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CONTENTS

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The Role of Industry and University Partnerships in Developing Significant Learning Outcomes Related to Business Concepts

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ABSTRACT

In this study, students of an undergraduate business course were introduced to industry partners via teleconferencing methods. The students were assigned to groups during the semester and each group had an industry partner that assisted in the learning process. The six dimensions of Fink's integrated course design were examined in order to determine if the students perceived they had gained foundational, emotional, and interpersonal aspects of significant learning. A web-based survey was created and used to begin collecting data on student perceptions of learning. The course was designed for ongoing data collection with analysis anticipated in the subsequent semester.

Introduction

The signature steps of *significant learning* are foundational knowledge, application, integration, human dimension, caring, and learning how to learn (Fink, 2007). The interdependency of the components reveals the post course applications and continued learning as shown in continued expressions of inquiry discovery, and reflection (Oblinger, 2012). It is in the post course era that we see continued learning and exploration.

The motivation for this study was to examine business student perceptions of significant learning in a project-driven course. Questions that helped to guide the research process were the following: (1) Do industry partners facilitate the learning process? (2) Does connecting students with industry partners assist in learning how to solve practical business problems? (3) Does the team-based structure of the course enhance networking and relationship-building between the students and industry partners? The six dimensions of Fink's integrated course design were examined within an undergraduate business course (Fink, 2003). The course was analyzed by administering student surveys at the end of the semester.

An important part of this study was the consideration of the role of industry partners with student learning outcomes. As firms rely upon universities to support them in significant learning, one method for enhancing significant learning for both parties is developing exercises that enhance learning. Cope and Watts (2000) found learning is significant for firms that experience critical incidents for individuals within organizations.

Another key area was the consideration of team-based structures in student engagement and the learning process. Significant learning by definition seeks to move the student from foundational knowledge to a situation of learning to learn. Infused in this are cooperative engagements of application, integration, human dimen-

sion, and caring. There are several strategies to arrive at significant learning. One is to use small group work as a strategy to transfer and create knowledge. Small group work traditionally is organized along three veins – casual use, cooperative learning, and team-based learning (Fink, 2004). Each focus has benefits and when used consistently can lead to positive course outcomes as well as lead to significant learning. The largest benefit of casual use is in reinforcement of foundational knowledge and movement toward its application. Cooperative learning offers opportunities to integrate foundational knowledge with life activities and other course work. Team-based learning combines elements of the other small group styles and instills a desire for continued learning through innovative applications and perspective broadening. Team-based learning reaches the pinnacle of significant learning by integrating its signature six types of learning into social, technical, and intellectual interactions (Oblinger, 2012).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Background

According to the traditional view of student learning, foundational knowledge and higher order levels of learning needed to be attained in hierarchal form (Bloom, Engelhart, Furst, Hill, & Krathwohl, 1956). Approaches to the learning process have expanded over time to include emotional and non-hierarchical components that considered the importance of life-long learning (Robinson, 2009). One of the contemporary approaches to learning is found within Fink's taxonomy of learning which makes integrated course design a focal point within the learning process. According to Fink (2003), significant learning occurs only when students are enthusiastic and the class displays high energy levels. The result is a significant and lasting change in student learning. Fink's integrated course design assures that all six significant learning objectives are included throughout the course. The design process is organized around three key phases with twelve individual steps: the first phase includes identifying important situational factors, formulating significant learning goals, formulating feedback and assessment procedures, generating teaching and learning activities, and evaluating integration of the component parts; the second phase includes creating a course structure, selecting an effective teaching strategy, and creating the overall scheme of learning activities; finally, the third phase includes assembling the grading system, identifying what might go wrong, writing the syllabus, and planning the course and teaching evaluation system (Fink, 2003).

Fink's Taxonomy

Fink's (2003) taxonomy of significant learning includes the following six categories which are used for integrated course design:

1. *Foundational knowledge contains the principles, concepts, and basic course information.* this knowledge provides the base for understanding other forms of learning.
2. *Application* involves applying knowledge by developing skills and engaging in critical, creative, and practical thought processes.
3. *Integration* consists of understanding the connections between ideas, people, and different aspects of interdisciplinary learning and life.
4. *Human dimension* contains learning that occurs when students gain new insights about themselves and others.
5. *Caring* involves the change and development of new feelings, interests, or values toward something that students now regard as more mportant.
6. *Learning how to learn* transpires when students embrace the process of learning and become increasingly effective in future learning efforts.

INDUSTRY PARTNERSHIPS AND TEAM BASED LEARNING

As businesses focus on adapting to volatile environments, they rely upon their supply chains to develop value for customers to sustain a competitive advantage (Mentzer, Flint, & Hult, 2001). Some researchers have proposed that a firm's ability to learn in functional areas such as logistics can provide a sustainable competitive advantage. As businesses develop their learning capabilities within the supply chain, they look to relationships with partner organizations (Esper, Fugate, & Davis-Sramek, 2007).

The beauty of *team based learning* is that it incorporates a healthy dose of individual work, teamwork and immediate feedback (Parmelee, Michaelsen, Cook, & Hude, 2012). These skills help to equip a high touch generation of learners with strategies to better engage them in the workplace. Industry partner feedback to colleges echoes the need for new employees to have a solid technical skill set but also have critical thinking and interpersonal skills (Fink, 2004). Small group learning, particularly team-based learning when done correctly, accomplishes this task.

Immediate feedback is a strong component of team-based learning and a significant piece of the learning outcome. Immediate feedback allows the small group the chance to reflect on strong and developmental points, receive the immediate attention that current collegians expect and give the group time to pass kudos to the high achieving team members. This instructional strategy and feedback cultivates high performance learning teams. Feedback by itself is not a novel diagnostic tool. It is the immediacy of the feedback that lends itself to meaningful corrective action, integration, and caring. In short, immediate feedback promotes relevancy versus 'what grade did I get' syndrome.

Michaelsen (2004) identifies four keys for successful team-based learning 1) strategic team membership and management, 2) team member accountability for all work, 3) group activities that promote team bonding and knowledge transfer, & 4) immediate feedback. Regarding team work, Haller, Gallagher, Weldon, & Felder (2000) remind instructors to make the group work meaningful and worthwhile to elicit positive interactions among members and minimize conflict. Team members are more than capable of quickly identifying the contributions of their members. Allow them this opportunity as well as the chance to self correct deficient group member behavior. Active learning as demonstrated in team-based learning can lead to increased student success and retention (Bain, Downen, Morgan, & Ott, 2012).

Team-based learning as an application of significant learning has renderings of Bloom's taxonomy and Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory. Like Bloom's taxonomy significant learning is based on six categories. The largest difference is that Bloom's taxonomy is based on a hierarchical structure whereas significant learning is interactive (Fink, 2007). One could argue that significant learning is 'mostly' interactive assuming the premise of foundational knowledge has been completed. Parmelee et al. (2012) suggest that team-based learning differs from other small group formations in its insistence that members come prepared for the group activities. This preparedness can be rooted in foundational knowledge and application.

The largest deliverable of team-based learning relative to significant learning rests in its intrinsic applications of caring, human dimension, and learning how to learn. In large respect, these elements are akin to the higher rungs in Maslow's theory related to esteem, belonging, and self-actualization as well as Hertzberg's two factor theory which dwells on workplace/team satisfaction and one's motivation to perform.

DISCUSSION

Significant learning became an area of focus within an upper-level business course during the fall semester of 2011. Students were given a business research project to complete during the semester. A collaborative corporation (large transportation firm headquartered in the U.S.) assisted in the project by providing management employees who served as advisors to the students. These advisors became the industry partners for this study. The research project was team-based and consisted of five teams with five students per team. Each team was assigned an industry partner to assist in mentoring the team members. Three teleconferencing meetings (with some video imaging) between the teams and their respective industry partners were held during the semester.

The upper-level business course was comprised of mainly graduating seniors majoring in sales & marketing. Student perceptions of significant learning were anonymously assessed using a web-based survey that included the following five-point scale: 5 = Strongly Agree, 4 = Agree, 3 = Neither Agree/Disagree, 2 = Disagree and 1 = Strongly Disagree. A total of twelve students participated in the survey. Thirteen questions were utilized to measure perceptions of significant learning related to the business research project. In addition, one question allowed for student comments and three categorical questions were included to help in classification.

Findings

The six categories of significant learning were incorporated into the survey items and summarized by using percentages (see Table 1). Questions 1 and 11 were given to gauge student perceptions of foundational knowledge. The students mostly agreed that the business research project provided knowledge of the concepts. Questions 2 and 13 were given to gauge student perceptions of application. Like foundational knowledge, the students agreed that they could apply what the learned from the business research project. Questions 3, 4, and 12 were given to assess student perceptions of the human dimension. Responses to the human dimension of learning were not as favorable as the prior two categories. Questions 5 and 8 were given to assess student perceptions of caring. The students seemed least connected to the caring component of learning. Half of the responding students either disagreed or strongly disagreed with these two questions. Questions 6 and 10 were given to measure student perceptions of integration. Most of the responses were favorable regarding the integration component of learning. Questions 7 and 9 were given to measure student perceptions regarding

learning how to learn. The students seemed to agree that they learned how to learn by participating in the business research project. Question 9 was reversed due to the structure of the question and the last question allowed for comments from the students. Finally, in addition to the scaled responses mentioned above, a few anecdotal comments were provided by the students: a) the need for face-to-face communication with the industry partners; b) prior understanding of the collaborative corporation; c) more time to complete the business research project.

SUMMARY

In general, student perceptions were positive regarding the significant learning survey items

Students appeared to rate learning associated with *foundational knowledge* and *application* higher than *human dimension* and *caring* components. The students, in general, saw benefit in connecting with the industry partners to solve business problems. The industry partners were satisfied with the results of the research project and enjoyed the opportunity to interact with the students during the semester. Future research is needed to further examine the impact of industry partners on student learning outcomes and compare findings to other business courses.

TABLE 1
SURVEY ITEMS AND
COURSE PERCENTAGES STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF SIGNIFICANT LEARNING

Survey Item	Category of Learning	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	Foundational Knowledge	41.70%	50.00%	0.00%	8.30%	0.00%
11	Foundational Knowledge	8.30%	66.70%	25.00%	0.00%	0.00%
2	Application	50.00%	50.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
13	Application	25.00%	41.70%	16.70%	8.30%	8.30%
6	Integration	66.70%	16.70%	16.70%	0.00%	0.00%
10	Integration	33.30%	25.00%	25.00%	16.70%	0.00%
3	Human Dimension	33.30%	41.70%	25.00%	0.00%	0.00%
4	Human Dimension	8.30%	58.30%	25.00%	8.30%	0.00%
12	Human Dimension	0.00%	50.00%	16.70%	25.00%	8.30%
5	Caring	8.30%	25.00%	16.70%	25.00%	25.00%
8	Caring	8.30%	16.70%	25.00%	25.00%	25.00%
7	Learning How to Learn	8.30%	66.70%	16.70%	8.30%	0.00%
*9	Learning How to Learn	0.00%	8.30%	41.70%	41.70%	8.30%

*Survey Item #9 was reversed due to the structure of the question

Classification: 75% Graduating Seniors; 25% Non-Graduating Seniors
Gender: 50% Male; 50% Female
Major: 91.7% Sales & Marketing; 8.3% Business Administration

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A Case Study: Accreditation Process Reviewed Through the Lens of Organizational Change Models and the Five Stages of Grief

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ABSTRACT

Kurt Lewin's work helps us understand organizational change and Elizabeth Kubler-Ross' work gives us insight into personal change. Their work can help us understand the many dimensions of change that occur in our environment. Lewin contends that change can be planned for and Kubler-Ross proposes that change, even unexpected change, can be managed. This article will take a closer look, over a four-year period, at the process within a college unit moving towards national accreditation through the lens of the work of these two well-known researchers.

BACKGROUND

In her 1969 publication, *On Death and Dying*, Elisabeth Kuebler-Ross introduced what has become universally known as T*he Five Stages of Grief*. These stages, processes, or steps, whichever terms we wish to apply to the "set of circumstances" that people experience, are unique to each individual and can be used to provide a perspective for each individuals own loss process. "Grief is a complicated, multi-dimensional, individual process that can never be generalized in five steps" (TLC Group, 2006). This model recognizes that there is no unique pattern for an individuals' emotional response as a consequence to great loss or life-change situations, but that having a description of emotional responses at different levels or stages assists us in communicating and sharing our thoughts and feelings. Chapman (2010) compared Kuebler-Ross' five stages of grief to "a change model" used in helping individuals understand and deal with personal reaction to trauma. To set the stage for discussing how these five stages of grief can be utilized and applied to a college accreditation process, a general discussion of Kuebler-Ross' five stages of grief follows.

The Kuebler-Ross model is divided into five different stages: denial, anger, bargaining, depression and acceptance. These stages are fluid and may not be linear in their appearance as individuals follow their own unique path when coming to terms with death or change. Denial, one of the first stages in the grieving process, can be described as "a conscious or unconscious refusal to accept facts, information, reality, etc. relating to the situation concerned" (Chapman, 2010). As individuals are thrust into this stage, feelings can be so overpowering that in order to cope with the shock of reality, denial becomes a natural coping mechanism (Grief Cycle, 2011). Postponing all efforts of dealing with the loss or change becomes uppermost and there is no "normal" timetable for grieving (Smith & Segal, 2012). Not everyone goes through any or all of these stages in order to heal from grief or accept a change; they are merely signposts available for understanding feelings.

Anger, the second stage in the grieving process or change model, is an overwhelming emotion that can be "directed at doctors, nurses, messengers, loved ones" or employers, supervisors and colleagues (DIY , 2012). Explosive outbursts can occur over situations that, at other times, would not cause a ripple. Thoughtless and impulsive choices may be made during this time (Barteck, 2010). Understanding this anger can help others not take affront at words or actions directed toward them by the individual experiencing this stage and assists in holding oneself detached from that anger (Chapman, 2010). Bargaining is the third stage experienced in this cycle. Individuals trying to understand their situation often explore ways of "striking a deal with higher powers" in order to postpone

the inevitable (Chapman, 2010). In an employment situation, an individual may display higher performance traits in order to avoid the inevitable (Change-Management-Coach, 2012). Depression signals the beginning of the fourth stage in the grieving process whereby individuals begin recognizing the truth of the situation and accepting reality (Chapman, 2010). Employees going through changes at work may become discouraged and unmotivated and absenteeism tends to increase during this stage (Change-Management-Coach, 2012). The last stage in the Kubler-Ross model is acceptance. It is during this stage that people begin to experience objectivity of the situation and gain some detachment or resignation. An individual might not like this new reality but they learn to live with it (DIY Stress Relief, 2012).

There are many other theoretical models that emphasize different aspects of stages of grief: Charles A. Carrs' model highlights individual empowerment and guidelines for caregivers; Debbie Messer Zlatins' model uses "life themes" in the dying process;, John M. Fisher highlights a individuals self-perception, locus of control and past experiences to create that persons anticipation of future events; and William McDougall stressed personal uniqueness as an individual centered approach (Jennings, Gemmill, Bohman & Lamb, Spring).

