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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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Institutions of Higher Learning in Texas and their Nondiscrimination Policies Regarding Sexual Orientation and Same-Sex Domestic Partner Benefits

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ABSTRACT

In the United States, the law affords considerable safeguards to individuals from workplace wrongdoings by their employers or workplace colleagues. However, even with the existing legislation that has been passed protecting individuals, many continue to experience employment discrimination and harassment. This paper will look at four-year institutions of higher education in the state of Texas with the view of providing data of non-discrimination policies in regard to sexual orientation as well as same sex domestic partner benefits. An overview of higher education institutions nationally will also be discussed.

"Never in the history of higher education have our colleges and universities faced such appalling responsibilities as they encounter in this autumn or [*sic*] 1951. Historically, the role of higher education has been comparatively simple and easily defined. Our colleges and universities were supposed to preserve, disseminate, and advance knowledge. Today our colleges still have these three tasks to perform, but in addition they find themselves confronted now with a new and awesome list of other responsibilities. The additional responsibilities result from the present state of world affairs and are due principally to the splitting of the atom and the threat of Communism" (Vital Speeches, 1951). This was just the first paragraph of the opening convocation speech at the University of Bridgeport by Dr. Jazzes H. Halsey, President, on September 25, 1951. In 2009, universities and colleges today continue to have those same three tasks; however, the list of additional responsibilities have changed due to the financial climate of our national economy, the more accommodating perceptions toward single-parent families and the slow inclusion of sexual orientation and domestic partner benefits in employment sectors. Indeed, today, one of the essential responsibilities of higher education is to teach students all sides of an issue and provide them with the critical thinking skills to enable individuals to make informed decisions. It is with that in mind that this paper will look at four-year universities in the State of Texas with the view of providing data about their non-discrimination policies in regard to sexual orientation. In addition, a review of those same universities with respect to same sex domestic partner benefits will also be conducted.

Introduction

In today's financial economic climate, jobs are more precious than ever before. With organizations declaring bankruptcy or laying off a good portion of their workforce, competition for available positions is fierce. Today, there are approximately 143 million individuals employed in the United States workforce, including state and local government (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2009). The American Community Survey (Williams Institute of UCLA, 2009) estimates the number of gay and lesbian adults residing in the United States to be 8.8 million whereas the

Harris Interactive market research firm estimates 15.3 million (The Harris Poll, 2008; Human Rights Campaign Foundation, 2007). The wide disparity in numbers may be due to the fact that the United States Census Bureau does not ask questions that pertain to sexual orientation. It is possible that gays and lesbians could be among the largest minorities in the workforce today. Without the Census Bureau's inclusion of such questions, the numbers reported by these two institutions are some of the only statistics available.

Although the United States has enacted laws to provide considerable protection from wrong doings by workplace colleagues and employers, many individuals continue to experience employment discrimination (Brayton, 2009). No federal laws providing for discrimination protection on the basis of sexual orientation have been enacted for private employers (Human Rights Campaign Foundation, 2007). There are, however, several different acts that address different types of discrimination including: The Civil Rights Act, (CRA) Title VII which prohibits discrimination in employment based on race, color, sex, religion or national origin; The Age Discrimination in Employment Act (ADEA) that protects individuals who are 40 years of age or older; the Equal Pay Act of 1963 (EPA), which protects men and women who perform substantially equal work in the same establishment from sex-based wage discrimination; the Civil Rights Act of 1991, which, among other things, provides monetary damages in cases of intentional employment discrimination; and The American Disabilities Act (ADA) and the Vocational Rehabilitation Act (VRA) that prohibit discrimination in employment against individuals with a disability.

The inclusion of sexual orientation in nondiscrimination policies has been slowly increasing. When sexual orientation is being considered for addition into nondiscrimination policies in organizations, the discussion tends to drag over a period of time. For some organizations, the discussion about including sexual orientation has lasted several years. One corporate example is Cracker Barrel, who worked on including sexual orientation as part of their nondiscrimination policy for ten years. It was only in 2002 that it got a 58% shareholder vote in favor of adding sexual orientation to its nondiscrimination policy (Odell, 2007).

Throughout the nation more and more corporations as well as local, county and state government organizations, are extending non-discrimination protection on the basis of sexual orientation to their employees. On the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) Web site, under a listing of questions and answers about federal laws prohibiting discrimination, a note can be found at the bottom of the section that indicates *"Many states and municipalities also have enacted protections against discrimination and harassment based on sexual orientation, status as a parent, marital status and political affiliation. For information, please contact the EEOC District Office nearest you" (*U.S. Equal Opportunity Commission, 2009). This would illustrate that there is a growing trend toward the inclusion of sexual orientation in nondiscrimination policies.

Although there isn't a standard template for nondiscrimination statements, most organizations adopt one that has similar policies for protection against discrimination. A typical nondiscrimination statement for a university may read as follows: *"In accordance with federal and state law, the University prohibits unlawful discrimination, including harassment, on the basis of race, color, religion, national origin, gender, including sexual harassment, age, disability, citizenship, and veteran status. Pursuant to University policy, this policy also prohibits discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation, gender identity, and gender expression" (UT Austin, 2008).* Capital One Financial Corporation's nondiscrimination statement reads *"Capital One prohibits discrimination with respect to the hiring or promotion of individuals, conditions of employment, disciplinary and discharge practices or*

any other aspect of employment on the basis of sex, race, color, age, national origin, religion, disability, marital status, sexual orientation, gender identity, pregnancy or veteran status" (The Human Rights Campaign, 2009). A trend is clearly emerging that treatment on the job, including hiring, firing, and promotions must be based on qualifications and merit not on race, gender, age, sexual orientation, disability or how one responds to sexual advances in the workplace (Brayton and Purcell, 2009).

Another trend that is emerging, albeit slower, is the inclusion of same-sex domestic partner benefits in benefit packages offered to employees of organizations. Benefits are considered by individuals as a form of remuneration, other than cash payment, for completing their work. Although some benefits are federally required like unemployment insurance and worker's compensation (McNamara, C., 2008) other benefits are provided by the company as incentives for retention of employees. Some benefits can be employer-paid such as holiday pay, vacation pay, bereavement pay, medical leaves, while other benefits can be employee-paid like medical insurance, dental insurance, and vision insurance. While some organizations pay for their employee portion of medical insurance, other organizations offer the benefit with the employee paying their portion as well as the family portion of the benefit. With the excessive cost of medical insurance, employees frequently pay at least a portion of the medical benefit costs (McNamara, C., 2008). With the financial economic climate at an all time low, with organizations filing for bankruptcy or rifting employee positions, there is a high percentage of unemployment today. As individuals compete for the limited positions available, they are looking not only at compensation packages, but also at benefit packages as a way to augment their livelihood.

A great deal has occurred since the corporate benefit system first emerged over 100 years ago. Our country has gone from an agricultural economy where families worked businesses or farms to the industrialization of wage-based jobs with benefits that mainly protected the individual against income loss in the event of workplace accident or disease. Known as "the golden age of benefits," companies were able to offer these benefits at a comparatively inexpensive cost because of significant tax breaks afforded them for so doing. Companies also received a cost break on medical insurance for combining their employees into group coverage. However, since then, the workforce has changed forcing companies to shift to an "a la carte" menu of benefits from which employees can choose and are partially charged for their participation (Wharton School Publishing, 2005). Those individuals most worried about losing their health insurance are adults between the ages of 45 – 64 (35%) whereas individuals 18 – 34 (18%) are not worried at all about health insurance (Harris Interactive, 2009).

A crucial concern for organizations with regard to the extension of health benefits for more employees is the increased cost of those benefits. A study completed by the Employee Benefit Research Institute in 1994 showed that employers are not more at risk when adding domestic partners to their benefit plans than when adding spouses. Experience has shown that the costs of domestic partner coverage to be lower than anticipated (Employee Benefit Research Institute [ebri], 1999). Domestic partner benefits do not drive up benefit costs but do attract talented employees from a diverse workforce. Few employees choose the benefit when it is offered them and those that do enroll in domestic benefits tend to be unmarried heterosexual couples (ebri, 2008).

Equitable benefits should include providing the same benefits to same-sex domestic partners of gay employees, including health coverage, bereavement leave, and family leave. Same-sex domestic partner benefits in the university setting may include: tuition waivers, or remission, family sick leave; family medical leave; bereavement leave, use of athletic facilities on campus; access to library

facilities, campus child care; ticket access for athletic events and special programs on campus.

Institutions of Higher Learning in Texas

In most states, college and university systems are the largest employers and may even be among the top twenty employers overall. Eighty-eight percent (88%) of the "Top 25" colleges and universities now include gender identity and expression and sexual orientation in their non-discrimination policies, up from 65% in 2007 (Gender Public Advocacy Coalition, 2008). All of the eleven Big Ten Conference universities prohibit discrimination based on sexual orientation and all, with the exception of The University of Wisconsin, provide same-sex domestic partner health benefits. The University of Wisconsin's campus efforts to move the issue forward continues. Provost Patrick Farrell and Chancellor John Wiley have unfailingly argued that being unable to offer domestic partner benefits puts UW-Madison at a competitive disadvantage with peer institutions (Lucas, 2008). All eight Ivy League schools---Brown University, Columbia University, Cornell University, Dartmouth College, Harvard University, Princeton University, the University of Pennsylvania and Yale also prohibit discrimination based on sexual orientation and provide same-sex domestic partner benefits (Human Rights Campaign, 2007).

As the data shows, a trend is emerging. Like never before, institutions of higher learning, businesses, local, county and state governments are all becoming leaders in creating fairness and inclusive work environments for gays and lesbians. They are continuing to implement employment policies that are nondiscriminatory toward gay and lesbian workers.

U.S. News and World Report magazine's annual list of Top 125 Colleges and Universities is usually tracked by The Human Rights Campaign Foundation. As of 2007, 90% of those colleges and universities comprising the *U.S. News and World Report* list prohibit discrimination based on sexual orientation, 37% ban discrimination based on gender identity and 60% provide health benefits to the same-sex partners of their employees. All of these indicators are slightly ahead of the Fortune 500 companies.

Although not required by law, thousands of employers are already providing equitable benefits to their gay and lesbian employees as can be seen in Table 1. America's most successful businesses have been the quickest to adopt gay and lesbian inclusive policies. Of the Fortune 500 top ten corporations, nine prohibit discrimination based on sexual orientation. Among the Fortune 500 corporations that employ nearly 25 million employees, 88 percent of the companies prohibit discrimination based on sexual orientation and 53 percent provide health care benefits to same-sex partners of their employees. It is interesting to note that the higher a company ranks on the Fortune 500 list of most successful businesses, the more likely it is to provide comprehensive protections and benefits to gay and lesbian employees (Human Rights Campaign, 2007).

Table 1
Number of Employers that Have Non-Discrimination Policies that Include "Sexual Orientation"

Areas	Number of Companies
Fortune 500 Companies	433
Private Sector Companies	2,020
State Governments	26
City and County Governments	282
Colleges and Universities	570
Total Number of Employer	3,169

For this study, all four-year institutions of higher education in the State of Texas were reviewed with the view of providing data in regard to 1) nondiscrimination policies with inclusion of sexual orientation as well as 2)

same sex domestic partner benefits. This study looked at public or state universities as well as private universities. Community colleges were not included in the study.

There are approximately 32 public state universities and 40 private or independent universities in the State of Texas for a total of 72 in the data set. Of the public state universities, 56% have nondiscrimination policies that include sexual orientation, whereas of the private universities, 43% have those same policies. Using this same data set, a review of domestic partner benefits was completed. Regrettably, no change was found in the addition of any other universities above and beyond the five universities already reported in both the 2007 Human Rights Campaign Foundation and the 2008 University of Texas at Austin, Pride and Equity Faculty and Staff Association publication about Domestic Partner Benefits. The University of Texas at Austin, being one of the largest, if not the largest, state university does not offer domestic partner benefits. There is still a large movement on the UT-Austin campus by faculty, staff and students to continue to lobby for these benefits. To that end, in January of 2008, Uri Horesh, a lecturer at The University of Texas at Austin, began a hunger strike in order to bring attention to the lack of domestic partners benefits. At the end of his hunger strike, Uri wrote

> "*...I am ending my hunger strike. ... However, I believe that my actions have achieved several significant goals, most of which I had not been aware would be possible when I began my fast... The media has given us the light of day. The devoted reporters and editors at the Daily Texan have helped not only shed light on the developments, but also voiced a resounding stance in favor of equality on campus. It was extremely encouraging to read that the primary publication of the future generation of scholars at UT was on the side of progress and justice. The Austin American-Statesman followed suit by spreading the word to the rest of Central Texas, and so did three local television stations: Fox 7, KXAN (NBC affiliate) and News 8 Austin...*"

(The Austin Chronicle, 2008).

In 2005, Texas passed a constitutional amendment limiting the definition of marriage to one man and one woman. Although other universities with similar state laws offer domestic partner benefits to their employees, most Texas universities do not. In fact, in a report by the Pride and Equity Faculty and Staff Association Domestic Partner Benefits subcommittee of The University of Texas at Austin states that the university is allowed to offer competitive compensation and benefits through several legislative codes: the Education Code §51.908 that specifically states that each institution of higher learning shall "to the greatest extent possible provide....salary and benefits at least equal to the average of that provided by similar institutions nationwide having a similar role and mission;" and through the Insurance Code §1601.002 that "enables the systems to attract and retain competent and able employees by providing employees with basic life, accident and health benefit coverage's comparable to those commonly provided in private industry and to employees of a state agency other than a system, including a public college or university whose employees are covered under Chapter 1551;... and through § 1601.053 a system shall determine basic coverage standards that must be comparable to those commonly provided; a) in private industry; and b) to employees of another agency or an institution of higher education in this state under Chapter 1551. Combined, these three sections grant to UT Austin the authority and the mandate to offer competitive compensation packages" (UTA Pride and Equity Faculty and Staff Association, 2008). The issue of domestic partner benefits is not going to disappear in the State of Texas and universities will have to deal with it again at some point in the future.

Conclusion

In 2007, Representatives Tammy Baldwin, D-Wis.; Barney Frank, D-Mass; Deborah Pryce, R- Ohio: and Christopher Shays, R-Conn.; introduced the Employment Non-Discrimination Act (H. R. 2015). The purposes of this Act are: (1) to provide a comprehensive Federal prohibition of employment discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation or gender identity; (2) to provide meaningful and effective remedies for employment discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation or gender identity; and (3) to invoke congressional powers, including the powers to enforce the 14th amendment to the Constitution, and to regulate interstate commerce and provide for the general welfare pursuant to section 8 of article I of the Constitution, in order to prohibit employment discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation or gender identity (Govtrack, 2007). In November of 2007, the House of Representatives passed the ENDA but it never passed the Senate. This bill never became law as it was proposed in a previous session of Congress. Sessions of Congress last two years, and at the end of each session all proposed bills and resolutions that haven't passed are cleared from the books. Members often reintroduce bills that did not come up for debate under a new number in the next session (Frank, 2007; Govtrack, 2009).

This Employment Non-Discrimination Act (ENDA) would have provided gay and lesbian employees with basic protection from discrimination in the workplace based on their sexual orientation. As with all legislation concerning gays and lesbians, the continual effort to promote equality for workplace policies and benefits will continue to move forward. On that front, on April 28, 2009 Congresswoman Carolyn Maloney (D-NY) reintroduced legislation to expand the Family and Medical Leave Act of 1993 (FMLA) to include a domestic partner, parent-in-law, adult child, sibling or grandparent. The new legislation is called the Family and Medical Leave Inclusion Act of 2009 (Johnson, 2009). The effort for inclusion legislation is continuing and will continue with the corporate world instead of institutions of higher learning taking the lead.

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Public University Branding: What Do Students Want to Know about a Prospective Institution and How Do They Get Information?

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ABSTRACT

This study reveals that public university students consider a wide variety of criteria when selecting the colleges/universities to which they will apply. However, students' views of the institution at which they enroll were shown to significantly differ from the importance they say they place on certain selection criteria, providing support for a weak link between attitudes and actions in this context. In addition, our findings lend support for university branding initiatives that seek to promote the university experience as including amenities, updated facilities, and programs that appeal to the modern student.

