelor degree, or a graduate degree.

Project Initiation

A project is initiated when a need is identified. To meet this need, various alternatives, known as project proposals in business world, are considered and a formal project selection method is employed to select the one that meets the need effectively and efficiently while fulfilling the project selection criteria. Likewise, in the context of an undergraduate degree program, prospective students evaluate the suitability of various degree programs and universities before applying. The college application process, admission, and selection of a degree program and a university follow a decision-making process that is quite similar to business project selection process, guided by an informal and intuitive prioritization model.

Project Constraints

Unfamiliarity of the project personnel with the uniqueness of the project deliverable often characterizes the project. Nonetheless, formalized project management is concerned with completing a project on time, within budget, and according to the project specifications while satisfying both the customer and project team expectations.

The typical undergraduate degree program, just as a business project, is a time-bound effort, which is supposed to end at graduation. Like a project, it has a definite budget and scope of work. Undergraduate students are governed by their university's academic policies. Most of the constraints—such as number of credit hours, minimum credit-hours per semester, academic performance,

minimum GPA requirements, academic honesty, advising, academic probation, class attendance, tuition and its timely payment, course repetition policy, prerequisites, withdrawal policies, and application for graduation—are dictated by the academic policies defined by the university, college, department, and the individuals major of the study. These constraints, in turn, influence the schedule and cost constraints of the individual tasks of the project.

For instance, a full-time undergraduate student is required to register for a minimum of 12 credit hours per semester at Western Carolina University. Further, the academic advisor, based on prerequisite and academic major requirements, recommends the sequence of courses after the student declares a particular major. Likewise, poor academic performance in a course resulting in F grade compels students to repeat the course thereby incurring additional cost and time. This is very similar to repeating a project task when its deliverable fails to meet the quality standards. Students are eligible for financial aid after meeting certain academic criteria and satisfactory academic performance. This is the incentive to achieve the highest level of quality in the individual deliverables of the projects: the courses.

Managing the Project

In essence, PMBOK® defines project management as the application of knowledge, tools, and techniques to project activities to meet project requirements. To elaborate further, project management is concerned with completing a project on time, within budget, and according to the project specifications while satisfying both the customer and the project team expectations. Project management is essentially the application of specific procedures, tools, and skills, in achieving the goals of the client, as reflected in the project objectives. In terms of presence, stature, and recognition, formalized project management is approaching the long established professions such as engineering, law, and medicine.

A project team consists of a project manager and a group of people with diverse skills and disciplines who manage projects. As a consequence, managing a project requires both leadership and management skills in motivating team members and in planning, organizing, monitoring, and controlling project activities to accomplish project objectives. To manage the complexity associated with a project, project management tasks employ processes such as risk management planning and scheduling in addition to project management tools and techniques.

Managing an undergraduate degree program is quite different and does not need such an elaborate and systematic approach as in the case of a business project. The reason is simple: it is mostly an individual effort; and therein lies the biggest difference between a business project and the academic project under consideration, albeit there are a few IT projects that are conducted by an individual. However, some of the project management concepts, tools, and techniques can be used for the purpose of managing complexity and improving planning, organizing, and self-motivating. The purpose of this paper is to demonstrate the usefulness of project planning tools in the context of planning an undergraduate degree program.

Work Breakdown Structure

Work Breakdown Structure (WBS) is an important project-planning tool for managing the scope of the project. The underlying concept of WBS is hierarchical breakdown of the project scope into deliverable work elements such that it facilitates managing these work elements effectively and developing an optimum project schedule at the work element level.

WBS is primarily used to facilitate the adoption a systematic planning process, and to eliminate the possibility of omission of key project elements. WBS should be comprehensive enough to encompass all the activities associated with the project. Additionally, well-developed WBS will improve the accuracy of the project schedule.

In academic parlance, individual courses of the undergraduate degree program will be the lowest level work element. The higher level of elements will be foundation of knowledge courses, liberal studies courses, major area courses, and general electives. To illustrate the concept, the work breakdown structure for the undergraduate degree with a major in management at Western Carolina University is shown Figure 1.

Figure 1 shows that courses required to obtain the degree in management are divided into four categories at level 1 namely, foundation of knowledge courses, liberal studies, major area courses and general electives. As can be seen in the figure, there are no stipulations for liberal studies and general electives, but one can easily add constraints or conditions if necessary. For example, liberal studies may require 6 credit hours each for sociology, psychology, geography, and philosophy subjects. Further, an individual may be required to take courses in a specific sequence; a 200 level course must precede a 300 level course.

Figure 1 serves well in informing a student majoring in the discipline of management about whether taking a certain course is required or optional. Additionally, the schedule, which is built on the WBS foundation, will identify which courses require prerequisites, and how many courses are required within each category. However, these prerequisite conditions are not detailed in the WBS but they are in the schedule that includes all those WBS items. These prerequisites can be courses or the number of credit hours or both. Therefore, sequence constraints exist but cannot be reflected in WBS, but they are clarified in the schedule, or rather through the sequence logic of the schedule network. The network diagram will specify and highlight predecessor and successor relations among the courses in a graph or table.

Project Scheduling

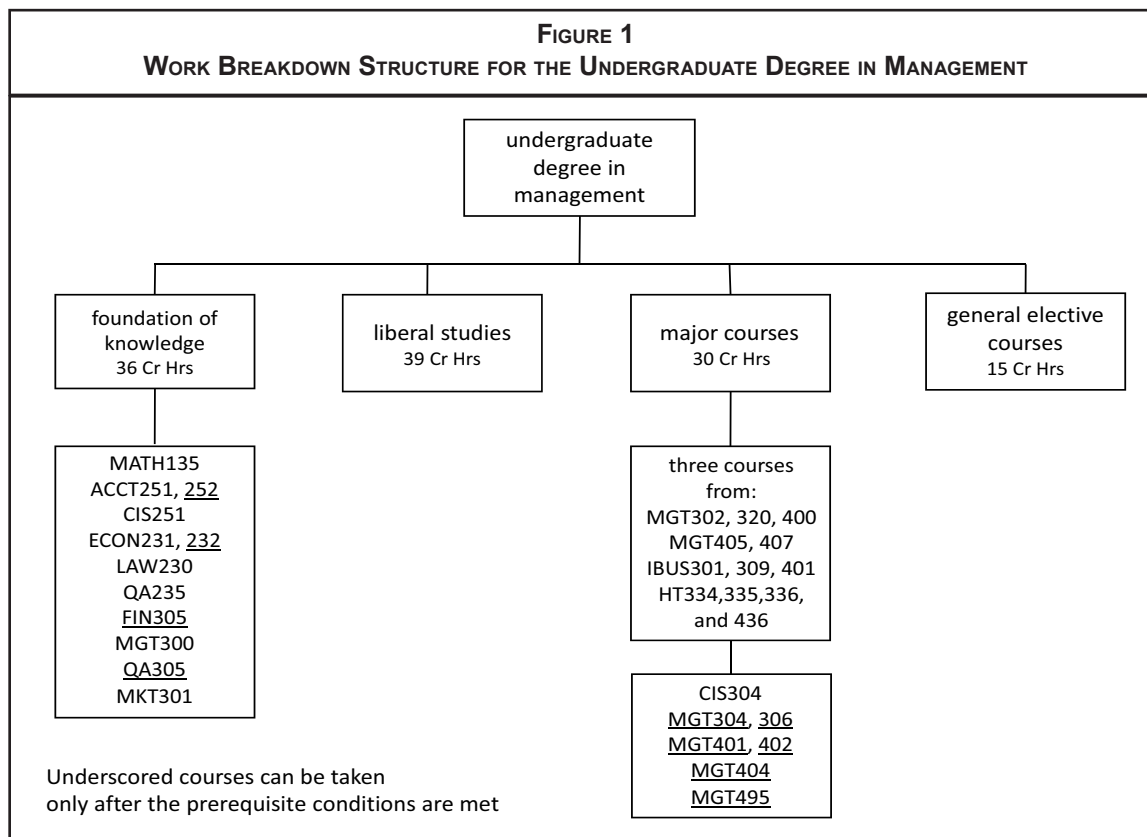
Scheduling is normally known for assigning calendar dates of starting and completing activities of the project. However, it can be used for many other purposes. Using the logical sequence of executing each activity, we can estimate the total duration of the project, allocate resources, and if required, adjust the allocation of resources. Scheduling tools and the associated data can be used for making decisions such as optimizing project