Kurt Lewin's change theory involves a three-step model for managing change in the 21st century workplace: unfreeze, transition or change, freeze or refreeze. Although this model was developed in the 1940's, it is still relevant today (Connelly, 2013). Lewin's three-step change management model provides a relatively easy and for some, too simplistic, theory for producing changes (Connelly, 2013). The change process has been compared by Lewin to that of changing the shape of a block of ice in order to obtain a cone of ice: "First, you must melt the ice to make it amenable to change (unfreeze). Then you must mold the iced water into the shape you want (change) and finally, you must solidify the new shape (refreeze)" (MindTools.com, 2013). The first stage or phase is the unfreeze stage. In this stage, the preparation for change (or reassessment of current practices) begins, not only in the individual, but also for the organization that expects the change. In order to prepare for a change, an incentive or motivation for that change needs to be identified and communicated to everyone involved. Arguments for and arguments against the change should also be identified so that the reasons for the overwhelming need to change become the driving force (Force Field Analysis) of the change. Force field analysis can be accomplished by enhancing the driving forces that guide conduct away from the existing situation; reducing the restraining forces that negatively affect the movement from the existing situation; and then, finding a combination of the two (CurrentNursing.com, 2011).

The transition, change, implementation or movement stage is the second phase of Lewin's change theory. In this stage, the process or reactions of individuals toward the new change can be seen and felt. During this stage, individuals are often fearful of the unknown and need to have time to understand and work with the changes. Communication and support is essential during this phase in order for individuals to be able to provide solutions for some mistakes that might be made in the change process. Using role models, training, and coaching all become reliable forms of providing support (Connelly, 2013). People may need to take on new duties or responsibilities during this stage in order for the effective transition to occur.

The last stage in the change model is freezing; some authors use the word refreezing to also describe this third phase. This third phase is as important as the first stage because unless the change is allowed to "settle in and become routine" there is always the fear of backsliding into old ways of doing things. So this stage is about creating stability once the changes have been made, reinforcing those changes and maintaining the changes into the future (Morrison, 2010).

The next section will discuss the psychology of change in a case study of an institution where the behavior of the faculty going through the process of national accreditation can be viewed and described using Elizabeth Kubler-Ross' Stages of Grief and Kurt Lewin's Change Management Model.

CASE STUDY

The literature tells us that organizational change has several dimensions; one such facet is not always planned for by leadership during organizational change projects. That dimension is the change that needs to occur in the minds of the persons affected by the reorganization. Because it is invisible, this cognitive and affective change is often not attended to and the resulting behaviors can slow the process considerably and possibly cause the change to fail.

The subject of this case study is a university college that began its organizational change towards national accreditation four years ago. The first year was essentially a period of denial for the faculty or as Kubler-Ross would describe a period of conscious or unconscious denial of the facts or reality. The college had just welcomed a new Dean who came from an essentially larger university with ideas of raising the stature of the college unit within the university and the external community. He quickly

pushed for an organizational name change from School to College and followed that by an announcement to his administrative team that the college unit would be seeking national accreditation. The seventy two plus faculty were informed of this intent. An accreditation coordinator and a small select number of faculty began their work in becoming familiar with the national accrediting body and its processes. Most of the work was being done by the accreditation coordinator with little or no communication occurring among the team members and little or no communication being shared with the faculty at large. For most of the first year, there were no observable significant changes in the faculty ranks so they experienced no compelling or motivating reason to change or unfreeze their sense of identity as Lewin would describe in stage one of his model.

By the second year of the project, a change was made by the Dean in the leadership of the project coordination and momentum towards the ultimate goal of accreditation began to change. With the establishment and inclusion of larger number of faculty on several committees with specific tasks, outcomes, and a fixed timeline came a cry of anger from the faculty, stage two in Kubler-Ross's Stages of Grief. The sense of security faculty felt in the environment was being threatened by program self-studies, curriculum changes, adherence to national standards, issues of accountability, collection of assessment data, measurement of dispositions, working from a conceptual framework and many more changes loomed before them. Faculty were not ready for that much change and many remained frozen as described in Lewin's stage one.

An interesting phenomena occurred within their denial or frozen state. Some faculty began to identify themselves as exceptions to the accreditation process. Some claimed that their particular discipline was different from the others in the college therefore they were exempt from the process. For example, they were doctoral faculty not undergraduate faculty, or they were clinical faculty not classroom faculty, or they were involved in numerous grant projects, or they were planning to retire within the next one or two years. These behaviors seeking exceptions can best be described in Kubler-Ross' third stage of bargaining, seeking to negotiate their way out.

While remaining frozen during this period, faculty were moving from the anger stage to the bargaining stage and vice versa. Kubler-Ross' research tells us that often individuals move back and forth from the five stages or get stuck in one stage for some length of time. Lewin describes this as a period of transition or one of a journey or process through change.

During the third year, a group of faculty were selected for a faculty accreditation retreat in which the facilitator started by saying "Let's address the elephant in the room". Faculty were asked to make a list about everything they disliked about the accreditation project. Results were almost unanimous with respect to expressing anger over the change, additional work, concern about workload, interference with their research time, and not having had a say in the decision. This exercise was followed by a request to list the benefits of the accreditation. That list included a number of positive items that seemed to resonate with the whole group. A theme that cut across the first list was one of the faculty thinking only of themselves while the theme in the second list was that of thinking of the greater good for all. This faculty retreat activity could be described as a Force Field Analysis in Lewin's model. Lewin contends that there are many different factors to consider in making a change. When one outweighs the other, there is more, or less, motivation to continue the change process.

Towards the end of the third year and the start of the fourth year, the majority of the faculty seemed to be in Kubler-Ross' stage five, acceptance. A small number had moved from stage three, bargaining to stage four, depression but the majority of the faculty was now in stage five, acceptance. More objectivity about the process without emotional attachment was being exhibited as the faculty tackled the many curriculum and other infrastructure changes. New faculty hires during this period entered a college culture that was deep in accreditation mode and wanting to quickly fit in began to request inclusion in the many committee assignments of the college.

Also during this period, a sense of community was beginning to be experienced across departments in the college unit. Upon receiving positive feedback from the accrediting agency on the completion of significant milestones, the project leadership arranged for the faculty to take time to pause and celebrate each accomplishment. These events helped to create a unity among the faculty and solidify the vision towards the identified target of national accreditation. The start of each semester's convocation for the college unit now included full discussions of the project timeline, accomplishments and recognition of faculty. Kubler-Ross' final stage of acceptance appears to permeate the faculty.

As the college and its faculty now move in its final year towards their accreditation site visit, the many committees are becoming standing committees of the college in order to insure the continuous improvement process required by national accreditation. Such committees represent assessment, data collection, curriculum review,

establishment of core curriculum to name a few. Levin's third stage is one of freezing or re-freezing. The literature tells us that Lewin believed that the change has to be maintained otherwise individuals will slip back to the way things were before the change. The momentum in the college now is one of completing a task, accreditation, and one of not losing what has been started.

The authors have now encountered the beginning of a new change process even before the completion of the existing accreditation change with this university and this particular college unit. Legislation is now being considered to create a new university by the merging of two existing universities. The merging of college units within the new university is a real possibility. Receiving national accreditation could allow the college in this case study to remain autonomous and not be merged with its counterpart which does not have the same national accreditation in the new university. This latest development appears to reinforce the first stages in both Lewin and Kubler-Ross's respective stages of change and the support for addressing the invisible dimension of change which occurs in the mind of the employee.

LESSONS LEARNED

This case study provides several lessons to consider as an organization goes through major changes. First, time must be taken at the beginning of the change process to create awareness and a need for the change. Informing and involving as many individuals at the start of the process is important as it will minimize the resistance that occurs once individuals realize that change is a reality and denial of its effect on them dismissed. Cognitive and emotional change is many times invisible and should be anticipated and addressed A Force Field Analysis or something similar should be considered early in the process so that employees can realize the benefits of the change and employee morale is not affected seriously.

Secondly, open communication is necessary throughout the change process and accomplishment of milestones should be celebrated. It is important that as information becomes available, it be disseminated to everyone within the college unit so that everyone is involved in the discussion and identification of roadblocks. Thirdly, flexibility in creating infrastructure as the process evolves is important, this was evidenced by the change in leadership in the second year in order to provide movement toward the goals. Lastly, timelines towards interim and long term goals need to be established and communicated throughout the process so that target goals can be achieved and the process moved along its timeline.

SUMMARY

Kurt Lewin's work helps us understand organizational change and Elizabeth Kubler-Ross' work gives us insight into personal change. Their work can help us understand the many dimensions of change that occur in our environment. Lewin contends that change can be planned for and Kubler-Ross proposes that change, even unexpected change, can be managed. This case study attempted to take a closer look over a four year period at the process within a college unit moving towards national accreditation through the lens of the work of these two well-known researchers.

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How far from income equity are faculty in four-year, non-doctorial universities?

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ABSTRACT

Increasingly, scholars in academia as well as journalists are noting vast pay discrepancies among professorial ranks. This study is an attempt to examine how gender, rank, and scholarly output influence faculty members' income from their institutions. Using equity theory as a conceptual framework, the 2004 National Study of Postsecondary Faculty (NSOPF04) is used for data analysis purposes. Descriptive, associational, and inferential statistics are employed; specifically, linear regressions were conducted to examine the factors that predict income from the institution. The findings of this study are discussed as they align with the reports of others who study the glaring income gap in the American professoriate. As Kezar & Sam (2010) have argued, there is a new faculty majority, and it is comprised of individuals who are significantly less salaried and secure in their positions, while at the same time being called on to teach more fundamental/core classes across campuses. In short, they are not being compensated equitably for their contributions and importance to the "front line" of educating college students (many of them in freshman/sophomore level classes).

Introduction

Higher education in the United States has long been a shifting and evolving enterprise, with changes coming quickly in some areas (i.e. the proliferation of online degree programs and for-profit institutions) and slowly in other aspects, such as vaunted rituals of commencement and tenure of professors. One of the movements that has seemed to move at a snails pace is that of fair and equitable compensation for all faculty members, regardless of gender, tenure, or rank. *The New York Times* (2013, April 8) reported that 76% of American college faculty are adjunct professors – an all-time high. Unlike tenured faculty, whose annual salaries can top $160,000, adjunct professors make an average of $2,700 per course and receive no health care or other benefits (Lewin, "Gap Widens for Faculty at Colleges").

Kezar (2012) traces the recent drastic faculty workforce shift from primarily full-time tenured faculty to non-tenure track faculty and part-time appointments. As this change in the employment landscape is taking place, several problems have emerged: the faculty system has become caste-based with great disparities in job security and pay, short-term solutions are often pursued for long-term problems, and educational quality has become an issue as non-tenure track faculty are relegated in terms of policies and compensation (Kezar, 2012, p. xi).

Although there are more issues at stake than pay, the income that faculty members receive from their institutions is one glaring indicator in which gender, rank, and other variables are shown to influence a significant discrepancy in compensation. This research study will focus on faculty members' institutional income at four-year non-doctorial universities to examine how much it varies with regard to gender, faculty status (including part-time, full-time, tenured, and rank considered), and scholarly output (in terms of publications in refereed journals and conference presentations).

First, a brief literature review will illustrate the income imbalance among faculty and integrate equity theory (Adams, 1965; Walster & Bershcheid, 1978) as a framework to inform a discussion of statistical analyses from a large faculty survey. Based on the statistical analyses, I will advance discussion and implications of the data with regard to equity theory and call for more quantitative and qualitative inquiry to investigate the extent to which people are (and aren't) given equitable income for the outputs they produce as faculty. Last, limitations of the study and policy implications will be discussed.

Faculty Income and Equity Theory

The literature surrounding faculty compensation reveals that female faculty members tend to have lower salaries and are less likely to be tenured (or full professors) than

their male colleagues (Kezar & Sam, 2010; Nettles, Perna, Bradburn, & Zimbler, 2000). Lin, Pearce, and Wang (2009) note, "The findings overwhelmingly suggest that female and minority faculty have a long way to go before reaching equity" (p. 707).

Many have argued that the corporatization of higher education in recent decades has increased income inequity. Cosco and Longmate (2012) lament "the disparity of rights and entitlements between the tenured and tenure-track, on the one hand, and the majority (the adjunct class) on the other, to say nothing of grossly unfair pay structures" (p. 72). Not only are income divides evident along the lines of gender and minority status, but also in the growing trend of hiring adjunct instructors for annually contracted, non-tenure track appointments that offer significantly less in compensation, benefits, and job security.

Although equity can be measured along many variables other than payment, the focus of this study will be on total income from the institution and the extent to which it seems to be equitable and based on scholarly "merit" (publication in academic journals and conference presentations) and other variables. Closely bound to faculty status, salaries reflect many aspects of faculty achievement; however, female and minority faculty tend to make lower salaries than do male and white faculty (Kezar, 2012; Lin et al., 2009; Nettles et al., 2000), reinforcing a system of inequality that tends to monetarily privilege the shrinking upper caste of tenured professors while relegating adjunct and non-tenure track instructors, especially in terms of pay (Baldwin & Chronister, 2001).

Equity theory, the framework that informs the current study, was advanced by Adams (1965) and later extended by Walster and Bershcheid (1978). Considered a social justice theory, equity theory attempts to explain organizational satisfaction in terms of perceived fair/unfair distributions of resources, proposing that individuals' self-perceptions of being under-rewarded or over-rewarded lead to experiences of distress, and this dissonance often involves efforts to restore equity within the relationship. As noted by Spector (2008), anger is typically induced by underpayment inequity while guilt is usually induced with overpayment inequity.

The overarching focus of equity theory is payment, whether as a wage or salary, so income from the institution becomes a central concern when examining equitable compensation in higher education. As in other service industries, in any faculty position, one wants to feel that her/his contributions and work performance are being rewarded with fair returns (the "equity norm" principle). Walster and Bershcheid (1978) posit if an employee feels underpaid, s/he will likely report feeling hostile towards the organization and perhaps colleagues, possibly impacting performance in the work setting and interpersonal relations with others.

Research Method

The current study examines income discrepancies and equity theory further, using the 2004 National Study of Postsecondary Faculty (NSOPF04). Specifically, the aim is to examine the compensation of faculty at all levels of status at four year, non-doctorial universities (X38q0). After narrowing the larger sample to exclude respondents from other Carnegie classifications, descriptive, associational, and inferential statistics were employed to explore relationships and differences between total income from the university and other variables. Specifically, linear regressions were conducted to examine the factors that predict income from the institution (X03Q66), introduced as a dependent variable.

The independent variables selected include full-time/part-time (q5add), tenure status (q12), rank (q10add), career articles in refereed journals (q52aa), career conference presentations (x04q52), and sex (q71add). The variables of career conference presentations and articles published in refereed journals were selected to represent scholastic output of respondents in accordance with literature indicating the emphasis placed on publishing research reports (Green, 1998; Skolnik, 2000). Sex was selected because, as is evident in the literature, women are paid less even when producing scholarship at the same rate as their male colleagues (Park, 1996).

Demographics, ANOVA and regression statistics illuminate the sample in the NSOPF04 from the Carnegie classification of four-year non-doctorial institutions. It should be noted that some of the variables were recoded for the purposes of the data analysis, and one case was removed from the data subsample, as the income reported was a likely typographical error.

Results

Table 1 demonstrates that 43% of the respondents are female, the mean total income from institution is around $40,000 dollars (with a wide discrepancy between the range); 58% of respondents reported as full-time; 30% reported as holding tenure at their institutions; and rank, career published articles, and career total presentations are also reported. Notable in this table, among other things, is the large standard deviation in terms of total income from the institution as well as rank. Career articles and presentations ranged from 0-200 and 0-900, respectively, so the standard deviation scores for those variables were to be expected.