Introduction

With intense competition among universities and a slowdown in the economy, branding initiatives that result in increased enrollment are more important than ever. According to Shampeny (2003, p. 1), "(w)ith the increasing cost of university tuition, the competition for students, and, in the case of state colleges and universities, decreasing state funding, colleges are continually looking for ways to attract students, fund their mission and stand out from the crowd." University (or college-level) branding has historically been done to create awareness among prospective students and their parents; or target donors, professors, business leaders, alumni, and elected officials with branded messages. As noted by Bunzel (2007), many universities also brand themselves in order to improve their rankings. While some universities brand themselves to create an entirely new image, others may brand themselves to improve name awareness, perceived quality, and strong brand associations (Paden and Stell, 2006). Despite the motive, there appears to be many differentiation approaches to university branding with the most common being academic quality, high profile athletics, convenience, co-branding, and/or unique programs or majors (Kurz et al. 2008).

Benefits of Branding a University

There can be multiple benefits of branding a college or university. A well branded university attracts, "more and better students, more full and fuller-paying students, more students who will persist, better faculty and staff, more donated dollars, more media attention, more research dollars, and more strategic partners" according to Sevier (2007). Anecdotal results from successful university branding campaigns include increased admission applications, better student qualifications, increased retention rates for professors and students, faculty recruitment, recognition, donors, and increased graduation rates. Further, such campaigns can be targeted to different university constituencies with varying images and have been shown to be effective; particularly since many universities are somewhat different from other organizations in that they tend to have two distinct identities – one academic and another athletic (Alessandri et al. 2006). There may also be differences between branding initiatives of public and private institutions with respect to university brand clarity (Judson et al. 2009), the desire for institutional growth as a branding objective, and the focus on branding in the organizational strategy (Winston 2002).

Examples of Recent University Branding Efforts

A Google search of "new university branding initiatives" yields too many hits to list, but several notable examples will be highlighted. In 2006, Oberlin University changed its tag line from "Think one person can change the world? So do we." to "Fearless." According to Dumain (2006), Oberlin wanted to improve the perception of the value of an Oberlin education and select a distinctive tag line to increase awareness of university. The University of Rhode Island also kicked off a multi-year branding campaign in 2006 with the intention of improving student recruitment, retention, involvement, and graduation rates; improving the fiscal health of the University; creating a more inclusive environment, and improving research and outreach support (University of Rhode Island 2008).

Some universities change their name as part of a branding initiative. California State University, Hayward, changed its name to California State University, East Bay, in 2004 in order to target students in different communities. The University of Southern Colorado changed its name to Colorado State University at Pueblo hoping to highlight an array of internal changes, including offering more graduate programs and setting higher admission rates (Finder 2005). In 2001, Beaver College changed its name to Arcadia University to sever the connection with its past as a women's college, promote its growth from a college to university and eliminate jokes about the college's old name (Finder 2005).

The University of Maryland's branding campaign, "Fear the Turtle," began as the athletic slogan for the university, but is now associated with all aspects of the institution (University of Maryland 2008). The university hoped the increased awareness would translate into brand loyalty and wanted something so unique that people would remember it 10 years hence (Sevier 2007). As a result, the University has increased awareness, support, and loyalty from stakeholders; as well as increased student admissions. "Fear the Turtle" was promoted through billboards, tractor-trailers and airport advertising displays (Tam 2006).

In 2005, the University of North Texas began using a different color green, new logo and images, and a new tagline, "Discover the Power of Ideas." Louisiana State University also launched a new recruiting campaign to improve its image; aiming to increase awareness nationally and internationally by introducing a new logo, an updated website, and new campaigns. The new campaign titled, "Welcome to the Now," focused on competitive graduate and undergraduate experiences, research opportunities, the picturesque campus setting, athletic accomplishments and important sponsorships and collaborations. To advertise the campaign, the university created a music track produced by a local band of LSU students who then appeared in televisions spots as part of the campaign. The image LSU was hoping for was "energetic, progressive and unique that is worth considering" (Louisiana State University 2008). The university also planned to use na-

tional media to push the campaign. The University of Tennessee, as part of a recent branding initiative, introduced a new UT brand icon and will advertise its new identity through television, newspapers, and billboards (University of Tennessee 2008).

While evidence of university initiatives to brand or re-brand the institution abound, there is limited academic literature on the topic (c.f., Arpan et al. 2003; Kazoleas et al. 2001), particularly as it relates to student recruitment efforts. For decades there have been numerous studies that have sought to explain why students select a particular higher education institution (Bowers and Pugh 1973; Vaughn et al. 1978), but the link between attitudes, such as the desire to attend a particular institution, and action has long been shown to be tenuous (Wicker 1969) and the criteria for institution selection for the prospective college student of the 1970s may have been different than for their children in the 21st century.

Criteria used by Students for University Selection

Early research on factors underlying college choice suggested that financial, geographic, and academic factors were important to parents; while students tended to rely on social, cultural, and word-of-mouth influences in making college choices (Bowers and Pugh 1973). More recently, Aurand, Gorchels, and Judson (2006) found that the four main factors that assist a student in determining which college to attend are (1) image or reputation, (2) cost, (3) location, and (4) majors offered. Others suggest that additional factors may be important in the college selection process such as student experiences or other intangibles (Lockwood and Hadd 2007) or individual characteristics such as a student's ethnic background, religion, age, sex, academic ability, and duration of the institution search process (Dawes and Brown 2002). Though most studies suggest that academic reputation of an institution is an important criterion, further exploration into what comprises academic reputation reveals that the ability to get a good job following graduation, the perceived expertise of the faculty, and up-to-date technology are strongly associated with the academic reputation of an institution (Conard and Conard 2000).

Purpose of Research

The current study was undertaken to explore which criteria are important for undergraduate students in selecting a university; how these criteria match up with students' views of the institution they ultimately attended; and how students gained information about the colleges/universities they considered? While the literature offers a number of criteria that may impact the choice of institution for a prospective college student, institutions differ considerably by size, program offerings, (non-) religious affiliation, cost, amenities, and reputation. Thus, the focus of this study is to explore what criteria are most important to those students who selected a public, urban university for their education.

Method

The study was conducted at a public, urban university in the southeastern United States. The intention was to gather opinions from freshmen during the fall semester, as the college selection process was most recent for this cohort. The survey was distributed to students enrolled in a freshman level introduction to business course. The surveys were distributed during class time. No incentives were offered for participating in this study.

Results

Characteristics of the respondents are shown in Table 1. Of the 92 respondents, 53% were female; consistent with the current higher ratio of women to men currently enrolled at colleges and universities in the United States (Lewin 2006). As expected, younger college students represented the majority of the sample, with 91% in the 18-20 age range. Most (62%) had applied to multiple universities during the college selection process, yet more than 1/3 (38%) only applied to the institution where the data was collected. Most of the students (66%) reported having visited the university prior to admission, but even more obtained information about the university

by word of mouth (75%) from friends and family. To a lesser degree, students obtained information about the university from a university representative visiting their high school (45%), high school counselors providing information about the university (41%), or getting information via university advertising efforts (32%). Many (50%) were prior residents of the metropolitan area in which the university is located, one-fourth (25%) were from other cities in the same state, and another fourth (25%) had been residents of others states or countries prior to enrolling at the university.

Table 1
Characteristics of Respondents
n=92

	%
Female	52.9
Male	47.1
Age	
18-20	90.8
21-22	1.3
23-25	1.3
Over 25	6.6
Did you apply to other universities?	
Yes	62.4
No	37.6
How did you obtain information about (this university)?	
Word of mouth (family/friends)	75.0
Visited the university	66.3
Representative(s) visited your high school	44.6
High school counselor	41.3
Advertisement	31.5
Other	22 .8
Home Town/City	
From university town/city	50.0
From other city in this state	25.0
From other state	18.8
From other country	6.2

Respondents were asked to rate the importance of twenty-four criteria in the consideration of the colleges/universities to which they applied. The criteria were rated on a 5-point scale ranging from (1) "did not consider," (2) "not at all important," (3) "not very important," (4) "somewhat important," to (5) "very important." The respondents were then asked to rate the importance of these same twenty-four criteria in attracting them to the university that they chose to attend. Table 2 provides the mean for each statement for both the consideration set and the university they now attend. Those criteria with a mean above 4.0 suggest that this item was at least somewhat important in the consideration of a college/university. The items are arrayed from most to least important on college/university consideration criteria. Those items with means above 4.0 are shaded in Table 2. The top five criteria were quality education, accredited university, friendly environment, availability of financial aid, and facilities. The bottom five criteria were private university, small class sizes, athletic program, faculty/student ratio, and community involvement. In all, respondents indicated that fourteen (14) criteria were at least somewhat important in the consideration of the colleges/universities to which they applied. Interestingly, one additional criterion, acceptance rate, was at least somewhat important in attracting students to the university they are now attending.

Paired t-tests were conducted to determine whether students' views of criteria for consideration set institutions differed from their views of the institution chosen to attend. As shown in Table 2, the institution chosen received significantly lower marks on quality education, accredited university, friendly environment, availability of financial aid, faculty/student interaction, and housing. The university chosen received significantly higher marks on name recognition and size of the university. That the institution chosen received significantly lower marks on the top four highly-rated criteria as compared to the general group of colleges/universities considered, seemingly supports the tenuous link between attitudes and actions in this context.

Principal component analysis was used to identify whether these items grouped together to form constructs of interest to the prospective student in considering colleges/universities. Six factors

Table 2
Factors Important in the Consideration and Selection of Colleges/Universities

	Colleges/ Universities Considered	Public University Chosen	Comparison of Consideration Set vs. University Chosen	
	Mean	Mean	T-statistic	p-value
Quality Education	4.79	4.56	2.96	.004
Accredited University	4.73	4.58	2.07	.042
Friendly Environment	4.42	4.18	2.36	.021
Availability of Financial Aid	4.40	4.20	3.19	.002
Facilities	4.34	4.24	1.32	.191
Location	4.33	4.45	-1.60	.114
Latest Technology	4.31	4.19	1.52	.132
Reputation of University	4.30	4.35	-0.48	.630
Low Cost of Education	4.25	4.19	0.50	.618
Availability to get a Scholarship	4.20	4.30	1.02	.313
Attractive Campus	4.17	4.13	0.43	.671
Academic Programs	4.12	4.13	-0.13	.896
Faculty/Student Interaction	4.07	3.88	2.27	.026
Reputation of Faculty	4.05	4.01	0.38	.708
Acceptance Rate	3.94	4.02	-0.76	.451
Student Services	3.93	3.88	0.49	.625
Name Recognition	3.83	4.02	-2.01	.048
Living Accommodations/Housing	3.76	3.49	2.50	.014
Size of the University	3.63	3.88	-2.20	.030
Community Involvement	3.58	3.58	0.00	1.00
Faculty/Student Ratio	3.54	3.55	-0.12	.906
Athletic Program	3.51	3.63	-1.49	.141
Small Class Sizes	3.27	3.43	-1.53	.129
Private University	2.46	2.65	-1.47	.146

were identified, following the deletion of five items with low item-to-factor scores. As shown in Table 3, the factors pertained to the university's academic programs, amenities/athletic programs, quality, cost, housing/scholarships, and location. These factors explained 71.9% of the variance among the items.

Discussion and Conclusion

The study reveals that while branding initiatives may build awareness and shape the image of a university, personal interaction during campus visits, word-of-mouth from friends/family, university representatives, and/or high school counselors continue to play an important role in disseminating information about colleges/universities to prospective students. This study also reveals that today's public university students consider a wide variety of criteria when considering to which colleges/universities to apply; and their actual behavior in terms of enrollment may not directly reflect the importance they state they give to certain selection criteria. Whether students' actions differed from stated attitudinal criteria due to their choice or reflect a discrepancy between those institutions considered and those to which they were accepted is unknown.

Table 3
Factor Analysis of College/University Selection Criteria

	Component					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Availability of Financial Aid	.022	.174	.307	.642	-.031	-.357
Small Class Sizes	.810	-.038	.113	.032	-.019	-.006
Living Accommodations/ Housing	.041	.142	.012	-.073	.843	-.147
Faculty/Student Interaction	.305	.609	.233	.139	-.001	-.340
Faculty/Student Ratio	.669	.148	.153	-.037	.155	-.180
Low Cost of Education	.059	.012	-.065	.923	.035	.072
Athletic Program	-.087	.627	.051	.370	.359	.147
Location	-.057	.044	.046	-.044	-.152	.779
Availability to get a Scholarship	.483	-.183	-.020	.363	.601	-.104
Size of the University	.615	.205	.207	.137	.352	.302
Student Services	.684	.468	.067	.242	.078	-.032
Academic Programs	.700	.425	.158	-.031	.003	-.225
Friendly Environment	.291	.636	.419	.067	-.154	.020
Name Recognition	.326	.589	.176	.312	-.306	.120
Community Involvement	.206	.773	.022	-.052	.044	-.048
Attractive Campus	.116	.758	.312	-.089	.195	.110
Quality Education	.274	.304	.802	.078	-.004	-.136
Latest Technology	.673	.400	.204	-.029	-.097	.125
Accredited University	.192	.161	.901	.031	.040	.135

While some of the university selection criteria examined appear to remain consistently important over decades of research, amenities/facilities emerged as an important selection factor in this study and would seem to reflect a 21st century view of the university experience. Though some within the academic community have raised sharp criticism of the lengths to which colleges and universities are going in an effort to distinguish themselves from competitors by building elaborate recreation centers, student centers, and student housing (Twitchell 2004), our findings suggest that these amenities may be very important selection criteria to the modern student when choosing among higher education alternatives.

It should also be noted that higher education institutions differ considerably by size, program offerings, (non-) religious affiliation, cost, amenities, and reputation. Not all students will be equally drawn to each type of institution. This study focused on the interests of those students who attend an urban, public institution. The importance of these selection criteria might well have differed if the students surveyed had attended a small, private and/or religion-affiliated institution. Future researchers should expand on this study by exploring the importance of different selection criteria among different student groups and institution types.

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Leading a Business School Faculty

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ABSTRACT

This paper provides a generalized two by two matrix intended to provide a frame of reference for leaders of business schools and/or departments. It is modeled after the Boston Consulting Group matrix used in portfolio planning. The continua on the axes of this matrix are task performance and attitudes. The elements of the matrix are labeled "stars", "troopers", curmudgeons" and "duds". Each of these elements is described and leadership strategies for each element are provided.

Introduction

Who hasn't heard the "old saw" that goes "treat everybody the same"? Coaches of sports teams use this expression about as often as they say "we came to play". In fact, a "Google" search of "treat everybody the same", yields over 66 million hits! When the authors assumed their first leadership positions as naval officers over forty years ago, each realized early on that treating everybody the same wasn't always the best thing to do. And a few years later when they became academic administrators leading business faculty members, they learned that success of the department or school depended on not treating everybody the same. Business school faculty members represent very diverse academic disciplines (e.g., managerial accounting vis-à-vis organizational behavior). Their competencies regarding the areas of teaching, research and service vary widely. And their attitudes regarding the organization are disparate. In this paper the authors provide a retrospective overview of an approach which proved to be helpful in navigating careers as academic administrators.

A Simple Two by Two Matrix

In the early 1970's Bruce Henderson of the Boston Consulting Group developed a growth-share matrix as a portfolio planning model (BCG Matrix, nd). This matrix with its "stars", "dogs" and "cash cows" became renown and was adapted to many other applications in the management literature. Our model—illustrated in Table 1—is another one of these adaptations. In practice, leadership situations with business faculty members are more complex than our version of a simple two by two matrix may suggest, but we believe it may be a helpful reference for b-school leaders; especially those who are relatively new in their positions.

Tom Peters (Peters, 1979) suggested an emerging model involving the "the notion of the effective executive as a communicator, a persuader, and, above all, a consummate opportunist". Such a leader "is adept at grasping and taking advantage of each item in the random succession of time and issue fragments that crowd his day". With regard to disparate faculty members the idea of not treating everybody the same facilitates accommodating the "issue fragments". To do this the dean has to know the faculty members well. As (Leman and Pentak, 2004) observed:

> Always know the condition of your flock. Get to know your flock one sheep at a time. Engage your people and follow through.

In "Good to Great" (Collins, 2001) speaks to importance of getting to know your faculty members one at a time where he points

out that the successful people in his book "... first got the right people on the bus (and the wrong people off the bus) and then figured out where to drive it".

The disparity of capabilities which individual faculty members bring to the areas of teaching, research and service results in widely differing performance outcomes. These outcomes as well as expectations for future outcomes are serious issues for the dean or department chair who is considering roles for each faculty member in order for the unit to be successful. For the matrix approach shown herein we have collapsed these capabilities and outcomes in to one dimension: task performance.

