

The Journal of Academic Administration In Higher Education

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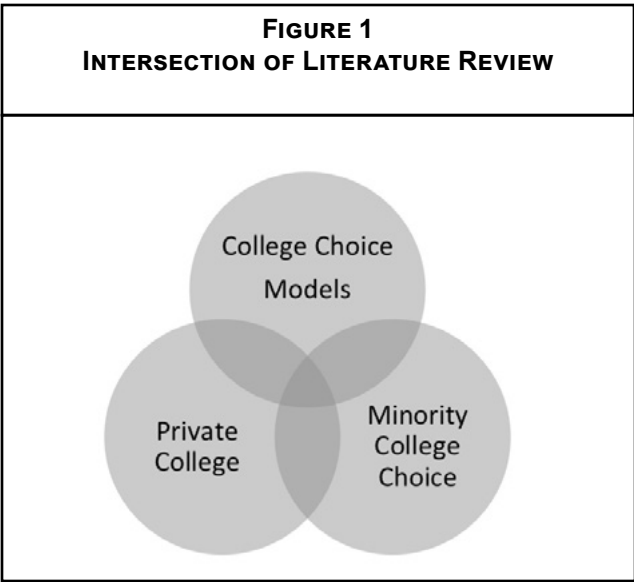
ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine the predictors of African-American enrollment at a private college. After a thorough literature review of college choice models, a set of quantitatively measured determinants were gleaned and identified for the statistical research and treatment. The set of predictors included high school grade point average, college entrance exam score(s), socio-economic status, and communications from admissions, financial aid, and student home proximity to college campus. The research examined the determinants influence on the outcome of enrollment. Three significant positive predictors for African-American enrollment at a private college were realized for the total sample. These included merit aid, socio-economic status, and GPA.

INTRODUCTION

Higher education institutions seek to attract and wield low-socioeconomic enrollment in an effort to create a diverse culture and serve societal welfare. Throughout the past half century, American postsecondary schools endeavored to achieve targeted minority goals through governmental affirmative action directives or those of their individual boards of trustees (Springer 2003). Higher education institutions seek to analyze and understand the variant attributes directing and determining high school seniors' college decisions (Roszkowski and Spreat 2010). The research has focused on sociological and economic lenses to understand the drivers of the students' selection and college choices (Adams 2009). Various paradigms and

filters provided frameworks to interpret and understand the students' behavior and actions against the backdrop of financial decisions and other assistance (Lillis and Tian 2008). Significant research has examined several college choice models and their applicability as related to the sociological and financial concerns and constraints (Dixon and Martin 1991). The inclusion of research examining the private sector of higher education institutions with the backdrop of college choice models and minority enrollment was relevant to the research intent of this dissertation. The findings of the literature directed a Venn diagram tri-intersection (Figure 1) of the determinants of college choice models with minority enrollment factors and private college enrollment attributes.



The review of literature identified the published college choice model theories and their frameworks. The Hossler and Gallagher college choice model, as the referred standard, included the three stages of predisposition, search and choice (1987). Through subsequent studies utilizing the variations of the Hossler and Gallagher model, the determinants of college choice were derived. The theories highlighted the college choice determinants of enrollment that included socio-economic status, student's ability and achievement, and parental and peer influence, along with organizational factors of high school involvement. The literature review overviewed the minority college choice attributes for enrollment. The minority determinants included parental education, financial aid information and award, the level of academy information dissemination, proximity to home, habitus, cultural capital, social class, and influences of teachers and counselors. The above minority predictors were filtered through lenses of sociological and economic contexts in order to parallel the overall college choice models. The final examination of literature review included the identification of college choice determinants for private colleges. The literature indicated the following variables: available financial aid, reputation of institution, small class size, faculty-student ratio, and cost of institution. The triangulation and intersection of the above determinants across the college choice models, minority enrollment, and private college choice is synthesized in the research. The selected variables or predictors were those identified for quantitative treatment rather than qualitative research.

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PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the study sought to understand the predictors for African-American enrollment utilizing the identified college choice determinants gleaned from a review of the literature. The study investigated the college choice models' determinants against an institutional recruitment database to discriminate variable differences across the African-American enrollment. Once the significant predictors of enrollment were analyzed and delineated, the study evaluated the current admission policies and procedures and recommended potential opportunities to modify or adjust future recruitment cycles and data-collection venues.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The primary benefit of the study was to identify the predictors of African-American enrollment and communicate the results with a private, religious college admissions office. One of the constant recruitment goals for higher education institution admission offices included a growing, diverse campus population (Clark 2011). In that context, the results of the study's quantitative research could be utilized to evaluate the deployment of current admission policies used to recruit African-American students. The outcome of the research could potentially benefit other private educational institutions that seek to maximize their African-American enrollment. Further study at the

TABLE 1 SUMMARY OF FACTORS ACROSS LITERATURE REVIEW STUDIES											
Factors	Studies										
	Hossler & Gallagher	Lillis & Tian	McDonough & Antonio	Wesley & Southerland	Pope & Fermin	O'Connor et al	Sevier	Spies	Dehne	Johnson et al	Rood
Achievement	√										
Parental level of education/ encouragement	√		√	√	√					√	√
Peer encouragement	√				√			√			
Residence	√	√	√	√		√		√		√	
High school counselor/ teacher	√		√	√	√			√			
SES	√										
Ethnicity	√										
College cost	√	√		√			√	√			√
Institution characteristics	√	√	√	√			√	√	√	√	√
Majors		√					√	√	√	√	
Financial aid	√			√			√	√			

institution and others would investigate the adjustment of policies and their subsequent impact on matriculating minority freshmen enrollment. A successful benefit from the research results would be the realization of the growth in African-American enrollment.

DESIGN

The design of the research was observational in identifying the variables that influence or predict African-American college enrollment at a private higher education institution. The research examined a set of college choice independent variables and their effect on the dependent variable of African-American enrollment. The funnel below was a visual representation of the research treatment and prediction of African-American college enrollment at a private college institution.

PARTICIPANTS

The participants (sample) for the study were drawn from a private college institution's recruitment database. The sample represented 40,000 prospect students for the entering fall 2009, 2010, and 2011 freshmen classes. From the total sample, the following population subsets were derived based on the enrollment status: 712 applied, 293

accepted, 110 enrolled, and only 41 identified athletes. The collected data utilized existing admission and recruitment policies and procedures for the previous three years. Thus, with the predominance of the literature review prior to 2009, the extracted data were consistent and reflective of the literature review timeline. The students were categorized as prospects, applicants, admit, and deposits within the construct of the database. The study examined the students from prospects through the recruitment cycle to deposited classification in testing the independent variables against the final dependent variable of enrollment. The sample was constrained by utilizing only one institution rather than representative sample of private colleges' admission data.

INSTRUMENT

The data for the research was collected and extracted from Recruitment PLUS™ database for the private college institution. Recruitment PLUS is provided through College Board for an annual fee. Recruitment PLUS enables "schools and thousands of administrators [to] easily coordinate recruitment, admissions, and enrollment activities. . . . Recruitment PLUS is [provided] from the College Board, the recognized leader in admissions software and services" (<http://recruitmentplus.collegeboard.org>). The

FIGURE 2
RESEARCH TREATMENT AND PREDICTION OF
AFRICAN-AMERICAN ENROLLMENT AT A
PRIVATE COLLEGE INSTITUTION



private institution utilized the Recruitment PLUS database for the pre-determined years of data.

PROCEDURE AND DATA ANALYSIS

The statistical procedure employed to analyze the research questions was a logistic regression analysis. The study involved several independent variables and their effect on the dichotomous dependent variable of enrollment. The dependent variable of African-American enrollment was dichotomous in nature in that the student enrolled or did not.

A set of variables was gleaned from the review of literature that examined the college choice models, minority college enrollment, and private college enrollment. The variables selected from the review of literature were identifiable from data sets for quantitative analysis rather than qualitative research. The below independent variables (predictors) are designated as the college choice determinants. The research examined the following independent variables and their relationship to the dependent variable (outcome) of African-American enrollment:

1. Socioeconomic status (SES)
2. Parental higher education level
3. College entrance exam scores
4. Financial aid
5. High school grade point average
6. Number of admission communications
7. Student's home proximity to campus

RESULTS

The results of the research identified significant college choice model predictors for African-American enrollment at a private university. The significant predictors included merit aid, specific SES neighborhood clusters, American College Testing (ACT), and grade point average (GPA). Several of the originally identified predictors were not included in the statistical models due to their unavailability in Recruitment PLUS. These included level of parental education and number of admissions communications. The predictors that were included in the logistic regression models were the same as those recognized through the pivotal and subsequent research of Hossler and Gallagher (1987) college choice models. Hossler and Gallagher identified the three phases of college choice as predisposition, search, and choice (1987). In later research, Hossler, Braxton, and Coppersmith (1989), recognized SES, student ability (ACT and GPA), resident, and financial aid as determinants of college choice. The outcome of this study's research validated those predictors for the universe of an African-American population at a private college institution. Hossler, Braxton, and Coppersmith's (1989) three phases of college choice research was based on empirical studies and literature. In contrast, this study's research was a quantitative discrete study that validated the literature from Hossler, Braxton, and Coppersmith (1989), Hossler, Schmit, and Vesper (1999), Lillis and Tian (2008), and Kim, Desjardins, and McCall (2009). The latter two studies emphasized the need for financial aid based on the study participants' expectations and responses during the final stage of college choice. The majority of the previous research was qualitative based on interviews including the Hossler, Schmidt, and Vesper (1999) longitudinal study. Thus, the individual results of this study discussed below were unique given the single demographic (African-American ethnicity within a private college institution) of the data set that had not been previously evaluated.

Merit aid (coefficient = 0.224, $p = .000$) was a significant predictor of African-American enrollment at a private college institution in the total data set of 11,400 records. This finding is supported by the research literature that did investigate African-American college choice determinants including Sevier (1993) and George (2011). The latter study was a qualitative study seeking to understand the financial cost issue. In contrast, this study quantitatively determined that aid is a positive predictor for African-American enrollment at a private college. Merit aid (financial aid) realized in the data set was constrained due to lack of information regarding the final financial aid package consisting of university grants and discount tuition.

The aid denoted in the data set was limited but assumed to be an indicator of a more robust aid offer.

The next significant predictor of African-American enrollment at a private college was socioeconomic status (SES) based on the defined neighborhood cluster of "59" and "74". The College Board (2011) defines the neighborhood clusters in their annual cluster description guide. SES was recognized in the Hossler, Braxton, and Coppersmith (1989) college choice model theories and subsequent studies including Smith's (2009) qualitative study. The two neighborhood clusters represented low-income households with students who aspired to attend college as indicated by their interest in AP (Advanced Placement) and honors courses. The identification of these two statistically significant SES groups as predictors for African-American enrollment at the private college institution will be discussed in the recommendations section.

Subsequently, a high ACT (coefficient = -0.001, $p = .000$) was a negative predictor for the enrollment outcome. The negative determinant indicated that the higher the ACT score the less likely the student would enroll at the private college institution. The below recommendations will state that the private institution should not direct admission efforts to students with high ACTs. ACT and the below GPA were recognized collectively in the literature review as student achievement and cited as a determinant of college choice by Hossler, Braxton, and Coppersmith (1989). However, Hossler, Braxton, and Coppersmith's research was not constrained to the one demographic of an African-American sample at a private college institution. This study's findings narrowed the focus of previous college choice model research with the addition of a specific ethnicity within a prescribed domain.

In contrast with the high ACT predictor, the model output cited GPA (coefficient = 0.001, $p = .015$) as a positive predictor of enrollment. With this outcome, the institution should focus recruitment efforts on students with respectable GPAs along with the next significant determinant.