duration, minimizing cost, and making effective use of resources.

In the context of academic planning, scheduling techniques can be used to develop plans for taking courses. To illustrate the usefulness of scheduling techniques, network diagram and Gantt chart are discussed.

Project Network

Network diagramming is a scheduling technique that is fundamental to project planning. Project network shows the interdependencies of all tasks and illustrates the workflow of the project. Network diagrams have evolved as a standard for building project schedules because of their emphasis on dependency relations at various levels of detail. We can use network diagrams to represent the complete project, or a part of it such as a sub-project, or even as visual maps that represent major work elements or activities with their logical sequence of execution. We can adopt two methods to develop network diagram; we can use either an arrow in the diagram or simply read the diagram from left to right to identify these relationships.



In the first method, an arrow is always directional, with the arrowhead demonstrating the direction; needless to say, there must be an arrowhead on each arrow to indicate its direction. Due to the explicit nature of arrows, they may be used to denote direction from the left to the right, up, or down. Further, arrows should not proceed to the left.

In the second method, in the absence of arrows, one can assume that the activities proceed from left to right. No activity will proceed from right to left. It is simple to understand. This second method is employed in this paper to illustrate the usefulness of network diagrams.

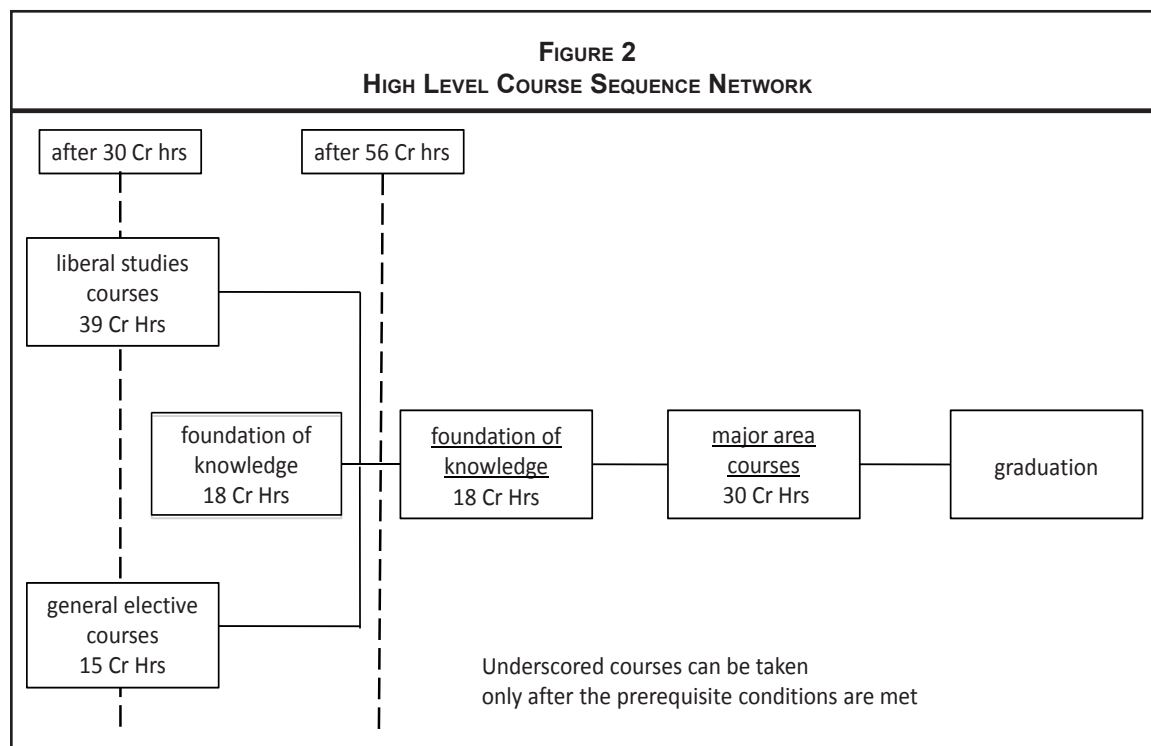
Project activities usually have predecessor and successor relations whereas activities associated with processes often use feedback and feed-forward loops. It is crucial to avoid building loops into the network, by error or otherwise. If an arrow can never proceed to the left, no loops can be built into the network. It also turns out to be true that if arrows cannot proceed to the left, it is much less likely that arrows will cross each other within the network. Thus, unnecessary confusion can be eliminated.

For clarity, network diagrams can also use additional information. In the same manner that every project has a definite beginning and an end, the network diagram must use only one starting point; and only one ending point. It is common practice, therefore, to add start and

end additional nodes to symbolize and highlight the highly emotionally charged milestones of starting the project (going to college) and completing the project (graduating). Then, all earlier activities of the project are initiated from the start node. Intermediate and later activities will be tied in to the end node either directly or indirectly, in sequence with other activities. Needless to say, the duration of both the start and end nodes will be of zero duration, because they are milestones.

Using these network diagram concepts, we can capture the recommended and required course sequence for an undergraduate degree program with different levels of detail. Figure 2 shows course requirements at a higher level.

Using the network shown in figure 2, students can plan their course load for each semester and select the appropriate courses in the correct sequence. This high-level course sequence network provides necessary information about the chosen major. Using management major, figure 2 provides critical course planning information about the major area. In this case, management majors can take any general elective course or liberal study course in the first semester of the freshman year. A student is allowed to attempt any of the foundation of knowledge courses only after completing 30 credit hours, which generally restricts management majors from taking any of the foundation of knowledge courses during the first



year of their undergraduate program. Likewise, students are allowed to take major area courses after certain prerequisite conditions are met.

However, this network, being at higher level, does not show actual conditions, constraints, and predecessor and successor relations which exist at course level only. For instance, a student cannot register for foundation knowledge course QA235 without completing QA135 course. Understanding these predecessor and prerequisite relations is important for planning a semester course load, which underlines the need to develop a network diagram at the course level. In fact, course level is the lowest level for planning an academic degree program.