There are other factors which should influence the dean or department head in his or her relationships with individual faculty members. In a classic 1958 leadership article Tannenbaum and Schmidt (Tannenbaum and Schmidt, 1958) suggest that managers need to consider that subordinates are influenced by many personality variables such as tolerance for ambiguity and need for independence, among others. As John Maxwell points out in "The 21 Irrefutable Laws of Leadership" (Maxwell, 1998), you cannot connect with people in a group, unless you relate to them as individuals. To paraphrase Maxwell: In a b-school, faculty members, with all of their individual differences, determine the potential of the school. The dean who relates to faculty members as individuals determines the morale of the school. With vision this dean determines the direction of the school and his or her leadership determines the success of the school. In our simple matrix we collapse the complex array of individual personal differences into an observable attribute: attitude.

Thus we have a matrix with task performance relative to teaching, research and service on one axis and attitude, which we posit as a collective indicator of collegiality, on the other.

The authors recognize that the dimensions of this matrix are not fully independent. For instance, a faculty member may be quite competent but choose to under-perform as a result of a bad attitude. However, we believe that these two dimensions evoke generalizations which can be very informative and useful.

The Elements of the Matrix

We label the four elements of our matrix with the descriptors "stars", "troopers", "curmudgeons", and "duds". In our experience troopers are the largest proportion of the faculty, followed by stars. There are always a few curmudgeons and, fortunately, even fewer duds. It is the case that faculty members sometimes move from one element to another, especially along the task performance axis.

Stars

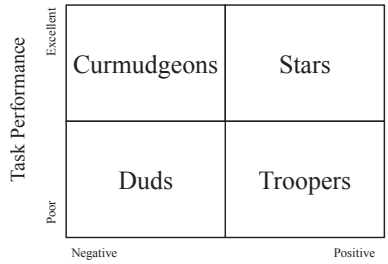
These faculty members do well at all three dimensions of the proverbial "three-legged stool" of academia. Their positive attitudes inspire others. They are consummate team players. Stars always accept service assignments enthusiastically. In fact, deans have to be careful not to "abuse" their stars by appointing them to chair all of the time-consuming task forces and committees. Some stars enjoy the classroom more than the research dimension, but they strive to make significant intellectual contributions anyway because they know it makes them better teachers. Conversely, there are stars whose preference is research over teaching, but they strive to constantly improve their teaching out of a sense of obligation to their students and colleagues.

In our experience a good b-school faculty will have about 20-30% stars and this is a comfortable balance. Some may think that a higher proportion would be preferred, but keep in mind that if, at the extreme, all faculty members were stars it would be impossible to have much of a differential reward strategy—half of the stars would be below av-

erage! In due time, some of your stars would seek and find other opportunities. On the other hand, if a faculty has a very low proportion of stars, say less than 10%, they can easily become frustrated and be hired away by competitor b-schools.

Occasionally a tenured, senior professor can drift to the trooper category. Of course, it's a major challenge for a dean to turn this situation around—it can be done. We have never experienced a star becoming a curmudgeon. Stars have too much self-pride to become whiners.

Table 1
Faculty Assessment Matrix



Troopers

Troopers are solid citizens and valuable faculty members. These faculty members are not as competent as stars in the task performance areas but they enjoy being on the faculty as evidenced by their positive attitudes. Many in this category are dedicated to serving students. They usually get very good student evaluations and they serve as faculty advisors to student organizations. Some maintain valuable alumni relationships with their former students. Typically troopers are not very interested in research but they will accomplish enough to help meet the expectations of accreditation associations. A few troopers are very skilled at research but they do not perform as well as stars in the classroom and they are less enthusiastic about service activities. However, they frequently provide a valuable service as mentors and/or co-authors for their colleagues who would not otherwise meet expectations in the research dimension.

Troopers make up about 50-60% of a good b-school faculty. Since they are collegial and good enough at either teaching/service or research/service, they earn tenure. However, deans need to be leery of pseudo-troopers among the untenured cadre of faculty members. In one instance a faculty member faked collegiality for six years until a positive tenure decision was made and then instantly became a curmudgeon! This was avoided in a second instance as the dean had learned to consult other non-tenured colleagues on tenure decisions.

Curmudgeons

These faculty members do the task performance portion of their jobs in a commendable manner, but they tend to find fault with just about every aspect of the working environment. Some of them think they are actually being helpful by pointing out all of the things that need to be improved. Curmudgeons tend to wear out their welcome by "blaming the ubiquitous "they" (i.e., the administration) for everything that happens" (Carper, Gooding, Pope and Uhr, 2008). Stars and troopers learn to turn the other way or duck into a colleague's office when they see a curmudgeon coming down the hall. They do this to avoid hearing the whine of the day. But because curmudgeons are good task performers they have value regarding the accomplishment of the goals of the school.

Curmudgeons typically represent about 10% of the faculty. Occasionally, and on an issue by issue basis, they can be co-opted into having a less negative attitude. But this is usually short lived because being a whiner is part of their nature. It is usually not that they are unhappy people; they just can't resist the urge to be judgmental and to criticize.

Duds

These faculty members are overmatched by the task performance elements of the job and their attitudes are so negative that they poison the work environment. Years ago as business schools were gaining respectability by ramping up expectations in the area of intellectual contributions, there were some faculty members who were tenured but not up to the task of becoming research productive. These faculty members became bitter and essentially retired on the job. In a sense, the situation was unfair to these faculty members because they had been valued contributors earlier in their careers. But b-schools had been rightfully maligned and needed to change. Over time the relative size of this group diminished substantially. There are still some duds on b-school faculties and they still like to blame their plight on changing expectations despite the fact that they entered the profession after expectations were ramped up. They tend to create self-fulfilling prophecies of doom and they see conspiracy theories everywhere even though none exist.

Leadership Strategies

Stars

Reward them! Praise them! Then reward them some more and praise them some more! It's not easy to be a star and it's even harder to sustain it. The school needs stars to gain or sustain credibility with external stakeholders. Stars know this. Competitor deans and chairs know who they are, so the school is vulnerable to losing them. It may not always seem fair (in fact, it will never seem fair to the curmudgeons since they tend to see themselves as stars) but prudent deans know that they have to provide the most sustenance to their stars.

Troopers

Troopers earn and deserve the appreciation of their leaders. Deans should recognize their successes in any way possible. It is difficult to reward them with large pay raises because the stars deserve raises that are substantially above average and the raise pool is always limited, but the dean can seek to reward troopers by providing opportunities to maximize summer income or to earn income from external sources.

It may sound trite, but we found that using MBWA (managing by walking around) may be the best way to keep troopers motivated. Deans and chairs who drop by the offices of troopers for conversations, who thank them for what they contribute, and who show sincere interest in their personal lives are less likely to see them devolve into duds. Newsletters, mass emails and awards banquets are other ways to trumpet the successes of troopers. We found that endowed awards for excellence in the separate areas of the three-legged stool are frequently won by troopers rather than stars since stars do everything well while troopers may be stars in just one area.

Curmudgeons

The most important thing to do with curmudgeons is to avoid appointing them to chair of or, if possible, even to membership on, the most important task forces or committees. Curmudgeons have a very high regard for their own opinions and, if allowed, they will dominate all meetings and stifle the more creative new ideas of less brazen stars and troopers. Leman and Pentak (Leman and Pentak, 2004) call this culling the constant instigators from the herd.

Deans and department heads should always avoid giving curmudgeons above average pay raises. This will almost always lead to a one on one confrontation and the dean will not be able to convince the curmudgeon that the raise is appropriate, but to do otherwise not prudent. The amounts of colleagues' raises become common knowledge even when they are supposed to be confidential. The morale of stars and troopers is greatly diminished when they see someone with a negative at-

titude being rewarded. On the other hand, it's alright to present a curmudgeon with a reward for performance in a task performance area because everybody knows that despite their negative attitudes, they do well at these tasks.

MBWA is not recommended for dealing with curmudgeons—it just provides another forum for whining. Besides, they'll find you.

Duds

Duds have to be totally marginalized for the good of the organization. When the dean realizes that an untenured faculty member is a dud, the time to issue a non-renewal letter is immediately. To do otherwise is unfair to your students and other faculty members. In fact, in one instance we realized just a few weeks into a fall semester that we had made a hiring mistake so we paid the faculty member to not teach any classes until his contract expired at the end of the academic year.

In some instances duds are people who have chosen the wrong profession and they can't find a way to extricate themselves from it. In his book "Leadership is Common Sense' (Cain, 1997), Herman Cain, relates a story about a subordinate who had been in the wrong job for five years. But the employee was reasonably well paid and, therefore was not motivated to seek a different career path. Although it was painful, Herman dismissed this person and offered some counseling in an exit interview. Several years later this person thanked Herman for the advice and for firing him.

Where there are tenured duds and non-renewal is not an option, it is best to "reward" the non-performers by keeping their class sizes small for the sake of students and appointing them to only the most insignificant committees for the sake of the other faculty members. Attempting to reform tenured duds is a waste of time that the dean could be spending nurturing stars, troopers and even some curmudgeons. Duds do not deserve a pay raise or income from teaching in the summer, Some institutions provide across the board raises to the consternation of business deans and department heads. The dean should protest this practice at every opportunity.

Recruiting

While a new dean or chair has to lead the curmudgeons and duds already on the faculty when he or she is employed, the proportion of stars and troopers can be increased over time with well executed recruiting practices. The key is to never settle just to fill a vacancy. Instead, convince the chief academic officer to hold the position and hire a temporary or visiting faculty member. Do this repeatedly if necessary. One of the authors has a friend who, as a long term management practitioner, produced an unpublished list of axioms called "Boldt's Laws of Management" (Boldt's Law, nd). One of these laws states that if a manager is right two out of three times on personnel decisions, he is a genius! Again, improve the odds by never settling.

The dean should follow the example of Lewis and Clark (Uldrich, 2004) by getting to know team members before employing them. If something in an interview or a reference check indicates that a candidate for the position may be a curmudgeon, bank on that impression and do not settle. If another school with comparable performance expectations has denied tenure to one of your candidates, recognize that there was probably a good reason and do not settle. If a candidate presents a lecture of his or her choosing and the presentation is difficult to follow, consider what the students will experience and do not settle. There are not enough recruiting opportunities to take a chance on rehabilitating a potential dud or curmudgeon.

Retirements

It is never appropriate to ask an individual faculty member about his or her retirement plans because it opens the door to charges

of age discrimination. But it is appropriate to have general policies to assist all faculty members in ways which are more likely to induce duds and curmudgeons who are eligible to retire to do so. One strategy to do this is to offer the opportunity to maximize summer teaching income during the last two or three years to increase pension income. Another option is to reduce a faculty member's teaching load during the final year—sort of an in place sabbatical. Remember, stars and troopers who are eligible to retire are content with their situations and are more likely to continue their service. In all cases, a faculty member who takes advantage of such options must be required to provide a written date-certain for retirement with sanctions for changing his or her mind.

Written performance documents

In a typical performance appraisal system each faculty member prepares an annual report summarizing his or her activities. We recommend preparing aggregate reports for each of the three performance areas which outline each individual's accomplishments in detail. Then distribute these to every faculty member as addenda to the business schools annual report to the chief academic officer. Include the school's AACSB AQ/PQ table in this document. This will allow every faculty member to see what the stars are accomplishing. The stars will appreciate the additional recognition. Others may be motivated to improve their performances. Of course, curmudgeons will object to distributing all of this information, but they also may be induced to improve their performances.

It is important that promotion, tenure and performance appraisal policies all specifically include collegiality as a performance criterion. It is also important to be honest in the written performance appraisals of individual faculty members. For instance, if a faculty member is annoying colleagues by persistently whining, put a statement to that effect in the appraisal. We know of an instance where a department head made the statement that a particular faculty member was "making progress toward tenure" just "to encourage" him to do better. After six years the faculty voted no tenure but the university had to award it anyway since being on the losing side of a law suit was a certainty. The curmudgeons had a "field day" with this one.

The area of "student evaluations" is always controversial. In our experience, within a particular teaching discipline the information from student opinion surveys is very valuable for the purpose of indentifying the very best and the very worst teachers. The data for the vast middle (perhaps 75% of the faculty) is useless. The 1Ø-15% of the faculty which receives the lowest scores needs to be advised of this relative position in their annual performance appraisals and the wise dean will make certain that these faculty members are provided with mentoring opportunities to help them improve.

Conclusion

Over twenty years ago an administrator known as the unofficial "guru" of business deans, the colorful Dr. Billy Mitchell, offered the following quip during a seminar for new deans: "If you don't have about 15% of the faculty who hate you, you are not doing a very good job of deaning. Of course, you have to make sure it's the right 15%". Although he didn't use our descriptors, Billy was clearly talking about the duds and the curmudgeons that we have identified in our matrix. The challenge for the dean is to learn where individual faculty members fit in the matrix in order to align them for optimal effect.

As indicated above, reality is more complex than a generalized matrix. After all, the axes we define are continua. For instance, a trooper may occasionally produce marginally excellent work and move into the star category for some time period. However, the matrix does provide a helpful reference and it underscores the need for the dean to know individual faculty members well in order to lead them to attain the goals of the school.

Goffee and Jones (Goffee and Jones, 2001) stress the application of "tough empathy" : an approach that balances respect for the individual and for the task at hand. In order to do that effectively one must know each person ... their strengths and weaknesses. In our experiences, leadership that focuses on relationships with individuals is a necessary element for success.

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How do Concerns about Access to Data and Fairness of Information Management Correlate with Demand for Notice about Uses of Personal Information?

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ABSTRACT

When individual stakeholders are concerned about access to data about them and about the fairness of information management and control practices in organizations, what actions do they expect information intensive organizations to take to mitigate their concerns? We build a theoretical model and, using data from a survey of students at a large U.S. university, empirically test two hypothesized relationships to answer this question. Results show that concerns about access to data and fairness positively correlate with demand for notice about uses of personal information.

Introduction

On January 21, 2009, the first full day of a new administration, the White House issued a memo instructing all heads of federal agencies and departments to respond "promptly and in a spirit of cooperation" to requests made under the Freedom of Information Act (FOIA). The White House FOIA memo states that government "should not keep information confidential merely because public officials might be embarrassed by disclosure, because errors and failures might be revealed, or because of speculative or abstract fears." In addition, agencies should take affirmative steps to make information public (The Whitehouse, 2009). It can be argued that individuals conscious about personal rights and freedoms demand transparency in information management practices not only in a national government but in other organizations as well. Individuals demonstrate different degrees of concern about who have access to data about them and how fair an organization is in handling information about persons. In this paper, attempts are made to explain and predict students' demand for notice of a university's information management practices (Y) using two independent variables: (X1) individuals' concern about access to data and (X2) individuals' concern about fairness of information management practices.

Literature Review

Demand for Notice of Information Management Practices (Y) and Organization Theory

An individual member's demand for informational notice about uses of personal information by an organization can be interpreted as a demand for transparency, openness and accountability in how an organization collects and uses information about individuals. In light of the theory of information power (Mason, Mason and Culnan, 1995), demand for notice is a demand for fair and balanced use of information power that organizations exercise over individuals. Demand for notice can also be understood, in light of a theory of information asymmetry (Ackerlof, 1970) as an individual's demand for less asymmetry in what organizations know and what individuals know about uses of personal information. Demand for notice can be understood in light of the theory of procedural justice (Greenberg, 1990) as an individual's demand for a procedure of information management that is based on informed consent and transparency and as a result fair and just. In light of the research literature on individual's information privacy concern (Culnan, 1993), demand for notice can be viewed as individual's at attempt to have more control on information about one's self as opposed to being

blindly controlled by organizational machines. In light of the literature on customer orientation, demand for notice can be understood as customers' demand that an organization become more customer-centered (Mollick, 2009a) rather than self-centered in its information management practices. In light of a theory of evolution of cooperation (Axelrod, 1984), demand for notice can be understood as customers' demand for an organization to be more cooperative rather than authoritarian in how it manages information about individuals.