The significant determinant, not documented in the review of literature as a predictor of African-American enrollment, was athlete status. This variable was not a predictor or independent factor as a part of the research design. However, based on the attributes of the records in the sample population and the logistic regression modeling, the athlete status evolved as a predictor by default. The athlete or non-athlete status drove the construct of an additional investigation. As a result, in the total sample population athlete status was a marker for each record. The outcome of the logistic regression model (coefficient = -0.9237, $p = .000$) indicated that non-athlete status was a negative indicator for enrollment. With non-athlete sta-

tus being a significant predictor, admissions offices should consider a student's athlete status in the recruitment of African Americans. However, the predictor significance could be an anomaly due to the limited enrollment status of athletes. That is, athlete status was only indicated if a student enrolled rather than a recruitment status of prospect, applicant, and admit. Thus, the model was somewhat compromised with the limited data for records without athlete status. A previous study, Johnson, Jubenville, and Goss (2009) study examined athletes at 23 small private colleges and their college choice factors but they did not evaluate across a non-athlete or athlete status. As mentioned, the review of literature did not recognize athlete or non-athlete status as a predictor for African-American enrollment. This study's findings determined that athlete status was a significant predictor for African-American enrollment.

The study investigated the college choice predictors for a subset of the data that were the non-athlete African-American enrolled students. The model treatment of this subset of the population yielded significant determinants. The determinants were the same as those discovered in the first investigation with the exception of athlete status and one of the identified neighborhood clusters for the socioeconomic status predictors. Merit aid (coefficient = 0.230, $p = .000$), ACT (coefficient = -0.001, $p = .000$), and GPA (coefficient = 0.001, $p = .017$) reflected the same positive and negative direction as that for the first question's model. Thus, similar assumptions and subsequent practice application are realized. However, for the neighborhood clusters and associated SES predictor, only one cluster was positive, "74" (coefficient = 0.078, $p = .000$), and three were negative predictors. These included "61" (coefficient = -0.011, $p = .000$), "64" (coefficient = -0.010, $p = .001$), and "67" (coefficient = -0.010, $p = .000$). The three clusters represent diverse populations beyond the positive predictors found in "59" and "74" for research question one. The "61" neighborhood cluster is defined by affluent households with parents holding second degrees or higher with the students engaged in AP and honors coursework who aspire to attend selective colleges (College Board 2011). In contrast, the "64" neighborhood cluster is characterized by blue collar residents with students who do not have exposure to accelerated courses and do not aspire to selective colleges but rather large urban institutions (College Board 2011). The third cluster with a negative predictor was "67" that represents a mixed ethnicity and a modified proclivity toward college and limited access to AP and honors courses (College Board 2011). Based on the above descriptions, admissions practices should target neighborhood clusters of "74" and "59" with their similar demographics and be selective in recruiting from those clusters which are negatively indicated.

A predictor included in each of the research questions that did not prove a significant positive or negative factor was the student's resident in proximity to the private college institution. The review of literature recognized that the location of the selected institution relative to the student's home was a predictor of enrollment (Spies 2001 and Sevier 1993). However, including the predictor of student's home residence in the logistic regression model did not prove significant. The variable was assigned to each student record based on their residence in the state of the private institution or not. Thus, for the studied private college, the indicator of a student's residence was not significant.

In summary, the study evaluated the above predictors which were quantitatively gathered and assessed through the logistic regression models. In contrast, a majority of the research literature had examined African-American or minority determinants of college choice that were qualitative. McDonough and Antonio (1996), Pope and Fermin (2003), O'Connor, Hammack, and Scott (2009), Smith (2009), and Mattern, Woo, Hossler, and Wyatt (2010) contributed to this field through evaluation of qualitative attributes of college choice determinants for African Americans. These included social capital (O'Connor, Hammack, and Scott 2009), social class, church influence (Pope and Fermin 2003), parental influences (Smith 2009), habitus (McDonough and Antonio 1996), and institutional fit (Mattern, Woo, Hossler, and Wyatt 2010).

In contrast, this study focused on measurable quantitative predictors within a private college institution. Consequently, this research contributed to the body of knowledge for African-American enrollment at a private institution with the significant quantifiable predictors of athlete status classification, SES markers, merit aid, ACT, and GPA.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THEORY, POLICY, AND PRACTICE

From the review of literature, there was no discernible evidence of the construct of the study's research. The results of the study have implications for future college choice model theory in regards to the African-American ethnicity sector of at a private institution.

The study does have implications for admissions recruitment practice for the private college institution. With the study's outcome of significant predictors for African-American enrollment, the following are recommendations for admissions practices.

1. Focus on the targeted neighborhood clusters of 59 and 74 (socioeconomic status) in the prospect phase. The two clusters were significant predic-

tors for enrollment. The clusters represented low-income households with aspiring, college-predisposed students. Subsequent to the prospect phase, admissions should develop measures to engage and effect an application through campus visits and meetings with current students and faculty. With the ultimate goal of enrollment for the targeted cluster of student prospects.

2. Identify athlete status early in the recruitment cycle and direct recruitment communications and efforts accordingly.
3. Determine and award financial or merit award for the targeted SES groups based on admission decisions. Provide merit award information promptly so the student can make an effective college choice decision.
4. In assessing student achievement, concentrate on African Americans with significant GPA rather than high ACT.

CONCLUSIONS

The results of the determinants of African-American enrollment at a private college were conclusive. The predictors of athlete status, merit aid, socio-economic status, GPA, and ACT for African Americans were statistically significant for the outcome of enrollment at a private college institution. Three of the predictors, merit aid, SES, and GPA, were positively significant. The other two predictors, non-athlete status and high ACT, were negative indicators. The outcomes of the study provide contributions to body of knowledge for the college choice model theories researched over the past two decades. The previous research found in the literature, did not contain the intersection of the study's construct that is depicted in this study. That is, the confluence of the enrollment predictors as defined by the college choice theories, minority recruitment, and private college recruitment were not discovered in the review of literature. The intersection of the three segments was realized through this study's research and documented outcomes. The following are broad-based conclusions incorporating the study's outcomes along with consistent themes throughout the review of literature:

1. Amended admission recruitment practices as discussed in previous section.
2. Provide focused and informative literature and communication with targeted (African

American) student throughout recruitment cycle (Dehne 2005) especially for the small, private institutions. Dehne reported, "most private colleges leave the *benefits* of these [attributes] characteristics for the students to infer" (Dehne 2005, p. 9). He concluded that small, private colleges need to vividly proclaim and explain their benefits for the inquiring high school college-seeking applicant. Thus, admissions offices need to overtly explain and communicate the benefits of education at a small, private institution. Adams (2009), also, reported that communications were critical in the three phases and most explicitly in the final phase after admission to ensure student commitment.

3. Utilize predictor factors for recruited athlete as identified in this study and other research (Johnson, Jubenville, and Goss 2009). The institutions incorporate the determinants including merit aid, targeted markets (neighborhood clusters of "59" and "74"), and GPA in focused recruitment efforts.

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INTERIM ADMINISTRATORS IN HIGHER EDUCATION: A NATIONAL STUDY

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ABSTRACT

The focus of this paper is on the roles and experiences of interim administrators in higher education. A survey was given to current and recent interim administrators in four-year public universities and colleges across the United States. The goals were to identify the advantages and disadvantages of using and serving as interims, and to solicit advice for institutions and individuals who are considering the interim role. Results of the study indicate that participants believe there are clear advantages to serving as an interim, such as gaining new skills and a broader perspective of the academic community, but there are also disadvantages, such as a loss of scholarship time and loss of colleague relationships. This paper offers guidance for potential interims and for the institutions where they are employed, as well as recommendations for future research.

INTRODUCTION

As the saying goes, "There is nothing permanent except change." In the world of academia, change is a constant and with that change comes the need for interim leadership. Interims by definition are individuals who serve in a position on a temporary basis. Faculty agree to take on the interim administrative role for a number of different reasons, and the experiences of the interim are as diverse as the number of roles they fill. The focus of this paper is on the roles and experiences of interim administrators in higher education. A survey was given to current and recent interim administrators in four-year public universities and colleges across the United States. The goal of the survey was to identify the advantages and disadvantages of using and serving as interims, and to provide advice for institutions and individuals who are considering the interim role.

LITERATURE REVIEW

There is a dearth of research and scholarly articles in the professional literature regarding the selection and implementation of interim administrators in higher education. Although most of the published articles found on this

topic were anecdotal and described the experiences of one or two individuals who served as interims, a number of themes emerged. First, many of the authors delineated the advantages and disadvantages for individuals who are serving as interims, as well as benefits and drawbacks for the department or institution using interim administrators (Huff & Neubrander, 2012; Munde, 2000). Most of the articles also provide tips for new interims (Rud, 2004; Powers & Maghroori, 2006) as well as advice for the institution seeking to hire a temporary administrator (Thompson, Cooper & Ebbers, 2012; Barbieri, 2005). All of the articles found in the literature focused on the qualitative experiences of one or more individuals who had served as interim academic administrators, including chairs, deans, provosts and presidents.

While individuals are frequently asked to accept an interim position with little notice or experience, some advantages for individuals who agree to serve in this capacity include being able to "try out" the job and gain valuable experience before deciding whether or not to apply for the permanent administrative position (Huff & Neubrander, 2012; Rud, 2004). Administrative experience attained as an interim can also help to prepare individuals who choose to apply for future administrative positions. In

addition, serving in a leadership role provides individuals with a new perspective as they begin to view the university structure through a broader lens than was available within their previous roles (Huff & Neubrander, 2012; Rud, 2004). Rud (2004) suggests that once individuals serve in an interim chair's role, they learn to be less judgmental and more appreciative of the chair's role when they return to faculty. Advantage identified for institutions that hire interims is that it allows others to observe the individuals in these roles before hiring them into the permanent position (Vaillancourt, 2012; Rud 2004), it gives the university more time to conduct a thorough search (Barbieri, 2005) and provides the university with some salary savings as they conduct the search (Huff & Neubrander, 2012).

There are also numerous disadvantages for interim administrators cited in the literature. For example, sometimes individuals are called upon to perform a wide range of administrative functions without managerial training or experience (Powers & Maghroori, 2006). Vaillancourt (2012) argues that too often "interims are treated like interims" and are not perceived as being qualified enough to be appointed to the permanent role. In addition, interims are expected to make effective decisions that have both short and long-term implications for the academic unit without the luxury of having the time to build trust or long-term relationships with the faculty and staff. While interims will inevitably make mistakes, they may never have the chance to correct their mistakes or show the faculty and staff that they have learned from this experience because they are only in the position for a short time (Munde, 2000). Barbieri (2005) suggests that interims have a "short honeymoon period" because they are forced to work fast to get the job done. When describing her experiences as an interim, Vaillancourt (2012) discusses what she calls the "perils of interim appointments". She argues that a major disadvantage for the interim who wants to be considered for the permanent position is the temptation to avoid making controversial decisions because of the fear of how those choices will be perceived by those individuals who have influence over the hiring process. Having a policy that prevents the interim from applying for the permanent position or hiring interims from a professional firm are two alternative ways to address this potential conflict of interest (Munde, 2000). Anyaso (2009) discusses the use of former administrators who are able to "hit the ground running" since they have a good understanding of the position. Because these individuals would not be applying for the permanent position, the institution is free to conduct a cleaner search and the interim can focus on helping the institution prepare for their new leadership.

Munde (2000) describes the interim job responsibilities as being consumed by the routine tasks of leadership, which can be less rewarding than making and implementing long-term, strategic changes. He states that "leading in limbo is the hallmark of the interim experience." In addition, faculty and staff who are not in agreement with the interim's vision may be content to "wait them out" until a permanent administrator is hired while others may see this as an opportunity to quickly push their own agendas through the system (Huff & Neubrander, 2012; Rud, 2004; Munde, 2000).