Table 1
Demographics
NSOPF04: Faculty at non-doctoral granting universities (X38q0)

Variable	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Total income from the institution	4040	500	250000	40608.47	33007.338
Sex	4040	0	1	.43	.495
Full-time or part-time	4040	0	1	.58	.493
Tenure status	4040	0	1	.30	.459
Rank	3990	1	6	3.59	1.828
Career articles, refereed journals	4040	0	200	6.20	15.026
Career total presentations, exhibitions, or performances	4040	0	900	41.27	90.086

Notes: For sex variable, (0=M, 1=F); for full-/part-time, (Full-time=1, Part-time=0); for tenure status, (0=non-tenured, 1=tenured); for rank, (1=(full) professor, 2=associate professor, 3=assistant professor, 4=instructor, 5=lecturer, 6=other)

However, the empirical evidence depicted in the descriptive statistics suggests significant disparities in total income from the institution, which can be further explained through linear regression analysis examining the factors that predict income from the institution. Table 2 displays the results of the regression analysis. According to the model summary, R=.750 and adjusted R *squared*=.562, indicating a robust correlation and explanatory power of the variance in total income from the institution.

As Table 2 indicates, all of the independent variables are significant at the p<.001 level, with full-time/part-time status, career articles, and rank having the strongest influence on total income from an institution according to the Beta scores. To test for significance of regression differences and relationships between normal distribution and the results found from the NSOPF04 data, a two-way ANOVA was also conducted, displayed in Table 3.

According to the ANOVA output, the regression differences are significant at the p<.001 level, and the F value large enough to support the tentative argument that faculty status, career output and gender do have an effect on total income from an institution. Although the ANOVA does not indicate what the relationship is, it does indicate that there is a statistically significant relationship.

Conclusion and Discussion

The findings of this study align with the reports of other scholars who study, among other things, the glaring income gap in the American professoriate (if lecturers and

Table 2
Linear regression results

Independent Variables	*Beta*	*t*	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Full-time / part-time	.485	61.996	.000	42905.572	45707.288
Tenure status	.058	7.128	.000	4056.602	7134.151
Rank	.158	17.864	.000	3573.140	4453.914
Career articles, refereed journals	.232	33.452	.000	353.091	397.046
Career total presentations, exhibitions, or performances	.021	3.265	.001	4.622	18.502
Gender	-.057	-9.122	.000	-6353.313	-4105.909

Notes: Dependent variable: x03Q66, total income from the institution.

Table 3
ANOVA[a]

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	13195320496100.576	6	2199220082683.42	2495.089	.000[b]
Residual	10271180709023.752	11653	881419331.847		
Total	23466501205124.330	11659			

Notes: (a.) Dependent Variable: Total income from the institution

(b.) Predictors: (Constant), Gender, Career total presentations, exhibitions, or performances, recoded dummy variable full/part time, Career articles, refereed journals, recoded dummy variable tenure status, reverse recoded variable rank

instructors are counted in that term). As Kezar & Sam (2010) have argued, there is a new faculty majority, and it is comprised of individuals who are significantly less salaried and secure in their positions, while at the same time being called on to teach more fundamental/core classes across campuses. In short, they are not being compensated equitably for their contributions and importance to the "front line" of educating college students (many of them in freshman/sophomore level classes).

Equity theorists and organizational scholars have advanced that when employees report feeling underpaid, they also tend to report feeling hostile towards the organization (Walster and Bershcheid, 1978; Spector, 2008). Anger and feelings of devalue (or no commitment from the institution) are detrimental to faculty relations and arguably impact the quality of instruction that students are receiving (Umbach, 2008). More research needs to be conducted on the extent to which faculty report being less productive, unmotivated, and unsatisfied, specifically regarding their income from the institution.

This study contributes to the academic discussion that is flaring up in higher education regarding fair compensation and treatment of non-tenure track faculty, adjunct appointments, and part-time positions. However, the current study represents only a partial glance, as the focus was narrowed to four-year, non-doctorial institutions. A wider sampling and comparative analysis to include all Carnegie classifications would be useful and insightful in broadening the explanatory power, reliability, and validity of the findings. Also, as things can change rapidly in higher education, the latest National Study of Postsecondary Faculty should be used to account for the most recent data gathered on this drastically shifting workforce.

The argument that there exists an unequal caste structure in the professoriate is not a new one. However, as a decreasing number of tenured and full professors are paid a lion's share of the resources allotted to departments, the issue of fair compensation among non-tenure faculty becomes particularly salient as they now occupy the majority of postsecondary workers. A growing mass of hostile and undervalued faculty does not bode well for the cultures of campuses or the students who enter their classrooms, whether online or brick-and-mortar.

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Support for Higher Education: Perceptions of Selected University Administrators and Legislators in Tennessee

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ABSTRACT

This quantitative study examined the perceptions of selected university administrators and legislators concerning levels of support for Tennessee public higher education. The purpose of the study was to gain a greater understanding among the various constituents as to the needs and restraints facing higher education funding. The population targeted for this study was comprised of 132 members of the Tennessee General Assembly, the Executive Director of the Tennessee Higher Education Commission (THEC), the Chancellor of the Tennessee Board of Regents (TBR), the President of the University of Tennessee System, and 36 Chief Administrators at nine state-supported universities. The principal investigator used a web-based survey development company to design, collect, and store survey responses.

Analysis of the data revealed that legislators and higher education administrators in the State of Tennessee perceived funding for higher education differently. There were significant differences between the two groups concerning: use of higher education reserves during weak economic times, the explanation for tuition rises, how much costs students should incur for higher education, level importance placed on state appropriations for funding higher education, and how they perceived priority of higher education in the state budget. There was a significant difference between one's political party affiliation and their perception of access to higher education being an issue. A significant difference was also found between one's education level and ranking of higher education in the state budget.

INTRODUCTION

The large degree of uncertainty of the national and global economy has brought increasing concern to the state of higher education, specifically, the financial position (Baum & Ma, 2010). Enduring a financial environment that is constantly changing is difficult for organizations such as colleges and universities which are driven by consensus decisions. Alexander et al. (2010) puts into perspective the shifts in higher education funding from states to students during the economic crisis. The reduction in state appropriations for higher education in the United States has become increasingly problematic with the rapid growth in student enrollments occurring nationwide (Baum & Ma, 2010).

This study was conducted to examine the perceptions of legislative members in the State of Tennessee and select chief administrators for institutions of higher education regarding the strategies used to influence levels of funding for post-secondary institutions. Nine universities in Tennessee were targeted for the study: Austin Peay State University, East Tennessee State University, Middle Tennessee State University, Tennessee State University, Tennessee Technical University, University of Memphis, University of Tennessee-Chattanooga, University of Tennessee-Knoxville, and University of Tennessee- Martin. The reason for selecting these universities was for their membership in the Tennessee Board of Regents and University of Tennessee systems. Senators and Members of the House of Representatives in the Tennessee General Assembly were included in the study for their role in state budgeting for higher education.

Therefore, the purpose of the study was to gain a greater understanding among the various constituents as to the needs and restraints facing higher education funding. Bound and Turner (2007) suggested there had been a national decline in higher education and in order for leaders in higher education to respond to the decline, they must

understand the perceptions of legislators with regard to public higher education funding.

RELATED LITERATURE

The last few years have been marked with financial uncertainty and as a result state budgets have experienced large cuts in spending (Baum & Ma, 2010). Often, state appropriations to public higher education are considered discretionary and therefore the first item to be cut from the budget and last to recover (Russell, 2008). State legislators often rationalize higher education as a discretionary item: "colleges and universities can find other sources of income to compensate for reduced state support" (p. 1). In the interest of the stakeholders involved, there is an increasing need to improve communication and relations between leaders of higher education institutions and those in state government. The flow of information in both directions involves more than a simple recognition of need, for there is regular disagreement between the university and legislative members about state controls, appropriations, the nature of information that should be exchanged, and the independence of higher education (Weerts & Ronca, 2006).

Weerts and Ronca (2006) suggested the university-government relationship as symbiotic, that one depends on the other. "Public higher education institutions play an important role in creating an educated citizenry and improving state and local economies, while states bear the primary responsibility of funding postsecondary education" (p. 935). Institutions of higher education must communicate with the general public as well as the state legislature in order to dispel skepticism of higher education's mission (Desrochers, Lenihan, & Wellman, 2010). Immerwahr et al. (2010) discussed why Americans have reservations about the system of higher education. The data revealed people felt universities were more concerned with the bottom line than with the educational experience for students since tuition rates continued to rise.

Desrochers et al. (2010) identified patterns during 1998-2008 which help to explain the increase in public doubt in higher education spending. From 2001-2005 a change in financing of public higher education shifted more costs onto students. Taking into consideration recent trends, it was no surprise the loss of confidence the public experienced in higher education's objectives (Desrochers et al., 2010). Immerwahr et al. (2010) found there to be rising public skepticism due to escalating costs of tuition and fees and the lack of control institutions of higher education seemed to possess over keeping education affordable and accessible.

Financing higher education has experienced some unprecedented changes in the last three decades. Baum and Ma (2010) indicated an increase of 140 percent in tuition rates of public institutions since 1980. Also, the source of support from state funds decreased seven percent (31 percent to 24 percent) and the share of funding coming from tuition and fees increased 13 percent (23 percent to 36 percent). Despite the dips in state support and hikes in student expenses, Desrochers et al. (2010) emphasized state spending remained approximately the same per student (on an inflation basis) throughout this 30 year time frame.

In future years of economic recovery, Boyd (2009) hypothesized higher education institutions would be unlikely to receive any increases in state funding. In the competition for scarce state funds, higher education appropriations must compete with other priorities of the state such as healthcare, K-12 education, the criminal justice system, and welfare (Altbach, Berdahl, & Gumport, 1999; Bound & Turner, 2007; Kallison & Cohen, 2010; Locker, 2012; McLendon et al., 2009; Russell, 2008). Boyd (2009) predicted considerable demands from other sources competing for state funding would cause even greater tax increases or cuts in public higher education budgets during an economic crisis and recovery. With this in mind, university leaders have to rely on alternative funding sources since current levels of state funding may not be guaranteed, and in most circumstances, a best case scenario in the future (Bound & Turner, 2007).

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research Questions

The following research questions guided the study:

1. Is there a significant difference between how participants rank the priority of higher education in the state budget as categorized by their political party affiliation (e.g. Democrat or Republican)?
2. Is there a significant difference between how participants rank the priority of higher education in the state budget as categorized by their professional background (e.g. education, business, or other)?
3. Is there a significant correlation between research participants' length of service in leadership position and how they rank the priority of higher education in the state budget?
4. Is there a significant difference between how participants rank the priority of higher education in the state budget as categorized by those whose parents have earned a college degree and those who have not earned a college degree?
5. Is there a significant difference between how participants rank the priority of higher education in the state budget as categorized by their district of residence (e.g. East, Middle, or West Tennessee)?
6. Is there a significant difference between how university administrators and state legislators rank the priority of higher education in the state budget?
7. Is there a significant difference between how participants rank the priority of higher education in the state budget as categorized by their level of educational attainment (e.g. graduate degree versus no graduate degree)?
8. Is there a significant difference between participants' political party affiliation (e.g. Democrat or Republican) and how they perceive access to higher education?
9. Is there a significant difference in opinion between university administrators and state legislators regarding higher education's use of reserves during weak economic times?
10. Is there a significant difference between how state legislators and higher education administrators respond to increases in tuition being associated with poor management of higher education costs, not changes in state appropriations?
11. Is there a significant difference between how state legislators and higher education administrators respond to increases in tuition being associated with decreases in state appropriations, not management of higher education leaders?
12. Is there a significant difference in opinion between administrators of higher education and state legislators in Tennessee concerning who should be responsible for paying the cost of higher education?
13. Is there a significant difference between how leaders in Tennessee public higher education and the state legislature perceive the importance of state appropriations for higher education?

Population

The population examined in this study was comprised of 33 members of the Tennessee Senate, 99 members of the Tennessee House of Representatives, the Executive Director of the Tennessee Higher Education Commission (THEC), the Chancellor of the Tennessee Board of Regents (TBR), the President of the University of Tennessee System, and 36 Chief Administrators at nine state-supported universities. For the purpose of this study, four administrators from each university were included in the quantitative portion: university president or chancellor, vice president for finance administration, vice president for academic affairs, and the vice president for student affairs.

Instrumentation

The survey instrument for this study was designed to assess individual perceptions regarding higher education funding. Two populations exist in this particular study, so it was important for the survey instrument to be free from bias and not appear to support a hidden agenda in order to produce accurate conclusions. A web-based survey was utilized in this study and link to the online questionnaire was emailed to research participants.

Data Collection

In order to generate a list of research participants for this study, the researcher gathered the names and contact information using online databases available to the public. Contact information for chief university administrators of Tennessee's public institutions was found using the respective institution's website. Members of the Tennessee General Assembly were listed in an online directory which provided individual contact information. Gathering direct contact information enabled the principal investigator to email participants an invitation to participate in the web-based survey assessment. Participants were provided a link to the questionnaire in the body of the email messages sent.

A few days after initial contact with research participants, the Lieutenant Governor Ron Ramsey emailed all the members of the Tennessee General Assembly a letter of support for the study asking for his colleagues' participation. Dr. Brian Noland, the President of East Tennessee State University, emailed the selected university administrators included in the study. In his email, the Dr. Noland expressed his support of the study and encouraged his colleagues' participation in the web-based survey.

RESULTS

Research Question 1

An independent samples *t* test was conducted to compare the difference between how participants rank the priority of higher education in the state budget as categorized by their political party affiliation (e.g. Democrat, Republican). Participants were asked to rank a set of budgeting priorities in order of importance, with 1 representing the highest of importance and 11 representing the lowest. Priorities included: Basic Education Program, Capital Projects, Children's Services, Corrections, Health, Higher Education, Human Services, K-12 Education, Mental Health and Mental Retardation (MHMR) Services, Tennessee Care Program, and Transportation. The budget ranking was the dependent variable and the political party was the independent variable.

The independent samples *t* test was not significant, $t(58) = 0.97$, $p = 0.34$; therefore, the null hypothesis was retained. Although not significant, findings suggested the Republican participants (M = 4.84, SD = 2.43) ranked the priority of higher education slightly lower in importance when considering the state budget than did Democratic participants (M = 4.27, SD =1.72). The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means was -1.75 to 0.61.

Research Question 2

A one-way ANOVA test was applied for Research Question 2 which sought to determine if any significance could be found between variables. The researcher wanted to verify if professional backgrounds of participants (e.g. education, business, or other) effected how participants ranked the priority of higher education in the state budget.

Participants were asked to rank a set of budgeting priorities in order of importance, with 1 representing the highest of importance and 11 representing the lowest. Priorities included: Basic Education Program, Capital Projects, Children's Services, Corrections, Health, Higher Education, Human Services, K-12 Education, Mental Health and Mental Retardation (MHMR) Services, Tennessee Care Program, and Transportation. The independent variable, professional background, included three different categories: education, business, and other. The dependent variable was the ranking of higher education in terms of priority in the state budget.

There was no significant findings from the ANOVA, $F(2, 64) = 1.25$, $p = 0.29$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained. As assessed by $\eta 2$, the strength of the relationship between professional background and ranking was small (0.04). In other words, only 4% of the variance in participants' ranking the priority of higher education in the state budget was affected by professional background.

Research Question 3

For the third research question, the principal investigator sought to determine if a correlation existed between participants' time in their current leadership role had any relationship to how they ranked higher education's priority in the state budget. A Pearson correlation coefficient was used to test the hypothesis. The results of the analysis revealed no significant relationship between years of service (M = 8.63, SD = 7.53) and budget ranking (M = 4.52, SD = 2.27) scores. No significant correlation existed [$r(67) = 0.11$, $p = 0.39$]; therefore, the null hypothesis was retained.