Concern About Improper Access to Data (X1)

One of the four dimensions of individuals' concern about information privacy (Smith and Milberg, 1996) is individuals' concern about improper access (X_1) to data. At the heart of one's concern about improper access to data is the fear that data about individuals are readily available to persons who are not properly authorized to view or work with certain pieces of data (Mollick, 2006a). Access control has also been identified by information security professionals as the most important dimension of information security (Ma and Pearson, 2004). Mason (1986) identified improper access as one of the four ethical issues of information management. Thus, concern about access to data is shared by professionals and scholars in the domains of information security and privacy management, information ethics and strategy as well as by individuals about whom data are collected and stored by organizations such as universities. Smith and Milberg (1996) discussed the construct of concern about improper access to data as follows:

> Who within an organization is allowed to access personal information in the files? This is a question not only of technological constraints (e.g., access control software) but also of organizational policy. It is often held that individuals should have a "need to know" before access to personal information is granted. However, the interpretation of which individuals have, and do not have, a "need to know" is often a cause of much controversy. PPSC (1977) and Linowes (1989) provide some attention to the topic--considering, for example, the inappropriate access to employees' healthcare records that are not controlled properly--and it is sometimes considered under the rubric of "security" in database literature (see, for example, Date, 1986). Of course, technological options now exist for controlling such access at file, record, or field level. But how those options are utilized and how policies associated with those uses are formed represent value-laden managerial judgments.

Students' concern about improper access to data reflect the extent to which they believe that their privacy and security is being compromised or violated because of ignorance, incompetence, negligence, malice or criminal intent on the part of information managers and knowledge workers at universities who have access or who can control access to data about them. Students' concern about improper access to data refers to students' fear or apprehension regarding adequacy of managerial practices and value-laden managerial judgments that drive access control practices and policies to protect customers' information privacy and security.

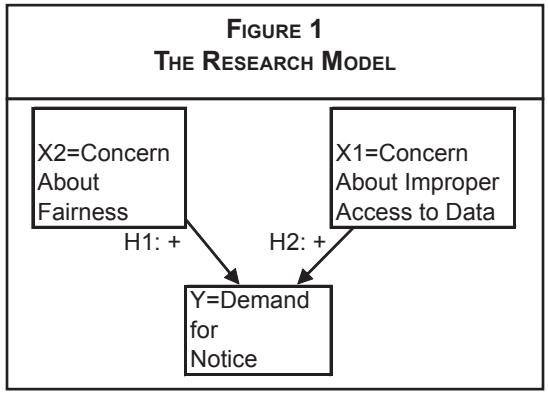
Concern about Fairness of Information Management (X2)

One's worry about how fair and balanced organizations are in managing competing interests among different stakeholders of information collected, stored and managed by organizations is one of the concerns that have been reported by information ethics scholar(Mason, 1986; Mason, Mason and Culnan, 1995) and others. Concerns about fairness of information management practices is ancient but the use of new information and communications technologies by organizations and individuals warrant individuals, organizations and societies to examine the fair-

ness concerns of different stakeholders of information. Whether a specific organizational practice is perceived fair or not and how concerned individual members or customers of an organization feel about the fairness of an organization's information management activities need to be continuously measured and monitored by managers and policy makers because customers' fears and concerns can have negative consequences for relationships between organizations and their members or customers. What could be some of the negative consequences of customers' concern about organizational fairness in the domain of information management? In light of equity theory and theories of justice, it can be said that concern about fairness will lead to a feeling of alienation, a lower motivation to belong to an organization, and a lower motivation to cooperate. For example, when asked to fill up a form or participate in a survey, students may not volunteer to cooperate. If coerced or forced to cooperation with an organization that they perceive is unfair, concern about fairness may even lead members to protest, bring law suits or participate in a violent revolt against the organization or institution that is held responsible for unfairly handling information about customers. Managers need to listen to customers and respond to customers' preferences or demands in by implementing customer-centered policies and practices related to information practices. A policy of being transparent by notifying customers about information practices could reduce individuals' concern about fairness of information practices.

The second independent variable in this study measures the extent to which a student is concerned about a university's conformity to principles of fairness of data management activities. Administrators, students, regulatory agencies and different other stakeholders of a university would be interested to learn more about individuals' concern about the fairness of information management in universities as perceived by important stakeholders such as students. Concern about fairness of information management can be understood in light of level of responsibility exercised by an organization to its different stakeholders of information. The most important stakeholders are those about whom data are collected and whose lives can be negatively affected if data are not managed according to principles of fair information management practices. Concern about fairness can also be understood in terms of fear that an organization is violating end consumers by breaching a code of conduct regarding information management. Students' concern about fairness of information management can also be understood in terms of fear that their university is not honoring a social psychological contract (Rousseau and Parks, 1992; Rousseau, 1947) that is above and beyond any restrictions imposed by codified laws. It is expected by students that the objectives and uses of hardware, software and data will be consistent with social values and ideals of fairness. Universities are viewed as conscience careers in many societies (Mason, Mason and Culnan, 1995) and as such concern about ethics of information management at a university can be understood as students' fear that a university is not living up to the demands of good conscience and justice in how it handles information management activities. Perceived fairness of an organization in how it manages information about individuals continues to gain increased importance as organizational processes, transformed through technologies such as databases and the Internet, become more information intensive.

Figure 1
The Research Model



The Research Model and Hypotheses

In light of the definitions and discussions presented above, we build a conceptual research model of how the variables concern about improper access to data, concern about fairness of

information management and students' demand that a university notify students about information practices are related. The research model is presented in Figure 1 and arguments for each of the research hypotheses, H1and H2 follow.

H1: Relationship between concern about access to data and demand for notice about uses of information

The first research hypothesis is that X1 and Y are positively related; the more concerned an individual is about access to data, the more strongly an individual believes that an organization should notify individuals about uses and potential uses of information. Different organizations like schools and universities would be interested in learning about the relationship claimed in H1. One argument to support H1 is that notifying students will be perceived by students as a fair procedure (Greenberg, 1990; Culnan et al, 1993; Milne and Culnan, 2002) of information management. Another argument to support H1 is that the policy of notifying students will be perceived as a practice that reduces information asymmetry about how information is managed by an organization. As sunlight takes away the mystery of darkness that may cause many people to worry, so does the light of a policy of notification and transparency about information practices remove the walls of information asymmetry, reduce people's fear and leave them with less anxiety. Since concerns about information privacy such as concerns about improper access to data can lead to a feeling of alienation (Mollick, 2006; Mollick, 2008) , students will demand organizational actions as a remedy for their alienation. Remedial or pro-active organizational actions can include a policy of notifying students about information practices. These arguments support H1 as formally stated below.

H1: Higher level of concern about improper access to data will be associated with higher level of demand that an organization adopt a policy of notifying individuals about information practices ($B_1>0$; $r_{x1y}>0$).

H2: Relationship between concern about fairness and demand for notice about uses of information

The second hypothesis is that X2 and Y are positively related. Organizations like universities and schools would be interested in learning about the relationship between X2 and Y. Knowledge about the nature of the relationship between individuals' concern about the fairness of information management and individuals' demand for notice about uses of information can help administrators and other employees of an organization such as a university understand the importance of being transparent, accountable, customer-centered and responsible (Vitell et al, 2003) in how they handle data about individuals. The practice of notifying students about uses of data about students is likely to be viewed by students as a pro-active ethical gesture . Society at large and students view a university as a bearer of the torch of conscience (Mason, Mason and Culnan, 1995). Thus, it can be argued that students will demand that a university adopt a policy of properly notifying students of the uses and potential uses of information about students collected and stored in university databases. So, the relationship between concern about ethics of information management and demand for notice about information practices can be stated as follows.

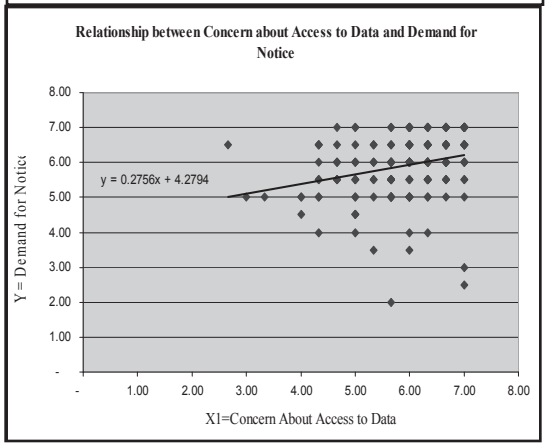
H2: Higher level of concern about fairness of information management practices will be associated with higher level of demand that an organization adopt a policy of notifying individuals about information practices ($B_1>0$; $r_{x2y}>0$).

Questionnaire Design and Data Collection

Data for this study was collected by using a questionnaire presented in Appendix A. Students were given extra credit points to participate in this study. Of the 187 students who participated in the survey, 37 were graduate business students and 150 were undergraduate business students. The percentages of male (52%) and female (48%)

students in the sample were almost equal. Seven-point Likert-type scales were used to measure each respondent's level of agreement with each statement. The items for measuring concern about access to data were based on Smith and Milberg (1996). The items for measuring concern about fairness of information management and demand for notice about uses of information were based on the ethical checklist in (Mason, Mason and Culnan, 1995).

Figure 2
Scatterplot 1: a simple regression line and equation showing a positive relationship between X1 and Y



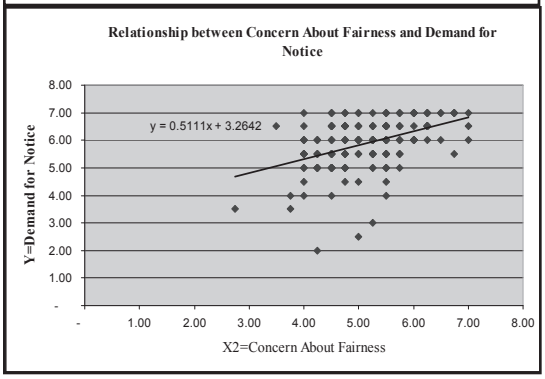
Results of Data Analysis

Assessment of sample evidence about research hypotheses H1, and H2 are made using scatter plots, statistical significance testing of beta coefficients in estimated regression models, and that of the correlation coefficient r between X1 and Y and X2 and Y, respectively.

The Scatter plots

Scatterplot 1 shows that the variable individuals' concern about improper access to data (X1) and demand for notice about uses of information (Y) are positively related. The positive correlation can be observed in the upward slope of the trend line. The slope of the simple regression line is positive. Thus, scatter plot 1 indicates that there is a positive relationship between X1 and Y. The claim made in research hypothesis H2 is supported by scatter plot 1.

Figure 3
Scatterplot 2: a simple regression line and equation showing a positive relationship0 between X2 and Y



Scatterplot 2 shows that the variable individuals' concern about fairness of data management (X2) and demand for notice about uses of information (Y) are positively related. The positive correlation can be observed in the upward slope of the trend line. The estimate slope of the simple regression line is positive. Thus, scatter plot 2 indicates that there is a positive relationship between X2 and Y. This supports the claim made in research hypothesis H2.

Descriptive Statistics, and Significance Testing

Examination of the correlation matrix in Table 1 reveals that students' concern about access to data and their demand for notice about information practices are positively correlated. Likewise, students' concern about fairness of information management and their demand for notice about information practices are positively related. Based on a sample size n=187, p-values from 1-tailed t-tests conducted on two correlation coefficients are less than .ØØ1. In fact, 1-tailed p-value for rx1y =Ø.ØØØ1Ø6, 1-tailed p-value for rx2y = Ø.ØØØØØØ. Thus, it can be concluded with more than 99% statistical confidence that the relationships hypothesized in H1and H2 are supported

Table 1
Correlation Matrix, Means and Standard Deviations of variables X1, X2 and Y

"Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix"	Mean	S. D.	"X1=Concern About Access to Data"	"X2=Concern About Fairness"
X1=Concern About Access to Data	5.90	0.86	1	
X2=Concern About Fairness	5.17	0.78	0.23480	1
Y=Demand for Notice	5.91	0.89	0.26766	0.45079

by this sample data. The probability for research hypothesis H1: r>0 to be true is =0.9999; the probability for research hypothesis H2: r>0 to be true is more than 0.9999. Thus, the support found in the sample data for each of the two research hypotheses are overwhelming.

Regression Analysis and Significance Testin1g

Summary output associated with an estimated multiple regression models is presented in Table 2. The p-values associated with t-tests conducted on the estimated beta coefficients associate with variables X1 and X2 indicate with more than 99% confidence that estimates of both B1 and B1 are statistically significantly greater than zero. Thus, it is safe to conclude that both X1 and X2 are positively related to Y.

Implications of the findings and conclusion

Support for the hypothesis imply that organizations need to be more customer-centric and transparent to consumers regarding how they collect, store, share and use information about individual customers. Organizations can do so by properly notifying customers regarding an organization's information practices and by doing everything on the basis of informed consent of customers. This transparency can be achieved through proper and timely disclosure, through notices, of current and potential practices involving information about individuals. There is demand from customers that organizations keep customers informed of information practices and that organizations act on the basis of consumers' informed consent agreements. This demand is driven by concerns about access to data and concern about how fair an organization is balancing competing interests and claims to data about individuals stored in organizations. These findings have special implications for information based organizations such as universities. Since there is a demand from consumers for organizations to be transparent, it is expected by consumers that universities as well as other organizations will become more open, accountable and transparent through proper and timely disclosure of organizational practices related to information management to important stakeholders of information.

Table 2
Regression Analysis and Significance Testing
(Summary output associated with an estimated multiple regression models)

Regression Statistics					
Multiple R	0.480546				
R Square	0.230925				
Adjusted R Square	0.222565				
Standard Error	0.781482				
Observations	187				
Y-hat= 2.458916+0.176323*X1+0.4655*X2					
ANOVA					
	df	**SS**	**MS**	**F**	**Significance F**
Regression	2	33.74094	16.87047	27.62418	0.000000
Residual	184	112.3714	0.610714		
Total	186	146.1123			
	Coefficients	**Standard Error**	**t Stat**	**1-tailed P-value**	**Hypothesis**
Intercept	2.458916	0.494649	4.971026	0.000001	
X1=Concern--Access	0.176323	0.068481	2.574759	0.005409	H1 supported
X2=Concern--Fairness	0.4655	0.075406	6.17323	0.000000	H2 supported

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Steps in the Classroom to Avoid Steps in the Courtroom: A Guide to Educating New Faculty Members about Legal Concerns in Teaching

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ABSTRACT

Potential legal issues face faculty members in higher education as they prepare and teach their courses. An annual program of education about these issues for new faculty members can help prevent litigation and the accompanying costs. The authors provide a discussion of these legal issues and recommend an annual university program.

Faculty members and their universities face potential legal challenges arising out of the conduct of their courses and their interactions with students and others. These legal concerns include such varied matters as the syllabus and grading, the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act [FERPA], copyright issues, and accommodation of those with disabilities. Faculty members can avoid many of these legal concerns with awareness and planning, potentially saving themselves and their universities from investigations, in-house grievance committee hearings, and litigation.

How should the university educate its faculty members about these legal issues? This article advocates that universities provide a short seminar for incoming faculty members every year using the information provided below as a template. There are several areas in which legal implications can affect the decisions educators make on a daily basis. These areas include the control of course content, the syllabus, conduct of the course, and student and faculty misconduct.

Control of Course Content

The U.S. Constitution and its principles apply to public universities because they involve state action whereas private universities usually do not. Therefore, public university professors have some constitutional protection for freedom of speech under the First Amendment and due process under the Fourteenth Amendment. Academic freedom pits the rights of the professor to teach the course the way he/she sees fit versus the university's right to control course content. A professor's out-of-class conduct, including advocacy of particular teaching methods, is protected by the First Amendment at public institutions. (*Bradley v. Pittsburgh Bd. of Ed.*, 1990). However, the professor's conduct and speech in class are not similarly protected.

In *Edwards v. California University of Pennsylvania* (1998), a tenured professor at a public university alleged that the school had violated his constitutional rights by restricting his choice of classroom materials, criticizing his teaching performance, and suspending him with pay for a portion of one academic term. One of the profes-

sor's students complained to the university that the professor was using his course on educational media to advance religious ideas. After a meeting on the issue, he was admonished to cease using doctrinaire materials of a religious nature in his class.

In his suit against the university on constitutional grounds, the jury returned a verdict in favor of the university. On appeal, the court held that a public university professor does not have a First Amendment right to decide what will be taught in the classroom. The court explained that in this circumstance, the professor is not the speaker, but rather the public university or state. As a state speaker, the state has a right to make content-based choices about what is conveyed. These choices can include "who may teach, what may be taught, how it shall be taught, and who may be admitted to study." (*Edwards*, 1998, p. 492, citing *Regents of University of California v. Bakke*, 1978) See also, *Bishop v. Aronov*, (1991).