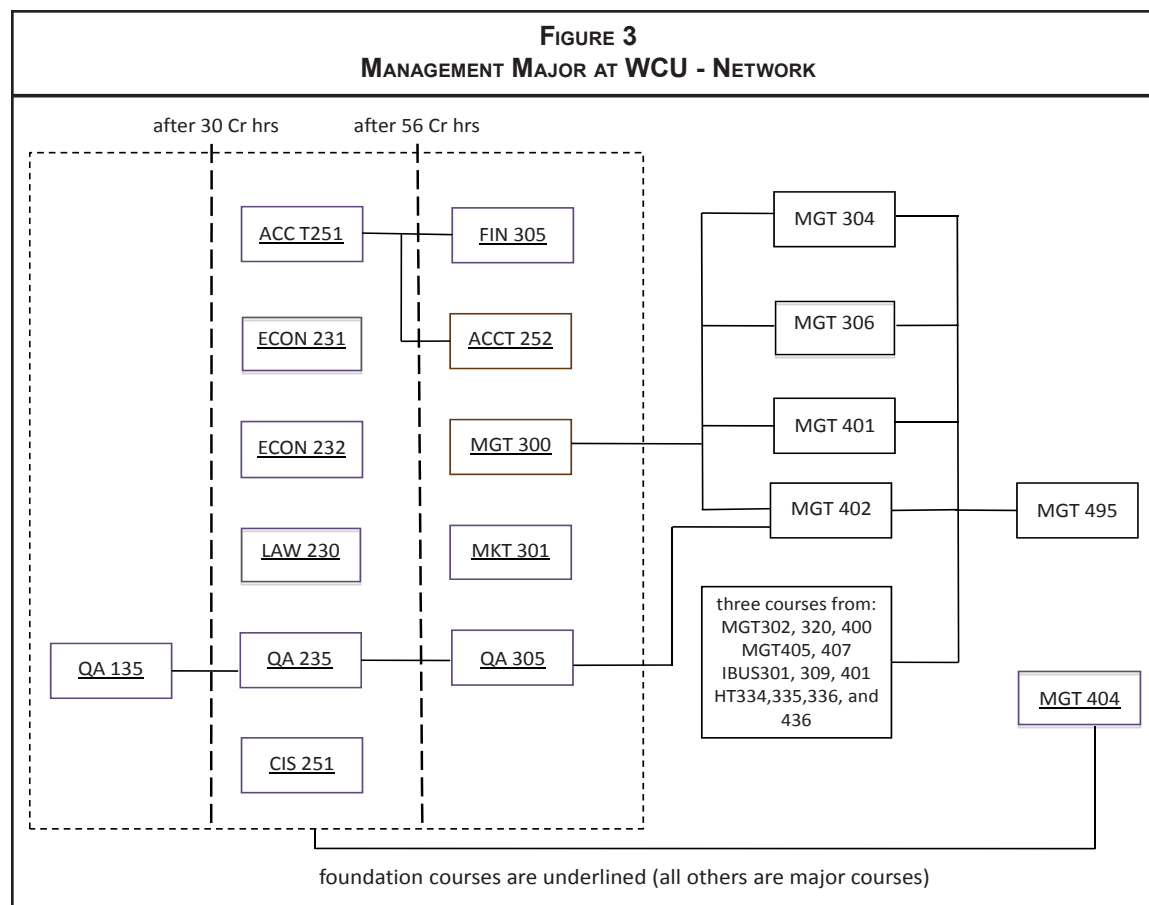
Figure 3 shows the lower level relations for a BS degree with a major in management for illustration purpose and to demonstrate the usefulness of this technique. The courses and their relations were adopted from a management degree plan used at Western Carolina University.

The network diagram offers several benefits. Faculty advisors can use this tool to improve communication with advisees. Figure 3 depicts a clear picture of prereq-

uisites, conditions, courses, and their sequence. It is easy to understand the relations among courses and a quick glance will give a total picture about all the major area courses and foundation of knowledge courses. From the perspective of students, the effort required is minimal compared to reading a document of instructions and mapping out the sequence for themselves. Needless to say visual learners welcome the idea of presenting course sequence in this fashion.

Figure 3 unambiguously underlines the necessity of students registering for liberal studies and general electives during the freshman year as foundation of knowledge course cannot be attempted before completing 30 credit-hours.

In addition to a clear understanding of the sequence of courses, a student's planning time horizon will increase. For instance, it becomes obvious from the network diagram (figure 3) that MGT402 has to be planned at least three semesters before because a student will be eligible to register only after completing three courses, QA135, QA235, and QA305 in that order. There are additional constraints for taking MGT402; a student will be eli-



gible to take MGT402 after completing a minimum of 56 credit hours and MGT 300 course.

Likewise, MGT495 and MGT404 courses can be taken only in the final semester of the undergraduate program. As can be seen in figure 3, students are eligible to take MGT404 and MGT495 only after taking all the foundation and major area courses respectively.

In addition to the predecessor and successor relations among activities as shown in Figure 3, network diagrams also include more detailed project information such as duration of each activity, critical path, and possibly the completion time of the each activity and project. In academic planning context, not all these concepts are relevant because time duration for each course is fixed and we cannot add more resources to complete a course earlier. However, students can record their plans in the network diagram elements (courses) by adding anticipated the semester and year. For personal records, students can use these network diagrams to note their grades as well.

Even though network diagram allows students to show duration of each course and the total duration, they still will have to plan their courses for a time period such as semesters and calendar year and it is not possible in a network diagram. The reason is simple. Network diagram is a concept that depicts relations among activities but it is not drawn on a time scale. Gantt chart drawn on a time scale and meets this specific need.

Gantt Charts

Graphical presentation of a schedule can be in different formats and one of them is the Gantt chart. Gantt chart is often considered the visual symbol of project schedule. A Gantt chart is easy to understand and is an effective communication tool for those who are not well versed with project planning tools. Therefore, it assumes more importance in the present context.

Often used in the project management for communication purposes with the senior management, a Gantt chart provides a graphical demonstration of a schedule that can be used to plan, coordinate, and track specific tasks in a project. It is usually drawn with activities on Y-axis and time scale on X-axis. With this tool, we can schedule courses for every semester as shown in Figure 4. A variation of Gantt chart is a time-phased chart where only the major milestones of the project are plotted. This chart is aptly called a milestone chart. Gantt charts and milestone charts are often used in conjunction with a network diagram in order to show a comprehensive suite

of project information for baselines, schedule computations, and adjustments (Rad and Anantatmula 2005).

Figure 4 shows a list of courses and the semester they are planned. For illustration purpose, we have shown five to six courses per semester in the Gantt chart. Each course is assigned a start date and end date, and its total duration is 12 weeks. Figure 4 has shown the plan for three semesters but the Gantt chart can be used to plan for the entire undergraduate degree program of eight semesters.