The literature provides tips for new interim administrators based on the challenges experienced or observed by the authors. For example, several articles advise interims to focus on moving the institution forward and to fulfill their job roles as if they are in the permanent position (Thompson, Cooper Ebbers, 2012; Huff & Neubrander, 2012; Powers, & Maghroori, 2006; Barbieri, 2005; Rud, 2004). Simply serving as a placeholder administrator is rarely an option since interims are expected to make important decisions and strategic hires that will have both long and short-term consequences for their departments. Some of the responsibilities of the interim are directly related to their predecessors and the unpopular decisions that were made prior to them entering the interim position (Thompson, Cooper & Ebbers, 2012; Warner, 2009). In these situations interim administrators are advised to use this opportunity to help mend internal and external relationships and to facilitate healing among the unit's faculty and staff. In their qualitative study of two interim presidents, Thompson, Cooper and Ebbers (2012) identified some common themes related to repairing poor institutional morale caused by the previous administrators. The authors suggest that interims should promote openness and transparency and seek the counsel of key stakeholders as they attempt to build cohesion and trust among the staff. Similarly, Rud (2000) states interims should consider setting up regular faculty conversations to "give the impression of stability among change." Powers and Maghroori (2006) advise that it is important to remember that socializing is part of the job and they encourage interims to spend time visiting faculty in their offices to build relationships and encourage open communication.

The literature also provides some personal advice to interims and other aspiring administrators. For example, the importance of being open to criticism and avoiding taking things personally was suggested by several of the authors (Huff & Neubrander, 2012; Warner, 2009; Powers & Maghroori, 2006). Barbieri, (2005) posits that being an interim demands a "healthy dose of humility" because it is so easy to get hurt feelings when one is reminded of the search committee's ongoing efforts to find a suitable replacement. Interims sometimes hear some negative com-

ments about their performance as a leader or previous decisions when they return to their original position (Rud, 2004). When this happens it is helpful to remember two pieces of sage advice. First, as an interim you should "leave your heart at the door" and not take criticism personally and second, remember this is the job you signed up for and be ready to move on when your services are no longer needed (Huff & Neubrander, 2012; Barbieri, 2005).

METHOD

To find participants for this study a modified systematic sampling approach was conducted. After the researchers obtained a list of all four-year public universities and colleges in the United States, approximately every tenth school was selected while also ensuring that every state was represented. A graduate assistant was assigned to call administrative assistants at those schools and/or to explore their web sites to ascertain the names of interim academic administrators at the selected institutions. A total of 201 emails were sent to potential participants asking them to complete the survey in fall of 2013, with one email reminder sent out three days later. The purpose of the study and an informed consent was included in the email. Nine emails "bounced back" and 99 (51%) of individuals who received the email completed the online survey.

The survey questions were developed after the researchers conducted a small qualitative study of interim academic administrators in 2011. The survey focused on the perceived advantages and disadvantages of interim administrators and for the department or unit where s/he was employed. Other questions solicited advice for new interims while additional sections highlighted policy issues related to the hiring of interim administrators at their institutions. The information collected through this study can benefit individuals who are considering an interim role and will enable institutions to use interim academic administrators more effectively as they develop more fair and consistent policies.

PARTICIPANTS

The participants were employed in a variety of administrative roles, with 39% serving as interim dean, 26% as interim department head/chair and 11% as interrim provost. Other interim position titles included associate provost, associate dean, director and chancellor. The majority (78%) of participants stated they were recruited and/or asked to take on this role by higher administration, while 20% said they were in an assistant or associate position when they stepped into the interim role. The average length of time that participants served in the interim role at the time of the study ranged from six months to one

year (39%) while 43% stated they were in the interim position for over a year.

When asked what happened to their predecessors the participants gave a range of responses. Twenty-one percent stated that their predecessors left their university for another job, 20% reported that they had retired or resigned in good standing, 19% stated they were fired or asked to step down from the position and 16% stated their predecessors were promoted within the university. When asked if they plan to apply for the permanent position, 51% of the respondents said they were not applying while 11% said they had already applied. An additional 21% stated they were planning to apply and 25% indicated they were unsure as to whether or not they would apply for the permanent role.

RESULTS

Policy Issues

Few of the schools involved in this study have definitive policies related to the hiring of interim administrators. Only 31% of respondents said their schools had policies regarding the salaries provided to interim administrators and a small percentage (18%) said they had policies or guidelines related to the length of time one can serve in an interim role. There is also an absence of policies as to whether or not an individual serving in an interim role is allowed to apply for the permanent position, with 83% of respondents stating there was no policy to address this issue at their institution. When asked if their university tends to hire "internal" candidates into administrative positions, 67% of the respondents reported that those decisions tend to vary between positions, and only 9% of respondents indicated that this tendency had any influence over their decision whether or not to apply for the position. There also seems to be a lack of clarity relating to the terms "acting" and "interim" and only 9% of the participants said their institution distinguishes between the titles of "acting" versus "interim" administrative titles.

Disadvantages of Being in an Interim Role

Participants were asked about some of the challenges or disadvantages they faced while serving in an interim role (see Table 1). Many (60%) of the participants agreed that being in an interim position limits one's ability to do long-term strategic planning while about a third (34%) disagreed. Just over half (57%) of the participants indicated that it is a disadvantage when faculty/staff view interims as "temporary" while 21% disagreed with this statement. A majority (66%) of participants agreed that a disadvantage for individuals serving in an interim role is having to

TABLE 1 DISADVANTAGES OF BEING IN AN INTERIM ROLE **					
A challenge or disadvantage of being in an interim role is...	SA	A	N	D	SD
Faculty/staff tend to view you as “temporary.”	13	44	21	14	6
Faculty/staff seem to lack confidence in your ability to do the job.	2	20	25	38	15
It limits your ability to do long-term strategic planning.	20	40	5	26	8
Your concern that making tough decisions might negatively affect support for you being selected the permanent position.	12	24	18	29	17
Faculty/staff are choosing to “wait you out” until you leave.	7	37	21	26	9
You make less money than you would in the “permanent” position.	17	25	13	29	16
Higher administration (e.g. Chancellor or President/Provost) does not acknowledge you as the “leader” of your unit.	1	12	14	40	34
It is difficult to build community relationships as an interim.	6	27	17	33	17
It is difficult to begin and follow through with initiatives to raise money because you are in an interim position.	12	30	26	29	3
Returning to a position with individuals whom you previously supervised.	7	25	28	31	8
Having to put one’s own professional goals or scholarship on hold.	20	46	9	21	3
** Percentage of Respondents who selected strongly agree (SA), agree (A), neutral (N), disagree (D) or strongly disagree (SD)					

put one’s professional or scholarship goals on hold. While the participants did not seem as strongly concerned that there about the potential disadvantages for faculty and staff who are working under an interim administrator (see Table 2), 52% agreed that there is a sense of anxiety related to perceived instability of the unit among the faculty and staff when there is an interim administrator in place.

An analysis of the narrative comments yielded some interesting themes related to the disadvantages for interim administrators. Several respondents described the extensive amount of work required for the interim while receiving

only a minimal pay increase. For example, some of the respondents commented on how their workload increased because they were expected to continue to meet their previous job responsibilities while also taking on new administrative duties. One individual wrote that “it was a huge amount of work for no sustained appointment.” Others noted that their relationships with colleagues changed and this was seen as a loss. One respondent stated, “the biggest surprise was the change in attitude toward me by people I considered colleagues and friends. I also saw a very different side to people in the way they treated others.” Another

TABLE 2 DISADVANTAGES FOR FACULTY/STAFF/DEPARTMENT **					
A Disadvantage for faculty, staff, or departments who are working with an interim administrator is...	SA	A	N	D	SD
There is a sense of anxiety related to instability among the faculty/staff.	7	45	28	14	6
Programs cannot move forward with their own initiatives.	1	20	19	51	9
There is a lack of leadership within the department/unit.	1	10	20	51	18
There is perception that there is a lack of commitment to the department/unit from the interim administrators.	2	10	19	54	15
It contributes to low faculty/staff morale.	1	13	23	43	17
** Percentage of Respondents who selected strongly agree (SA), agree (A), neutral (N), disagree (D) or strongly disagree (SD)					

challenge identified by respondents was the difficulty of working with a predecessor who is still employed at the institution and is unable to give up full control of the position. One respondent commented that it was a challenge because of the “inability of the person who formally held the job and is still on campus to ‘give up the reins.’” Last, respondents commented on the disadvantages associated with beginning a job with little training or preparation and/or with little institutional support, along with the perception that one is seen as “good enough to be interim but not good enough to be permanent.”

Advantages of Being in an Interim Role

Participants were asked several questions about the advantages of being in an interim role (see Table 3). Fifty-seven percent of respondents agreed that having an interim administrator allows for difficult decisions and changes to be made without compromising new long-term departmental leadership and 67% agreed that interims have the

advantage of being able to resolve long standing issues before a permanent administrator is hired or begins. A large majority of respondents (81%) agreed that serving as an interim gives one an opportunity to “try out” the job before applying for it and 94% agreed that being in an interim roles gives one a broader university perspective and understanding regarding the politics of conducting university business.

The participants were also questioned about the advantages for the faculty and staff who work with an interim administrator (Table 4). The majority (92%) of respondents agreed that having an opportunity to observe the interim’s leadership style and abilities was an advantage for the individuals who work with them. Most (89%) agreed that another advantage is that they are able to work with someone they already know and with whom they have a relationship. The majority (73%) also agreed that an additional advantage of using interims is that it give the institution more time to conduct a thorough job search

TABLE 3 ADVANTAGES OF BEING IN AN INTERIM ROLE **					
An ADVANTAGE of being in an interim role is...	SA	A	N	D	SD
...difficult decisions and changes can be made without compromising new long-term departmental leadership	5	48	24	16	0
...you are able to resolve long standing issues before permanent administrator is hired or begins.	14	49	18	12	1
...it gives you an opportunity to “try out” the job before applying for it.	30	47	9	6	3
...you are able to make more money than in your previous position.	14	48	15	11	7
...gives you a broader university perspective and understanding regarding the politics of conducting university business.	44	46	4	1	0
** Percentage of Respondents who selected strongly agree (SA), agree (A), neutral (N), disagree (D) or strongly disagree (SD)					

TABLE 4 ADVANTAGES FOR FACULTY/STAFF/DEPARTMENT **					
An ADVANTAGE for faculty/staff/departments who are working with an interim administrator is...	SA	A	N	D	SD
...it gives faculty/staff an opportunity to observe the interim’s leadership style/abilities.	24	62	8	0	0
...the faculty/staff already “know” the person in the interim role and/or have a relationship with that person.	24	50	16	3	1
...it gives the institution more time to perform a thorough job search while providing the university with some salary savings.	17	51	17	6	1
...it provides stability and continuity within the department/unit.	16	56	18	3	1
** Percentage of Respondents who selected strongly agree (SA), agree (A), neutral (N), disagree (D) or strongly disagree (SD)					

while providing the university with some salary savings. Last, the most participants agreed (77%) that having an interim administrator provides stability and continuity within the department or unit.

The narrative comments concerning the advantages for the interim focused on the unique opportunity to try out the job. Skills acquired in the new position were seen as a great advantage along with exposure to a variety of administrators and deans. Several respondents indicated that serving in an interim role helps to prepare individuals for future administrative positions and gives them a different university perspective. One respondent commented that having an interim in place gives the institution “time to conduct a proper search while providing a nice transition from the old leadership to the new”.

Advice for the Interim

Respondents were asked an open-ended question about what advice they might give someone who is considering taking on an interim administrative role. The most frequent advice given was to focus on the job “as if you are not an interim”. One respondent stated, “act like you have the permanent job and make decisions for the long term and in the best interest of the organization.” New interims were advised to have a frank discussion with their college administrators regarding the job responsibilities, the interim salary and what will happen when the interim job is over. They advised that individuals need to ask themselves if this is a good fit for them in the long run and be ready to give up time that is normally spent focusing on one’s own scholarship. Many of the respondents commented that serving in an interim role can be a great learning experience for the individual who is interested in applying for a future administrative position.