Research Question 4

An independent samples *t* test was conducted to compare the difference between how participants rank the priority of higher education in the state budget as categorized by those whose parents have earned a college degree and those who have not earned a college degree. Participants were asked to rank a set of budgeting priorities in order of importance, with 1 representing the highest of importance and 11 representing the lowest. Priorities included: Basic Education Program, Capital Projects, Children's Services, Corrections, Health, Higher Education, Human Services, K-12 Education, Mental Health and Mental Retardation (MHMR) Services, Tennessee Care Program, and Transportation. The budget ranking was the dependent variable and the political party was the independent variable.

The test was not significant, $t(65) = 0.45$, $p = 0.65$; therefore, the null hypothesis was retained. Although not significant, participants with parents who had earned a college degree (M = 4.65, SD =2.37) tended to rank the priority of higher education in the state's budget slightly lower in importance than those whose parents had not earned a college degree (M = 4.40, SD = 2.18). The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means was -1.37 to 0.86.

Research Question 5

A one-way ANOVA test was conducted to compare the difference between how participants rank the priority of higher education in the state budget as categorized by their district of residence. The dependent variable was budget ranking and the independent variable was the participants' district of residence. Districts included East, Middle, and West Tennessee.

The ANOVA was not significant, $F(2, 64) = 1.39$, $p = 0.26$. Therefore the null hypothesis was retained. As assessed by $\eta 2$, the strength of the relationship between district of residence and ranking of higher education in the state budget was small (0.11). In other words, only 11% of the variance in ranking the priority of higher education in the state budget was affected by participant's district of residence.

Research Question 6

An independent samples *t* test was conducted to compare the difference between how university administrators and state legislators rank the priority of higher education in the state budget. Participants were asked to rank a set of budgeting priorities in order of importance. Priorities included: Basic Education Program, Capital Projects, Children's Services, Corrections, Health, Higher Education, Human Services, K-12 Education, Mental Health and Mental Retardation (MHMR) Services, Tennessee Care Program, and Transportation. The budget ranking of higher education was the dependent variable and the independent variable was leadership position.

The test was significant, $t(65) = 2.28$, $p = 0.03$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. Participants holding a leadership position in higher education (M = 3.78, SD = 2.10) tended to rank the priority of higher education significantly higher in the state budget than members of the Tennessee General Assembly (M = 5.03, SD = 2.26). The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means was -2.34 to -0.15.

Research Question 7

An independent samples *t* test was conducted to compare the difference between how participants rank the priority of higher education in the state budget as categorized by their level of educational attainment (e.g. graduate degree versus no graduate degree). Participants were asked to rank a set of budgeting priorities in order of importance Priorities included: Basic Education Program, Capital Projects, Children's Services, Corrections, Health, Higher Education, Human Services, K-12 Education, Mental Health and Mental Retardation (MHMR) Services, Tennessee Care Program, and Transportation. The budget ranking was the dependent variable and the independent variable was educational attainment level.

The test was significant, $t(65) = 2.81$, $p < 0.01$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. Participants with no graduate degree (M = 5.48, SD = 2.20) tended to rank the priority of higher education significantly lower in the state budget than participants with a graduate degree (M = 3.95, SD = 2.13). The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means was 0.44 to 2.62.

Research Question 8

An independent samples *t* test was conducted to compare the difference between participants' political party affiliation (e.g. Democrat or Republican) and how they perceive access to higher education. The perception of access was the dependent variable and the independent variable was political party. The test was significant, $t(58) = 2.68$, $p = 0.01$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. Democratic participants (M = 1.50, SD = 0.51) tended to perceive access to higher education as more of an issue than Republican participants (M = 1.82, SD = 0.39). The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means was -0.55 to -0.08.

Research Question 9

An independent samples *t* test was conducted to compare the difference between opinions of university administrators and state legislators regarding higher education's use of reserves during weak economic times. The use of reserves was the dependent variable and the independent variable was leadership position Using a five-point Likert scale, participants selected their agreement with a statement: 1 representing strongly agree, 2 agree, 3 neutral, 4 disagree, and 5 strongly disagree. Therefore, lower numbers represent more agreement.

The test was significant, $t(65) = 2.65$, $p = 0.01$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. Members of the Tennessee General Assembly (M = 2.80, SD = 1.36) tended to agree more than leaders of higher education (M = 3.63, SD = 1.08) that public colleges and universities should utilize reserves to avoid increases in tuition during weak economic hardships. The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means was 0.20 to 1.45.

Research Question 10

An independent samples *t* test was conducted to compare the difference between how state legislators and higher education administrators respond to increases in tuition being associated with poor management of higher education costs, not changes in state appropriations. Poor management was the dependent variable and the independent variable was leadership position. Using a five-point Likert scale, participants selected their agreement with a statement: 1 representing strongly agree, 2 agree, 3 neutral, 4 disagree, and 5 strongly disagree. Therefore, lower numbers represent more agreement.

The test was significant, $t(65) = 5.18$, $p < 0.001$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. Leaders of higher education (M = 4.56, SD = 0.85) tended to disagree significantly more than members of the Tennessee General Assembly (M = 3.05, SD = 1.34) that increases in tuition being associated with poor management of higher education costs, not changes in state appropriations. The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means was 0.92 to 2.09.

Research Question 11

An independent samples *t* test was conducted to compare the difference between how state legislators and higher education administrators respond to increases in tuition being associated with decreases in state appropriations, not management of higher education leaders. Leadership position was the independent variable while the dependent variable was decreases in state appropriations. Using a five-point Likert scale, participants selected their agreement with a statement: 1 representing strongly agree, 2 agree, 3 neutral, 4 disagree, and 5 strongly disagree. Therefore, lower numbers represent more agreement.

The test was significant, $t(65) = 6.89$, $p < 0.001$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. Leaders of higher education (M = 1.59, SD = 0.50) tended to agree significantly more than members of the Tennessee General Assembly (M = 3.15, SD = 1.10) that increases in tuition being associated with decreases in state appropriations, not management of higher education leaders. The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means was -2.01 to -1.11.

Research Question 12

An independent samples *t* test was conducted to compare the difference in opinion between administrators of higher education and state legislators in Tennessee concerning who should be responsible for paying the cost of higher education. Leadership position was the independent variable while the dependent variable was student pay. Using a five-point Likert scale, participants selected their agreement with a statement: 1 representing strongly agree, 2 agree, 3 neutral, 4 disagree, and 5 strongly disagree. Therefore, lower numbers represent more agreement.

The test was significant, $t(65) = 2.95$, $p = 0.004$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. The leaders in the Tennessee General Assembly (M = 2.58, SD = 1.08) tended to agree more than leaders in higher education (M = 3.37 SD = 1.08) that the cost of Tennessee higher education should be largely paid for by the students. The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means was 0.25 to 1.33.

Research Question 13

An independent samples *t* test was conducted to compare the difference between how leaders in Tennessee public higher education and the state legislature perceive the importance of state appropriations for higher education. Leadership position was the independent variable while the dependent variable was importance of state appropriations. Using a five-point Likert scale, participants selected the level of importance state appropriations have as an issue of higher education: 1 representing most important, 2 very important, 3 moderately important, 4 slightly important, and 5 least important. Therefore, lower numbers represent more agreement.

The test was significant, $t(65) = 3.95$, $p < 0.001$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. The leaders in higher education (M = 1.67, SD = 0.78) marked the issue of state appropriations for higher education of higher importance than those from the Tennessee General Assembly (M =2.48, SD = 0.85. he 95% confidence interval for the difference in means was -1.22 to -0.40.

SUMMARY OF KEY FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

Eight out of thirteen research questions had statistically significant findings. Analysis of the data revealed that legislators and higher education administrators in the State of Tennessee perceived funding for higher education differently. There were significant differences between the two groups concerning: use of higher education reserves during weak economic times, the explanation for tuition rises, how much costs students should incur for higher education, level importance placed on state appropriations for funding higher education, and how they perceived priority of higher education in the state budget. There was a significant difference between one's political party affiliation and their perception of access to higher education. A significant difference was also found between one's education level and ranking of higher education in the state budget.

Although not significant, findings suggested the Democratic participants prioritized higher education slightly higher in the state budget than Republican participants. The response rate for the study may have been too low for a significant difference to be evident when testing this research question. However, Democratic participants tended to perceive access to higher education as significantly more of an issue than Republican participants.

Participants whose parents who had earned a college degree tended to rank the priority of higher education in the state's budget slightly, but not significantly, lower in importance than those whose parents had not earned a college degree. However, a significant difference was found between how participants rank the priority of higher education in the state budget as categorized by their level of educational attainment (e.g. graduate degree versus no graduate degree). Participants who have earned a graduate degree tended to prioritize higher education with significantly greater regard in the state budget than the participants with no graduate degree.

A significant difference was found between leadership position (e.g. university administrators and state legislators) and ranking of higher education's priority in the state budget. Respondents holding a leadership position in higher education tended to prioritize higher education with significantly greater regard in the state budget than the participants holding a leadership position in the Tennessee General Assembly. Members of the Tennessee General Assembly tended to agree significantly more than leaders of higher education that Tennessee public colleges and universities should utilize reserves to avoid increases in tuition during weak economic times. Furthermore, leaders of higher education tended to disagree significantly more than members of the Tennessee General Assembly that increases in tuition being associated with poor management of higher education costs, not changes in state appropriations.

Results demonstrated that higher education leaders tended to agree significantly more than Tennessee General Assembly that increases in tuition are associated with decreases in state appropriations, not management of higher education leaders. Also, leaders in the Tennessee General Assembly tended to agree significantly more than leaders in higher education that the cost of Tennessee higher education should be largely paid for by the students. Finally, leaders in Tennessee public higher education and the state legislature perceived significantly greater importance of state appropriations for higher education than legislators.

The future of funding for public higher education relies on the available research as to the needs and restraints. The differences in opinion between leaders in higher education and the state government in this study confirm greater communication must take place in order for any higher education reform to be constructive. Although findings from this study only pertain specifically to public higher education in the State of Tennessee and at the time the study was conducted, it is conceivable that the material presented could be utilized by both groups for the future development of public higher education.

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The Need to Practice What We Teach: The Sticky Floor Effect in Colleges of Business in Southern U.S. Universities

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ABSTRACT

The Sticky Floor Effect, a relatively new career advancement barrier concept, theorizes there exist obstacles for women preventing them from advancing to first level management positions. Of significant importance to institutions of higher learning's colleges of business, the Sticky Floor Effect highlights issues of consistency, moral implications, and credibility, as it is in these establishments where workplace anti-discriminatory hiring and promotion practices are taught to future business professionals. This study aims to explore if the colleges of business, which are responsible for teaching equal opportunity employment practices, are following their own instructions through advancing women into first level management positions. Included in this study is an analysis of five states' colleges and universities in which gender ratios of department chairs and directors within colleges of business are examined. The results of the analyses show evidence of a sticky floor impacting career advancement opportunities for women.

Discussions of equal opportunity employment are common in colleges of business, as the concept is both a demonstration of quality business practices and legally required for most organizations. Whether the discussion is in a management principles course, human resources course, or business law course, students are relentlessly lectured regarding the importance of implementing and following hiring and promotion practices that allow all employees to be evaluated and treated fairly and equally. While these discussions are commonplace in classrooms, the question remains if the practices of colleges of business' teachings are deficient in their own implementation. Should discrepancies exist, the obvious hypocritical practice may leave students and graduates of these institutions questioning the quality of their education, as it becomes a matter of faculty lectures presenting one theory while the implementation of the theory within the same functioning college of business remains lacking. This study aims to explore if the colleges of business, which are responsible for teaching equal opportunity employment practices, are following their own instructions through advancing women into first level management positions.

THE STICKY FLOOR EFFECT

Many theories examine the challenges presented in meeting equal employment practices, especially with regards to gender discrepancies, including wag gaps and glass ceilings. Another theory that assists in better understanding the employment practices with regards to gender equity, specifically promotions, is the sticky floor effect. As the theory explains, women experience great difficulty in entering first level management positions as a result of their qualifications being overlooked, and, therefore, their op-

portunities being limited. Given the challenges presented to women to gain first level management experience, the population of women in higher level management positions remains low. The fewer women in entry level management roles results in less women being considered for future career advancements, thus leading to the difficulty of organizations in diversifying their middle and upper level management positions.

Shadovitz (2011) reports that the issue of gender diversity in organizations supports the sticky floor effect more strongly than the glass ceiling effect in that managers in higher level positions are more likely to be diversified than entry level positions. This finding suggests the possibility of strategic and intentional promotions of women from entry level management positions to higher management positions, thus reducing the glass ceiling effect, as opposed to women in non-management positions as they seek to begin their management careers, which demonstrates the sticky floor effect in practice.

According to Levitan Spaid (1993) the sticky floor effect derived from Catherine White Berheide's 1992 study of women in low-paying government positions, in which it was found that women in entry level management positions was disproportionate to their male counterparts. Noble (1992) further concluded that over half of women working in country-wide government positions were categorized in the lowest paying roles. While these studies are limited to women's roles in government, Reichman and Sterling (2004) further found that women experienced great difficulty in entering management positions in other industries, especially those considered to be culturally male, such as business, academia, medicine, law, and sports.

Women's participation in organizational workforces has steadily increased from less than 25% in the early 20th century (Carnes & Kelley-Radojevich, 2011) to 47% in 2010 (Daughtery, 2012), however this increase is not reflected as significantly in management roles, meaning, many are unable to fulfill their greatest professional potential as a result of the challenges they face in entering management positions (Reichman & Sterling, 2004).

Disparities of women's experience, education, and work schedules do not fully account for the existing differences in women's workplace ranks and statuses (Reichman & Sterling, 2004). Discrimination and stereotyping of women in the workplace are the primary discussion points of the sticky floor effect literature. Intentional discrimination, referred to as disparate treatment, and unintentional discrimination, or disparate impact, are both strongly linked with the sticky floor effect. Each organization experiencing diversity issues in their management positions is different in their hiring and promotion processes, therefore each occurrence of the sticky floor effect with regards to disparate treatment or disparate impact are determined within the context of those specific situations.

Furthermore, the sticky floor effect literature also links the practice in organizations to descriptive stereotyping, such as physical traits, and prescriptive stereotyping, such as behavioral traits. More specifically, these stereotyping practices mean women are judged not on their qualifications and abilities to do a job, but on the perceived physical and behavioral characteristics of their gender resulting in a discrediting of them being successful in management positions (Pichler, Simpson, & Stroh, 2008). Additionally, assumptions of women being passive, fragile, more manipulative, and more emotional than men lead to destructive stereotyping that prevent them from entering management positions (Carnes & Kelley-Radojevich, 2011).

Society's assumptions of gender roles throughout history create barriers to women as they seek to advance professionally. Once people establish perceptions regarding women's roles in society they transfer those beliefs to the workplace, causing obstacles in fair consideration for women in roles they may be suited to hold. These obstacles, including the sticky floor effect, result in a lack of diversity throughout organizations. For example, higher level managers might experience coercion when making promotional and hiring decisions. Workplace social groups can also have a negative impact on career advancement opportunities for women, as who one interacts with can stifle potential opportunities (Harlan & White Berheide, 1994).

Further still to be considered are the challenges women present themselves that hinder their ability to experience upward mobility with regards to their careers (Seligson, 2008). More specifically, some experts hold that women often create internal barriers, such as their unwillingness to invest the necessary time and effort into building professional relationships, also known as playing the political games, in order to establish themselves as a serious contender for promotion (Leber, 2008). Women are often overlooked for advancement opportunities for which they are qualified due to their resistance to verbalize their goals and desires to be considered (Seligson, 2008).