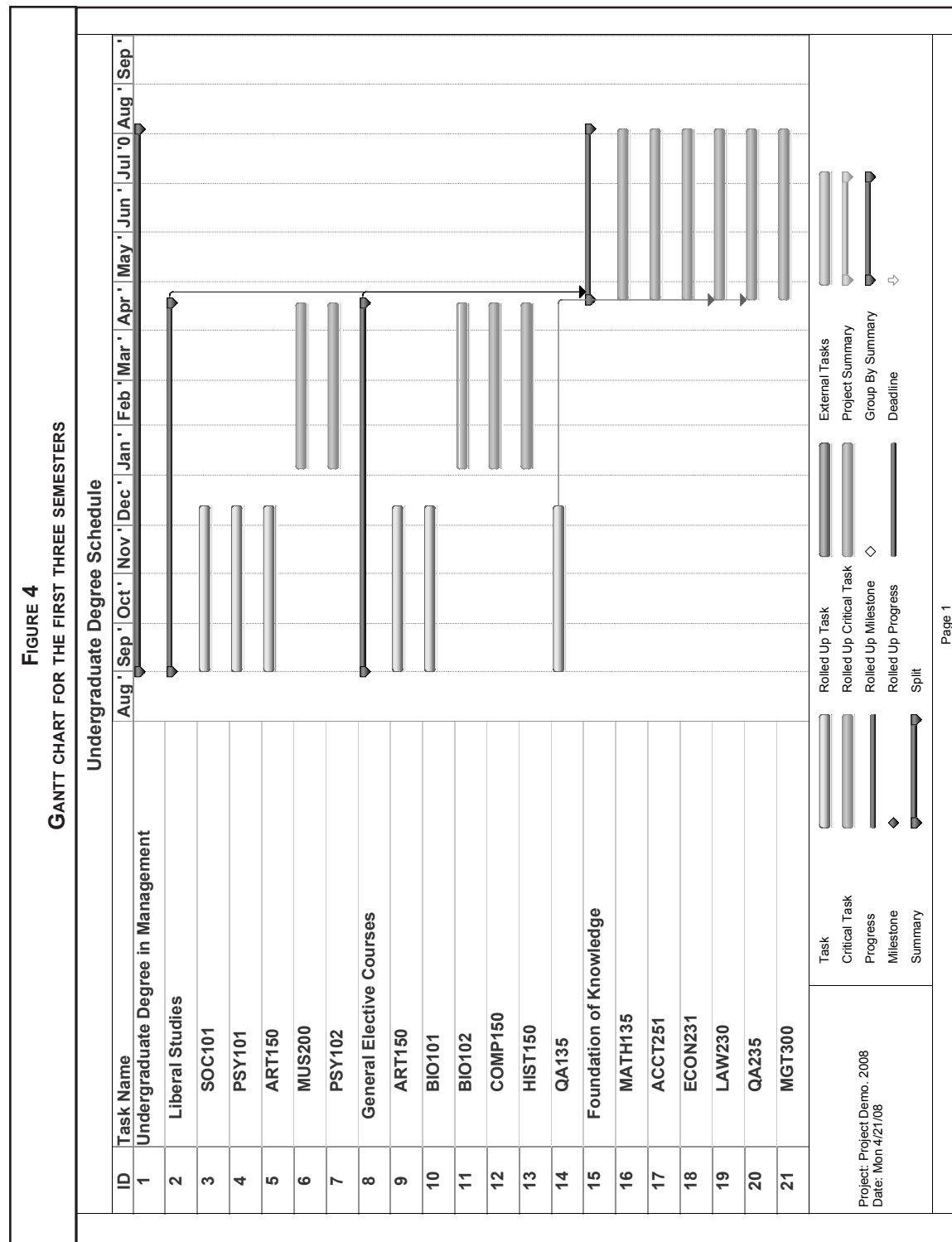
Further, predecessor and successor relations are shown. For instance, QA135 is shown as a predecessor to QA235 which is a predecessor to QA305. Similar relations were shown at a higher level, i.e., course category of liberal studies, general electives, and foundation of knowledge.

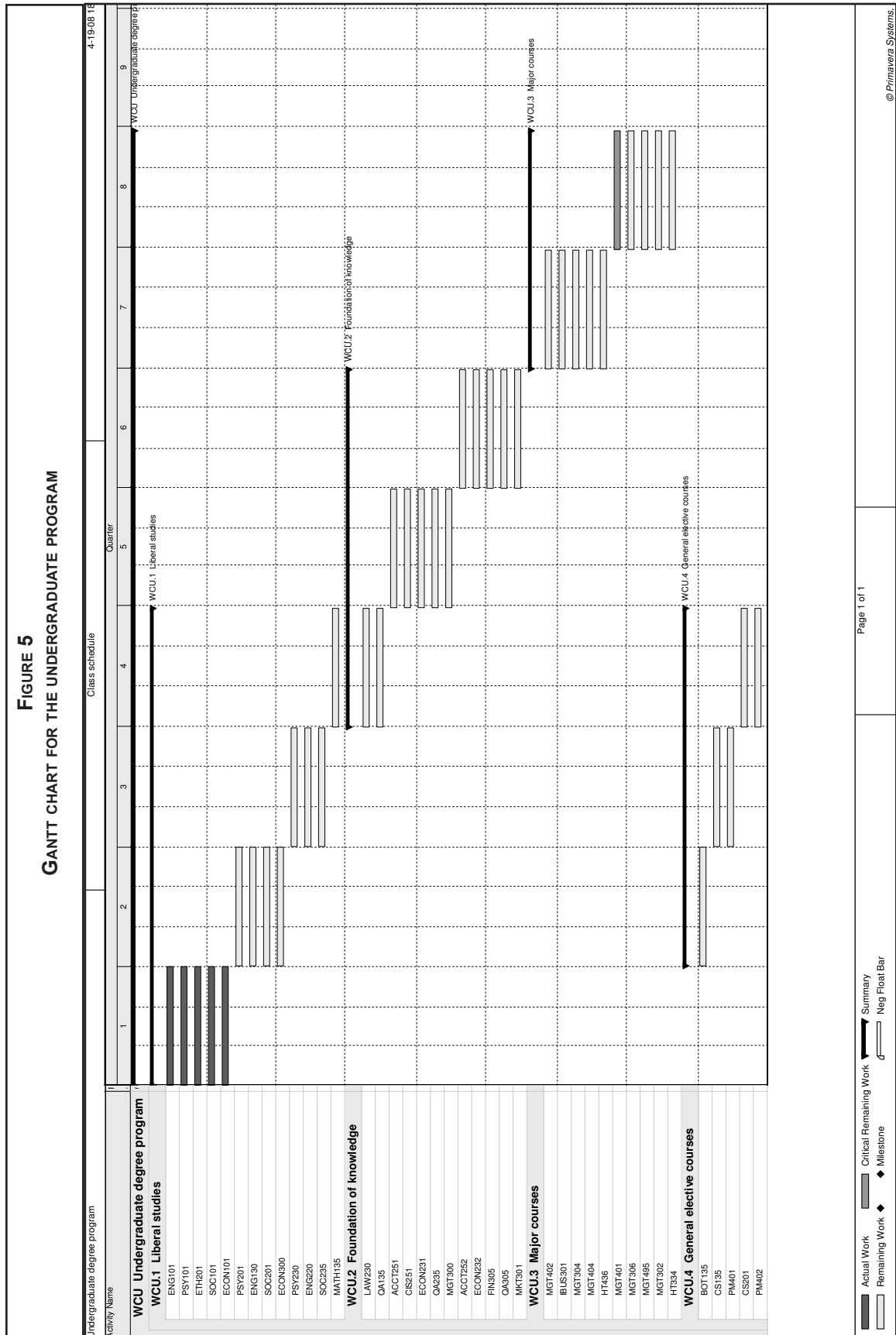
The Gantt chart can be used for different purposes. The important distinction between the Gantt chart and network diagram is that the former is always drawn on a time scale, and consequently, student can easily understand and use it. As is evident from the chart, one can plot courses on a time scale with the time unit being one week. Using this project-planning tool, a student can develop a course schedule for one year at a time or even for the entire four-year degree program as shown in Figure 5. It is not only used for planning but also for monitoring the progress graphically using a different color bar, like blue color, as shown in Figure 5.