DISCUSSION

Taking on the role of an interim can be both an enriching and a disheartening experience influenced by a number of factors, including the circumstances that resulted in the need for an interim in the first place. For example, was it a planned exit where the predecessor left in good standing, or was it a sudden exit caused by an extreme event such as a firing, illness, death or a scandal? Was the predecessor a respected administrator who left the unit in good shape, or was s/he a poor manager who was reviled by the faculty and staff? The extreme circumstances can result in an extra layer of work for interims. Not only do they have to learn on the job, but they have to potentially deal with grief or mistrust by the faculty and staff as they work to repair broken relationships and build cohesion and trust within the unit. The circumstances under which an in-

terim takes over are significant and should be taken into consideration as one decides whether or not to take on the interim role.

It is advisable for potential interims to ask for expectations in writing such as salary, length of position, option to apply for the permanent position and details about how/if they might return to their previous position. All these particulars should be determined prior to taking the position. Individuals who neglect to attend to these details at the beginning of their term risk serving in the interim role for an extended period of time with a lower salary than is desirable, while putting one’s own professional goals and scholarship on hold.

Individuals should decide if the opportunity to serve as an interim is a good fit for them depending where they are in their own career path. Becoming an interim takes a new mindset, and they have to function like they are in a permanent role while also keeping in mind that their days in this position are limited. Paradoxically, higher administration often expects interims to function as if they are the permanent administrator. For example, they may be charged with working with faculty on unit strategic plans knowing they are unlikely to be around to help implement it. Successful interims somehow find a way to balance these expectations while making the tough decisions, thinking long-term and implementing the job as if they are in the permanent role. In doing so, interims should know they also risk being unpopular and losing friendships among their colleagues. They also learn new perspectives related to the university structure and gain valuable skills as they prove to themselves and others that they can do the job effectively. They leave the position and the college/unit better than they found it.

The results of the survey suggest that the interim position can be a big advantage to both the faculty member and to the university. It give both parties the chance to “test drive” the relationship without a long-term commitment. One should keep in mind that being an interim has its own unique challenges, including having to do the job in a short, time-limited period without the luxury of having time to nurture collegial relationships and build rapport. Also, every decision and mistake will be closely monitored by the unit faculty and staff which can put them somewhat at a disadvantage if they are being compared to external candidates who are also applying for the position. It can also be awkward as they go through the interviewing process. They should expect fewer people to show up for their presentation or open interviews than would come to meet with an external candidate who is not known to the faculty or staff.

LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

A limitation of all survey research is the risk that those who had a very positive or negative experience may have decided not to participate in the study. In addition, some potential respondents may not have received the survey because they had left the position or the university before receiving the email request to participate in the study. There were also a number of questions that were not addressed in the survey and some potential questions for future research are outlined below.

- ▶ What percentage of interim administrators choose to resign if they are not selected for the permanent position, and what is the long-term impact on the university?
- ▶ What impact does gender and ethnicity have on the selection of interims, their salaries and whether or not one is selected for the permanent position?
- ▶ What percentage of universities have specific policies related to the use of interim administrators, and how do these policies affect the individual interim and the institution?
- ▶ At the end of the interim experience, whether or not one is selected as the successful candidate, it is helpful to remember that this is what you signed up for. It is important to effectively manage and make decisions that have long term impact on the unit, interims must also make personal preparations for the position to end. One of the participants of this study summed up the feelings of many of the respondents by stating, “the experience was tough but rewarding. And I am glad it is over.”

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APPLYING MARKETING IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SETTING

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ABSTRACT

Traditional public schools no longer have a guaranteed market share of students, or tax dollars, based on geographic location. Families with little to no options in the past about where their child would attend school, now have many. In response to the expanding options available to them-- in the form of charter schools and vouchers—families today are no longer simply sending their students to the school assigned to them based on geographic location. Today's public school employees need to understand why, when, where, and how to market their schools to continue to serve their communities in this changing educational climate. If public schools are going to thrive in today's society, they must respond to a new operating environment. Due to the changing competitive landscape in education, it becomes vital to understand how families select schools for their children. To date, there have been a number of published books and articles calling for greater need for schools to market. However, we argue that the emphasis of the literature has not provided administrators with a solid foundation of marketing theory. Instead, too great a focus is placed on communication tips and techniques, which gives educators a mistaken understanding of the marketing process. This paper will address the principles of marketing and how they can be applied in a public school setting. It focuses on the elements of the marketing mix, in a context unique to the competitive climate in which today's educators are operating.

INTRODUCTION

Public schools do many good things and play a vital role in our society. Unfortunately people don't seem to know this part of the story. Public schools tend to have wider courses of study, more qualified teachers, guidance services, transportation, more extracurricular activities, social services, special education services and—due to their larger sizes—they often offer the students a richer experience which helps prepare them for life. In spite of this, administrators and teachers have tremendous difficulty making the local community more aware of the good things that are happening in their public schools—all the while recognizing that it is the positive facets of the public school system that help distinguish it in the face of growing competition. However, merely telling a good story isn't enough. Public school employees are not helpless victims of today's education policies; they are in fact, the valiant defenders of public education's future. While it has not been a skill

set traditionally or explicitly taught, public school administrators and teachers must become masters of their own destiny. Today's public school employees need to understand why, when, where and how to market their schools to continue to serve our communities in this changing educational climate.

One of the biggest shifts in thinking that must take place is for public school employees to begin to see that in today's society education is a product. Like it or not, they are now competing with others. This ideological shift is a difficult one to make and can initially leave passionate educators feeling defeated. If public schools are going to thrive in today's society it is necessary to recognize and respond to the current field of education.

One of the most important factors in marketing a school—or any product, for that matter, is understanding the customer. Due to the changing competitive landscape in education, it becomes vital to understand how families

select schools for their children. No longer does the process simply entail enrolling the child in the closest school and hope all goes well. Families today are shopping for schools in a manner similar to the way they research a new appliance or automobile prior to purchase. Unfortunately, many public schools are unprepared to assist families in this decision-making process. Public schools have a tremendous opportunity before them. However, it will require them to become aware of the changing dynamics of education, understand the reasons for telling others about what they do, and then work, using new media and old, to develop a comprehensive and coherent strategy for successfully marketing their program.

This paper will address the principles of marketing and how they can be applied in a public school setting. It addresses the elements of the marketing mix, in a context unique to the competitive climate in which today's educators are operating.

UNDERSTANDING EDUCATIONAL CONSUMERS

Previously, school shopping meant buying school supplies and uniforms, but in today's world, school shoppers are taking a more consumer-like approach to the school selection process. School shoppers are becoming more savvy and growing in numbers. In 2004, the Washington DC Opportunity Scholarship program gave choice scholarships to over 1,700 public school students whose families were navigating poverty, as a way for them to pursue a non-public education for their children (Wolf, 2010). The program has grown considerably and now serves more 8,400 students. A study by Michigan Future Inc., (2012) found more than 71% of Detroit Public School families were shopping for or utilizing school alternatives for their children. Additionally, the Indiana Department of Education released a report documenting more than 9,300 students who obtained a voucher to attend a nonpublic school during the 2012-2013 school year (Damron, 2012). The city of Milwaukee started its school choice programs in 1990. More than 23,000 students now take part in Milwaukee's Parental Choice Program (Wolf, 2012). Currently, there are 18 voucher programs in 12 states, 14 tax-credit scholarship programs in 11 states, an educational savings account system in one state, and six individual tax credit/deduction programs in six states (Friedman Foundation, 2013). In addition to voucher and choice programs, 42 states now have various forms of charter schools. According to the National Alliance for Public Charter Schools (NAPCS) there are more than 5,000 public charter schools across the country serving more than two million students (NAPCS, 2013). According to the National Home Education Research Institute (2013) there are

more than two million students being homeschooled and the Council for American Private Education (2013) cites more than five million students attending 33,000 private schools nationally.

These numbers mark a new trend taking place in the field of education. Traditional public schools no longer have a guaranteed market share of students, or tax dollars, based on geographic location and families with little to no options in the past, now have many. Millions of families are no longer sending their students to the school assigned to them based on geographic location. They are looking into options and doing their homework.

Recognizing that parents are now searching for schools in ways unheard of 10 or 20 years ago and there is a competitive marketplace for education that public school employees are completely unprepared for. The initial response is to put out a press release extolling the latest test scores hoping it will be placed in the local newspaper. Even if that does get published, who reads it? What does it really say about your school? Are decision makers paying attention to that story? Are parents? Does it really level the playing field with all information available from other schools?

For many educators, discussing education as a product and the landscape of public education as a marketplace is an ideological shift. The marketing of education should not be viewed in a negative light, nor should it contradict the overall mission of public education. A more specific understanding of the role marketing plays in public education is a vital next step for educators in their pursuit of innovation and evolution. To move forward, educators must embrace a proactive role in deliberately sharing the importance of what is provided to students and communities, while recognizing many others in town offer similar services. As public schools find themselves yet again facing the expectations of an evolving society, it is important to recognize it is not the only profession that has needed to embrace marketing as a means to grow.

Several other public entities have embraced the importance of marketing strategies as competition entered their fields. In 1973, the Department of Defense became an all-volunteer organization and began its first marketing campaign to educate the public on their services and opportunities (Cross, 2010). These efforts still continue today and offer the public an alternative understanding of the military experience from those portrayed by popular media. In the face of technological advances and competitive markets, public libraries have also turned to marketing strategies to continue to pursue their mission (Robinson, 2012). For public libraries, they have determined that to thrive they must make sure the public understands what they provide and center their efforts on being more user

focused. One of the most notable public entities that has strong ties to marketing campaigns is the US Postal Service. In the age of the Internet and email, the US Postal Service recognized a shift in the manner in which consumers thought about the mail service. In response, they implemented a large scale marketing campaigns to inform the public of their services (Schuyler, 2001). These public entities all recognized that, in order to be successful in their changing operational environment, they had to recognize that what consumers were expecting of them had changed.

As public schools look to the future, they must recognize the changes in the societal landscape and decide what this means. Until recently, the lines between public and private education were very clear and bureaucratic systems were in place based on these boundaries. The recent legislative push for choice and competition has muddled these once clear waters. Public education is now one piece of a much larger and more complex educational marketplace. As the marketplace has changed, so must the behaviors of public schools.

The field of educational research has spent a considerable amount of energy examining the relationship between schools and families. Much of this research has focused on understanding what schools can do to partner with families to support the academic achievement of their students. In this new era of choice and competition, understanding and building relationships with families is only part of the story. Public schools now need to know why families choose their school, why they stay, and why they leave. From a marketing perspective, we must begin to examine the relationship between the public school and the community through the lens of the value exchange model. This perspective allows public schools a more holistic view of the relationship they engage in with the community, as well as the services they provide communities and families in exchange for their tax dollars.

The changing landscape has forced administrators and teachers to understand concepts related to business and marketing, which are generally outside the scope of their academic background and professional expertise. Schools today are being asked to market themselves but are not given the instruction on what it means to market a school, let alone the resources to do it properly. Most people think they have a general understanding of what marketing is all about because, as consumers, we've been exposed to a wide variety of marketing communications efforts in the form of advertisements, sales pitches, and other promotional activities. However, marketing communications is just a subset of marketing, a discipline encompassing far more than the act of producing an ad or sponsoring an event.

THE MARKETING MIX FOR PUBLIC SCHOOLS

When asked what "marketing" means, most educators (and most people, for that matter), believe that marketing is simply about getting the word out about their school—in the form of public relations or advertising. Marketers, however, understand that marketing encompasses so much more. The Marketing Mix includes Product, Price, Place and Promotion. The term was first coined in 1964 by Harvard marketing professor Neil Borden, who credited Professor James Culliton with describing the marketing executive as a "mixer of ingredients" (Borden, 1984, p. 7). As Borden explains, the competitive and environmental circumstances facing an organization are ever changing. Management can respond in a number of ways, including developing products, expanding distribution outlets, changing pricing procedures, or utilizing aggressive promotions. While these may be day-to-day responses, the overall strategy represents the organization's Marketing Mix.