Women in academics, specifically higher education, traditionally experience fewer advancement opportunities than men, as they are viewed as being both inflexible and unqualified with regards to their abilities to perform at higher levels. Higher education professionals are often expected to conduct research as a condition of promotions, an activity in which collaboration is common practice. Women's opportunities to conduct research are often more limited than men as they experience difficulties related to poor workload decisions and women commonly

obtain their Ph.D.'s later than men. Additionally, men often seek research opportunities whereas women are more passive in their research goals. Given that most universities consider research agendas to be a primary factor in promotions, women are at a disadvantage, thus less enter the ranks of management (Barrett & Barrett, 2010).

ARE COLLEGES OF BUSINESS STICKY IN THEIR EMPLOYMENT PRACTICES?

In general, the existence of the sticky floor effect has been proven, however knowledge of the practice in academia is questionable. Specifically, this study examines if the sticky floor effect is prevalent in colleges of business, where students learn fair employment practices. In a study of 44 colleges of business from institutions of higher learning in five southern states (Alabama, Arkansas, Louisiana, Mississippi, and Tennessee), the genders of first level management positions, specifically, department/division chairs and program directors (or the equivalent) were collected. The data were analyzed to determine the composition of the managers who serve in these positions.

With an 80.3% of men and 19.7% of women serving in first level management positions in the researched institutions, a clear discrepancy exists (See Figure 1).

When viewed by state, it becomes clear that the lack of women in first level management roles is an issue that is concerning, as equal representation of both genders is not evident in public institutions throughout the five states. In the five states there exists a significant disparity between the number of men and women in chair and director positions with women being significantly underrepresented. The state with the least representation of women in chair and director positions is Tennessee, which reported 11.4%. By comparison, Alabama, the state with the most representation of women in first level management positions, reported 30.6% (See Table 1 and Figure 2).

Figure 1
2011 Comparison of Men to Women

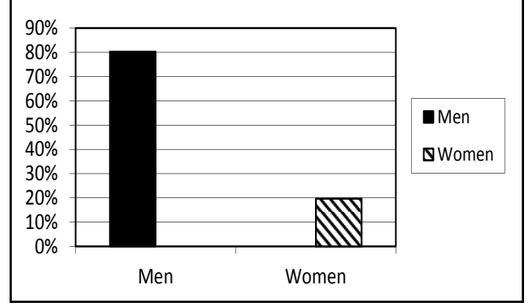


Table 1
2011 Statistical State Breakdown

State	Male	Female
Alabama	69.4%	30.6%
Arkansas	81.8%	18.2%
Louisiana	83.7%	16.3%
Mississippi	76.2%	23.8%
Tennessee	88.6%	11.4%

Furthermore, data were collected of the gender composition of deans, provost/vice presidents for academic affairs, and presidents/chancellors (or the equivalent positions) to determine the gender of the middle and upper level managers making hiring and promotion decisions for the chair and director positions.

Overall, men accounted for 77% of the employees holding deans, provost/vice presidents for academic affairs, and presidents/chancellors (or the equivalent) positions and women accounted for 23% of the employees in these positions. On the state level, the discrepancy is more evident (See Figure 3).

Each state's institutions' gender composition for their president/chancellor position demonstrates the vast majority of the top academic leaders in the states are predominately men with three states employing no women in the role (See Figure 4).

Each state's institutions' gender composition for their provost/vice president for academic affairs position demonstrates the vast majority of the top academic leaders in the states are predominately men (See Figure 5). One state, Arkansas is an exception as it employs more women (56%) than men (44%).

Each state's institutions' gender composition for their business dean position demonstrates the vast majority of the top academic leaders in the states are predominately men (See Figure 6). Mississippi's gender breakdown, however, provides a counter to the other states as it had a 50-50 split, thus resulting in equal representation of both genders in the role.

Figure 2
2011 Comparison of Men to Women by State

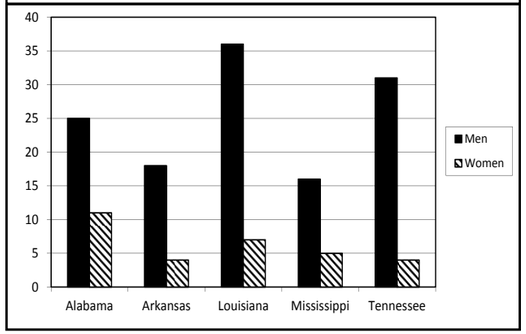


Figure 3
2011 Comparison of Men to Women in Deans, Provost/Vice President for Academic Affairs and President/Chancellor Positions by State

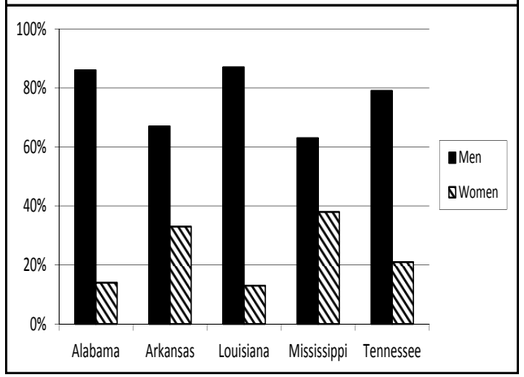


Figure 4
2011 Comparison of Men to Women in President/ Chancellor Positions by State

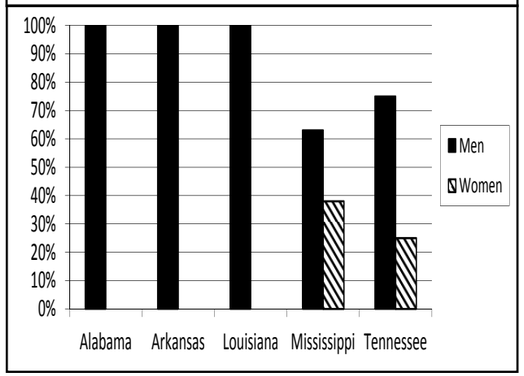


Figure 5
2011 Comparison of Men to Women in Provost/Vice President for Academic Affairs Positions by State

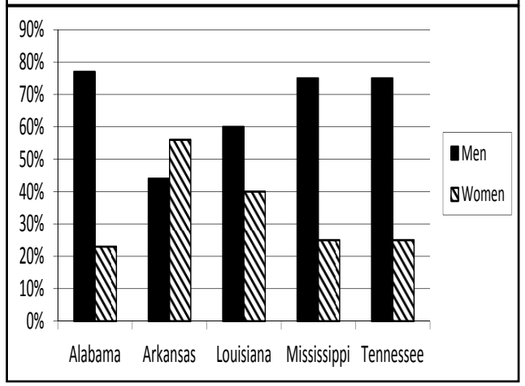
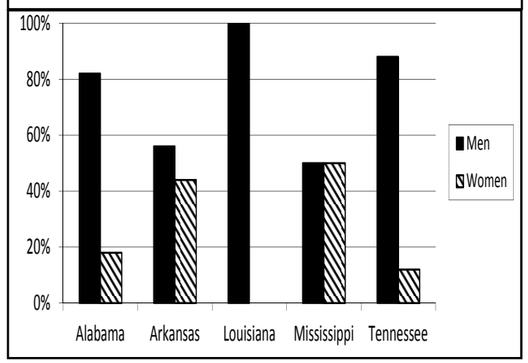


Figure 6
2011 Comparison of Men to Women in Business Dean Positions by State



DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Analysis of the collected data revealed the colleges of business in the five states of this study do not appear to adhere to fair hiring and promotion practices of women into entry level management positions, thus supporting the notion of the existence of a sticky floor effect. The consistency of the disparity between the genders in chair and director positions in all five states indicates a trend in preventing women from holding those positions. Although each of the states yield varying results, none of them exhibit gender equality.

These results open up discussion of the possibility of the practice of disparate impact, as women appear to be inadvertently disproportionately excluded from many promotional opportunities. Colleges of business may not be intentionally discriminating against women through apparent practices, but the results of the study indicate the practices they do employ favor the promotions and hiring of men over women to entry level management positions.

The results of this study indicate colleges of business may not be cognizant of their discriminatory practices towards women. The primary concern resulting from this realization is that ignorance to an issue leads to the continuance of that issue. While other industries and academic environments may not be scrutinized as thoroughly, colleges of business are one of the main proponents of diversity and equality in the workforce. A business school cannot expect its graduates to one day employ practices of equality and diversity if it is not demonstrating the practice. Having a "Do as I say and not as I do" environment can subconsciously teach students it is appropriate to discriminate given they acknowledge it is unacceptable.

Further scrutiny of the data reveals that the hiring and promotion practices may not be as unintentional as theorized, but rather a practice of disparate treatment. The gender composition of those in middle and upper level administrative positions, specifically the business deans, provosts/vice presidents for academic affairs, and presidents/chancellors (or equivalent positions), are overwhelmingly held by men. This revelation indicates that the decision makers may selectively choose men to hire or promote into chairs and directors positions, resulting in a "boy's club" of sorts.

A working environment lacking diversity can prevent growth opportunities. Placing the correct person in the correct position will allow the overall organization to benefit from that individual's leadership skills. Through eliminating preconceived beliefs of what type of managers are needed in positions and focusing on matching the organization's needs with the applicant qualifications, diversity is likely to occur. Any organization that does not effectively embrace and initiate diversity is shortchanging itself.

CONCLUSION

Colleges of business especially have a considerable impact on setting workplace trends as a significant amount of time is spent educating future business professionals on the best equal opportunity and diversity practices to utilize. It is the colleges of business that essentially establish hiring standards in industry as a result of what they emphasize regarding acceptable and unacceptable employment practices. It is for this critical reason students need to observe the application of their classroom experiences in practice. Hiring managers within the colleges of business should ensure women are provided equal opportunities to their male counterparts.

Beyond academia, women remain considerably underrepresented in entry level management positions in the workplace, a factor of which is likely due to the sticky floor effect. Although current hiring and promotional practices may not be as obvious and directly discriminatory as in the past, the consequences nevertheless lead to the same effect. Colleges of business have the power to implement changes in the business environment.

Opportunities for the further advancement of women do appear to be hopeful as changes and shifts in the workforce take place. Continuous changes in workforce demographics means generational, cultural, and gender differences will need to be further embraced in an effort to encourage these changes throughout the organization. More women than ever possess the skills and talents needed to advance up the career ladder (Shambaugh, 2006).

As promising as the opportunities may look for women, many companies have yet to take initiatives to address the issue as over 71% have failed to implement women leadership programs (Evans, 2011). As Yap and Konrad (2009) found it is to an organization's advantage to address discriminatory barriers against women. Diverse work environments have been linked to higher levels of innovation, better problem solving, and higher levels of organizational performance. Thus, organizations seeking to advance often take the necessary steps to diversify their workforces.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

All research has limitations, which affect the outcomes and conclusions of the study. Through examining these limitations, future researchers can be better equipped to understand the challenges associated with the study, as well as the differences that can occur and improve upon the existing research.

Although the findings of the research reveal evidence of a sticky floor effect in colleges of business, the study was limited to one year of data. Therefore, any conclusions derived from the results of this study should be interpreted with caution. This could be used as an avenue for longitudinal research, which would provide a clearer picture of possible discriminatory trends. The study was also limited to public institutions in five states in the southern region of the United States. Furthermore, this study provided data specifically for colleges of business, thus limiting knowledge of discrepancies in other areas of the institutions.

Another limitation of this study involves the generalizability of the results of this particular research. As previously noted, the data collected was limited to a specific region of the country and only included one component of institutions in five states. Therefore, it is not certain that the findings will yield similar results across other regions, private institutions, and beyond the college of business. Finally, this study is exploratory in nature and has provided some promising results.

FUTURE RESEARCH

While the findings of this study provide some promising results, there are several areas that need to be addressed in future research. One could explore other regions of the country to determine if there are discrepancies in those areas, and, if so, the extent to which the sticky floor effect exists across the country. Such data would identify trends across the nation and determine what regions are more likely to discriminate against women.

Also, continued research could be conducted using private institutions to determine if their hiring and promotion practices mirror that of the public institutions. Should it be determined that private institutions do not experience similar difficulties, then a study of their practices and policies could benefit the public institutions experiencing gender discrepancies.

Additional research would allow for the exploration of gender composition of faculty and staff for each school beyond the college of business. For example, a comparison of the college of business gender makeup of chairs and directors to the other campus entities and the entire university to determine if there exists a correlation. The results would determine if colleges of business hold the same, higher, or lower standards to those other units and the overall university.

Future research could also focus on colleges of business at institutions beyond the United States of America. This would provide a larger understanding of the role of women worldwide in higher education. Also, expanding to global research would provide a better understanding of if the sticky floor effect exists internationally and, if so, to what extent.

Finally, the sticky floor effect provides insight into gender differences in employment practices. However, through expanding this research to study the impact ethnicities, nationalities, and races of women have on their opportunities to advance to first level management positions would provide greater insight and understanding. Being able to identify specific groups of women who experience greater challenges in career advancement would allow organizations to implement appropriate programs.

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Race to the Paycheck: Merit Pay and Theories of Teacher Motivation

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ABSTRACT

Recent reforms in teacher evaluation tie these evaluations to student performance as measured by test scores and merit pay has been offered as a way to reward high test scores and improve teacher performance. Thus, the federal Race to the Top program has led several states toward teacher evaluation instruments that incorporate outcome data in the form of student achievement. In most states, this is the first step in the plan to institute a pay for performance program for teachers, also known as merit pay. This paper analyzes the concept of merit pay through the lens of equity theory. Equity theory provides a framework to organize a workplace that is equitable, consistent, and free of self-interest. Readers are challenged to consider the implications of merit pay in light of equity theory and resultant issues for educational policy and practice.

RACE TO THE PAYCHECK

Merit pay has long been a favored method in both the public and private sector to motivate employees and produce higher outcomes (Shaw, Duffy, Mitra, Lockhart, & Bowler, 2003). Despite mixed results on the effectiveness of merit pay, the public education sector has implemented merit pay programs throughout the 20th and 21st centuries (Cohen & Murnane, 1985; Podgursky & Springer, 2011). Some have lauded merit pay, asserting that without rewarding teachers monetarily on the quality of work, "there is no incentive for a teacher to do a good job" (Figlio & Kenny, 2007, p. 901).

There are inconsistencies with findings related to the effectiveness of merit pay (Arrowsmith & Marginson, 2010; Dee & Keys, 2004; Figlio & Kenny, 2007; Kellough & Lu, 1993; Marsden & Richardson, 1994; Schaubroeck, Shaw, Duffy, & Mitra, 2008; Springer et al., 2010). Some scholars have attributed merit pay to increased productivity and motivation (Bloom & Milkovich, 1998; Chang, 2006). Other researchers report that merit pay has an adverse effect on teacher productivity and motivation (Arrowsmith & Marginson, 2010; Kellough & Lu, 1993; Marsden & Richardson, 1994; Scott, Shaw, & Duffy, 2008; Shaw et al., 2003). Not only are there differences in the findings of merit pay studies, there are differences in the conceptual frameworks that scholars have used to examine this important topic.

Conceptual frameworks serve as lenses into a phenomenon and provide varying perspectives on the topic. Variables are operationalized in research studies depending upon the conceptual framework employed (Hoy & Miskel, 2008). Researchers have analyzed merit pay through the lens of agency theory and expectancy theory with mixed results (Bloom & Milkovich, 1998; Chang, 2006; Cohen & Murnane, 1985; Figlio & Kenny, 2007; Kellough & Lu, 1993; Oah & Lee, 2011; Scott et al., 2008; Shaw et al., 2003; Sindelar, 2008). To date, few studies have examined the topic of merit pay through the lens of equity theory. Some have referred to equity theory as organizational justice, or creating environments that are equitable, consistent, and free of self-interest (Greenberg & Colquitt,

2005). The purpose of this paper is to use equity theory to examine merit pay for public school teachers in a review of empirical studies over the past decade. Readers are challenged to consider the implications of merit pay in light of equity theory and resultant issues for educational policy and practice.