Summary

Discussions about various tools and illustrations thus far have demonstrated the utility of effectiveness of applying project planning techniques for academic planning of an undergraduate degree. However, it is important to address certain apprehensions about using these tools and techniques.

Academic institutions integrate flexibility in their course offerings and students will have a number of courses to choose from to meet degree requirements in various disciplines such as liberal arts, and social sciences. We should be cognizant of the fact that course requirements will keep changing. Even new courses will be introduced and some of the existing courses may be discontinued. Project planning tools and techniques discussed above offer such flexibility and can meet these changes in requirements successfully. In traditional project management, the common experience suggests that it is not if the plan will change, it is when and by how much. Therefore, project management is designed





to meet changing requirements. Advisors must remember that the planning diagrams such as Gantt chart and network diagrams should not be treated as if they are inscriptions on stone.

Undergraduate advising requires in depth understanding of what alternate courses can be used as substitutes, how students can be brought back to the right track if they are off track, or if special conditions apply. Knowledge about advising in these circumstances is most often resides as tacit knowledge with some experienced advisors. Project planning tools and techniques, if applied appropriately, can capture at least part of the tacit knowledge and make it explicit and available to less-experienced advisors thereby saving the time and involvement of senior and experienced advisors.

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ADMINISTRATIVE VERSUS FACULTY PERSPECTIVES REGARDING ACADEMIC TENURE

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Introduction

Academic tenure in higher education is highly controversial. Originally created to enhance academic excellence by guaranteeing academic freedom for teaching and research scholars, tenure also provides lifetime employment security (Lataif, 1998, pp. 1-6). Tenure is widely applied in the United States with approximately 90 percent of all four-year institutions having tenure systems. In 2000, about 60 percent of all professors nationwide were tenured, but that figure has since dropped to approximately 50 percent (Fogg, 2005, pp. A15-A16).

Critics view tenure as "a relic of medieval times" that has no place in a modern university, and believe it is a shield behind which incompetents hide (Leonhardt, 1996, p. 130). To some administrators, tenure is not a bulwark for academic freedom, but rather an overwhelming mechanism for faculty protection (Denton, Feaver, & Spencer, 1998, p. 101). Without tenure protection faculty could be eliminated for reasons such as economic deficiencies and program updating which would allow greater administrative and educational flexibility (Margolin, 2007, p. 34). Some critics argue that many of the problems in higher education result from "the most sacred of all the sacred cows of academia: tenure, faculty control, light teaching schedules, and the 'publish or perish' mania (Sowell, 1998, p. 57)."

In the past ten years, 30 states have adopted post-tenure review requirements to deal with tenure problems, with mixed results (Clayton, 2000, p. 13). The post-tenure review process at the University of Hawaii at Manoa (UHM) is considered a success in that 90 percent of the faculty are performing adequately. Proponents of the UHM post-tenure review process believe that there has been a "clearing of the deadwood", with some faculty retiring rather than participating in the review process (Wood & Des Jarlais, 2006, pp. 561-588).

Faculty counter that "tenure is meant to provide the protection due every faculty member who has proven they are competent, responsible scholars and teachers (Pratt, 1994, p. 41)." Faculty also claim that administrators misapply tenure causing many of the problems. They also charge that proper selection of faculty appropriate for the institution where they work would prevent many tenure-related problems. Although rumblings of dissatisfaction against tenure continue, little has actually changed in recent years at most colleges and universities (Strauss, 2000, p. W16).

Previous tenure research focused on the degree of agreement that existed between administrators and faculty regarding tenure's effect on higher education (Premeaux & Mondy, 2001, pp. 13-18) (Premeaux & Mondy, 1996, pp. 25-31). This investigation seeks to determine the current degree of agreement (or disagreement) that exist between administrators, both deans and departmental chairs, and faculty regarding tenure's impact on higher education and examine changes that have occurred over time. Basically, have the views of administrators and faculty converged or has the void between them widened?

Research Methodology

Four hundred and eleven AACSB (The International Association for Management Education) programs accredited at both the undergraduate and graduate level in the United States were surveyed. AACSB is devoted to the promotion and improvement of higher education in business administration and management. Only faculty and administrators from AACSB accredited schools are included in this survey process because the environment in which they work, in terms of expectations in teaching, research, and service, should be somewhat similar.

Because of the time necessary to complete the survey instrument and the geographic dispersion of the respondents a mail questionnaire was utilized. Seven surveys were mailed to the deans of every AACSB accredited

school included in the investigation. The deans were asked to complete one survey themselves, and distribute two surveys to full professors, two to associate professors, and two to assistant professors. The deans were also asked to ensure that one of the six respondents was a departmental chair. A postage-paid addressed envelope was included for each of the respondents to return the completed questionnaire directly. A follow up mailing was conducted six weeks after the initial mailing, and another three weeks after the follow up. Response was extremely high with 1,709 fully completed questionnaires returned. This response rate should allow for fairly valid assumptions to be drawn from the sample population with regard to the general population of AACSB accredited school faculty and administrators.

Demographic Data

Demographic characteristics reveal fairly definitive divisions between the various characteristics of the sample population. There is a fairly equal division with regard to faculty rank, with approximately one-third of the respondents in each academic rank category. All respondents had doctorate degrees in traditional business fields, such as accounting, finance, management, and marketing. Forty-three percent of the respondents were under forty-five years old, and males accounted for over 79 percent of the survey population. With regard to 9/10 month contract salaries, nearly 79 percent of the respondents made over \$80,000.

Three hundred and twenty-six (326) of the respondents were departmental chairs, 96 were deans, and 1,287 were full-time, non-administrative faculty. Eighty-three percent of the full-time faculty classified themselves as teaching/researchers, 7 percent as teachers, and 10 percent classified themselves as primarily researchers. The majority of respondents were quite experienced with over 84 percent having more than six years experience. Approximately 71 percent of the respondents were tenured, with nearly 75 percent being tenured for over 6 years.

Overall, teaching performance was good with nearly 71 percent of the respondents classifying themselves as teaching at, or above 90 percent of the maximum performance level. In addition, over 38 percent of the group had received a teaching excellence award. Article productivity was also fairly impressive with over 82 percent of the respondents having career productivity in excess of 6 refereed journal articles. Nearly 26 percent of the respondents had received at least one research excellence award during their careers. Finally, the respon-

dents were active in all service areas. Forty-six of the fifty states were represented in the survey population.