Strategic planning for products or services encompasses three areas: planning for new products, managing strategies for existing successful products, and developing programs for unsuccessful products (Cravens, 1994). Organizations must put in place systems for gauging a product's performance. Performance can be measured in both a financial and nonfinancial manner. Financial metrics include revenues, costs and profit. Non-financial assessments include such things as customer awareness and satisfaction measurements. From a marketing perspective, financial measurements that make sense for schools include enrollment and costs. From a non-financial standpoint, there are many measures a school could use to its competitive advantage—parental satisfaction survey results, test scores, college placement and scholarship statistics, to name only a few.

Strategic planning decisions for product distribution must be consistent with the product and its positioning. A good distribution network can actually create a competitive advantage for a brand. Organizations must be able to deliver the product in a manner that meets customers' needs. Traditional businesses have a number of logistical issues to plan for—such as transportation, warehousing, inventory, and order processing. In addition, businesses must consider whether their distribution network will incorporate traditional brick-and-mortar locations, utilize a virtual e-commerce platform—or a combination of both. For schools, these same options are now available.

Where pricing is concerned, product managers must plan an effective strategy for the brand. In general, a product's price quantifies the value of the exchange. Where complex purchases are concerned, price is considered synonymous

with quality (Cravens, 1994). A product's pricing strategy is driven by its value proposition. While public schools can, and should, adopt a competitive position—they will never be called on to tie that positioning to an actual price point. Faced with increasing competition, identifying and communicating the value proposition delivered has never been more vital for public schools. Although there is no tuition price charged for public education, the value proposition allows schools to convey the degree of the value exchanged with the intended target market. Public schools deliver tremendous value—in exchange for many things, such as the time, effort and interest of students as parents, as well as the tax support, good will, and hopefully feeling of pride from the community in which the school operates.

Promotion strategy combines advertising, personal selling, sales promotion and public relations. Often referred to as the Promotion Mix, these tools can dramatically influence an organization's ability to successfully influence consumer decision making. Selection of the appropriate promotional tools must take into consideration the specific marketing objective the organization wishes to achieve. Further, because the promotional mix represents significant costs, organizations must identify the manner in which the promotional budget will be established. School leaders need to understand the strengths and weaknesses of the tools in the promotional mix, so that an appropriate marketing communication strategy can be integrated into the overall marketing plan.

Beyond recognizing the technical capabilities of each communications vehicle, school administrators need to have a deeper appreciation for the communications environment. With the evolution of the Internet and social media, the communication landscape has shifted to a model which now permits the full participation of consumers in dialog related to companies and brands. These technologies not only enable consumers to be better informed, but they facilitate the exchange of information with companies and – perhaps more importantly—with other consumers. Social media, blogs, and websites afford consumers tremendous resources to share information about their product experiences. Schools have the opportunity to become part of the conversation and utilize social media to their benefit.

Many organizations have used social media to help engage their customers in ways they never could before. Recognizing that students are heavily involved in social media, many schools are eager to add this platform to their marketing communications regimen. However, schools should be cautioned to educate themselves about social media before diving in blindly. According to the 2013 Social Media Marketing Industry Report, 86% of market-

ing professionals believe that social media is important to their business; however nearly 90% of them want to know which tactics are the most effective at engaging their audience (Stelzner, 2013). Social media encompasses a variety of communications vehicles. They include blogs, podcasts, social media sites such as Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, Pinterest, etc., as well as YouTube. However, beyond simply maintaining a blog or a Facebook page, marketers must understand how to measure the effectiveness of their social media activities.

For schools, there are pro's and con's to using social media. Without going into an exhaustive list, we shall consider some of the factors that are important to schools. First, social media is free to use. Where billboards and radio ads cost money, social media is free. Depending on how it is managed, social media can reach a large audience and it can also reach a targeted one. On the downside, social media is extremely time consuming. Content has to be generated and maintained on a timely basis, or the organization will risk losing its connection with the audience--- which is one of the primary reasons for utilizing social media marketing in the first place. Where traditional media involves sending out messages to an audience, social media marketing involves multi-directional communication--where users can initiate a topic, share, and respond to other messages with the organization or with each other. This represents a loss of control for the organization. Further, the targets for social media platforms are becoming ever-more fragmented. For example, Facebook used to be extremely popular among teens--- at least until their parents showed up on the site. As a result, teens moved to Instagram, Vine, Tumblr, and Snapshot. The ever-evolving use of social media sites helps marketers realize the importance of understanding why and how they want to use social media and most importantly, who they want to reach. Most schools focus on reaching parents, rather than students. Nonetheless, with limited human capital to devote toward managing social media messaging, schools are advised to tread lightly until they can develop a sustainable plan of action where social media marketing is concerned.

In developing a social media marketing strategy, there are five key components that should be addressed; these include: listening, planning, execution, monitoring and measurement (Chapman, 2012). Once an organization has identified the audience they wish to attract, they must listen to find out where and how the audience wants to engage online. The planning calls for an evaluation of each social media platform, in terms of the reach and any other technical considerations. From there, a communication plan should be developed for each social channel, recognizing the differences that exist within each social network community. For example, Pinterest is extremely different from Facebook and organizations cannot simply

copy and paste a single message across all platforms. With respect to monitoring, the organization must have an established, up front, against which they can measure the results. Goals can include simple counts, such as website visits, or complex analyses of the content generated in social media conversations.

In terms of technologies, schools are advised to be aware of how social media, blogs or email can be useful in driving traffic to a website, where more information can be provided, where people can sign up for events, or request more information. However, these actions will happen only if the digital experience is easy and pleasant for the user. With this in mind, schools are urged to evaluate their website to make sure it is user-friendly, accurate, and contains up-to-date information. For example, if a school wishes to use the website as an admissions tool, the site should include information parents will find useful in making a school-choice decision. This could include very detailed information about how to enroll a child in the school, such as FAQ's, key dates, necessary forms, or broader information which will help parents in their decision process, such as white papers, or links to other sites.

At all times, however, schools cannot forget their position in the community and because social media involves other parties engaging in the communication, platforms must be monitored for appropriateness. With this in mind, it is useful for schools to have some sense of established policies for social media conduct.

ADOPTING A MARKETING ORIENTATION

As a result of increased competition, most school administrators realize that they respond to the challenges of the operating environment in which they now operate. Many have expressed the desire to “do more marketing.” In most cases, “doing marketing” translates into putting out press releases or running ads in the local paper. While such communication efforts are often the visible end result of a carefully-planned marketing strategy, they do not, alone, represent an organization's marketing orientation. As we have advocated, marketing is an operational philosophy. The full marketing mix of product, price, place and finally, promotion, work together to create the value proposition that meets a consumer's needs. Many non-marketers look for a quick fix, such as a checklist or playbook to follow, in order to show “marketing activity.” Sadly, there is no single checklist that covers all marketing objectives and the simple reason is that consumers have different needs. There cannot be a single checklist because products, prices, places and promotions all vary. The same holds true for schools. An organization that has truly adopted a marketing orientation focuses on customers and produces what they want. The truth is--- that while the coordination and

communication activities may reside within a marketing or communications function-- marketing is an enterprise-wide undertaking that transcends ads, websites, and public relations.

We hold that school administrators need to educate themselves on the wider aspects of marketing. To begin, we suggest the understanding of a definition of marketing that is focused on the value exchange and meeting consumers' needs, as opposed to one emphasizing communication and promotion. A solid understanding of the marketing mix is necessary before any promotion activities or integrated marketing communication can be executed. Building any marketing campaign begins with understanding the needs and wants of the target audience and assembling an entire marketing mix of product, price, place and promotion that will motivate consumers to engage in the value exchange. Some organizations waste time and resources creating products and services, with no regard for consumers' needs or whether the product would be desired. They then attempt to “market” the product through a series of tired communication methods that do not reach the intended audience and, when all of this fails, they throw even more money trying to push a product that customers didn't want in the first place. Leaving marketing communication to pick up the slack of a poorly conceived product concept is like using a coat of paint to cover up cracks in the wall. It won't take care of the problem.

While many schools have been successful in adopting promotional communication strategies to help them become more competitive, fewer have truly transitioned to becoming marketing organizations, whose focus is on identifying customer needs and creating a marketing mix that will result in a successful value exchange.

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**THE NEED TO PRACTICE WHAT WE TEACH:
ASSESSING THE PREPAREDNESS OF CHAIRS AND DEANS TO THEIR
MANAGEMENT APPOINTMENTS IN MISSISSIPPI'S PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES**

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ABSTRACT

In the classroom, great effort is made to educate the next generation of leaders on the importance of training for them and their future employees. As educators, the natural emphasis is placed on formal education, however as employees are promoted, their success often rests with their ability to manage a larger unit. In higher education the most basic assumption of managers rests in the belief that the ones who hold the administrative positions possess exceptional qualifications and knowledge to successfully guide their institutions to greatness. Included are the beliefs that prior to their current appointments, these administrators completed appropriate, relevant, and thorough training encompassing the applicable management skills. From understanding technical and legal aspects of their responsibilities, such as budgets, accreditation procedures, and pertinent laws, to ethically applying these practices with their workforces, which includes incorporating the institutions' values, all administrators are assumed to be fully knowledgeable and capable of carrying out their duties. However, these assumptions, beliefs, and understandings do not provide concrete evidence of their qualifications and in many ways could prove to be a great disservice that exposes the institutions to potential problems. Therefore, through assessing the formal opportunities of preparedness of chairs and deans within public universities in Mississippi, one can gain a better understanding of the qualifications of administrators, who frequently begin their careers in management of higher education in these roles.

Mississippi, not unlike other states, hosts public universities seeking to educate and enlighten students through quality programs designed to provide basic theories and practices in various fields of study. Students are taught the importance of preparation for their professional roles, hence their participation in the higher educational system. Their training for success rests on the knowledge they gained through the formal educational system, on-the-job training, and ability to adapt to the changing work environment. The need for proper training is important, as expectations for success increases with seniority and promotions throughout careers.

However, that notion of training is often lost in the very educational institution the students hold to be the exam-

ple of excellence. Specifically, these institutions hire faculty based on a set of necessary qualifications, which usually includes advanced degrees, scholarly achievements, and professional experience. The students seek to learn from the faculty and, in turn, the faculty remain current in their fields in order to provide the best quality education to the next generation of professionals in that field.

Beyond the classroom, universities have a hierarchy in which administrators create, enforce, and influence policy and procedures designed to maintain the integrity and success of the institutions. In the first line supervisory role are chairs, whose responsibility rests with daily departmental operations. The chairs report to deans, whose responsibilities include overseeing the role of the college

or school, and often include short term goals and supervisory tasks on a daily basis. The qualifications of chairs and deans to hold these roles are ambiguous, as focus is placed on their qualifications in their field of expertise, although their administrative roles require them to perform managerial tasks, such as hiring and promoting qualified faculty and staff, conducting performance evaluations, resolving conflict, implementing institutional changes, completing and submitting required reports, and familiarity with and adhering to university, accreditation, and legal policies, procedures, and laws. Although chairs and deans were likely successful in their faculty roles, it cannot be assumed that their transition into management will result in great leadership and success. Appropriate training is needed to ensure these individuals possess the skills and knowledge needed in their management roles.

PURPOSE OF STUDY

Understanding the qualifications, specifically as it relates to preparedness opportunities, of chairs and deans to hold management positions in Mississippi's public universities provides an overview of the importance placed on training these individuals to successfully reach organizational goals employing legal, ethical, and appropriate means. Additionally, through examining whether or not chairs and deans are presented with opportunities for training in the areas of management necessary to carry out their responsibilities provides insight into the degree of willingness the universities' higher administrators have in exposing their universities to potential problems.