A public university may also require that a professor communicate more clearly to her students about what is required to complete the course. In *Johnson-Kurek v. Abu-Absi* (2005), a part-time lecturer had given incomplete grades to thirteen of the seventeen students in the class because their work was substandard. She posted an announcement to the students that the reasons for the incomplete grades were either problems with proper formatting, proper citations, and/or textual changes, but did not individually explain what problems were involved in each student's work. When a student inquired what needed to be done to complete the work and change the grade from incomplete, the lecturer refused to specify.

The lecturer's lawsuit against the university alleged that the university violated her First Amendment rights by denying her a second class to teach as a result of her refusal to communicate more specifically to her students. The court disagreed, explaining that any concept of academic freedom beyond the First Amendment rights to which any citizen is entitled belongs to the university, not to the individual professors. The court noted that the lecturer here was not asked to communicate ideas other than her own to the students. She was not told what to communicate to her students, but simply that she must clarify what the students needed to do in order to complete the course. Had the university required her to make specific remarks to her students or change the students' grades, her First Amendment rights might have been implicated.

Because a public university can constitutionally control the course content and the professor's speech in terms of course requirements and completion, private universities may certainly do the same and more. New faculty members should be encouraged to communicate with their departments about what is expected in terms of course content so that students are prepared for subsequent coursework. While the methods utilized may be largely left to the professor, the department may have specific learning objectives for the course and those should be clearly communicated to the professor.

Syllabus

Attendance

If attendance is part of the evaluation process, the method and value should be explained. Will attendance be assigned specific points for each class day or will good attendance simply be a factor if the final grade of the student is borderline between two grades? If attendance is assigned specific points, it should be taken every class day and documented in the event of a future grade challenge by the student. Similarly, absence policies should be explained. Does the professor have an absence policy for every class day or just for examinations? What are the excused reasons for absence, what evidence must the student provide when absent, and when should it be provided to the instructor in order for the absence to be excused?

Team Evaluations and Class Participation

If teams are used for class work, the syllabus should address how the student's participation and grade will be computed. Will the work of

the team be evaluated or the individual's effort on the team, or both? The methods to be employed should be explained in the syllabus. Class participation is another matter to be considered. If class participation is assigned specific points or involved in any manner in the final grade determination, the method of evaluation should be clearly defined and included in the syllabus.

Dates of Examinations

The dates of the examinations should be determined in advance and specified in the syllabus. While the professor may find that class proceeds faster or more likely, slower than anticipated, coverage on the examinations should be altered rather than changing examination dates. Most students' examinations will be clustered in the same time periods during the semester or quarter and advance notice of firm exam dates allows students to plan their studies accordingly.

Grading

It is important to describe the process that will be used to evaluate student performance in the course. This is considered a "contract" area of the syllabus that should not be changed during the progress of the course. In *Keen v. Penson* (1992), a public university professor listed a book report as "optional" in the syllabus and yet assigned it ten percent of the grade. The syllabus encouraged students to ask questions and make comments at the beginning of every class. One student complained about the book report as well as spot quizzes that the syllabus described. Despite the fact that the syllabus encouraged students to ask questions and comment about the course, the professor believed the student's comments created a negative atmosphere in the class and tentatively assigned her the grade of "C" before the end of the semester.

After two end-of-semester conferences between the professor and student (which were not required by the syllabus) and some confusion about the scheduled times for the conferences, the professor refused to assign the student any grade until she apologized to the professor and the class members for her conduct. After a series of letters over the summer between the student and the professor in which the student apologized for her behavior, the professor found her apology unacceptable and assigned her the grade of "F" for the course which included zero points for class participation.

After the student's father complained to the chancellor of the university, the chancellor asked another professor to conduct an independent investigation and make recommendations. Based on the report, the chancellor asked the professor to change the student's grade and apologize to the student for his behavior. After further proceedings by another committee at the university which supported the recommendations, the professor refused to apologize and refused to change the student's grade. As a sanction for his refusal, the professor was demoted in rank from associate professor to assistant professor.

The professor sued the chancellor of the university alleging infringement on his First Amendment right of free speech and his Fourteenth Amendment right to due process. The trial court found no constitutional deprivations and its decision was affirmed on appeal. The Court of Appeals noted that the professor "abused his power as a professor in his dealings with his former student and deserves sanctions." (*Keen v. Penson*, 257) Further, the professor received "an extraordinary amount of process, probably more than he was due." (*Keen v. Penson*, 257)

Conduct of the Course

Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act

During the course, the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act [FERPA] impacts many of the practices of the professor. For example, exams and quizzes are considered an education record which may not be disclosed to another student without the prior written consent of the parent or eligible student. All rights of parents under FERPA transfer to the student once the student has reached 18 years of age or attends a postsecondary institution and thereby becomes

an "eligible student." Therefore, the professor should endeavor to place any grades on papers or examinations on the inside of the packet of material handed back in class so other students do not see the grades. Grades should not be posted in any manner where others could see the grades, even if the names of the students are not used. Posting grades by college identification numbers, code names, or other attempts at confidentiality are risky and unnecessary when BlackBoard, Sakai, and other course management programs are commonly used in universities to communicate grades and other information. Similarly, grades should not be e-mailed to students and certainly should never be given to roommates or friends.

FERPA provides that grades can be given to parents if the student is a dependent for federal income tax purposes. However, it is best if parents who inquire about their student's grades be directed to the registrar's office so that the university can ascertain whether the parent is entitled to the information. Faculty members should be advised of the grade appeal policies of their universities and the length of time that exams and other materials must be kept. Adherence to the university's document retention policies will eliminate accidental or innocent destruction of documents needed to defend grade disputes.

When students request that faculty members write letters of recommendation for graduate school or prospective employment, it is wise to get the students' consent in writing before preparing the letters in order to comply with FERPA. The university should have a form readily available for students to complete in advance of the request.

Reasonable Accommodations

Students with disabilities must be provided with reasonable accommodations in institutions of higher education. The two laws that apply are the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 for institutions receiving federal funding and the Americans with Disabilities Act of 199Ø. Students are responsible for identifying themselves as having a disability, and then documenting and requesting specific academic adjustments or accommodations according to their needs. Students who self-identify as having a disability should be referred to the appropriate office at the university so that the disability can be documented and reasonable accommodation(s) can be discussed and implemented in consultation with the faculty members teaching the student's courses.

Eligibility for reasonable accommodations in post-secondary institutions is driven by the federal definition of disability as a physical or mental impairment that substantially limits or restricts the conditions, manner, or duration under which an average person in the general population can perform a major life activity such as walking, seeing, hearing, speaking, breathing, learning, working, or taking care of oneself. Examples of accommodations that might be made in higher education include adjustable lighting, sound amplification, note-takers, American Sign Language interpretation, speech to text interpretation, use of a computer for in-class exams and in-class writing assignments, a distraction-free environment, whenever possible, for in-class exams, extra time for in-class examinations and in-class writing assignments, and alternative book and test formats.

Course Evaluations

Course evaluations are commonly done near the end of the course. The university's policies on when and how these evaluations should be conducted should be mentioned to new faculty members. The specifics on the instrument used and the manner in which they are conducted can be left to the individual departments or colleges to explain. New faculty members should be apprised as to who will see the evaluations and when they will be available to the faculty member. Making the evaluations available to the faculty member after the final course grades are recorded is a good policy to avoid even the appearance that the evaluations affected the professor's assignment of final course grades.

Student and Faculty Misconduct

Students

Breach of Academic Integrity

A faculty member that encourages the development of good character may deter cheating. According to McCabe, Trevino, and Butterfield (2001, 230), there are ten principles of academic integrity for faculty. These ten principles are as follows:

1. Affirm the importance of academic integrity
2. Foster a love of learning
3. Treat students as an end in themselves
4. Foster an environment of trust in the classroom
5. Encourage student responsibility for academic integrity
6. Clarify expectations for students
7. Develop fair and relevant forms of assessment
8. Reduce opportunities to engage in academic dishonesty
9. Challenge academic dishonesty when it occurs
10. Help define and support campus-wide academic integrity standards

Faculty members should know the university's policies on plagiarism and cheating and their location in the university's catalog, Faculty Handbook, and/or Student Handbook. Before confronting a student with an allegation of academic misconduct, the faculty member should seek the counsel of his/her department chairperson and other faculty members and consider having another faculty member present to act as a witness in the event the student admits the misconduct.

Non-Academic Misconduct

The student disciplinary system should be briefly explained to new faculty members. If a faculty member believes he/she or other students are being threatened by a student or that the student is sexually harassing the faculty member or other students, the student should be reported in accordance with the student disciplinary system. In *Plaza-Torres v. Rey,* (2005), a federal court addressed whether a school can be held liable for the misconduct or sexual harassment perpetrated by one of its students upon a teacher/employee of the school. The court answered yes, holding that a school can be held liable under Title VII. The chairperson is a good resource if the new faculty member is troubled by student behavior during or outside of class and can provide advice on the best course of action.

Faculty

Unfair Grading

Proper preparation of the syllabus outlining the coursework and the points available to be earned will go a long way toward avoiding any allegations of unfairness in grading. Faculty members should take care to treat all students in a similar manner and be prepared to explain and defend any grade assigned. Proper record keeping is essential.

The grade assigned by the professor may be considered a matter of free speech entitled to some protection at public universities. In *Parate v. Isibor* (1989), the 6th Circuit Court of Appeals stated that "[b]ecause the assignment of a letter grade is symbolic communication intended to send a specific message to the student, the individual professor's communicative act is entitled to some measure of First Amendment protection." (*Parate* (1989), 827). However, that court also stated that any constitutional violation of the professor's free speech rights would only occur if the university ordered the professor to change the grade against his/her will. The university could change the grade on its own without asking the professor to do it. On the other hand, the 3rd Circuit Court of Appeals held to the contrary that a university may change a student's grade and the professor will have no claim of constitutional violation. "Because grading is pedagogic, the assignment of the grade is subsumed under the university's freedom to determine how a course is to be taught. We therefore conclude that a public university professor does

not have a First Amendment right to expression via the school's grade assignment procedures." (*Brown v. Armenti* 2001, 75)

Sexual Harassment

Sexual harassment can occur both inside and outside of class. Certainly any *quid pro quo* sexual harassment such as trading sexual favors for a grade would involve both unfairness in grading and misconduct by the professor. Hostile environment sexual harassment can occur when students are made uncomfortable in class by sexually explicit discussions not pedagogically necessary or outside of class by behaviors such as inappropriate touching or comments. Faculty members should consider keeping their office doors open when interacting with students in the office unless there is an overriding need for confidentiality in the discussion with the student.

New faculty members should be made aware of the university's sexual harassment policy. Although some public university policies have been found to be constitutionally void for vagueness (See *Cohen v. San Bernardino Valley College*, 1996), the general inquiry by the court is whether it was reasonable, "based on existing regulations, policies, discussions, and other forms of communication between school administration and teachers," for the university to expect the professor to know what conduct was prohibited. (*Silva v.The University of New Hampshire*, 1994, 312)

In *Silva*, the professor used an analogy of focus to sex in describing the nature of technical writing. He had used the analogies in question in many classes over the years at the university and had never been told that the analogies were inappropriate. The court found that, at least for purposes of preliminary injunction, the analogies were made for legitimate pedagogical purposes related to the subject matter of his course. (*Silva v. The University of New Hampshire,* 1994).

In *Hayut v. SUNY* (2003), a 30-year veteran professor of political science was accused of sexually harassing a female student who resembled Monica Lewinsky during the unfolding scandal involving her and President Clinton. In addition to calling the student "Monica" on numerous occasions during the course of the semester, the professor asked her in front of the class about "her weekend with Bill" and told her in front of the class to "be quiet, Monica. I will give you a cigar later." (*Hayut v. SUNY* 2003, 739). The court vacated a summary judgment in favor of the professor and remanded the case for trial on the issue of hostile environment sexual harassment.

In *Piggee v. Carl Sandburg College*, (2006), a part-time instructor of cosmetology was found to have sexually harassed a student in the program by giving a gay student two religious pamphlets on the sinfulness of homosexuality. The faculty member was directed to keep personal discussions about sexual orientation or religion out of the classroom or clinic. When she was not retained as a teacher, she sued the college alleging violations of her First Amendment rights in the form of freedom of speech and free exercise of religion, and her Fourteenth Amendment right to equal protection. She was unsuccessful on all claims. The court stated that "[e]ven though the sexual harassment policy may not have been a perfect fit for the behavior at issue here, the responsible college officials were not unreasonable when they told Piggee that her actions had a harassing effect on [the student] and that this fell within the ambit of their anti-harassment policy." (*Piggee v. Carl Sandburg College*, 2006, 674).

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Annual Presentation for New Faculty Members

At the authors' university, an annual presentation entitled, "Legal Concerns in Teaching," has been conducted since 1999 during the first week that faculty report to campus. This is part of a larger seminar called the Fall Teaching Forum. During this half-day seminar, new faculty members learn about the tenure and promotion process in the various colleges as well as the information provided about legal concerns. An hour is devoted to the legal concerns material and the presentation has received overwhelmingly positive responses. At the presentation, a conservative interpretation of the law is given in order to provide the maximum protection for the faculty members and the university. This is not the time to parse the language of the law for varying interpretations of what is legal when the audience is almost entirely composed of non-attorney faculty members.

Preferred presenters for this material would be attorney-professors teaching at the university. These faculty members are most likely to be housed in the college of business or in the political science department. Attorney faculty members will be best able to present this material and respond to the expected "what if" questions of the audience members. In the absence of attorney faculty members, other faculty members with chairperson experience are likely to have encountered some of these problems and can respond appropriately to questions.

Conclusion

A short seminar on the legal concerns in teaching offered every year for incoming faculty members can provide important ideas and information for those new to teaching and for those just new to the institution. While this seminar will be necessarily more of a survey of the issues rather than an in-depth discussion, it may provide the impetus for new faculty members to learn more about the policies and procedures of the institution and where to locate sources for further information and advice about the problems that are sure to arise at one time or another.

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Leadership Implications for College and University Administrators as the Present Morphs into the Future

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ABSTRACT

Colleges and universities are unique organizations and, as such, require a different type of approach to leadership than might be effective in other types of organizations. It is argued participative leadership is more desirable and effective than other approaches and such this leadership style will be even more important in the future. The effectiveness of participative leadership on structural units within institutions of higher education is discussed with the focus upon making decisions with the greatest benefit to students, now and in the future, as a top priority. The issue is examined within the context of available data concerning trends of issues including changing student demographics, cultural shifts, and budgetary matters.

Uniqueness of and within Higher Education

Those of us who labor in the fields of higher education; whether as a faculty member, an administrator, or as staff; do so as members of a peculiar and unique type of profession. For example, those in other professions, such as law or medicine, operate in a climate where the objective is to *protect* what they know and can do. We, however, seek to *distribute* what we know and can do. As another example, most institutions have this mysterious and often misunderstood thing called "tenure." The meaning of that term is certainly important, as well as what it does *not* mean. Regardless, the concept seems to be diminishing as we see more and more institutions moving away from some form of tenure and more toward extended contracts.

In other ways, most professions have similarities. For example, we each seem to have our own language, or more pejoratively, jargon. In higher education, many terms are in the form of somewhat coded initials such as GPA, GA, TA, ACT, SAT, BA, BS, BM, SGA, RA, FAFSA, and FERPA. Depending on geographic location, one may be concerned with MSACS, NEASC, NCA, NWCCU, SACS, or WASC. Specific academic areas concern themselves with AACSB, APA. ASBSP, NASM, NATA, NCATE, NLN, etc.

In addition to differences and similarities between our profession and others, differences and similarities exist between our own institutions. Institutions differ in type and other various characteristics: small/large, public/private, 2 year/4 year, liberal arts colleges/comprehensive universities, and so on. Likewise there are differences in governmental structures and leadership styles within those structures. One need only note how decisions are made within institutions to ascertain something about the dominate leadership style. For example, decisions in some institutions tend to be made strictly according to the organizational chart (Bureaucratic), while decisions at other institutions tend to be made by consensus (Collegial), and decisions in other settings may be made by negotiating and bargaining (Political). Therefore, dominate academic leadership styles may be autocratic, participative, or laissez faire.