Basically, faculty were quite effective in terms of teaching, research, and service. This level of productivity indicates that the majority of respondents would be quite competitive at most AACSB accredited universities. The opinions of such productive faculty should reveal the attitudes of faculty who, in majority, apparently do not need tenure's personal protection.

Findings

General

To the question, "Is tenure necessary for personal faculty security?" considerable differences exist among deans, departmental chairs, and faculty. As may be seen in Table 1, 34-percent of the full-time non-administrative faculty surveyed agreed that tenure is necessary for personal faculty security, which is significantly higher than in the previous survey periods. Slightly more than sixty percent of departmental chairs and somewhat less than half of deans agree. Except for a significantly higher percentage of non-administrative faculty currently agreeing, the percentages were essentially the same as in the 2000 and 1995 surveys. This level of disagreement is an early indication that administrators, particularly deans, and faculty at AACSB accredited schools view the need for tenure quite differently. In most cases, deans and faculty are even further apart in their opinions than they were during the first two survey periods.

The Necessity and Possible Modification of Tenure

As may be seen in Table 1, the vast majority of faculty members surveyed believe that academic freedom cannot be secure without tenure (76 percent). However, fewer departmental chairs (50 percent), and less than half of deans (46 percent) agreed. While the majority of deans agree that tenure should be eliminated (69 percent), faculty disagree. Only 21 percent of faculty agree that tenure should be eliminated down significantly from the two previous surveys. Interestingly, a majority of all three groups still agree that tenure is overapplied, with very strong agreement among administrators. Currently however, only a slight majority of faculty agree, while in previous years the percentage of agreement was much higher.

A majority of all three groups also agree that tenure should be modified, with strong agreement among ad-

TABLE 1
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS: ADMINISTRATIVE VERSUS FACULTY PERSPECTIVES

Survey Statements	Dean % Agreeing			Dept. Chair % Agreeing			Faculty % Agreeing		
	2007	2000	1995	2007	2000	1995	2007	2000	1995
NECESSITY & MODIFICATION									
Tenure is necessary for personal faculty security	47	46	44	62	59	58	84	78	75
Tenure is necessary	49	50	47	63	61	53	79	70	70
Academic freedom cannot be secure without tenure	46	44	51	50	53	58	76	71	69
Tenure is over applied, meaning too many faculty are tenured at most universities	79	78	73	76	73	71	52	59	61
Tenure should be eliminated	69	66	62	50	50	51	21	26	37
Tenure should be modified	91	86	84	81	79	77	50	61	72
Tenure should be periodically evaluated rather than being a lifetime guarantee	90	89	86	85	81	78	42	51	64
Tenure should be granted for only 20 years	37	36	35	37	35	33	17	25	27
Tenure should be granted for only 25 years	38	36	39	32	35	37	26	30	31
TEACHING									
Teaching is afforded too much importance	20	17	17	17	17	16	11	15	17
Tenure helps promote teaching excellence	19	26	37	34	37	39	43	46	48
Tenure hinders teaching excellence	73	69	59	60	61	59	50	50	49
The longer a person has been tenured the less effective he or she will be as a teacher	57	49	40	47	46	37	32	30	32
RESEARCH									
Tenure helps promote long-term research excellence	31	38	40	36	40	41	36	40	42
Tenure hinders long-term research excellence	81	72	61	74	71	60	44	44	46
Research is afforded too much importance	51	53	36	54	51	34	52	41	39
The longer a person has been tenured the less effective he or she will be as a researcher	73	64	61	65	60	59	50	53	52
SERVICE									
Tenure helps promote service productivity	51	50	49	50	51	49	50	50	51
Tenure hinders service productivity	50	50	49	52	52	53	50	50	49
The longer a person has been tenured the less effective he or she will be at providing service	31	30	29	30	32	31	34	33	32
STAFFING									
Only quality teachers, who are capable researchers should be granted lifetime tenure	94	89	86	83	78	74	72	67	69
Non-research oriented quality teachers should be granted lifetime tenure	33	45	45	34	42	41	35	46	53
Tenure is necessary for Core faculty stability	39	46	57	60	59	61	71	66	62
Tenure is necessary for Core faculty expertise	40	45	51	55	56	53	69	66	64

(Continued on the following page)

TABLE 1 (CONTINUED)
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS: ADMINISTRATIVE VERSUS FACULTY PERSPECTIVES

Survey Statements	Dean % Agreeing			Dept. Chair % Agreeing			Faculty % Agreeing		
	2007	2000	1995	2007	2000	1995	2007	2000	1995
ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEMS									
Tenure prevents adaptation to the fast changing business world	92	88	79	81	76	68	50	54	51
Tenure promotes too much faculty independence	86	75	64	73	68	56	24	30	28
Tenure prevents curriculum and program flexibility	66	68	51	60	61	52	50	51	42
Overall tenure detracts from faculty productivity	77	71	61	66	61	59	51	51	47
Tenure reduces faculty commitment to the university and the college/school	79	70	59	69	66	55	34	39	37
Tenure encourages outside faculty activities for profit	86	85	74	75	74	72	72	70	68
Tenure encourages outside faculty activities for pleasure	89	82	71	81	73	71	77	71	69
OVERCOMING TENURE RELATED PROBLEMS									
An effective reward system can overcome tenure related problems	46	52	61	55	59	66	66	69	79
Withholding financial rewards can overcome tenure related problems	54	56	59	55	57	57	39	54	53
Greater financial incentives can overcome tenure related problems	50	51	62	67	66	73	67	71	79
Notes:									
1. Surveys returned, for 2007, from Deans, Chairs, and Faculty were 96, 326, and 1,287 respectively.									
2. Data from the year 2000 columns were contained in the article by Premeaux, S.R. and Mondy, R.W. (2001, Spring/Summer) Perspectives on tenure: Deans and department chairs versus faculty members. <i>CUPA-HR Journal</i> , pp. 13-18.									
3. Data from the year 1995 columns were contained in the article by Premeaux, S.R. and Mondy, R.W. (1996, Spring) Tenure: Administrative versus faculty perspectives. <i>CUPA-HR Journal</i> , pp. 25-31.									
4. All percentages are rounded.									

ministrators. However, only 50 percent of faculty agree, down dramatically from the two previous surveys. Previously, the majority of all three groups agreed that tenure should be periodically evaluated, but currently only 42 percent of faculty agree, down significantly from the other survey periods. Periodic reviews are no longer embraced by faculty, but are wanted even more by administrators, and limiting the tenure period is still unacceptable to the majority of all three groups. Obviously, there is greater faculty resistance to tenure modification, and this resistance could negatively impact mission achievement. Basically, a much greater percentage of faculty (79 percent) agree that tenure is necessary, while less than half of deans agree. Currently, faculty seem much less flexible with regard to altering traditional tenure.

Mission Achievement: Tenure Versus Teaching, Research, and Service

Tenure is often analyzed in relation to teaching, research, and service. However, research frequently takes precedence over teaching, even in teaching-oriented universities (Worth, 1991, p. 1). In this survey, the majority of administrators and faculty agree that tenure does not help promote teaching excellence, and in fact may actually hinder teaching excellence. All groups agree that teaching is not afforded too much importance. Only 19 percent of deans agree that tenure helps promote teaching excellence, down dramatically from the previous survey periods. Seventy-three percent of

deans agree that tenure hinders teaching excellence, up from the previous two survey periods.