The primary purpose of this study serves to determine the management training of chairs and deans prior to their appointments. Additionally, this study explores the continued and consistent offering of educational opportunities for chairs and deans to fulfill their management responsibilities, especially in light of ongoing legal, ethical, and institutional challenges.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Thus far very little empirical research has focused solely on the process of identifying the training needs of chairs and deans across various universities (Aziz, Mullins, Balzer, Grauer, Burnfield, Ladato, & Cohen-Powless, 2005). It has been suggested by previous research that if chairs and deans are trained for each of their specific responsibilities there will be a reduction in role ambiguity and conflict that, in most cases, is contributed to the functioning of the unit as a whole. Effective training will help improve performance and satisfaction while reducing stress and turnover (Aziz, Mullins, Balzer, Grauer, Burnfield, Ladato, & Cohen-Powless, 2005).

The job requirements for the positions of chairs and deans appear overwhelming and ambiguous. The responsibilities are extensive and constantly expanding. At the very least, universities expect chairs and deans to hold terminal degrees and appropriate credentials, have teaching experience, and interpersonal communication skills. Those applying for chair's and dean's positions are expected to possess necessary leadership qualities and be abreast of current trends and issues. Considering the institutions of higher learning are insistent applicants meet these qualifications, it would be a foregone conclusion the schools would offer extensive training and continuing education in management skills necessary for success.

Chairs and deans face a multitude of issues while conducting the numerous responsibilities of their jobs. "Richard Ostrander, provost of Cornerstone University, said the department chairs described their main challenges as having too many responsibilities and too little time...and receiving too little training and preparation for the job" (Lederman, 2011). Administrators must be able to analyze various situations and evaluate decisions with a focus on achieving a desired outcome. Priorities are a critical component in addressing the issues associated with management positions.

There are a number of ways faculty members can become an academic chair. A faculty member can be elected by members of the department, through appointment by the dean, or through a system of rotation. "Unfortunately, academic departments spend precious little time selecting their leaders and even less time preparing them for the duties that they will assume. Typically, departments select their leaders by reaching into their faculty pools and, with little or no forethought or planning, plucking some unsuspecting soul who is then unceremoniously dumped into the foray and expected to excel at something about which he or she knows little" (Wolverton & Ackerman, 2006). The administration at various universities are aware that their chairs have risen to their positions through seniority and not necessarily because they had the aptitude for the position. "They typically receive little formal training on the administrative aspects of the jobs—budgeting, legal aspects of the hiring process, and the like" (Lederman, 2011). Seldom does purposeful selection of chairs based on perceived leadership potential take place.

A faculty member may accept the chair position for a number of reasons, which can include personal satisfaction in helping others develop professionally, a chance to build effective academic programs, the challenge of leadership, defending the interests of the department, access to deans and vice-presidents, and status and prestige (Lucas, 1986). Chairs and deans occupy key positions as leaders in higher education and, unfortunately, where strong

leadership skills are required in this position, training is not always provided. Unfortunately, only 3% of more than 2,000 academic leaders surveyed in national studies between 1990 and 2000 had any type of leadership preparation (Wolverton & Ackerman, 2006). This issue has been a discussion amongst researchers for over 30 years with minimal progress (Aziz, Mullins, Balzer, Grauer, Burnfield, Ladato, & Cohen-Powless, 2005).

Courses specific to training chairs are offered and made convenient and accessible to universities. Some include the Academic Chairpersons Conference, the Department Chairs Conference hosted by the American Sociological Association, the MIS Department Chairs/Program Directors Conference, and the Chair Academy's Annual International Conference. Many of these programs have become an annual meeting for both newly appointed and experienced chairs to learn from one another. For example, the Academic Chairpersons Conference hosts the "New Chairs Alliance", which is specifically designed to equip new chairs with many of the tools they will need.

The challenges chairs face are not isolated, as deans experience great difficulty in adjusting to their roles in management of a larger academic unit. "Today, the responsibilities of deans vary depending on the size and mission of the university and the college or school, but in all cases they include budget and personnel management responsibilities" (Layne, 2010). External and political relations, leadership, internal productivity, resource management, academic personnel management, and personal scholarship were identified as the six main areas of a dean's responsibility in a national study of academic deans (Montez, Wolverton, & Gmelch, 2002).

Probably the most significant issue facing deans is building and maintaining trust (Harris, 2006). Research supports a new leadership profile for deans emphasizing four key areas: strategic skills, innovation, relationship effectiveness, and enterprise management. Business schools are seeking more strategic-minded and integrative deans. Recently, several search committees of selecting business school deans hired candidates with organizational, strategy, and management expertise because the committees believed these candidates are the best choice to lead their institutions in today's climate (Kring & Kaplan, 2011).

In order to assist deans with understanding their management responsibilities, some organizations offer specialized programs. One of the most intensive management training programs offered to academic deans is Vanderbilt University's Peabody College's Higher Education Management Training Institute, which showcases real world scenario decision making and daily management theories of college and university leaders (Vanderbilt University, 2012). Also provided for deans are the Summer Workshop and

New Dean's Institute, which is one of the foremost training programs for graduate school deans and includes a day-long program for newly hired deans (Council of Graduate Schools, 2012). Furthermore, the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business hosts the Deans Conference exclusively for business school deans and serves as a source for new ideas to advance their programs (Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business, 2012).

According to Bhatti (2011), "Training is the driving source in identification of the characteristics of quality education and the implementation of these characteristics" (p. 147). "In many respects, management tasks can be learned. In contrast, leadership (the ability to develop a vision, anticipate needs, inspire others toward a common purpose) is much harder to come by and is rarely addressed in professional or skill development opportunities" (Wolverton & Ackerman, 2006, p. 15).

METHODOLOGY

The survey administered collected data pertaining to the management training of chairs and deans in Mississippi's eight public institutions of higher learning. Questions were created to evaluate the degree to which the universities were offering management training programs for the chairs and deans prior to their administrative appointments, if they were conducting consistent and continuous training for chairs and deans, and if those holding these positions were participating in management training opportunities. Surveys were disseminated to the 258 deans and chairs throughout the state, in which 73 responses were collected, resulting in a response rate of approximately 28%. More specifically, 57 chairs and 16 deans responded resulting in an approximate 29% and 27% response rate, respectively.

Research Questions

The following research questions were explored:

- 1: Are chairs and deans provided management training prior to their administrative appointments?
- 2: Are management training programs available for chairs and deans?
- 3: Have chairs and deans participated in management training since their appointments?
- 4: Have chairs and deans participated in management training within the last year?
- 5: Are chairs and deans aware of any scheduled management training opportunities?
- 6: What is the frequency for which chairs and deans are provided annual management training?

RESULTS

Through examining the data collected from academic administrators in the chairs and deans positions within the eight public universities in Mississippi, the following results were extracted. It was reported that prior to their first administrative role 21% of chairs and 56% of deans received management training to prepare them for their future administrative positions. In contrast, 79% of chairs and 44% of deans did not receive management training prior to their appointments (See Figure 1). With regards to Research Question 1: Are chairs and deans provided management training prior to their administrative appointments?, the data indicate that chairs overwhelming do not receive adequate management training opportunities, whereas, slightly more than half of deans do.

Seventy-Six percent of chairs and 69% of deans reported receiving management training since their appointments. Those not receiving training since their appointments were 24% of chairs and 31% of deans. Therefore, the data show the chairs and deans have received training in the time following their appointments, thus providing an affirmative for Research Question 3: Have chairs and deans participated in management training since their appointments?

Also, respondents provided feedback regarding training they have received within the last year. 58% of chairs and 69% of deans reported they have participated in management training, and 41% of chairs and 31% of deans reported they have not participated in management training. Research question 4 asked have chairs and deans participated in management training within the last year and based on the data, some of the chairs received training whereas a greater number of deans received training.

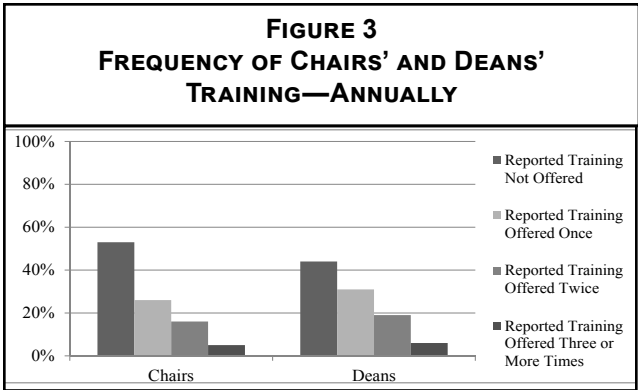
Respondents also provided insight into the availability of management training programs in which 76% of chairs and 69% of deans reported that management training programs were available to assist them in their responsibilities. However, according to 24% of chairs and 31% of deans no management training programs were available

to educate them further about their duties (See Figure 2). With a vast majority of chairs and deans receiving training that indicates an affirmative for Research Question 2: Are management training programs available for chairs and deans?

Research question 6 asked, what is the frequency for which chairs and deans are provided annual management training? Responses varied regarding the frequency of management training programs offered for chairs and deans. As Figure 3 indicates, over half (53%) of chairs and 44% of deans receive no annual training to provide them with the necessary skills and knowledge to carry out their management responsibilities. Slightly more than one quarter (26%) of chairs and just under a third (31%) of deans claimed they are provided one management training opportunity each year. Even less (16% of chairs and 19% of deans) received two annual management trainings. A dismal 5% of chairs and 6% of deans are offered three or more opportunities to train in the specialized areas of management in which their position requires.

Future training opportunities were also examined through this survey. Half of the chairs (50%) reported that they are aware of planned management training sessions designed specifically for their needs. The other 50% of chairs reported they were not aware of any future management training opportunities that they could be invited to attend. With regards to the dean's level respondents, slightly more were aware of upcoming management training sessions with 56% reporting that they had been notified of future training. However, the remaining 44% of deans claimed they were not aware of management training opportunities for their needs (See Figure 4). With regards to Research Question 5: Are chairs and deans aware of any scheduled management training opportunities?, the data shows mixed results in which approximately half of both chairs and deans reported awareness of management training opportunities.

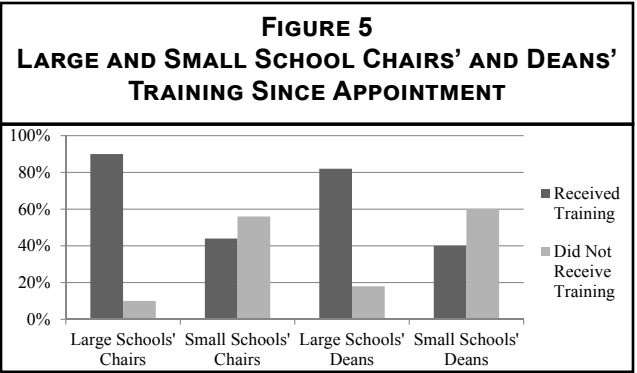
When provided an opportunity to elaborate on their past management training opportunities, scheduled training sessions, and views on how management training can im-



pect their effectiveness on the job, the respondents commented that they welcome management training opportunities and were optimistic that more would be provided. They also stated that the training they receive is often task specific and does little to assist in their work on a larger scale. Comments also described the critical need for continual and consistent management training for chairs and deans to be better prepared for the job, especially as it relates to skills needed to assist with high priorities at their universities, such as strategic planning, budgeting, personnel issues, and legal concerns. Respondents also expressed concern that those promoted into administration from a faculty position are seldom adequately trained, however the expectations for their success do not reflect the degree of preparedness they receive in their new role.