MERIT PAY AND TEACHER EVALUATIONS

In the state of Tennessee, administrators and policymakers are using federal *Race to the Top* funds to reform the way teachers are evaluated. The new teacher evaluation model leads to a merit pay process to reward teachers for "'improved student achievement and accept[ing] more responsibilities for lifting up their schools'" (Sarrio, 2009). There is a relationship between teacher effectiveness and student achievement; teachers can greatly enhance and impact student success. Furthermore, teacher evaluations have traditionally been instructionally-based with a focus on teacher pedagogy and instructional practices. However, the difference in the proposed evaluation process is that merit pay will incentivize student performance as a construct of teacher performance. Thus, the federal *Race to the Top* program has led several states, including Tennessee, toward teacher evaluation instruments that incorporate outcome data in the form of student achievement. In most states, this is the first step in the plan to institute a pay for performance program for teachers, also known as merit pay.

Merit pay has existed since the modern public education system (Cohen & Murnane, 1985). Currently, teacher compensation in most states is primarily based on education level and years of experience (Podgursky & Springer, 2011). This has not always been the case; incentive systems were more common in the early 20th century (Figlio & Kenny, 2007). Historically, merit pay programs have emerged in response to significant events where policymakers have blamed education as the impetus or cited education as the solution. Merit pay programs wanted after World War II, resurging after the launch of Sputnik, faded once again, and resurrected after the publication of *A Nation at Risk* (Pearce & Perry, 1983). Merit pay is once again becoming part of many educational reform movements in the United States (Figlio & Kenny, 2007). As in the past, policymakers are criticizing public education for the downward turn in the country's economic condition and world standing. In addition to this reaction-response merit pay implementation cycle, states that have long histories of merit pay are still holding on to these pay systems even though the results do not show they have garnered any gains in student achievement (Kellough & Lu, 1993).

THEORY

In the 1990s, agency theory emerged as the main theory guiding the research on merit pay (Bloom & Milkovich, 1998). Agency theory is based on the assumption that people want to avoid risk or hard work and a supervisor must account for this by creating a compensation system that compels the worker to work while minimizing risk (Jensen, 1983). This theory is inadequate for studying merit pay in the current public education system since numerous studies have found teachers to be motivated by reasons other than economic (Besley & Ghatak, 2005; Cohen & Murnane, 1985; Kellough & Lu, 1993; Marsden & Richardson, 1994). The overarching assumption in agency theory is that agents, or teachers, need an economic reason to show up to work every day. Inherently absent in teacher merit pay studies with the lens of agency theory is the accommodation or inclusion of intrinsic variables of motivation, specifically non-economic variables in light of overwhelming evidence that a vast majority of public school teachers are intrinsically motivated.

Expectancy theory has also been used as a theoretical basis for examining merit pay (Kellough & Lu, 1993). Expectancy theory assumes that people "make decisions among alternative plans of behavior based on their perceptions or expectations of the degree to which given behaviors will lead to desired outcomes" (p. 47). When scholars have applied the constructs of expectancy theory to merit pay, they have likewise positioned teachers as economically motivated. In expectancy theory, teacher expectations are examined as a function of behavior. Studies have demonstrated that teachers' pedagogical decisions (or behaviors) are made with the expectations (or motivations) of increased student learning. Expectancy theory posits teacher behavior is a function of expectations for an increase in compensation.

Therefore, when examining the topic of merit pay, neither agency theory nor expectancy theory is appropriate since these two theories do not accommodate non-economic variables or motivations associated with teacher performance. This could explain why merit pay has often been unsuccessfully adopted by school systems and is usually attacked by teacher unions (Arrowsmit & Marginson, 2010). A better way to examine merit pay, teacher behaviors, and student achievement is to utilize equity theory as the conceptual framework.

Equity theory is based on perceived fairness and whether individuals believe they are being treated fairly in an organization (Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005). Workers' inputs and outputs are considered in equity theory. Applying equity theory to merit pay, compensation would be an input and work would be an output. One of the tenets of equity theory is that people are demotivated to work when they perceive their output is not equal to their input. If their input is intrinsic, then workers can directly relate their output to their input; however, if the focus of the input is economic, then often workers have trouble relating their input to their output (Shaw et al., 2003). To illustrate, teachers who teach AP courses expect to give more output in the form of planning, grading, and preparation while their input is in the form of prestige for teaching the course and student scores on the AP exam both of which validate the extra time it takes to teach the course.

Guided by equity theory, merit pay poses some potential threats to teacher morale and teaching performance. The ultimate goal of education is to advance student-learning (Wiggins & McTighe, 2007). If teachers are focused on student learning only as a function of their outputs, then their behaviors, or inputs, will exemplify this. When merit pay systems are introduced, however, the goal of the teacher changes to include outcomes that result in increased compensation. If goals are mastery-based, then they can enhance the performance of an individual worker because mastery will then become the input the worker expects for their output. If goals are monetary, then typically they can have dangerous "side effects", such as focusing attention "so narrowly that people overlook other important features of a task" (Ordonez, Schweitzer, Galinsky, & Braverman, 2009, p. 6). In education, this type of narrow focus has been manifested by unnoticed behaviors such as not teaching a rich curriculum in a narrow focus on state exams. More significantly, there have been increased occurrences of cheating on state-wide exams. While most teachers might not resort to cheating because of compensation, the brain reacts differently to monetary rewards than it does to other inputs (Knutson, Adams, Fong, & Hommer, 2001). This dopamine reaction could explain why goals and thus behavior changes once rewards are introduced. In essence, the teacher becomes "addicted to rewards" (Souvorov, 2003, para. 4) and will change her focus to earn the reward instead of, or in addition to, student learning. As a result, merit pay carries some risk of changing teachers' focus and, as a result, the mission of the school that a traditional compensation system does not. Alfie Kohn's *Punished by Rewards* addressed the many unintended consequences that occur in educational settings when behavior is linked to rewards (Kohn, 1999).

The traditional teaching salary structure is viewed by many economists as inequitable, and scholars have examined whether unbalanced salaries for starting teachers cause teachers to leave their current school systems or to leave the career entirely (Podgursky & Springer, 2011). One limitation of equity theory as it applies to the salary structure is that teachers are giving similar outputs but receiving different inputs. However, teachers who are motivated by intrinsic motivators such as the mission of their school do not need rewards because the effects of the intrinsic already maximize productivity (Besley & Ghatak, 2005, p. 627). Moreover, Frey (1997) asserts that monetary rewards can have a negative effect on intrinsic motivation and productivity, particularly for those who are primarily intrinsically motivated. As a result, the input-output assumption put forth by equity theory is not a good fit for education because it only addresses teachers who value the financial motivation to teach and ignores those who cite other reasons for choosing the career.

DISCUSSION AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

Equity theory presents three major limitations of merit pay for teachers. The first is the limitation of what teachers determine is fair. In merit pay systems, teachers who are doing the same job may not receive the same pay. A second implication for practice is the process of deciding how merit pay is allocated and implemented. Third, a final implication for practice and limitation of merit pay in the lens of equity theory is that teachers of low aptitude, low performing students can be unnecessarily punished for student scores that are not under the teacher's direct control.

Important in the dialogue is that student achievement involves the student *and* the teacher. A computational algorithm to calculate teacher pay as a function of student achievement, regardless of its sophistication, will be unable to capture and separate student effort from teacher effort. Giving teachers merit pay for student achievement on standardized tests has its own set of problems. Since not every teacher has a student-achievement test attached to her subject, merit pay could cause some "deterioration in the atmosphere at work, producing a degree of [faculty] jealousies and a decline in morale" (Marsden & Richardson, 1994, p. 258).

If merit pay is rewarded based on evaluations, then teachers may focus more on bureaucratic process of having good teacher evaluations. It seems logical that these evaluations would result in better teaching performance and increased student achievement, but students of teachers who were part of Tennessee's former merit pay system called "Career Ladder" did not show significant gains on standardized tests based on a matrix of evaluations and other extra teaching duties. Instead, it was criticized "as overly burdensome [and] stressed cunning and endurance rather than merit" (Dee & Keys, 2004, p. 475).

If a teacher's focus is on student achievement on standardized-tests, then this could result in the documented unintentional, but consequential negative behaviors by teachers who want to earn merit pay based on the results of the

tests. Merit pay could produce results similar to punitive procedures that have resulted in teachers falsifying results of standardized tests.

Deciding who deserves to receive merit pay is also problematic from a point of view of equity. If teacher observations are used to determine merit pay, then under one of the current models that Tennessee is using, teachers with tenure are only observed for fifteen minutes on four separate occasions. In a 180 day school year, this does not seem adequate to determine how well someone is teaching. A more robust model for evaluating teachers would be necessary, but it is unlikely teachers would invest the time into it to receive the reward (Dee & Keys, 2004). In addition, many workers are suspicious of having their pay tied to performance (Marsden & Richardson, 1994), and often feel like politics are part of what should be an objective evaluation (Salimaki & Jamsen, 2010). Percy and Pearce (1983) claim that the problems in this performance appraisal aspect make merit pay fail as a source of motivation.

Despite all of the considerations, many school systems and the state of Tennessee continue exploring the adoption of merit pay systems. Indeed, Mayor Rahm Emanuel recently announced the acquisition of $5 million to fund a merit pay plan for principals that will expand to teachers (Spielman and Rossi, 2011). In the face of research and theories that suggest that merit pay does not work in public education, it is still cyclically considered a bandage, if not panacea, for improvements in education. The public sector is loath to dismiss merit pay as an option because of its intuitive appeal as something that works in business (and where is the evidence that it works in business?); that teachers are finally going to be paid what they're worth; it saves money by only rewarding teachers who deserve it; and, it works if you remove the glitches (Kellough & Lu, 1993). Negative aspects of merit pay can include poor teaching practices that seek only improved student performance on exams, lowered teacher morale, and a lowered organization-based self-esteem (Scott, Shaw, & Duffy, 2008). Whether examining merit pay through agency, expectancy, or equity theory, merit pay offers more problems than solutions.

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Issues Causing Stress Among Business Faculty Members

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ABSTRACT

This study examines factors contributing to faculty stress. Factors including demographics, tenure, discipline, and teaching medium are all examined. Whereas once faculty members were inundated with learning new electronic technology (and the stress it created), many appear to have become somewhat comfortable with this change and have adapted to expectations of online teaching/learning. The latest trends in stress factors affecting higher education are more likely related to changes in the economic and political environment, workload expectations, preparation time and issues of interpersonal communication.

INTRODUCTION

It's never easy. This statement could not be truer than for the job of faculty members, who are often required to wear "many hats." The general population may think that faculty members are just teachers, but this is a serious misconception. In most institutions of higher education, faculty members are required to teach, conduct scholarly research, and provide service to the university and the community at large. Though expectations of these three requirements will vary, they create an interesting dynamic where faculty performance outcomes can be influenced by a considerable number of external (and uncontrollable) variables. This study examines several of the factors that lead to stress and burnout of faculty. Specifically, we examine the role of incorporating and "keeping pace with" electronic and online technology as a potential stressor (Kim, 2012).

LITERATURE REVIEW

According to a 1995 edited book by Murphy, Hurrell, Sauter, & Keita (1995), "job stress in the US workforce is on the increase. Among the causes are downsizing, reorganization, the pressures of global competition, and constantly changing new technology." The evidence continues to mount. For example, a Princeton research group's study revealed that "three-quarters of the employees surveyed believe there is more on-the-job stress than a generation ago" (Williams, 2013). A Canadian stress specialist, David Posen, identified three problems that have created extra stress in the workplace: workload volume, workload pace (technology's impact) and abuse (rude people and

game-playing) (Jayson, 2013; also see Bittman, 2008; Friedberg, 2003; and Johnson, 2006).

Electronic technology is one factor that has affected the work environment both positively and negatively, and this also applies to the academic work environment. Electronic technology helps us manage and organize our work environments and can save time and energy (Hopson, 2013). However, it produces additional stress as workers feel that they are expected to do more with less time, adapt to changes in technology without training, allocate precious work time to training sessions when offered, interact less with each other, and fear being replaced by the technology (Hurley, 2013; also see Schlenker and Mendelson, 2008). In fact, there's a term for this type of stress: technostress (Brod, 1984; Well & Rosen, 1998). For examples of research on technostress, see Ayyagari, Grover, & Purvis, 2011; Kupersmith, 2003; Tu, Wang, & Shu, 2005; B. Ragu-Nathan, T. Ragu-Nathan, Tu, & Tarafdar, 2004, Tarafdar, Tu, T. Ragu-Nathan, & B. Ragu-Nathan, 2011, and Rich, 2000. Professors in higher education can relate to these feelings as well.

Michie (2002) noted that the workplace offers both multiple sources of stress as well as resources that can reduce stress (p. 68). She identified the five sources of stress as being intrinsic to the job (e.g., work overload), role in the firm (e.g., role ambiguity), career development (e.g., lack of job security), work relationships, and structure/climate (e.g., financial difficulties) (Figure 1, p. 68). Workplace stress is also affecting family life. A Pew Research Center study recently found that "56% of working moms and 50% of working dads say they find it very or somewhat difficult to balance" work and family life (Parker & Wang, 2013; also see "More Women Online," 2007; "Setting Boundaries," 2003).

Some researchers have focused on workplace stress in the academic setting. King (2002) created a "laundry list" of factors that contribute to faculty stress. Researchers found that the lack of time was a major stress factor for MIT faculty (Snover, 2008). Four years later, another study revealed a feeling of faculty being overwhelmed by their workload, as they reported working an average of 63 hours in a typical work week (MIT Faculty Newsletter, 2012). Faculty at California State – Long Beach reported experiencing more stress with not enough workload time, conducting academic research, meeting with students and handling departmental politics (CSU, 2011).

McLean (2009) studied the perceptions of distance learning faculty using Gmelch's Faculty Stress Index (FSI) (Gmelch, Wilke, & Lovrich, 1986) and the Delphi technique. Scale items dealing with workload and student interaction were key stressors. Donovan (2012) used the FSI in a study of humanities and social science faculty members at Kennesaw State in Georgia and found significant differences by gender and rank. A national study by the Higher Education Research Institute (Jaschik, 2012) reported that key stressors for faculty members were self-imposed expectations, lack of personal time, underprepared students, household responsibilities, institutional "red tape" and, for public schools, budget cuts (also see Berrett, 2012). Financial issues, both institutional and personal, have come under study of late (see, e.g., Abdul-Alim, 2012; Faculty Focus, 2012; Prisco, 2012; Ramirez, 2012).

METHODOLOGY

The questionnaire used by Schuldt and Totten (2008) was modified by the current authors for use in this study. The same 31 items from Gmelch's factor-analyzed Faculty Stress Index (FSI) (Gmelch, Wilke, & Lovrich, 1986; Gmelch, 1993) plus one item on serving as faculty advisor for a student organization, five health care items, and 12 technology 24/7 demand items and other questions from the original survey were kept. In addition, the 16-item Burnout Scale (Demerouti, Mostert, & Bakker, 2010) was added, and other demographic variables were modified as needed. Four questions about retirement were also added. The long survey was loaded onto Survey Monkey, an online survey software tool.