In line with the issue of teaching effectiveness, a minority of department chairs and faculty agree that the longer a person is tenured the less effective he or she is as a teacher, but a majority of deans agree that tenured faculty become less effective teachers. Fifty-seven percent of deans and 47 percent of departmental chairs agree that tenure's duration and less effective teaching are directly related, but only 32 percent of faculty agree. In the two previous surveys a majority of deans did not agree that an increase in tenure duration negatively impacted teaching, but that is no longer the case. In some situations, tenure may permit bad teaching because many universities tenure professors who are less effective teachers, but who are somewhat prolific researchers.

The importance of research is undeniable, and in the real world, "the brutal fact is that the present [tenure] system favors those who publish over those who shine in the classroom ... and the rewards for excellence in scholarship are infinitely more plentiful than the rewards for excellence in teaching (Parini, 1995, p. A 40)." A slight majority of all three groups agree that research is afforded too much importance. In previous surveys, faculty disagreed that research is afforded too much importance, but this is no longer the case. Also, a majority of all three groups agree that tenure does not help promote long-term research excellence. However, a significant majority of departmental chairs and deans, and somewhat less than half of faculty agree that tenure hinders long-term research excellence. Eighty-one percent of deans and 74 percent of departmental chairs agree that tenure hinders research excellence, up significantly from the previous survey periods. All groups concur that the longer a person is tenured the less effective he or she is as a researcher. Overall, administrators view the relationship of tenure and research productivity much more negatively than do faculty.

Service is normally the third and least important component of a school's mission. A bare majority of all three groups agree that tenure helps promote service productivity. Similar perceptions were expressed with regard to tenure hindering service productivity. However, in contrast to teaching and research, only about one-third of those responding agree that the longer a person is tenured the less effective he or she is at providing service. While the impact of tenure on teaching and research is viewed as rather negative, more so by administrators than faculty, service over the long-term is apparently less affected. Basically, opinions have not changed with regard to tenure's impact on service.

Generally, administrators, both departmental chairs and deans, are more critical of tenure's impact on teaching and research than are faculty. Administrators are even more critical now than before, with deans being even more critical than ever. Although the majority of faculty members view tenure as necessary for their personal security, a significant percentage of those surveyed acknowledge that tenure negatively impacts faculty productivity to a certain degree. However, a greater percentage of faculty, now more than ever, consider tenure as necessary and agree that traditional tenure should not be modified. Since faculty attitudes regarding the importance of maintaining traditional tenure are becoming even more rigid, and the fact that deans are even more negative regarding all aspects of tenure may adversely impact effective staffing.

Tenure's Impact on Effective Staffing

Tenure creates unique challenges for university administrators, college administrators, faculty, and ultimately may impact mission achievement. Given that AACSB accredited schools must excel to some degree in the areas of teaching and particularly research, it is essential that a quality core faculty exist. The vast majority of all three groups believe that only quality teachers, who are capable researchers, should be granted lifetime tenure, up significantly from the previous survey periods. The vast majority of all three groups agree that non-research-oriented quality teachers should not be granted lifetime tenure. Attracting and retaining faculty who, in aggregate, can excel in teaching and research is critically important for mission achievement. Unfortunately, "teaching and scholarship are distinctly separate talents, which rarely inhabit the same human being (Parini, 1995, p. A 40)." Therefore, each institution should carefully and honestly define its mission to accurately determine if it is a teaching institution, a research institution, or both and then staff accordingly.

Considering the criticisms of tenure, it was interesting to note that a majority of departmental chairs and faculty believe that tenure is necessary for core faculty stability and expertise. Only about 40 percent of deans agree with regard to the stability and expertise issues, down dramatically from both previous surveys. Despite the possible benefits of tenure in staffing, administrative problems related to tenure are inevitable, particularly if the mission is not carefully considered and well defined.

Administrative Problems Related to Tenure

One of the most commonly mentioned tenure-related problems is that tenure impedes adaptation to the fast-changing business world. To prepare students for the global business environment, faculty must be adaptive and ever evolving (Pearce, 1999, p. 106). The vast majority of administrators and 50 percent of faculty agree that tenure prevents adaptation to the fast changing business environment. The percentage of administrators agreeing is significantly higher than in previous surveys, with 92 percent of deans and 81 percent of departmental chairs agreeing. A majority of departmental chairs and deans, and 50 percent of faculty agree that tenure prevents flexibility. The vast majority of deans and departmental chairs, and slightly less than one-quarter of faculty agree that tenure promotes too much faculty independence. A much greater percentage of administrators and a significantly smaller percentage of faculty currently agree with regard to independence.

Disagreement also exists with regard to tenure's overall impact on faculty productivity. The majority of all three groups agree that tenure detracts from overall faculty productivity. Seventy-seven percent of deans and 66 percent of department chairs agree, up significantly from the previous surveys. Greater disagreement exists with regard to faculty commitment to the university and the college, with a majority of departmental chairs and deans, and slightly over one-third of faculty agreeing that a reduced faculty commitment results with tenure. It is quite interesting, that even though faculty perceived less of a commitment reduction, the vast majority of all three groups agree that tenure encourages outside faculty activities for profit and pleasure. In fact, all three groups agreed to a more significant degree than in previous surveys. Since tenure-related problems are unavoidable, and since the void between administrators and faculty regarding most aspects of tenure is increasing, developing specific methods to overcome tenure related problems is essential.

Overcoming Tenure-Related Problems

The fact that tenure-related problems exist is not debatable. At the very least tenure decreases flexibility, making it difficult to layoff professors who are incompetent or who teach in areas that are no longer in demand (Pearce, 1999, p. 106). Overall, departmental chairs are more critical of tenure than faculty, and deans are more critical than departmental chairs. Currently, deans are extremely critical of tenure, while the vast majority of faculty want traditional tenure protection even more than in previous years.

The evolution of tenure has been slower than many had hoped, with virtually no widespread modifications forthcoming. One of the most commonly mentioned solutions to tenure problems deal with rewards. Although the specifics were not revealed, a majority of department chairs and faculty believe that an effective reward system can overcome tenure-related problems, but deans disagree. Interestingly, all three groups are less enthusiastic about rewards than they were previously, with only 46 percent of deans, 55 percent of departmental chairs, and 66 percent of faculty agreeing. However, any approach should probably not include withholding financial rewards, since only a slight majority of administrators, and less than 40 percent of faculty agree that withholding financial rewards can overcome tenure-related problems. A better option may be to provide greater financial incentives. A fairly significant majority of faculty and departmental chairs, and 50 percent of deans agreed that greater financial incentives can overcome tenure-related problems. However, a smaller percentage of faculty currently agree that financial incentives can overcome tenure related problems.

Effective Tenuring: A Panacea for Avoiding Tenure Problems

During the previous investigation effective tenuring was suggested as a proactive approach that could make tenure less problematic. Effective tenuring is the process of tenuring only faculty who appear to be capable in the areas that most support mission achievement, as well as those who are most flexible and adaptive. Therefore, it is critical that the core values central to mission achievement be well understood before developing a tenure system.