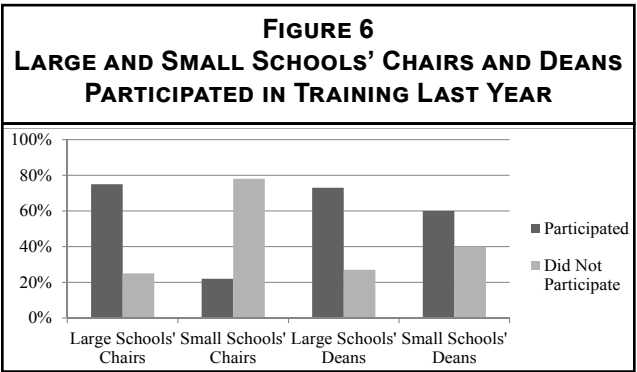
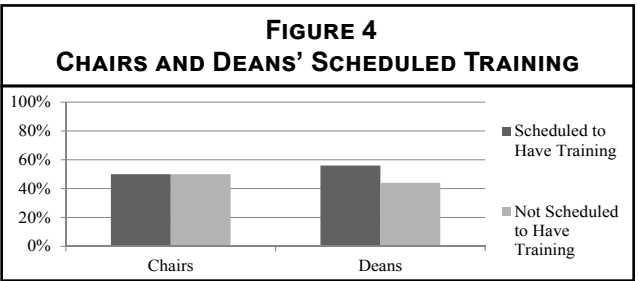
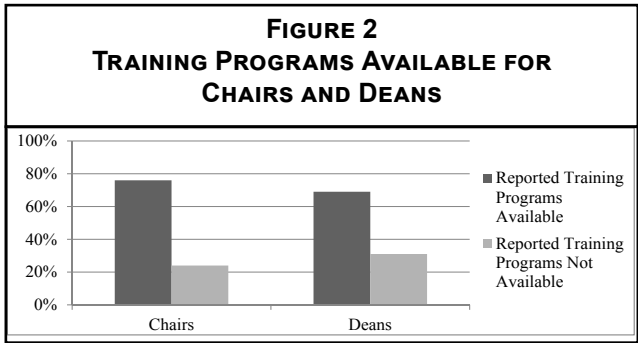
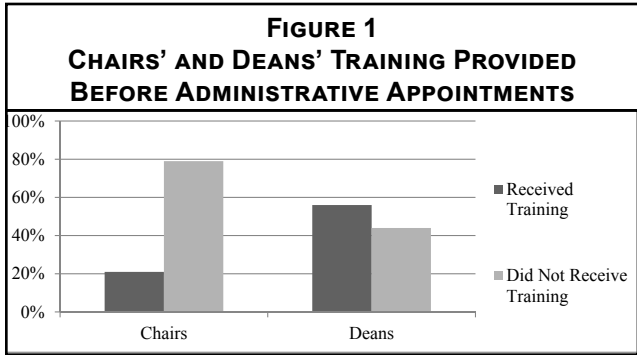
Discussion

Upon further examination of the results, a pattern appeared in which a distinct disparity became apparent. The management training opportunities for chairs and deans at larger institutions (student enrollment > 8,000) reported a greater number of past, scheduled, consistent, and continuous training opportunities as opposed to their counterparts at the smaller universities (student enrollment < 8,000). As Figure 5 shows, since their administrative appointment, the chairs and deans at larger schools claimed more management training (chairs 90%, deans 82%) than those at the small institutions (chairs 44%, deans 40%).



The discrepancy is further evidenced by the management training received by chairs and deans within the last year. The larger institutions' chairs reported 75% received training to assist them in their duties and 73% of deans also were afforded opportunities to learn more about their management responsibilities through training. In contrast, the chairs employed by smaller schools claimed that only 22% received any management training throughout the past year. Furthermore, 60% of deans at the smaller institutions were trained in management, as Figure 6 shows.

The most alarming information reported reflects the frequency in which chairs and deans receive annual training to accent their management responsibilities. Large school chairs reported that 45% received no annual management training, 30% received one training opportunity, 18% received two training sessions, and 8% claimed to have received three or more training opportunities annually. The deans at these schools reported 27% received no training annually, 36% were trained once, 27% were trained twice, and 9% participated in three or more management training opportunities each year. The chairs and deans at smaller institutions reported dramatically less training, as 72% of chairs and 80% of deans reported they received no annual training to assist them with their management responsibilities. 17% of chairs and 20% of deans received one training session, 11% of chairs and no deans received



two training opportunities, and no chairs or deans received three or more management training annually at the smaller schools (See Figure 7).

This discrepancy causes great concern, as the expectation is that administrators in these positions are fully prepared and capable of doing their duties, regardless of the size of the institution. The reasons for the inconsistency are numerous and include variances in available funding for management training, a lack of understanding of the importance of training with regards to effectiveness on the job, assumptions that faculty who perform acceptably in the classroom are easily transitioned to administration, and expectation that the individuals will seek assistance as needed rather than the necessity of a formal management training program. Regardless of the reason for the discrepancies, it is disturbing to see that the chairs and deans in small schools are not participating in management training programs that can provide valuable insight, skills, and necessary understanding into the leadership of their units.

CONCLUSION

While this study examined the public universities in Mississippi, it is not to exclude the possibility that other states' institutions of higher learning might also be experiencing similar challenges. With regards to the Mississippi schools, there appears to be a lack of adequate management training, especially at the smaller institutions. It is important to note, however, that the larger institutions, while providing training for their chairs and deans, do not provide an abundance of management training that is regularly scheduled and designed to the specific needs of the administrators in these positions. It is premature to conclude that since the larger schools provide more management training than their smaller counterparts that they are fulfilling the need. For both large and small schools it

is imperative that continuous and consistent training be implemented as to ensure chairs and deans are fully prepared to address the management needs of their units.

In order to offer an excellent education that includes a premier example to the students of management training for the current and future administrators at the university, it is critical that the classroom lecture be more than words and theories. Universities are responsible for adhering to the standards taught, thus have an obligation to practice what we teach.

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 lack of adequate management training for chairs and deans in Mississippi's public universities, the study was limited to eight institutions of higher learning. 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 trends in management training for chairs and deans. The study was also limited to public institutions in one state in the southern region of the United States.

Another limitation of this study involves the generalizability of the results of this particular research. It is not certain that the findings will yield similar results across other states, regions, and private institutions. 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 states and regions of the country to determine the management training of chairs and deans in those areas. Such data would identify trends across the nation and determine what regions are more likely to offer adequate management training opportunities to chairs and deans.

Additionally, future research should explore reasons for the distinct disparity between the management training offered to larger institutions as opposed to that offered to smaller institutions in Mississippi. Also, research should evaluate the possibility of differences in management training received by chairs and deans of large schools ver-

sus small schools in other locations. Furthermore, future research should investigate the reason why large school chairs and deans choose not to participate in available management training opportunities.

Finally, continued research could be conducted using private institutions to determine if their management training practices mirror that of the public institutions. Should it be determined that private institutions do not experience similar results, then a study of their practices and policies could benefit the public institutions experiencing inadequate management training for chairs and deans.

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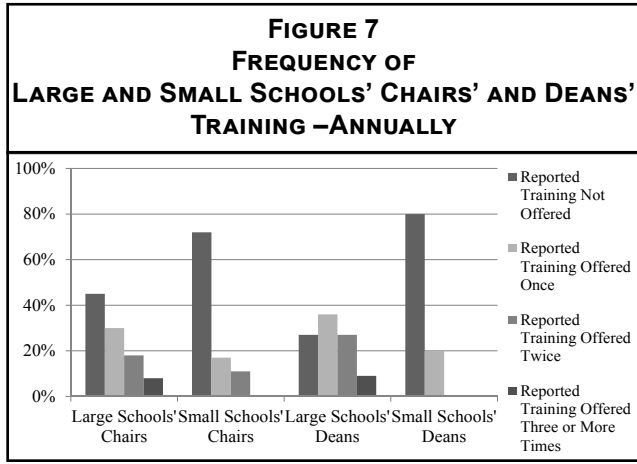
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GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT OF GRADUATE SCHOOL FUNCTIONS IN A COLLEGE OF HEALTH SCIENCES

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ABSTRACT

Saint Louis University decentralized Graduate School functions in the fall of 2010. The primary goal of this initiative was to provide greater “academic flexibility and resources” to expand graduate programs and enhance research opportunities in colleges, schools, and centers on campus. This initiative allowed the Doisy College of Health Sciences (DCHS) to create a flexible academic environment and allocate resources toward developing a graduate education team responsible for academic programs, research support, and academic affairs. The DCHS has realized the practical implications of the decentralized model through growth in academic programs, student scholarship opportunities, and graduate assistantships. This paper examines three intertwining key components before and after decentralization at the DCHS: personnel, university administrative structure, and operations.

BACKGROUND

Saint Louis University remains dedicated to educating leaders who will contribute to the knowledge and skills of their disciplines, promote the discovery of new knowledge, and who will use, integrate, and disseminate this knowledge in accordance with the values, ethics, and intellectual ideals of the Society of Jesus. The University awarded its first Master of Arts (MA) degree in 1834 followed by its first Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) degree in 1880. It was not until 1925 that the University established

a formal Graduate School(1). The mission of the Graduate School was to support excellence through teaching, research, scholarship, and community service.

The administration of Saint Louis University reorganized graduate education by dissolving the Graduate School in July 2010. The period after the decision to dissolve the graduate school and funnel administrative functions down to the college/school/center level will be referred to as the “transition” throughout the remainder of this communication. The primary goal of this initiative was

to provide academic deans greater academic flexibility and resources for expanding existing graduate programs and fostering research in colleges, schools, and centers across campus. A number of programming and financial resource issues surfaced during the transition period with regard to the university administrative structure, centralized and decentralized operations, and graduate education processing. The reorganization did not change the mission of graduate education which states:

The Mission of Graduate Education at the University and the Doisy College of Health Sciences [DCHS or the College] levels is to define and support excellence through teaching, research, scholarship, and community service. The University is dedicated to educating leaders who will contribute to the knowledge and skills of their disciplines, promote the discovery of new knowledge, and who will use, integrate, and disseminate this knowledge consistent with the values, ethics, and intellectual ideals of the Society of Jesus [emphasis added by author] (<http://www.slu.edu/x31995.xml>).

New terminology was introduced during the transition to describe the levels of education provided by the University. Prior to decentralization, each graduate program was placed in one of two categories: graduate or professional. “Graduate” was the historical term given to traditional degrees granted such as Master of Arts (MA), Master of Science (MS), and Doctor of Philosophy (PhD). Professional degrees consisted of degrees earned in specific fields such as medicine (MD), law (JD) and health science disciplines [e.g. Doctor of Physical Therapy (DPT) and Master of Occupational Therapy (MOT)]. The transition from a centralized Graduate School model into a hybrid model of centralized and decentralized operations resulted in the diversification and the coalescence of the graduate and professional programs into a post-baccalaureate category. All graduate programs now fall under the sponsorship of the Office of Graduate Education. A list of abbreviations can be found in Table 1.