A Preferred Approach to Leadership

While definitions of leaders and leadership abound, one may find descriptions more helpful than definitions. For example, Claire L. Gaudiani (1997), former president of Connecticut College states "Leaders need to be primarily in service to the people and values of the organization they lead. Leaders almost never need to exercise power. They need to lead in ways that create a vision that motivates people" (p. 175). An effective leader's focus must be on both tasks and people. The essence of leadership involves working cooperatively by encouraging and motivating oneself and others toward constructive ends.

Participative leadership seems to produce the most effective and desired results in higher education. Commonly shared goals are essential and must be developed inclusively. While not all people can individually make or be responsible for all decisions, all those who have a stake in any decision should participate in the process. Certain traits such as courage, autonomy, involvement, responsibility, and willingness to take reasonable risks should be encouraged.

This democratic and collaborative concept of leadership stands in stark contrast to the more traditional bureaucratic or authoritarian approach. In an overly bureaucratic system, people are beaten down and treated negatively. As a result, people feel the need to protect themselves and "look out for number one." Responsibility is then to be avoided because unpleasant consequences occur if something goes wrong.

Conversely, in an environment of participative leadership, people are lifted up and treated positively. A teamwork attitude is fostered. Concern changes from focusing on self-interest to how one can best be of benefit. Reasonable risk is encouraged and rewarded.

Occasionally, internal competition and other kinds of conflict directly result. While some types and levels of conflict are inevitable, it need not be seen as negative. The value of trust must be paramount. One might argue that trust is much more important than agreement. On a personal level, I discovered long ago that individuals I like and those with whom I agree are not necessarily the same people. Since trust is not automatic or instantaneous but must be built over time, effective leadership requires a great deal of patience.

Most people would prefer to operate in a participative environment where they are not only happier, but more productive. Therefore, it could be rationally argued the characteristics of such a system should be modeled and should strongly influence the way we teach others.

Many effective educational leaders have tried to let one particular question guide much of my thinking: "What is best for the students?" - not what they *want*, but what is *best* for them. Let me quickly add there is not always agreement on the answer to the question! Even the answers on which we might agree fall into various categories: 1) We might be able to take immediate action on some matters. For example, a simple procedure might be changed to make for greater efficiency. 2) Action may be possible that is in the best interest of the student, but cannot be taken or happen right away. For example, new residence halls may indeed be of benefit to students, but they take much planning and construction, which require a significant period of time. 3) Action which might be in the best interest of the student might never be possible. For example, eliminating tuition would remove a serious roadblock to a great number of students. However, the vast majority of us realize that will never be possible in our own institutions.

Structural and Unit Aspects

Academics sometime tend to be overly narrow and parochial. For example, a faculty member may sincerely believe and advocate that 19th century Albanian literature is quite obviously the most important matter in the world. Surely we should all subscribe to that obvious value. Few would likely argue that particular area of study is *not* important, just that others are as well. We too often fail to look beyond our own immediate environments. Each entity has its own perspective, values, and unique characteristics. Let us further consider some academic units.

Obviously, the English faculty works harder than those in any other department. Consider all the writing which must be graded. Others should understand that reality, but all do not seem to be in agreement. Obviously, the science faculty works harder than those in any other department. Labs must be set up, and lab time does not factor fairly into calculating teaching loads. Others should understand that reality, but all do not seem to be in agreement. Obviously, social scientists work harder those in any other department. Class sizes, which sometimes number in the hundreds, tend to be significantly larger than others. Others should understand that reality, but all do not seem to be in agreement. Obviously, education faculty work harder than those any other department. Consider all the state and federal political bureaucracy. Others should understand that reality, but all do not seem to be in agreement. Hopefully, the idea is clear.

In reality, we are all in the same metaphoric boat, with more similarities than differences. If I am sitting in the back of that boat, it should greatly matter to me if there is a leak in the front.

While there is a great deal of this kind of compartmentalization, we are seeing at least a bit of change from this kind of linear and categorical thinking. We are beginning to see various aspects of life in more integrated ways. Certain distinctions are typically made in higher education. Such distinctions are often artificial and more apparent than real.

Consider typical operational divisions within a college or university. Academic institutions are usually comprised of colleges, schools, or divisions; departments; registrar; library; etc. Student Life typically includes residential life and student activities. The business or finance office deals with aspects such as food services, the physical plant, landscaping, the bookstore, and post office. Advancement has perhaps the least visible and most thankless task. Other entities may not have typical homes. For example academic support may be housed in either academics or student life. Enrollment may be in academics or part of a separate unit, perhaps called something like Enrollment Services. Financial aid may be in academics, finances, or enrollment services. Athletics may be a separate entity or part of student life.

Regardless of structure, entities need to communicate with each other. Trust can be more difficult to develop with unfamiliar operations. Weick (1986) describes educational systems as "loosely coupled systems" where interaction between components is frequent, but often weak.

We are beginning to see more integration of services and operations in some arenas. For example, in non-traditional programs, institutions are attempting to lure potential students with the promise of "one stop shopping." Students, many of whom have very busy lives outside academia, may be able to registrar, get their textbooks, have IDs made, and pay their fees all in a single visit to a single location.

College deals with various aspects of a person's life: certainly academic, but also socially, physically, and emotionally (and in some colleges, spiritually). No matter our specialty, all individual aspects are part of the larger context, whether we deal with or even acknowledge them directly or not.

Changing Culture and Demographics

Privacy Issues

Privacy is an illustrative example of the many cultural shifts which continually take place and affect the way colleges and universities operate. For many years, colleges were allowed and expected to act *in loco parentis*. Now, administrators and faculty members (and I include myself) tend to err on the "safe" side of the Family Education Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA) and are very guarded (perhaps overly so) with *any* kind of student information. However, even this approach is changing. Recently revised policies, or interpretations of them, allow universities to disclose more student information, especially that which is in the interest of safety. Unfortunately this particular change is largely due to recent incidences of violence such as those at Virginia Tech and Northern Illinois.

Enrollment History and Trends

Between 1997 and 2007, the proportion of 18-24 year olds enrolled in college increased from 36.9% to 38.8%. While proportions increased among all groups, Hispanic students showed the greatest percentage increase, and white students were among those who increased least. In terms of raw numbers, enrollment has increased by approximately 3,745,800. White students have accounted for less than 40% of the increase. Furthermore, in *every* recorded racial and ethnic category, the growth of the population of female students has exceeded that of males. (Chronicle of Higher Education, 2009).

By the year 2017, an overall increase of over 1.6 million students, or slightly over nine percent, is expected. Again, an increase is expected in *every* recorded racial and ethnic category. Hispanic students will account for more of this increase, both percent wise and numerically, than any others. In terms of gender, women presently account for approximately 56.95% of students. The disparity will continue to grow with women accounting for over 61% of the anticipated growth (Chronicle of Higher Education, 2009).

Approximately 3,327,000 students are expected to graduate from high school in 2010. A decrease to approximately 3,307,000 in 2017 is forecast (Chronicle of Higher Education, 2009). One may well inquire as to what might account for the enrollment increase when the pool of traditional students from which to draw continues to shrink. The answer of course lies in the increase of programs for older, or non-traditional, students. While there have long been some types of disparity, such as gender, student bodies of colleges and universities have become, and will continue to become, less white, less male, and less "young."

State Support of Public Higher Education

On the surface, the overall picture of state support for higher education may appear encouraging. After all, every year between 1998 and 2008 (with the lone exception of 2004), changes in state appropriations for higher education have been positive (Center for the Study of Education Policy, 2009). Of course, the economy has changed more recently, and the long-term effect on state support for colleges and universities has yet to be fully realized. Even between the stated years, support was far less than uniform from state to state. The change from fiscal year 2008 to 2009 was actually negative for 17 states, six of those in the southeast. South Carolina showed the lowest drop at 17.7%. Of the 33 states, Wyoming showed the greatest increase at 10.9%. The disparity is staggeringly noteworthy. While the news is certainly important for public institutions, the effect is also profound for private colleges. The increase in the striving of public institutions for more private dollars puts them in direct competition with private institutions. In other words, the amount of state support has a direct effect on *all* institutions.

Other Issues

Many other issues, both practical and philosophical, influence the way colleges and universities effectively operate. A practical example is the necessary increased focus of administrators and staff members, who have responsibility for such things, on marketing and branding. For years, institutions have operated along the "If you build it, they will come" approach, which is become ineffective in most cases. A larger issue which is inclusive of marketing and branding is that of planning, both short-term and strategic.

Philosophically, administrators, faculty members, and staff members at all types of institutions must periodically revisit the education versus training debate. One's position in the argument has direct bearing on all matters, including the curriculum, particularly in terms of program expansion (and contraction) and general education.

Finally, a particularly inclusive issue is technology. Technology has virtually become a basic literacy. While some of us are finally getting used to email, twitter is already becoming passé in some circles.

While the aforementioned issues do not even hint at the myriad of factors with which higher education leaders deal, those leaders must "multi-

task" in the context of the interaction of multiple complex variables in such a way to be of the greatest benefit to all parties of the institution. Perhaps the "best practice" answer lies, not in the "doing," but is more a matter of attitude.

Conclusion

While all entities and individuals are important and necessary to any organization, they are not all the same. If asked who the most important person is on a college campus, most of us would say the president. But, how often do most people even see the president? Is it even evident when he or she is on campus or even in town? Consider what happens to a unit's operation if an administrative assistant or some of the housekeeping staff is absent. We cannot function. All of what all of us does matters.

To anyone with whom we discuss any aspect of our institution, whether internally or externally, we *are* that institution. One may recall the story about Columbia University President Dwight Eisenhower's address to the faculty. When he addressed them as "employees of the university," one of the faculty members reportedly replied, "Mr. President, we are not employees of the university, we *are* the university." The professor was correct, but incomplete. Yes, faculty members are the university, and so are administrative assistants, so is the housekeeping staff, so are those who work in financial aid, admissions, the bookstore, residence life, athletics, advancement. Certainly, so are the students. It is the students who should be central to our thoughts as we continue to contemplate how best to lead institutions now and in the future. Finally, because the answer constantly changes, we must *continually* ask, "What is best for the students?"

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Forging a Diverse Research Community by Marrying an Odd Couple: Qualitative Research and Business-Oriented Project Management Processes

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ABSTRACT

While team-building and project management are common to business culture, the practices are less prevalent in the university environment. At teaching colleges, finding faculty time for research is a continuing struggle. In response to the time obstacle, faculty at a small, Midwestern university shared the load of a high-interest research project by dividing labor among a diverse 22-member faculty-staff team. They managed the project with Project Management Institute (PMI) processes, borrowed from business and government. This evaluation analyzes the research process itself, studying the impact of combining prescribed project management processes with traditional qualitative methods. It analyzes the health of the PMI-qualitative marriage in terms of (1) project quality and efficiency, (2) individual and organizational learning, (3) collegiality, and (4) team-member satisfaction with the research experience.

An inspection of educational research journals reveals few authors from small teaching colleges. With a heavy teaching commitment, finding time for research is difficult. Although the literature is inconclusive on the impact of university research on student learning[1], there is some evidence that the opportunity to conduct original research can strengthen not only the intellectual life of faculty, but also of the students they teach (Jenkins, 2000). In his 10-year study of Harvard students, Light (2001) found that working with faculty on research can be one of the most memorable experiences of a student's college career. Below the college level, a wide variety of studies conclude that involvement in collaborative research can prompt teachers to improve instruction (Johnson, 1993; Kutz, 1992; Marriage & Garman, 2003) and become more reflective learners (Johnson, 1993).

While there is a sizable body of research on the results of collaborative research between university researchers and school personnel (e.g., Burbank & Kauchak, 2003; Herrick, 1992; Wiseman & Knight, 2003), there is limited study of the collaborative process itself, how the research is managed, and the impact of the collaboration on the researchers (Carter, Buckley, Walker, Grenz, & Martin, 1989; Mebane & Galassi, 2003; Solomon, Boud, Leontios, & Staron, 2001). We found no literature describing the impact of a large collaborative project on the faculty and staff of a small university and its research culture. Likewise, we found few references regarding the use of formal Project Management Institute (PMI) methods

1 See Hattie and Marsh (1996) for the opposing view—little relationship between research quality and teaching/learning.

to manage academic research (Beach, 1988)[2]. This article contributes to the discourse in these areas.

Background

At a faculty brown-bag lunch on teaching strategies, two of us researchers presented Light's 2001 study regarding practices that helped Harvard students succeed. The discussion evoked faculty interest in replicating Light's investigation on our campus to test the generalizability of the results. Yet, Light's exploration took 10 years and involved dozens of researchers. Replication would present a challenge on a small campus with heavy faculty teaching loads.

We decided to hold an organizational meeting to discover the degree of interest in such a project across the university. Twenty-one people responded to an e-mailed invitation—faculty members from across the disciplines, two librarians, a dorm counselor, an administrator, an administrative assistant. (We later added a graduate student to the team.) Buoyed by the response, we deliberated over how to organize and train a diverse team, how to keep participants informed and the project on schedule. After a search of academic and business-oriented literature, we settled on nesting the traditional qualitative case study within the Project Management Institute (PMI) processes favored by business and government agencies (Haughey, 2008). This article evaluates the use of PMI processes as an organizing framework for a large qualitative educational study.

Project Purpose

Accepting Patton's definition of evaluation as "any effort to increase human effectiveness through systematic data-based inquiry" (Patton, 2002, p. 10), this qualitative evaluation considers the role of PMI processes in addressing communications and management issues of a large, interdisciplinary research team. The evaluation explores the degree to which PMI processes foster (1) project quality and efficiency, (2) individual and organizational learning, (3) collegiality, and (4) satisfaction with the research experience. It develops a model of how the PMI framework affects the qualitative research process.

Perspective and Theoretical Framework

In evaluating the results of the qualitative research/project management marriage, we rely on two theoretical traditions: organizational theory and methodology. In terms of the first tradition, organizational theory, this article analyzes the formation of a new organization—a research team, struggling to become a research community. In terms of the second tradition, methodology, the article examines the attempt to nest the more constructivist methods of qualitative research within more positivist project management processes.

There are a number of approaches to organizational theory, the first tradition. This work most closely matches Pettigrew's approach (1983). Pettigrew, in turn, built on the work of Selznick (1957) and Clark (1972). Pettigrew focused on the idea of creating organizational culture through shared symbols and language. He noted that "new organizations represent settings where it is possible to study transition processes from no beliefs to new beliefs, from no rules to new rules, from no culture to new culture, and in general terms to observe the translation of ideas into structural and expressive forms" (Pettigrew, 1983, p. 93). This evaluation offers the opportunity to examine organization building and the influences of introducing a system of processes to the nascent organization, the research team.

In terms of the second, methodological, tradition, the researchers adopt Patton's pragmatic approach to qualitative evaluation, using observation, journaling, and team-member focus groups to study the research process (Patton, 1990). However, the standards of collaborative

2 The methods suggested for program evaluation form the closest approximation. For example, Firzpatrick, Sanders, and Worthen (2004) suggest the use of techniques similar to Project Management Institute (PMI) processes to handle evaluations. Project management is also used in constructing school buildings. See Dolan (2003).

qualitative research offer a theoretical yardstick by which to measure the success of PMI processes as an organizing framework.

Schensul and Schensul (1992) saw collaborative research as work that links researchers to members of the community under study; the purpose of collaborative research is problem solving or social change. Schensul and Schensul asserted that collaborative research uses research methods to serve two major objectives: (1) ensuring that all parties involved understand and participate in all phases of the research process, and (2) encouraging the use of research results for the population under study. While the common partners in collaborative research are an organization that usually conducts research (e.g., a university) and another that does not (e.g., an elementary school), the present study combines segments of the university community involved in research (faculty) with less research-involved segments (e.g., dorm counselor).

Finally, the evaluation examines the combination of two methods with different epistemological bases. The study under the microscope, the study of student success, was a case study (Stake, 2005; Yin, 2003), specifically a collective case study (Stake, 2006), with data from multiple participants, sources, and researchers. As is common to qualitative research, the researchers sought to see the world through the eyes of the participants, here college students, creating meaning from their experience (Seidman, 1998).

While the PMI processes are more tools than theory, a theoretical perspective underlies the use of the tools. Dating to its 1969 founding, the Project Management Institute systematized precise methods of planning, controlling, and executing projects to support large endeavors, such as NASA's space initiatives (Project Management Institute, 2000). It stores those systemized methods in the PMBOK©, or PMI Body of Knowledge. PMI processes are theoretical in the sense that they are systems-based, replete with flow charts, and the idea that the project interacts with a larger organizational environment (Morris, 1998). When the Project Management Institute defines a project "as temporary endeavor undertaken to achieve a particular aim"(PMI, p. 4), it sees the project as a snippet of life within the larger life of the organization.