Specifically, before evaluating faculty, institutions must define the parameters of tenure according to their unique core values (Shermer, 2006, pp. 584-585). After defining their core values, George Mason University developed four paths to tenure that will allow the university to accomplish their overall mission by placing the right people in the right positions to their maximize long-term productivity. These paths include the traditional path emphasizing research, one that recognizes excellence in teaching, one that places equal emphasis on research, teaching, and administration, and one that facilitates work on faculty development, grant writing proposals, and other activities that benefit the institution (Fathe, 2006, pp. 4-5). Such effective tenuring measures may well be the key to maintaining academic tenure, while supporting a continuing educational evolution and achieving institutional goals.

California State University-Hayward (CSUH) is following such an approach that appears to be good for the university and “supportive and helpful to the applicants” (non-tenured faculty). The four step approach used by CSUH may well serve as the model for other schools with a desire to build a competent, flexible, and adaptive faculty. CSUH’s process is an adaptive approach to effective tenuring.

First, each CSUH department chair annually meets with the non-tenured faculty member to prepare a Professional Development Plan (PDP). Second, annually the non-tenured faculty member provides documentation of achievements in line with the PDP. This document is carefully reviewed by the department chair and the departmental promotion, tenure, and retention committee. Both make recommendations regarding the faculty member’s achievement in line with the PDP. For example, is there a need for more attention to the quality of teaching or does more need to be done on submitting publications? Third, after an established period of time if there is disagreement between the chair and the departmental committee, or if there are recommendations against retaining the non-tenured faculty member the documentation is reviewed by the college-level promotion, tenure, and retention committee. Finally, if the recommendation is against retention the dean of the college and other administrators become involved in the final decision (Stronck, 2004, pp. 28-29).

Basically, the “annual process of meetings, reviews, and recommendations [at CSUH] has the intention of smoothly guiding the applicant (non-tenured faculty member) until the application is made for tenure (Stronck, 2004, pp. 28-29).” The result has been quite impressive with 94 percent of those applying for tenure being successful (Stronck, 2004, pp. 28-29). By properly selecting faculty who are most appropriate for the institution and the nature of work, some tenure-related problems may be prevented and long-term faculty productivity maximized, which is the ultimate goal of effective tenuring.

Yale University has developed a tenure approach for strengthening their commitment to junior (non-tenured) faculty members. Yale’s 2007 report calls for mentoring junior faculty and providing opportunities for them to show and be rewarded for excellence. The proposed changes would give assistant professors four-year terms with an evaluation in the third year. Qualified scholars would be reappointed for an additional three years and be eligible for promotion to associate professor in the fifth or sixth year of their appointment. The actual tenure process would start no later than their

eighth year. This careful and well developed approach may assist administrators in tenuring faculty who are more likely to be productive over the long-term, thereby better supporting the overall mission of the university (Millman, 2007, p. A14).

If a faculty member is a struggling teacher or lackluster writer/researcher, then never expect quality teaching or publications from that person, especially after being tenured. If a person is inflexible in their approach to work, do not expect that person, once tenured, to be adaptive and flexible as the nature of work changes. Basically, effective tenuring means proper faculty selection and retention, which is critically important to continued faculty development and university mission achievement.

Unfortunately, administrators are even more frustrated with the current tenure system than they were in the past. Even more so than in the past, faculty will not readily accept alternatives to tenure. So unique approaches like those used by the Central Florida Community College System where continued contracts are used, in place of tenure, are not likely to become mainstream (Danuff, 2004, p. 51). The best way of easing tenure-related difficulties may be through effective tenuring, rather than trying to cope with faculty/mission mismatches. Some of the credit for the effectiveness of the tenure system at CSUH must be given to the careful work of the search committee in identifying excellent applicants. Then, the assistance provided in the annual retention process guides non-tenured faculty down the right path (Stronck, 2004, pp. 28-29). Yale’s mentoring approach also allows the most capable non-tenured faculty to be identified and their talents developed prior to making tenure decisions (Millman, 2007, p. A14). Prior to making tenure decisions, institutional goals must be defined, then qualified faculty selected in line with established goals, and these faculty members must be monitored to determine which individuals are capable of continually achieving these goals.

In addition, longer pre-tenure review periods, which could even begin with two or three non-tenure track one-year contracts prior to placing prospective faculty on tenure track, would allow more time to judge applicants prior to making tenure decisions. In fact, about 60 percent of newly hired faculty now start in non-tenure-track positions (Hamilton, 2007, pp. 36-42) (Budd, 2006, pp. 230-239). Also, a continuing review process after earning tenure, like at the University of Hawaii at Manoa, can help guide tenured faculty, and help ensure long-term faculty productivity (Wood & Des Jarlais, 2006, pp. 561-588). Properly applied, tenure promotes the discovery of new ideas, it eliminates contract nego-

tiations, and prevents rapid turnover, it builds faculty loyalty, it attracts bright intelligent faculty who are willing to mentor young faculty members, and helps administrators plan for future budgetary and personnel needs (Yohn, 1998, p. 2).

Conclusion

Apparently, tenure is here to stay and will continue to rein as the most important sacred cow of academia. Tenure reform will be slow and may never fully materialize, and therefore a proactive approach to tenure may be the best alternative. Even though fewer faculty are being offered tenure-track contracts at the beginning of their employment, the ultimate goal for most faculty still appears to be that of securing tenure. The disagreement between faculty and administrators that has existed since 1995 has intensified somewhat dramatically with regard to the impact of tenure on higher education. Currently, departmental chairs and deans are even more critical of tenure than are faculty, and faculty are even more protective of traditional tenure than in the past. Since tenure elimination is not really feasible, administrators must focus on improving traditional tenure to attract an effective and adaptive staff of faculty members who can evolve as higher education evolves.

Administrators must avoid a mismatch between the faculty they tenure and mission achievement. In all likelihood, faculty who are only marginal performers during their five to six year tenure review period will become less effective as the pressure to earn tenure disappears. Since tenured faculty members basically earn lifetime employment security it is vitally important that they be carefully selected. Faculty tenured today may be part of the instructional staff in the college for twenty, thirty or even forty years. Rather than focusing on the perceived evils of tenure, administrators must determine the work that needs to be done, identify the best faculty to accomplish that work, hire the best and most adaptive faculty, keep them informed, and reward them reasonably within the means of the institution, thereby reaping the benefits of effective tenuring.

Like George Mason University, a good starting point for effective tenuring might be to define the core values of the institution, and then determine the appropriate tenure paths to accomplish these values. Once core values and tenure paths are established, the Yale tenure process, which involves an extended timetable and faculty mentoring, can help build a core faculty to achieve the institution's mission. Fortunately, in the push toward effective tenuring there have been some creative developments like these. Basically, tenure properly applied and

monitored, will encourage faculty to devote their energies to continually improving their teaching, scholarly competence, and service, thereby achieving the goals of the institution, limiting administrative problems and minimizing faculty discontent.

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Conferences

Prior to this year, Learning and Administration was a primary track of the annual Academic Business World International Conference. Because of increased interest, we have promoted Learning and Administration from a Track to Conference in its own right. For the full call for papers and more information go to <http://ICLAHE.org> and <http://ABWIC.org>.