The target population was defined as business faculty in five disciplines from all business schools in the USA accredited by AACSB. Graduate students generated a list of AACSB schools from the AACSB website as well as from a list maintained by the University of Texas on its website. A total of 159 schools were identified for the target population. The grad students were instructed in writing by one of the authors to draw a random sample in the following manner: go to each school's website and identify its Accounting professors; count the number of professors; pick the fifth professor listed from the top (or the second, if less than five total professors); record name, discipline, school and e-mail address; repeat for Economics/Finance (sixth or third), Information Systems (fifth or second), Management (third), and Marketing (ninth or second) professors. The random numbers were chosen by using generators for numbers between one and ten and dice (one and six), found at www.randomnumbergenerator.com (2013). The estimated sample size was 795 (five times 159).

The grad students provided another author with two lists of professors around April 4th and 5th of this year. The professor sent out the survey link and introductory paragraph e-mail to the first list (batch) of 301 professors on April 4th. She sent the message and link out on April 5th to the second list/batch (256 professors). Thus the sample size was revised downward to 557 professors. Three potential respondents initially opted out. Forty faculty members responded to the first e-mail wave. The author sent out a second wave to the two batches on April 10th. This generated another 32 responses. A third wave went out April 17th and generated 11 responses, for a total sample of 83 faculty. However, the length of the survey was a problem, creating many item omissions, and leaving under 60 useful responses. One major consequence of this was that the FSI items could not be subjected to factor analysis in order to be compared with Gmelch, Wilke and Lovrich's (1986) factors.

Another author analyzed the data set and created additional variables, including categorizing the waves and estimating how long each respondent spent on the questionnaire using the recorded time stamps, categorizing each respondent's state by e-mail address, and creating recoded variables for age, years of teaching and region (based on state). The following statistical analyses were conducted: frequencies, crosstabulations/chi square analysis, t-tests, ANOVA, and Kruskal-Wallis nonparametric tests. The focus of this paper is on the FSI portion of the questionnaire.

RESULTS

Respondent Profile

Respondents took an average of 8.65 minutes (S.D. = 11.86) to take our survey. Twenty-three spent three minutes or less on the survey, which was reflected in our item omissions. Seven took six minutes, six spent 10 minutes, and one spent 96 minutes on the instrument. Faculty were located primarily in New York (9), Pennsylvania (7), Texas (6), Florida (6) and Illinois (5). Given the small sample size, states were recoded into regions. Most of the respondents came from the Southern (34/83, 31%) and Midwest (24/83, 28.9%) regions of the USA. Over half (32/60, 53.3%) reported using a computer 6-10 hours during an average work day, and a similar percentage (31/59, 52.5%) reported using a computer 2-5 hours during a typical non-work day.

Most of the faculty members (48/56, 85.7%) were tenured or on tenure track. Almost three-quarters of those who responded were either full (23/57, 40.4%) or associate professors (19/57, 33.3%). Roughly a fourth of the members (14/57, 24.6%) were between the ages of 51 and 55, while 10 (17.5%) were between the ages of 56 and 60. The younger age categories were merged together for purposes of analysis, resulting in a size of 17 respondents (29.8%). Over 70% (40/56) have been teaching at least 16 years or more. The three lower categories were recoded into one (15 years or less) for purposes of analysis. Approximately 60% of those responding (34/57) were male and over 85% (47/55) were married.

Most of the faculty members had earned Ph.D. degrees (50/57, 87.7%). Management (13/53, 24.5%), Marketing (12/53, 22.6%) and Accounting (10/53, 18.9%) professors primarily made up the respondents. Thirty-one respondents (54.5%) do not teach online classes. Of the 26 who do, the most frequently reported formats were hybrid (20) and fully online (17; multiple responses allowed). Exactly half of those who answered the question (28/56) said they were more than 10 years away from retirement. Twelve (21.4%) said they were six to ten years away. Faculty members were asked about the impact of economic and political environments and personal/professional stress at work on their retirement decision. The most frequent response to all three was "has not changed my decision" (60.7%, 66.1% and 80.4%, respectively).

Crosstabulations and chi square analysis were conducted first on the demographic variables to see if any significant differences existed. Female faculty tended to be younger (ages 51 to 60) whereas males tended to be older (ages 61+) ($\chi 2 = 13.287$, df = 4, p = .01, cell size problem = 50%). Respondents who were tenured or on tenure track tended to have been teaching for more than 10 years while those not on tenure track tended to have been teaching only a year or less ($\chi 2 = 13.174$, df = 4, p = .01, cell size problem = 70%). Respondents from the Northeast region were closer to retirement (≤ three years) while those from the Midwest and Southern regions were further away (six or more years; $\chi 2 = 20.902$, df = 12, p = .052, cell size problem = 85%). Finally, younger faculty members (30-50) tended to use computers six to ten hours during an average work day. Those between the ages of 51 and 55 and 61 and 65 tended to use computers over 10 hours during a typical work day ($\chi 2 = 15.085$, df = 8, p = .058, cell size problem = 73.3%).

The three retirement impact questions were subjected to the Kruskal-Wallis nonparametric test along with the FSI items (next section) and significant differences emerged. Full professors were more likely to indicate that both the economic and the political environments have postponed their retirement decision (moved it farther away) as compared to instructors (economic, K-W p = .014) and associate professors (political, K=W p = .015). Faculty members who have been teaching 20 years or more were affected by the economic environment, indicating they've postponed their retirement decision (K-W p = .052), versus those with less than 16 years of teaching experience.

Overview of FSI Items & Significant Differences

For the FSI scale items, a score of "1" indicated "slight pressure" while a score of "5" indicated "excessive pressure." Respondents could also choose "Not Applicable." The average degree of pressure felt by respondents was low for two items: "Making class presentations" (mean = 1.5, SD = 0.96, n=52) and "Not having clear criteria for evalu-

ating research ..." (mean = 1.814, SD = 1.385, n=43). One item, "Feeling that I have too heavy a work load ...," had the highest rated degree of pressure (moderate, mean = 3.0714, SD = 1.548, n=56).

Two demographic variables were not used in statistical analyses due to the one-sided responses: marital status and highest degree earned, The 32 items were analyzed for the rest of the demographic variables using t-tests and ANOVA/Kruskal-Wallis as appropriate. Several significant findings are reported in the paragraphs that follow.

Looking first at those who teach online versus those who don't, six items were statistically significant. Those who teach online felt more pressure with regard to "Evaluating the performance of students" (means: 3.12 vs. 2.23; t = 2.772, df = 55, p = .008) and "Making presentations at professional conferences and meetings" (2.84 vs. 2.18; t = 1.852, df = 38.84, p = .072, equal variances not assumed). Online teachers also felt more pressure towards "Having inadequate time for teaching preparation" (2.8 vs. 2.15; t = 1.776, df = 50, p = .082), "Writing letters and memos, and responding to other paper work" (2.58 vs. 1.83; t = 2.361, df = 42.364, p = .023, equal variances not assumed), "Resolving differences with students" (2.67 vs. 1.83; t = 2.08, df = 33.466, p = .045, equal variances not assumed), and "Resolving differences with my chair" (2.5 vs. 1.75; t = 1.757, df = 40, p = .087).

Only two items were statistically significant by gender. Female faculty felt more pressure with regard to "Receiving inadequate university recognition for community service" (2.59 vs. 1.96; t = 1.761, df = 43, p = .085) and "Dealing with obligation to serve as faculty advisor to a student organization (2.6 vs. 1.71; t = 2.081, df = 34, p = .045). With regard to tenure status, only one item was significantly different: "Resolving differences with my chair" (3.5 vs. 1.83; t = -2.897, df = 39, p = .006). Those members who were not tenured or on tenure track felt more pressure with this item.

Analyses of variances (ANOVA) were used for the remaining demographic variables. Given the item omission problem, equivalent nonparametric tests in the form of Kruskal-Wallis Tests were used to confirm the ANOVA results. Professors who have been teaching 16 to 20 years felt the most pressure with regard to "Attending meetings which take up too much time" (means: 3.21 vs. 2.133 for ≤ 15 years of teaching; F = 3.19, p = .05; K-W p = .049). Information Systems faculty members felt the most pressure in terms of "Making class presentations" (2.8 vs. 1.0 (Economics) and 1.27 (Management); F = 3.054, p = .02, homogeneity of variance problem; K-W p = .082). Finally, assistant professors experience more pressure with "Preparing a manuscript for publication" (3.7 vs. 2.0 (Instructors) and 2.52 (full professors); F = 4.262, p = .009; K-W p = .011).

LIMITATIONS

There are several limitations that must first be acknowledged. The revised questionnaire (Burnout questions) was not pretested and it was a very long survey. We can see from the time stamps that a number of respondents gave up on the survey due, we assume, to its length. Perhaps it created too much stress in attempting to measure their stress! Item omissions certainly hurt the response rate and also prevented us from conducting factor analyses on the different scales used. We would need at least 150 responses for an applicable factor analysis (Pallant, 2005, p. 178). Multiple reminders were sent via e-mail and reminders were sent on different days of the week. At best we can make some general observations about our findings; however, the study lacks a sufficient sample size to make inferences about the total population of business faculty across the country.

CONCLUSION

This study highlights a few areas where faculty members encounter stress. Findings of this survey should be no surprise to those who have worked in and observed trends and changes in higher education. In summary, faculty are significant users of computer technology. Computer use is involved in a large portion of our work day. While the use of (and concerns about) online courses remains a topic of discussion throughout higher education, fewer than half of those responding acknowledged teaching in online courses. Of those who do teach online, many of the courses are taught in a hybrid format which leaves considerable variation from one class to another regarding the amount of "face-time" vs. the amount of "online time" spent in each course. In total, stress related to adapting to electronic technology seems to be declining over time.

Stress related to changes in economic and political environments shows that the more senior faculty (full professors closer to retirement) indicated that economic and political changes have postponed their retirement decision (moved it farther away) when compared to younger faculty. Particularly, faculty members who have been teaching 20 or more years report being affected by the economic environment, postponing their retirement decision.

For the Faculty Stress Index scale items, faculty indicate the least stress regarding class presentations and criteria for evaluating research. However, concerns of too heavy a workload generated the highest level of stress.

Comparing those who teach online versus those who don't, those who teach online felt more pressure regarding evaluation of student performance and presenting at professional meetings. Online teachers also felt they have inadequate time for course preparation, communicating with others and resolving differences with students and department chairs. These findings create questions about the need for interpersonal communication to help us better deal with person-to-person stress that develops in a work environment.

In general, junior faculty tend to feel more stress regarding scholarly research (it is assumed they are aspiring for tenure) and senior faculty tend to feel more stress regarding political/economic changes and their time to retirement. All indicate some amount of stress regarding faculty workloads and what is likely an ever-changing environment in higher education. Most faculty seem well enough versed in the use of electronic technology and most appear to have adapted to expectations of using computers and online technology for course instruction. There are issues, however, in the ability to effectively communicate when we depart from face-to-face interpersonal communication. Departing from the "information rich" environment of face-to-face communication does increase stress for faculty, likely from an increase in uncertainly regarding communication effectiveness.

For Future Study

Future research can continue to examine specific stressors to gain knowledge of how universities and colleges can help alleviate some the factors that create work related stress. Already popular venues typically include training for new technologies as well as wellness programs to help deal with stress and avoid burnout. Future research should also focus on the impact of political/economic change as a source for faculty stress and alternatives for rich communication among faculty and between faculty and students in an otherwise electronic environment.

This study suffers from several weaknesses, the most important being a limited useful sample size. Part of this sampling problem may be due to the length of the instrument. Future research may attempt to use multiple samples each with a smaller and more focused measurement instrument. The authors plan on discussing findings from the remainder of the questionnaire in a future manuscript, dealing with health, budgets and technology demands as potential factors affecting burnout.

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Student Loan Debt: How Are The Funds Spent?

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ABSTRACT

The purpose for this research is to investigate the spending patterns of undergraduate and graduate students in a Tennessee, four-year, public institution. The cost of attending a college or university is often cited as the source for student loan debt spiraling out of control. Not to marginalize the impact that increasing tuition, fees, and books have on student loans; but there appears to be another, less scrutinized contributor to student loans and that is student personal spending. Shaffer (2012) argues that student loan funds that remain after tuition, books, room and board create a paradox termed "premature affluence". Money that now has no educational target or purpose is often spent on luxuries such as manicures, pedicures, and expensive vacations during breaks from school. Shaffer concluded that the lifestyle that students have while in high school becomes the expected norm in post-secondary studies without the realization that the lifestyle is piggy-backed on student loans that will have to be paid back in the future with compounded interest cost. Robert Bonfiglio (2009) concluded that students are not prepared for the financial responsibilities that graduation presents. In an impromptu blog by the financial guru Dave Ramsey (2012) his fans reported spending their loan money on TVs, a party lifestyle, a Corvette and these are only a few. The "poor" college student paradigm appears to be slipping away.

For this study a Constituency Resource Management (CRM) system was used to distribute an email invitation to participate in a survey on student loans. The email was sent to all enrolled students (n=+ 7700) requesting their participation in the survey. Data was collected utilizing an online survey tool, and data from 962 students was collected. Specific questions were asked about spending patterns practiced by the students. Students reported that 65.9% (n=613) have a smart phone, 4.8% (n=45) get pedicures/manicures or acrylic nails, 5.9% (n=55) go to a tanning salon, 7.1% (n=66) have their hair colored/highlighted regularly, 26.0% (n=242) make a car payment, 33.1% (n=308) wear brand name shoes, 27.3% (n=254) wear designer clothes and 10.5% (n=98) reported that they go to a vacation spot for fall/spring break. The follow-up question asked the students if they use any of their student loan money to pay for the items just listed. Astoundingly, 23.1% (n=215) reported that they do use loan money to pay for these items. (Survey is available upon request.)

Given the outcomes of this preliminary research, more search needs will be conducted on additional student populations to determine if similar patterns exist in other public institutions within the state and across the nation. Given future results, the implication could lead to important student loan reform and policy implications.

INTRODUCTION

Universities and colleges are handily named in the "blame game" as the cause for the increasing costs of attaining a college degree. Institutions of higher education are spotlighted for increasing tuition and fees, portraying a picture of the poor student saddled with the cost of keeping the doors of the higher education institution open (Carey, 2013). What is missing from this scenario is that the spotlight has missed the disappearing state appropriations for funding higher education (Kelderman, 2013), the losses that endowments and investments have taken, and the supporting numbers, that any respectable higher education institution can provide, showing that they [the institutions] are spending less to educate a student now, than they were spending a few years ago. With a decrease in the amount of funding an institution receives from the Federal and State governments, coupled with the poor returns

on endowments, this has caused a decrease in revenue and left few places to turn for matching revenue, that do not lead to the student and his or her support network. Institutions of higher education are, for the most part, doing more with less and doing a good job.

The average student debt upon graduation is an increasingly alarming figure. The College Board's report, Trends in Student Aid (2012) states that, of the 2010-2011 graduates, who borrowed money to pay for their education, the average amount of debt upon graduating from a public four-year was $23,800. Assuming a four-year graduation rate, this equates to an average of $5950 borrowed per year in addition to the grants and scholarships a student might receive. Contributing to this alarming student loan figure are some confounding institutional and student behaviors that need to be more thoroughly investigated. First, institutions that ascribe to a need-blind admission policy might subject a student, who is in a situation with little or no financial support, to rely on loans for paying for his or her education. Second, financial aid departments need to adopt policies that require financial counseling for no-loans or at the most, limited-loans acquisition for any student who qualifies for student loans (Monks, 2012; Shaffer, 2013). Third, student spending behaviors have received little print time in the literature or media. There is some evidence that many students expect their college experience to resemble their home environment and therefore expect the same lifestyle they had when living at home. The student expects to continue to have amenities that a "poor college student" should not have. There is a disconnected reality between the fact that their college education is not a continuation of high school, and instead, an experience that is preparing them for their future (Bonfiglio, 2009). Additionally, a student who comes from a more meager background would find a student loan that is in excess of educational needs, a "wind fall" and perhaps use the money frivolously. It is presumed that all the money borrowed, as a student loan, goes towards the cost of education, however; this does not appear to be always the case.