There are five PMI processes: Initiating, Planning, Executing, Controlling, and Closing. There are also nine "knowledge areas," project integration, scope, time, cost, quality, human resources, communications, risk management, and procurement (Haughey, 2008). The processes were developed for large, collaborative efforts, emphasizing communication and satisfaction of all stakeholders. They offer methods and documentation for all phases of the project, used at the discretion of the project manager. For example, the planning phase includes estimated timelines, budgets, and notations of who will do what. These documents provide collaborative participants a unified source of information, allowing everyone to read from the same page.

Methods, Techniques, Modes of Inquiry and Data Sources

This article evaluates the building of a research team and the building of a research culture, noting the impact of project management on the qualitative research process. This research combines description with analysis, searching for patterns of phenomena. As researchers, we are also participant observers. Following Patton's advice (Patton, 1990), we triangulate data collection, employing a variety of qualitative data collection methods regarding the research process: team-member focus groups, self-reflections, artifact and document analysis.

The diverse backgrounds of the principal researchers help ensure neutrality toward the phenomenon under study (Patton, 1990), results of the qualitative-PMI marriage. Only one of us has used project management methods in the past. Two of the four of us have emphasized qualitative methods in their previous research; two devote more of our research to quantitative methods.

Bias

Although one of us has spent most of her career in the private sector and has worked for a time as a project manager, as a group we share a similar

wariness toward business models of education. While we understand that business models can expand the range of ideas available to educators, we fear that, at their worst, the models can treat people as commodities and standardized test scores as profits, to be maximized. Rather than tightly embracing PMI practices, we felt free to adapt them to the needs of the project. (For example, with no budget and a volunteer team, we used a simplified project plan that does not include costs.)

Five Processes

As discussed in the theoretical section, projects, according to PMI, consist of five processes—an initiating process, a planning process, executing, controlling, and closing. In diagnosing the health of the qualitative-project management marriage, we analyze the pulse of the research team and the project as it navigated the five stages, or processes, of a multi-year substantive project.

In this evaluation, we observe the issues a large research team confronts as it uses project management to organize a qualitative collective case study.

Initiating

The object of PMI methodology is to deliver a project on time, on budget, and with high quality (Richman, 2002). The PMI initiating process is a time of thought that precedes action. During the initiating process, the project is defined and proposed to the organization. The project's sponsor, or owner, is located, and a project manager is chosen. During initiation, the project owner develops strategy and sets goals--considering (1) what risks the project might face, (2) the relationship of the project to its outside environment, (3) communication strategies, (4) project financing, (5) project milestones, (6) the proportion of work to be done inside versus outside of the organization; and a (7) technical, legal, and logistical issues (Cleland & King, 1988). As a university research project, we faced a smaller number of issues than large commercial projects. But, the business model offered an exhaustive list that helped prevent us from overlooking an element.

In business, the sponsor often proposes the project, presenting its benefits to the organization. The sponsor provides resources and support. The sponsor can also serve as the project champion, marketing the idea to the organization's leadership; or the sponsor and champion may be two different people (Caldwell & Posner, 1998). The project manager handles the day-to-day planning and executing of a project. A project manager "has overall responsibility for planning, organizing, integrating, controlling, leading, decision making, communicating, and building a supportive climate for the project" (Richman, 2002, p. 30). The university research project blurred the roles of project sponsor, champion, and manager. We found that, as often happens in a small business, one person needed to wear many hats. As researchers, we served as project sponsors, champions, and as project managers. We needed to engage the university community in the project. The project also competed for our personal time and resources.

We formed a core team of four researchers from the College of Education, with an additional researcher from Arts and Sciences joining later for part of the project. An administrative assistant also worked with the project. Three of us, the two who spoke at the brown-bag lunch and the Arts and Sciences member who suggested the project, were new to the university, having just arrived that year. Another had worked for two years at the university, and the final member for five years. As noted above, one of those new to the university had just left the private sector where she had experience as a project manager; she served as principal manager in the core group.

Figure 1
PMI Five Project Processes

Risks

The team brainstormed a number of risks the project faced:

- With over 2Ø volunteers, will team members defy large-group theory that says individuals may feel less responsible for tasks (Steiner, 1976; Shaw, 1981) and follow through on their responsibilities?
- At a small teaching-oriented university, will we be able to meet team member needs enough to maintain their engagement?
- Will we be able to maintain tight enough communication to hold the group together (Stokes, 1983) when the population is separated by role, by building, and is scattered across two campuses?
- Will university undergraduates cooperate in the research?
- Will we be able to secure a grant to finance extensive transcription fees?
- Will the work outstrip our ability to keep up with it?
- Will the project increase collegiality or strain it?

Outside Environment

For the university study, we set two primary project goals: to investigate the factors that favor undergraduate success in a small, independent college and to enhance the retention rate at the university. As a secondary goal we hoped to form a diverse research community within the university. These goals meshed well with the general university environment, the environment "outside" our project. The university's mission statement contained language regarding inclusiveness. We perceived our project as inclusive and geared toward both individual and organizational learning.

Communication Strategies

Central to project management communication is a common project database, open to all team members. We requested a project Blackboard site, giving instructors' rights to every team member. To preserve the integrity of documents, we established the rule that members would save document revisions as new documents, including the creation or revision date in the file name. The core team planned weekly lunch meetings; the larger project team requested monthly meetings.

Project Financing

The project began on a shoestring, with project members contributing the money for pizza and cokes at focus groups. The College of Education provided some overhead support for copying costs and occasional refreshments. Midway through the project we applied for support with transcription from a university fellowship program.

Project Milestones

Instead of formulating milestones at the initiation stage, the project team jumped quickly to drafting a project plan that included milestones. This step is described under the Planning Phase.

Proportion of Work Done Inside and Outside the Organization

While businesses often subcontract large pieces of a project, with an uncertain source of funds, the group hoped only to outsource tape transcription. If we were unsuccessful at securing grant funds, then we would seek help from university staff, slowing the pace of the project.

Legal Issues

Our project did not face the typical legal issues that confront business projects, for example drafting vendor contracts. Instead, we needed to consider the rights of our subjects, draft informed consent forms, and send our proposal to the university's Institutional Review Board. After the IRB approved the university project, we were able to collect data from college seniors.

Initiation Phase Summary

In the Initiation Phase, the core project team drew on PMI processes to offer hints on how to strategize a new project. The processes pushed us to examine factors we might otherwise have overlooked, for example, the risks our project faced. The processes also encouraged us to address certain issues, for example communication, early in the project before they became problems. Although our concerns did not exactly match those of business, we were surprised at how many PMI factors fit our project.

Planning

During the planning process, ideas developed during initiation are formalized in a project plan. Often, in a brainstorming session, a moderator covers walls with paper; and team members record on sticky labels all of the tasks that build to project milestones. The moderator places the tasks in rough order on the walls. Later, the project manager converts that paper plan to a computer document, commonly a Microsoft Project gantt chart, layered with levels of detail that show the relationship of each project task, in time sequence, to other tasks. The project manager assigns tasks, using a work breakdown structure, recording the financial costs associated with them, and refining the timelines. The chart helps the team see the critical path, the timeframe from beginning to end, and the predecessors and dependencies, which tasks must precede others (Pinto, 1998). For example, the interviewer-training activity would occur before the first participant interview; sample selection might take place simultaneously with interviewer training. Under the high-level plan, there are many mini-plans, for example a communication plan, a change-management plan.

Critical to the planning stage is a shared understanding of the project's scope. How many participants will the team recruit for focus groups? How many participants will they tap for individual interviews? What research questions will they address? Understanding the scope permits precise resource planning.

Project Plan

With yellow stickies, flip charts, and white boards, we began planning, faithful to PMI processes. Once we established the tasks and milestones, the principal project manager transferred that information to a less-formal five-column Word table, headed by Task, Person Responsible, Date Started, and Date Completed. (See Figure 2)[3]. With the additional milestone of recruiting a research team, our milestones matched those of most university research projects: literature review, finalizing a research proposal, obtaining IRB approval, training moderators and interviewers, recruiting focus-group participants, scheduling follow-up interviews, writing and submitting grant proposals, transcribing and analyzing data, writing, presenting, and publishing. We posted the plan on Blackboard and updated it several times in the first months of the project. As the project wore on and the execution phase tasks enmeshed us, we referred less to the plan and, in certain periods, neglected to keep it updated.

Assigning Tasks

PMI processes assume that a project manager will assign tasks by virtue of demonstrated skills, interest, and knowledge. Team members serve on projects as part of their corporate work. Peer and manager evaluations on their annual performance reviews offer team members an incentive for high performance. Thamhain (1998) notes that in business teams members are "taking higher levels of responsibility, authority, and control for project results" (p. 274). He finds declining levels of hierarchically-organized teams.

When we e-mailed an open invitation to join the project, we gathered volunteers, rather than team members expecting work assignments. Incentives needed to be intrinsic—collegiality, interest in service, potential additions to curriculum vitae. Given our inability to direct people to tasks and to offer incentives, we were surprised by the effectiveness of self-selection. As noted earlier, our e-mail netted more than 2Ø volunteers from faculty, support staff, residential life, admissions,

3 We represent the names of all project participants with pseudonyms.

library, and graduate students. During the course of the project, several more people offered to help. Also, for the most part, project members tended to volunteer for tasks that aligned with their roles: librarians assisted the literature review; English and Communications faculty offered to read and interpret comments; and admissions staff interviewed students.

After several large-group communication sessions where we solicited feedback on whether team members felt involved to the proper degree, the volunteers stated that their degree of involvement satisfied them. However, they requested more communication about the progress of the project. The availability of project documents on Blackboard slipped from people's minds, and we needed to remind them of that resource. Although we scheduled regular large-group meetings, a different group of project members attended each meeting, reducing the regularity of communication.

Time

While qualitative researchers plan their research, the nature of qualitative research is fluid, following the project where it takes the researcher. It is impossible to consult the project team before extending the length of an interview or a focus group. Each researcher needs flexibility regarding time. Our plan would not offer the same precision as a traditional PMI plan.

Planning Phase Summary

The planning phase for the Making the Most of College study paralleled PMI processes in the construction of a thorough project plan, with the input of a variety of project members. Given the small scope of our project, we used a less formal plan, eschewing the multi-layered Microsoft Project gantt chart in favor of a Word table. The planning phase departed from PMI processes in the assignment of personnel to tasks. We had less knowledge concerning the skills of our volunteers than would business project managers. In the upcoming execution process, these personnel had less independence than many business teams as the project work was unfamiliar to most volunteers.

Executing

The executing, or implementation, process of the project is the actual performance of the work. Projects are executed successfully when they finish on-time, on-budget, meet project goals, and are accepted and used by clients (Pinto & Slevin, 1988). Pinto and Slevin (1988) conducted re-

Figure 2
Section of the Project Plan

Making the Most of College Research
Project Plan 4/8

Purpose:

- To investigate the factors that favor undergraduate success in a small independent college
- To enhance the retention rate at XXX University

Task	Responsible Person	People Involved	Date Started	Date Completed
1. Instrumental Brainstorm	Jane	Susan, Tom, Cindy, & Jane	4/19 1 pm	4/19
2. Campus-wide invitation				
a. Invite-draft	Tom	Tom 1st draft	4/19	4/23
b. Develop topics for questions	Jane	Faculty and parties who respond to invitation	5/10	
c. Schedule meeting for interested parties	Susan	Jody find room for 5/10 meeting	4/26	4/27

search with 50 managers to discover the actions project managers could take to foster implementation success. They discovered 10 success factors. Three were strategic: clear goals, top management support, and a detailed plan. Seven were tactical: client consultation, people issues (recruitment selection, and training), technical tasks (availability of technology and technical expertise), client acceptance (marketing the solution to the client), project control issues, solid communication, and effective troubleshooting.

For our research project, three of these issues had limited application: top management support, client consultation, and client acceptance. While we needed permission to conduct research on campus, once we received that permission we were somewhat independent. Management did not control the allocation of resources to our project. And, while ultimately we had a client, the educational profession and the students and faculty who might benefit from our findings, consulting with this client was impractical. Eventually, we wanted to market our results to incoming freshmen through a seminar, but that lay in the future. We had achieved two more issues, clear goals and technical support. Five challenged us: a detailed plan, people issues, project control issues (addressed in the next section), solid communication, and effective troubleshooting.

Detailed Plan

As noted above, application of a detailed plan to a qualitative research project could strain against the methodology; and as the project wore on, we consulted our plan less often. However, we did find that having a plan saved our forgetting to conduct parts of the project. For example, we were making final assignments for focus groups, consulted our plan, and discovered that we had forgotten to include students from two academic disciplines. In a project with so many workers, the work breakdown structure also helped us know who was scheduled to do what when. Finally, the plan reminded us when to begin a task.

People Issues

As with many projects in business, people issues were our biggest challenge. We needed to bring a diverse group of people to a common knowledge set and understanding of project procedures. To ensure consistency, we developed a training protocol for all researchers engaged in a similar task. Project managers created training modules for data collection, including focus group facilitation, interviewing, and taking field notes. The training sessions appeared effective. Many team members had prior experience in the tasks and simply needed to understand the project-oriented details.

We fell down over collaboration. We were so eager to collaborate that it was difficult to step aside from the friendly culture of the university to frank discussions necessary to ensure project quality. Also, without the documented history of achievement available in a business setting, it was sometimes hard to know whether a team member's self-identified competency matched actual competency.

What we called the "Bonnie situation" illustrates both of these points. Our task was developing focus group and interview questions for the college seniors. Using the project goals, proposal, and research questions, the core team, minus one, had brainstormed a list of potential questions. The team needed to pare that list to a manageable number, dividing them into questions for the focus groups and questions for individuals.

Bonnie, the part-time project manager, with another member from the large group, volunteered for the job. When the two completed the task, the questions that resulted didn't match either those on the brainstorming list or the original research questions. The proposed questions also broke a number of the rules for asking questions (e.g., ask only one question at a time). In our desire to be sure that all participants felt included, we ignored PMI efficiency rules, that, for consistency, those who started the task should have finished it. In addition, we learned that self-identified competency did not necessarily match quality standards needed for the project.

Initially, the core project managers remained uncomfortably silent about the unusable questions. In a later meeting when Bonnie was absent, the four core project managers reflected on the issue

and the ways they related to each other. We realized that by working on the project and in close proximity at the College of Education, we had developed a trust with each other that permitted frank talk. We had much less contact with the part-time project manager and the larger project group, scattered in different programs and on another campus. We did not feel as comfortable critiquing their efforts. However, the Bonnie discussion brought the project managers to recognize the importance of controlling project quality. We discussed how to deliver difficult information in a non-judgmental, matter-of-fact manner.

Businesses face similar issues when they pull cross-functional teams together, and they spend some effort at "team building." Academia rewards individual efforts—teaching skills, research output, obtaining grants, and, to a lesser degree, service. There is little emphasis on teamwork. While we conducted a team-building exercise at the beginning of each large-group meeting, we realized that, for future projects, we would spend more time team-building at the beginning of the project; and we would consult PMI practices for high-performing teams.[4]

Besides the "Bonnie situation," we faced the prospect of how to motivate a diverse team. Research was included in faculty assessment; however, at the time, the university gave it little emphasis. We were surprised, then, to find participants willing to devote large amounts of energy toward training, literature searches, project meetings, and data collection.

When we asked project members what attracted them to the research, we received answers as diverse as the participants. An English professor was interested in whether the students would find that the writing process helped them succeed. A librarian wanted to know better the students she worked with every day. A dean of graduate admissions hoped to discover more about adult students. A staff member who worked closely with Latino students hoped to find how to support them better. A newer member of the research community wished to have known her colleagues better. In short, there were nearly as many motivations as group members. For most, the motivation, while job-connected, would not help advance their careers. They were involved to help and to learn, doing *pro bono* work. As project managers, we concluded that choosing a research topic with wide appeal lay at the heart of motivating a diverse team.