LITERATURE REVIEW

A part of the American dream is to send your child to college using monies that have been saved over a lifetime. Although the dream, in Sallie Mae's *How America Saves for College* 2013, this is not the reality. Families, although well-meaning, do not have a plan in place for paying for college, nor are many of them saving enough to cover the rising costs of a higher education. Compounding the problem, is that the overall rate for completing a degree in six-years is 54.1%, with 16.1% of students still enrolled after six years (National Student Clearinghouse, 2013). The six-year time to completion paradigm is outside the scope of this paper, but one should consider the reasons for this rate being higher than the expected four-year plan, could be the result of students taking fewer classes because they have to work and students coming to college without a clear educational plan and changing their major several times. Regardless of the reason for the six-year graduation rate, this time period (most likely) outlives most scholarship and grant awards, which then forces students and families to find alternative financing to complete a degree, which would include student loans.

For the 2011-2012 year, the federal government lent approximately $100-billion to students. This figure is more than double the amount lent just 10 years ago (Carey, 2013). This increase is a reflection of the ever increasing cost of higher education being passed on to the student as appropriations and investment income dwindle (Carey, 2013).

A problem exists in that students are comfortable with debt because they are raised in a society entrenched in making minimum payments as a part of the monthly bill structure (Cummins, M., Jenkins, S., Haskell, J., 2009). Therefore there is not an embedded distain for indebtedness so signing for a student loan or credit card application is not a pivotal moment for most students. However, in their work, Cummings, Jenkins and Haskell (2009) found that the lack of financial management skills was often cited as a contributor to not completing a postsecondary degree. As de Baca (2012) pointed out, parents need to be a source of financial reason for students. Students learn much of their financial abilities from their parents and in high school financial classes (Cummins, M., Jenkins, S., Haskell, J., 2009; Shim, S., Barber, B., Card, N., Xiao, J., & Serido, J., 2009).

It is imperative that Student services and financial aid departments have in place solid policies to deter students from accepting excessive student loans (Kiley, 2012; Monks, 2012; Shaffer, 2013) and providing alternative options such as work study as a replacement. In response to the need for financial aid reform, Salmon (2013) highlights a brief by Vanderbilt's, Dr. Will Doyle who stresses the importance of prudent financial aid disbursement. Financial aid should be for those who need it and who would not be able to attend college without it.

Shaffer (2012), in a paper, *"Live Like the Affluent in College, Live Like a Student After Graduation"* describes the paradigm for this research, "*premature affluence*". Premature affluence comes in two forms and can be traced to the misuse of student loans. The first form of premature affluence comes from the students who worked while in high school and were allowed to spend the money earned on luxuries that the parents could not (or would not) provide.

These were items such as nice cars, boutique clothing, personal pampering, smart phones, etc. These students expect to have these same amenities when they leave home and go to college, therefore; they must work or seek out loans to maintain these amenities. The second form of premature affluence described by Shaffer (2012) comes with excess student loan money. Instead of a student returning the loan money above that needed for education, the extra money is received by the student, with little thought of having to pay the loan back in the future. Money is often spent to maintain the lifestyle the student had in high school or for purchasing things the student never had the money to purchase in the past. Of the items outlined by Shaffer (2012) as luxuries, are: "comfortable accommodations, cars, cell phones, computers, entertainment, apparel and footwear, food, personal care products and services and travel". Dave Ramsey, the financial guru on many television stations and radio programs, in a program on debt from August 2012 asked *Dave's Facebook fans* about their spending behaviors with their student loans. Respondents posted, "party lifestyle", "spring break trips", "bunches of clothes" and most startling was "I took the student loans to buy a Corvette. I sold the car a year and a half later and I still have the loans". Not surprising, a *Time: Health and Parenting* magazine article (de Baca, 2012) also reported similar findings with a warning to parents to be vigilant over their students. An educational digital editor for *Telegraph* in the United Kingdom, Andrew Marszal, reported that one in six students spend all their money within the first month of being at school and spend their money on drinking and beauty treatments.

These spending behaviors are alarming and although not widely researched, appear to be a global and very real problem. As a response to the growing epidemic of excessive student loan debt, institutions of higher learning are adopting programs that will educate students and regulate student loan debt. Two such programs are at the University of Tennessee, one on the Knoxville campus and one on the Chattanooga campus. In Chattanooga, they are emphasizing living cheaply and to resist the urge for gratification that must be paid off over time. As of December 2012, Chattanooga was in its second year of a program they named, "Live Like a Student" that really stresses to the students financial responsibility (Flaherty, 2012). In Knoxville, they have created an online course that every freshman will have to complete. The course will cover financial aid, budgeting, credit catches and alcohol education (www.wbir.com).

In a response to the expected lifestyles that students have, universities are attempting to respond to this more "expectant" student by creating a more inviting atmosphere. They are building recreational facilities that go beyond the "pick-up" basketball game, and instead contain lazy rivers and climbing walls. Campuses are wireless and dormitory living has become lavish and "homelike". Additionally, colleges and universities are maintaining expensive, often money-losing, sports programs and expensive building projects to maintain the recruiting edge (Carey, 2013)

It should be the goal of any institution to produce graduates who are independent and autonomous from their parents and the community where they grew up. Bonfiglio (2009) challenges this often cited institutional goal as tenuous at best. Many students leave the "all inclusive" environment of campus housing or local student housing where utilities, internet, recreation and other amenities are included in a monthly fee and enter a world were all these items come with a return envelope and a due date. Now, in addition to these "must haves", there also are the student loan payments that become due and payable. This new paradigm of independence and accountability drives many students back to the comfort of their parent's home for a reality check.

METHODOLOGY

Seeking to understand the student population at a rural four-year public institution an online survey was created using SurveyMonkey (www.surveymonkey.com). The survey was designed with questions covering student demographics (year in school, major), student loan selection behaviors, working behaviors, spending behaviors, use of student loans, quality of life, and satisfaction with the current cost of education.

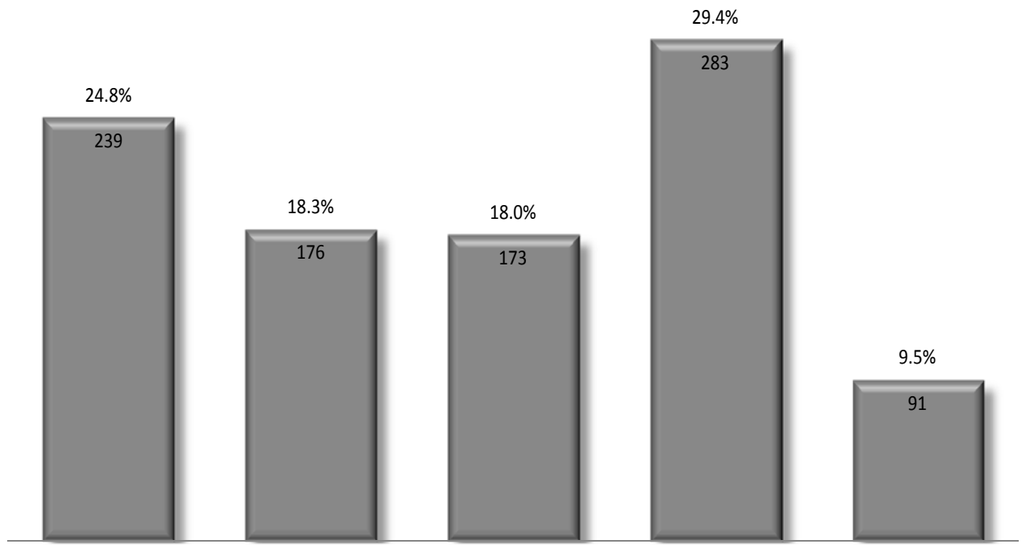
Once the survey was launched, a campus Constituency Resource Management (CRM) system was used to distribute an email invitation to participate in the survey. The email was sent to all enrolled students (n=+ 7700) requesting their participation in the survey. Data was collected over a two month period.

RESULTS

At the time the survey was closed, a total of 962 students had attempted the survey with 925 (96.2%) completing it. Students were asked to identify what year they were in school, as defined by academic standing. Figure 1 shows the response rate by academic standing. Of the 962 respondents, 24.8% (n=239) were freshman, 18.3% (n=176) were sophomores, 18.0% (n=173) were juniors, 29.4% (n=283) were seniors and 9.5% (n=90) reported their academic standing as a graduate student.

After identifying academic standing, students were asked about the types of amenities (luxuries) they have. The data is reported in Figure 2. The question was, "do you currently: (check all that apply)", so students will have selected more than one item on the list. The most common

Figure 1
What year in school are you?



item selected by the students was a smart phone (65.9%, n=613). The second most selected items was discount clothing and shoes at 52.9% (n=492). Other luxuries that the students selected included, having a basic cell phone 34.3% (n=319), designer clothing 27.3% (n=254), name brand shoes 33.1% (n=308), car payment 26.0% (242), going out to eat more than 2 times per week 27.3% (n=242), commuting 46.5% (432), live off campus with roommates 22.9% (n=213) and a television gaming system 23.8% (n=221). Reported in Figure 2 as "All other responses", are the results of personal pampering items such as pedicures/manicures 4.8% (n=45), tanning salon use 5.9% (n=55), hair cut/weave hair 19.2% (n=179), color/highlights 7.1% (n=66), live off campus without roommates 21.5% (n=200) and going to a vacation spot for school breaks 10.5% (n=98).

A reporting of these items is further broken down in Table 1. Each of the luxury items was reported by academic standing.

The follow-up question to the selected items was a question asking, "Do you use your student loan money to pay for any of the items listed in the previous question?" The students reported that 23.1% (n=215) use their student loan money for these items.

In reviewing the data by academic standing, clearly a phone (n=932) is an amenity that is of high priority for all the students regardless of standing. Additionally, across the standings, the following spending behaviors increased from the freshman to senior year, having a car payment (n=37 to n=75), going to a vacation spot (n=20 to n=31), buying clothing from a discount store (n=119 to n=144), commuting (n=69 to n=163), living off campus without a roommate (n=35 to n=66), living off campus with a roommate (n=17 to n=90), having a gaming system (n=52 to n=68) and eating out (n=57 to n=81). The spending behaviors that decreased across the freshman to senior years are, getting regular haircuts and/or weaves (n=51 to n=46), having hair colored/highlighted (n=22 to n=16), purchasing clothing with a designer label (n=80 to n=66), purchasing name brand shoes (n=91 to n=85).

It appears that the spending behaviors that reflect convenience, such as a car, phone, eating out, living off campus and going to a vacation spot during breaks from school, all increased from the freshman year to the senior year. The spending behaviors that appear to have decreased are those that relate to outward appearance such as haircuts, hair coloring, and buying designer clothing. Supporting this theme is the data that clothing purchased at a discount store increased from the freshman year to the senior year, lending one to believe that outward appearance became less important as the student progressed through his/her degree program.

Table 1
Use of Luxury Items by Academic Standing.

	Freshman	Sophomore	Junior	Senior	Graduate
Total	227	170	169	274	90
Smart phone	154	114	115	169	61
Basic phone	75	55	57	103	29
Pedi/Mani	10	8	9	8	10
Tanning salon	16	6	9	16	8
hair cut	51	26	25	46	31
hair color	22	11	9	16	8
Car payment	37	37	47	75	46
Vacation spot	20	17	16	31	14
Design clothes	80	44	40	66	24
Design shoes	91	51	51	85	30
Disc clothes	119	89	96	144	44
Commute	69	78	92	163	30
Off w/o room	35	35	41	66	23
Off w room	17	39	58	90	9
Eat out	57	34	51	81	31
Gaming	52	42	37	68	22
Use loans Yes	30	38	43	89	15
Use loans No	113	86	81	118	54

DISCUSSION

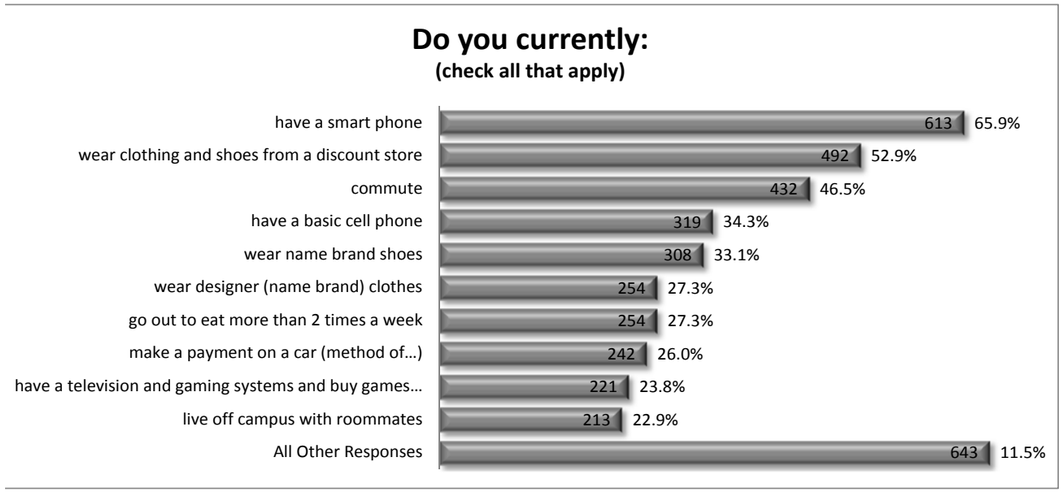
Although the data for this research comes from a limited representation of college students, the results are startling that student loan money is being used by some students to pay for amenities and luxuries that are not tied to educational success. Student loans, as the name implies, should be used to support educational efforts. Students are living outside their means, seeking to maintain a lifestyle that is not realistic for a person who is in a post-secondary education. Students are seeking the quick gratification and not considering the long term financial burden that excessive student loans will present in the future. Parents need to become the pace setters for students and prepare them to "live like a student" and forego all the luxuries that they had before. It will be important that the parents emphasize financial responsibility and not encourage the use of excessive student loans to maintain an amenity filled lifestyle. If the parents cannot provide this type of counseling, then the university should. All attempts should be made to keep the students as close to debt free as possible.

Institutions of higher education are being "blamed" for the excessive student loan debt that students are graduating with. They need to take an active role in curtailing this debt, educating the student about financial responsibility, and spending less on costly buildings and athletic programs.

President Obama's recently proposed sweeping changes to the federal student aid program brings this discussion to the table. This plan links federal dollars to a new Education Department, which would be responsible for ranking colleges and universities and providing students who are attending better-ranked schools with less expensive loans or bigger grants.1

President Obama's plan represents only one part of what is needed to work in a coherent fashion to carve down higher education costs. Educational institutions need to

Figure 2



refrain from luring more students by providing luxurious living quarters, sports arenas and recreational facilities. They also need to educate prospective students and their parents about the benefit and cost of loans. The Federal Government alone cannot solve the students' loan dilemma; we need everyone to tackle this problem.

Last, but certainly not least, is a need for further research to be done on student spending behaviors. Should the behaviors found in this study be prevalent across the nationwide student population, one would be hopeful that the regulation and use of student loans would be revisited and new policy proposed. Recommendations would include financial education beginning before college for students, that would emphasize responsible spending and the real cost of paying back loan and credit card debt. Also explore opportunities at the educational institutions and government levels for alternatives to loans. And last, hold financial institutions accountable to lending only what is needed for the "real" cost of education.

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