Solid Communication

Earlier we described our communications vehicles—the Blackboard database, weekly core team meetings (open to all), and large-group meetings every other month. (See Figure 3 for a section of a sample update.) The core team found one of its most effective tools to be the minutes taken at their weekly team meetings. The minutes recorded project issues, including volunteers for tasks; they archived project decisions. While the core team felt in touch with the project, the large group expressed feelings of disconnectedness. As noted, we rescheduled the large-group meetings from every-other-month to monthly. Since we

Figure 3
Section of Project Update, E-Mailed to Project Members and Stored in Blackboard.

Update:
Making the Most of College Project

Blackboard Site: Take a look at the new Making the Most of College Blackboard site. The Class Documents section will be your resource for all project documents. (We've not yet been able to connect XXXZ@aol.com and Everyman@midwest.edu to the site but are working on it.)

References: Shortly after our organizational meeting Sally Smith, Donna Jones, and Ann Brown put together a list of reference articles. We have printed them, put them in binders, and they're available through Junaita Hernandez at the College of Education building.

4 See Thamhain (1998) for an extensive list of team-building suggestions.

did not have to communicate with sponsors and clients, we spent less project effort in communication than we would have done in business.

One of the most valuable aspects of the PMI methodology was the shared vocabulary it provided. The theory section noted Pettigrew's emphasis on shared symbols and language as a way to create new organizational culture (Pettigrew, 1983). PMI jumpstarted that process.

Effective Troubleshooting

The presence of four experienced researchers with whom to troubleshoot issues proved effective. Our major issue involved project scope, which we will discuss in the next section.

Summary of Executing Phase

In the Executing phase, we faced overcoming a university culture of "niceness" to address project quality issues frankly. While the core team had developed a close, trusting relationship that permitted frank talk, we had to stretch to extend that frankness to the wider team. In future projects, we would spend more up-front time on team-building, as recommended by PMI processes. Also, since this was a first research-community effort, the volunteers had less control over their section of the project than would experienced team members in business.

In terms of communication, the minutes taken at weekly core-team meetings helped not only communicate the results of the meetings but also kept the project on-track. Blackboard, although an efficient storage place for documents, was unobtrusive; we had to remind the larger team to consult Blackboard on a regular basis. To our surprise, the larger team preferred in-person meetings, so we increased meeting frequency to once-a-month. Finally, it appears that choosing a research topic with wide appeal is critical to drawing wide campus support.

Controlling

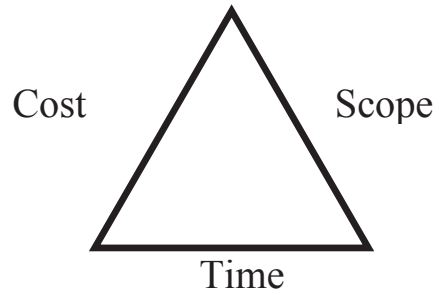
PMI processes view project management as a constant tension or trade-off between the scope of the project, the time it takes, and the financial costs. (See Figure 4 for the Project Management triangle.) For example, as clients or managers request changes in the scope of the project, there must be compensating changes in one or both of the other factors—cost or time. Likewise, if the client wants the project to finish a month early, the project manager must reduce the scope or increase the costs, or both (Richman, 2002).

The Controlling Phase is the process of keeping the three sides of the triangle balanced by establishing procedures for recognizing, evaluating, and approving changes; for studying alternative methods of handling the changes; for communicating changes to all stakeholders; and for documenting changes, revising the project schedule (Richman, 2002).

Control Issues

We had unusual pressure to increase project scope. While we had no clients forcing changes on us, we had the pressure of trying to accommodate those who wanted to contribute to our effort. To solicit seniors for focus groups and interviews, we visited the capstone classes for each major across the campus, explaining the project, and asking for volunteers. On our small, friendly campus, nearly half of the seniors volunteered to participate. Instead of the 80 focus group participants we originally sought, we had more than double that number. We needed to consider whether we could accommodate all of them. We compromised, deciding that we'd conduct focus groups with all of them. However, depending on whether we obtained financial support, we would

Figure 4
The Project Management Trade-Off
(This diagram appears in many texts. For example, see Richman (2002, p.135)



postpone transcribing all of the sessions. The increased number of focus groups strained our resources at the busy end of the academic year.

Summary of the Controlling Phase

While we didn't face the business challenge of trying to please a client interested in "bells and whistles," we faced the challenge of a culture of inclusiveness. As noted earlier, our university mission contains language regarding inclusiveness. Accommodating our cultural milieu stretched our scope, adding time to our project. Because of PMI, we recognized the change in scope and made an informed decision about that change. Without the project management vocabulary of "change in scope" and the reminder that most projects face pressure to expand or contract, we would have been slower to recognize the issue of including more student-participants and less able to discuss a solution.

Closing

Spirer and Hamburger (1988) suggest that project closing involves six elements: conveying deliverables to the client, creating project history, closing the financial books, disposing of any excess resources, confronting any team issues, and communicating closure to stakeholders. In the case of the university project, "conveying deliverables" involved presenting the results of the research at a university-wide faculty research conference and at an American Educational Research Association Conference (AERA). The team shared the results with the university President and Provost by sending them the written AERA paper. That paper is now in publication.

While the presentations mentioned above conveyed deliverables to internal university stakeholders and to the larger profession, they also communicated project closure to the large project team. In terms of other closure elements, the process of writing this article documented project history. There were no financial books to close or resources to distribute. Since team members retained their usual university jobs, there was no need to reassign personnel at the end of the project, as there often is in business and government. Regarding the one resource generated, data, project members retained the data for the three years prescribed by the IRB. Since the university project had spanned years, and by the end of the project the larger research team no longer met, the PMI closing process reminded the core team of the importance of communicating results to all stakeholders.

Health of the PMI-Qualitative Marriage

How did the odd couple work out? Are PMI and qualitative methodology headed for the divorce court, or are they ready to sign on for a longer stint? In our view, the marriage was not nearly as bumpy as we would have thought, considering PMI is a more standardized, positivist partner and qualitative research is more flexible and constructivist.

Project Quality and Efficiency

We used the PMI processes as a framework, but were able to bend them enough to accommodate our environment, fitting the needs of a qualitative project within our university culture. The structure helped us get up and running quickly; we didn't have to invent processes to control a good-sized project with a large, diverse staff.

PMI processes reminded us of best practices—planning our project, keeping everyone informed, watching our budget, thoughtfully making decisions. We faced unpleasant consequences more often when we strayed from the processes, forgetting to consult the plan, or afraid to deliver hard news that might hurt someone's feelings. Both for those who had worked on large projects and those who had not, the processes provided a shared vocabulary that made communication easier. We earlier quoted Pettigrew that "new organizations represent settings where it is possible to study transition processes from no beliefs to new beliefs, from no rules to new rules, from no culture to new culture" (Pettigrew, 1983, p. 93). We found that PMI did, indeed offer a set of new rules with which to run our project. As shown below, the new research organization evolved through small and large group experience and the shared culture of the university team members.

Individual and Organizational Learning

In one of the meetings with the diverse large group, we asked project members anonymously to reflect in writing on a number of open-ended questions about the project and their learning. When asked if they had learned anything at all, every respondent replied in the affirmative. The responses fell into two main themes, learning about research skills and learning about the organization.

In the research skills area, responses covered gaining greater understanding of research in general and also of particular processes. Regarding a general gain, a team member stated, "The study helped me understand how to conduct a research study." More particularly one member noticed that interviewing skills were more difficult than they first appear: "Listening to, focusing on, and recording what participants communicate, while keeping my own evaluations under wraps, require strong concentration." Still another discussed the difference between qualitative and quantitative research. "I do not have a strong research background, but I can see how this kind of qualitative research can reveal information that quantitative studies cannot."

Regarding the organization, a respondent expressed a deeper understanding of organizational culture. "I've learned that Midwest has a community-oriented culture that spreads beyond the faculty. We were overwhelmed at the number of student responses." Another stated, "Working collaboratively makes research possible [here]." Most of the organizational responses related to collegiality. They are summarized below in the collegiality section.

We also queried project participants on whether the project (investigating student success) had changed an aspect of their behavior—their teaching practices. About half responded in the affirmative. Here is a typical reply: "I have been impressed with student enthusiasm for 'hands-on learning.' This has reinforced my efforts to teach my instruction session in a computer lab where possible, as opposed to the usual lecture-demo instruction." One participant commented more broadly that "qualitative research with college students helps the faculty enter the world of their students. Greater connections between faculty and students are likely when professors know their students well." Some noted that the study has not influenced their teaching; others speculated that the final study results might affect their methods.

Besides asking about teaching practices, we asked whether the project affected an attitude—whether it made respondents "want to do some work of your own." Most replied affirmatively; but some stated that before the project began, they already had this interest. The affirmative replies ranged from the enthusiastic, "Absolutely!" or "Yes, it's fascinating work." to the cooler, "In the future." One participant suggested that, "The cooperation of the community has made me want to conduct more collaborative research here."

In sum, individuals grew in knowledge of research and its processes. In many cases, their attitudes and actions changed. Based on what they learned, they expressed the intention to change teaching practices and to conduct their own research. The organization gained a cadre of people who knew each other better and were willing to work together. They seem committed to use their knowledge for the betterment of the students.

Collegiality and Satisfaction with the Research Experience

A question on whether the large project was a good way to do research stimulated many respondents to mention the benefits of collegiality. Commented one, "Yes. I think it deepens relationships across campus between different departments. I also believe it helps distribute the workload to make a large study possible." Other respondents commented that the project brings together faculty and staff or simply, "I've enjoyed deepening my relationships with my colleagues." Another stated appreciation for, "new people I've gotten to know and respect." When there was dissatisfaction, it seemed to relate to role confusion: "Sometimes I was unsure where I fit in the project."

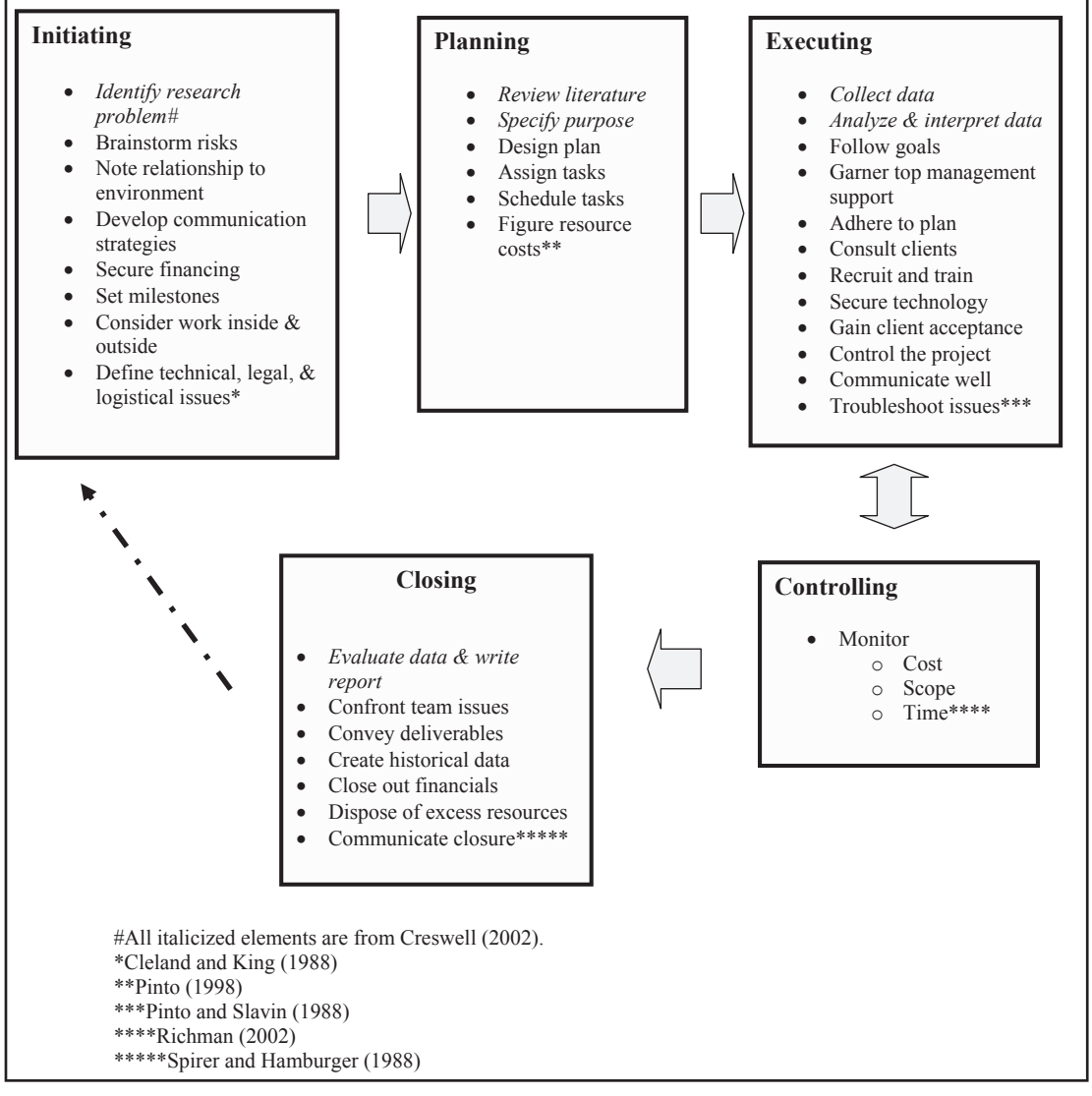
Summary of Marital Health

Smith et al. (2000) note that dialogue and problem solving help individuals create shared knowledge, and Senge et al. (1999) assert that learning teams can transform an organization into a learning organization. Working within the structure of PMI processes helped the core team create shared knowledge, and bringing that knowledge to the organization helped promote a research culture. Both results testify to the health of the PMI qualitative marriage. In addition, the organizational project management structure did not interfere with the constructivist approach used in the qualitative university case study.

PMI Research Model

Figure 5 illustrates a combination of the PMI model used in our study and the elements from Creswell's phases of research from his research spiral (Creswell, 2002). We have superimposed the research elements in italics on the appropriate stages of the

Figure 5
PMI Research Model.



#All italicized elements are from Creswell (2002).
*Cleland and King (1988)
**Pinto (1998)
***Pinto and Slavin (1988)
****Richman (2002)
*****Spirer and Hamburger (1988)

PMI model. The asterisks indicate the project management sources used to supply the project steps used in at each stage. While research spirals through its own phases, with much movement back and forth as ideas come and are revised, PMI methodology emphasizes that projects, by definition, have a crisp beginning and an end. The dotted line in the model indicates that research needs from one project could spiral into the development of a new project.

In an era of shrinking university funds and increasing teaching loads, this research documents a method for faculty to divide research tasks among a wide-ranging team. This division encourages a more diverse research perspective and establishment of a research culture. It also documents a method for faculty to reduce research time commitments, freeing them to lead more balanced lives.

Importance of the Study and Recommendations

Would this process work at other institutions? Each of us four core project managers had a good deal of work experience before we came to our university, and each has noted that it is an unusually happy place, free of much of the competitive trauma that can plague universities or business. Anecdotally, those in the university comment that the College of Education is a particularly friendly place. (We suspect that the lack of rancor had to do not only with the university's culture, but also with the abolishment of the tenure system for a period of time in favor of multi-year contracts. During this research, faculty competed only against themselves over whether their contracts would be extended. Also, among undergraduate faculty, especially, there was more emphasis placed on fine teaching than on publication.) Given this unusual degree of cooperation, we speculated whether PMI would permit diverse groups to work together as successfully in other places. Would there be more wrangling about who got to publish what? We see this as a fruitful area of future research.

Although quantitative research projects would seem to blend more naturally with project management's positivist heritage, another potential research area would be how project-management processes support quantitative research.

For those interested in gathering a wide-ranging research team, we make the following recommendations:

- Selecting a research topic: Choose a topic that will engage a wide variety of university roles.
- Building the team: Spend time at the beginning of the project and at each large-group meeting team building.
- Retaining volunteers: Allow your team members to choose their type and degree of participation to accommodate varied schedules and interests.
- Supporting volunteers: Plan training for the volunteer workers to ensure consistency and quality.
- Developing a plan: To keep the project on-track, develop and maintain a detailed project plan that notes who does what when.
- Communicating: Create an open database of project documents (Blackboard), e-mail updates, and hold regular small and large-group meetings.
- Keeping Records: Besides updating the project plan, take minutes of all team meetings as a management resource.
- Communicating the project to the wider community. Develop a plan to share project results, but, to maximize participation, also talk about the project as it's happening.

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