MAIN OBJECTIVES

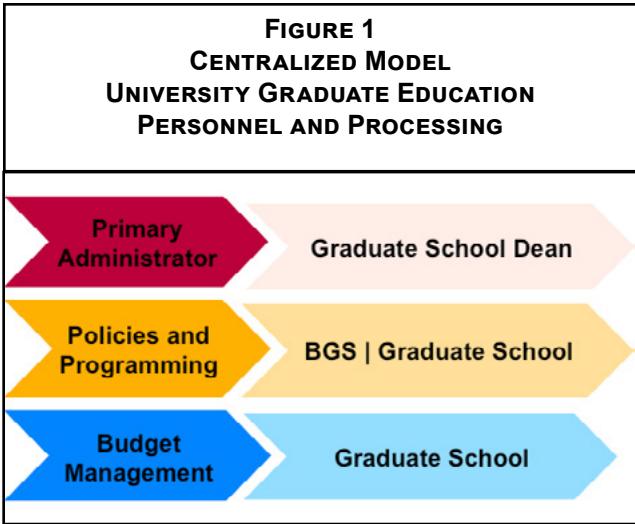
This paper explores three vital and interconnected components of the graduate education delivery system at both the university and college levels: personnel, university administrative structure, and operations. Observations of these component areas both before and after the transition are used to assess the complexities and outcomes associated with the transition. Since the University administrative structure, personnel, and operations were overseen by the Graduate School, the model in place before the transition

TABLE 1 LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	
ADD	Associate Deans and Directors
ADGE	Associate Dean for Graduate Education
AVPGE	Associate Vice President for Graduate Education
BGS	Board of Graduate Studies
BOT	Board of Trustees
DPT	Doctor of Physical Therapy
DCHS	Doisy College of Health Sciences
GA	Graduate Assistant
GAAC	Graduate Academic Affairs Committee
IPEDS	Integrated Post Secondary Education Data System
JD	Juris Doctor
MA	Master of Arts
MD	Doctor of Medicine
MOT	Master of Occupational Therapy
MS	Master of Science
MSHS	Master of Science in Health Sciences
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy
RA	Research Assistant
VPAA	Vice President of Academic Affairs

is considered to be “centralized”. The transition resulted in a hybrid model which decentralized a significant number of graduate education functions while other functions remained under the control of a centralized authority. For the purposes of this paper, the terms “centralized” (referring to the model before the transition) and “hybrid” are used. The growth opportunities, limitations, steps being taken to overcome those limits, and implications for practice introduced by assuming graduate education at the DCHS level are discussed as well.

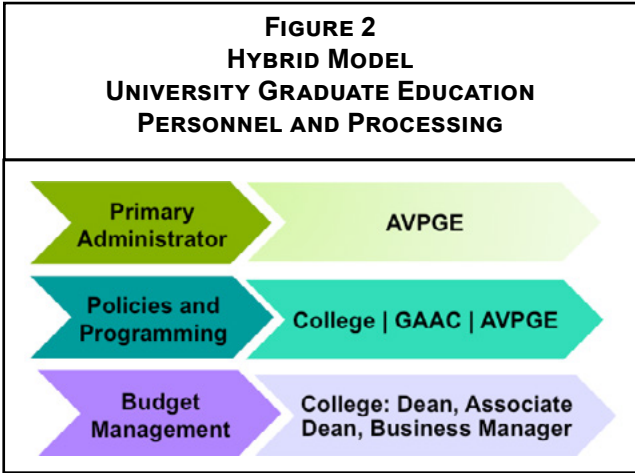
PERSONNEL

“Personnel” refers to primary administrators and those responsible for the policies, programming, and budget management aspects of graduate education. In the centralized model, the Dean of the Graduate School served as the primary administrator for graduate education processes (Figure 1). Representatives from each college, school, and center that facilitated graduate education composed the Board of Graduate Studies (BGS). The Graduate School assumed responsibility for all graduate education policies and programming, and management of the graduate edu-



cation budget across campus. The upper level administrators consisted of a Provost, the University President, and the University Board of Trustees (BOT).

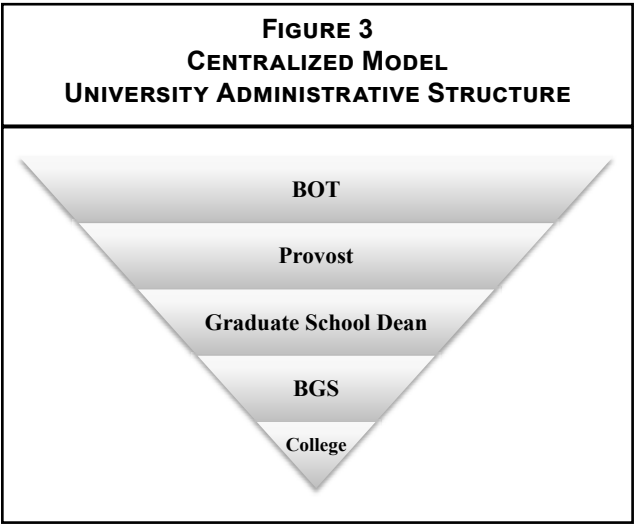
In the hybrid model, the Graduate School was replaced with the Office of Graduate Education administered by an Associate Vice President for Graduate Education (AVPGE) (Figure 2). The BGS was restructured into the Graduate Academic Affairs Committee (GAAC). The GAAC is made up of faculty and associate deans representing colleges, schools, and centers across campus that provide graduate level programming for students. The AVPGE serves as the primary graduate education administrator and provides oversight for the GAAC. Three groups of individuals participate in the policies and programming aspects of graduate education: the college/school/center, GAAC, and the AVPGE. Management of the budget now occurs at the college/school/center level. The hybrid model allows each college/school/center to appoint an individual to provide oversight for graduate education with the goal to promote graduate education sus-



tainability and growth. In the case of DCHS (Figure 2), an Associate Dean for Graduate Education (ADGE) was appointed to provide College personnel with budget management and policy as well as programming development and oversight. The position of the Provost was replaced with a Vice President for Academic Affairs (VPAA) for the university. The role of University President and University Board of Trustees in graduate education remains the same.

UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE

In the centralized model, University administrative structure consisted of individuals involved in graduate education issues that required university level decisions and approvals. Examples cited here and throughout the rest of the article are specific to DCHS. One example of this model is that an approval process was required when implementing a new graduate program. The approval process began at the college/school/center level. Once an academic unit developed a proposal, a two-step process at the college level followed. The college-level curriculum committee first considered and made an appropriate recommendation to the Graduate School Dean. After the Dean supported the proposal, it was then presented to the Board of Graduate Studies (BGS). The BGS, a university level body, reviewed all such proposals (as well as student grievances) and made recommendations to the Dean of the Graduate School who was an active member on the BGS. If the BGS supported the proposal, it was then routed to the Dean of the Graduate School and the Provost. The University Board of Trustees (BOT), of which the President is a voting member (Figure 3) granted final approval. In the event that a proposal was not supported by the BGS, the Dean of the Graduate School notified the College Dean, and



the proposal was returned to the corresponding academic unit with feedback for future resubmission consideration.

In the hybrid model illustrated in Figure 4, the Office of Graduate Education replaced the Graduate School, and the BGS was restructured into the Graduate Academic Affairs Committee (GAAC). The GAAC was developed with a charge to serve as "the principal advisory body to the Associate Vice President of Graduate Education (AVPGE)" (<https://sites.google.com/a/slu.edu/graduate-academic-affairs-committee/>). This group is composed of faculty and associate deans representing colleges, schools, and centers across campus that provide graduate level program options for students with a focus on the development, improvement, and quality control of post-baccalaureate studies at the University. While the AVPGE provides oversight of the GAAC, the committee reviews academic proposals (new and substantive changes) and university graduate education policy. GAAC differs from the BGS from the centralized model in that it does not hear student grievances.

Proposals for new graduate programs now begin at the DCHS level. The hybrid model allows the college curriculum committee to examine proposals from both undergraduate and graduate programs. A new graduate program proposal is first considered by the DCHS curriculum committee and then recommended to the college Dean when indicated. Proposals supported by the Dean are routed to GAAC for review and consideration. Since the AVPGE sits on this body, this step allows for GAAC and the AVPGE to examine the proposal together. If supported, the Vice President of Academic Affairs (VPAA) reviews the proposal. If the proposal is supported at all levels and given final approval by the Board of Trustees (BOT) the new graduate program is approved for implementation. In the event that the proposal is not supported by GAAC, the AVPGE notifies the supporting unit (in

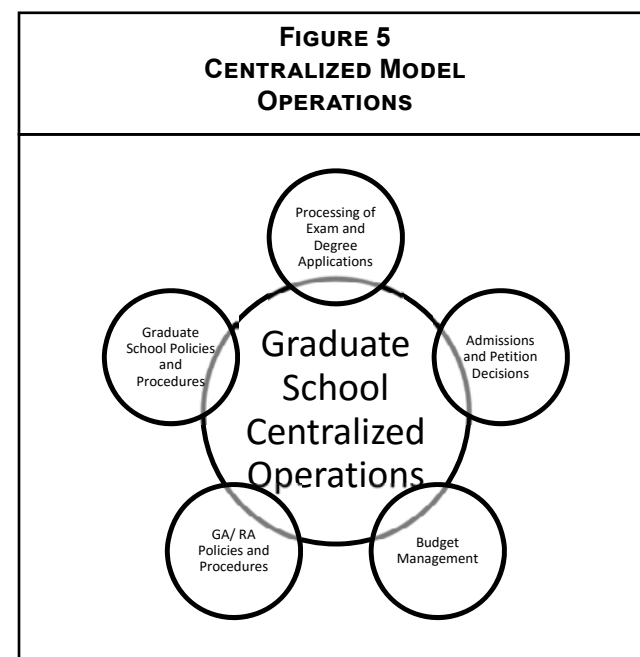
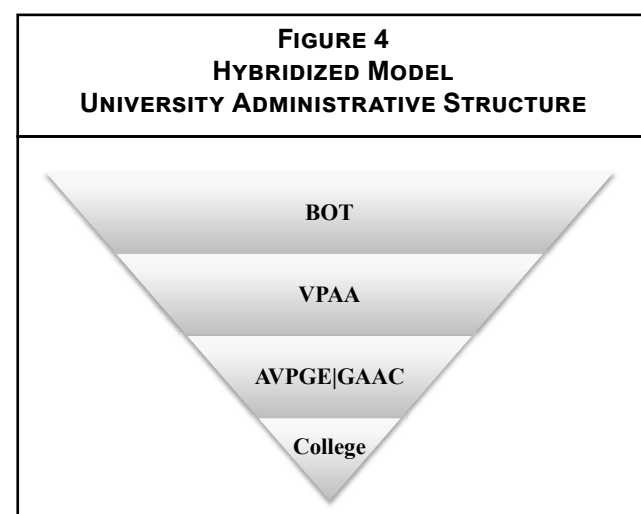
the case of DCHS the Dean) and returns the new graduate program proposal to the academic unit with feedback to be considered for future re-submission.

Shortly after the Associate Vice President of Graduate Education (AVPGE) was in place, the Associate Deans and Directors (ADD) for Graduate Education from across university campus were assembled to serve as an advisory board with regard to how graduate policies and procedures impact academic units university-wide. This group does not make recommendations to academic programs and is not part of the new program approval process. However, the group does provide support by providing to discuss issues that arise at the university and/or college/school/center levels and exchange ideas to enhance graduate education.

OPERATIONS

Major changes to the operations aspect of graduate education included those processes associated with the admissions, comprehensive examination processing, degree applications, budget management, and policies and procedures (Figure 5). Prior to July 2010, these operations were centralized in the Graduate School, and only programs considered as "graduate" were held to them. Thus, under the centralized structure, individual colleges, school, and centers had limited control or oversight over these operations.

Dramatic organizational changes took place the after dissolution of the Graduate School in terms of operations. Some operations processes remained centralized while



others were given over to the individual units. Examples of centralized functions overseen by graduate admissions at the university level are receiving admissions materials, forwarding materials to the college/school/center for admission decisions, mailing admission decisions to applicants on behalf of the college/school/center and processing comprehensive examinations, and degree applications (Figure 6). Budget management, program admissions and decisions, and DCHS level policies and procedures (including those specific to GAs and RAs) are examples of decentralized operations (Figure 7). The DCHS has experienced many benefits as a result of the transition such as the clarification of educational program terminology (e.g., graduate, professional), the development of college-specific graduate faculty standards, autonomous budgetary decision-making and allocation, and the direct oversight of GAs and RAs.

EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM TERMINOLOGY

Decentralization of the graduate school allowed professional programs to fall under the same post baccalaureate degree umbrella as traditional graduate degree programs. Consolidation of program terminology granted these professional programs benefits such as graduate student association representation as well as the opportunity to apply for graduate student scholarships and travel funding. Standardizing this language allows for greater alignment with external educational degree definition systems, such as the Integrated Post Secondary Education Data System (IPEDS).

GRADUATE FACULTY STANDARDS

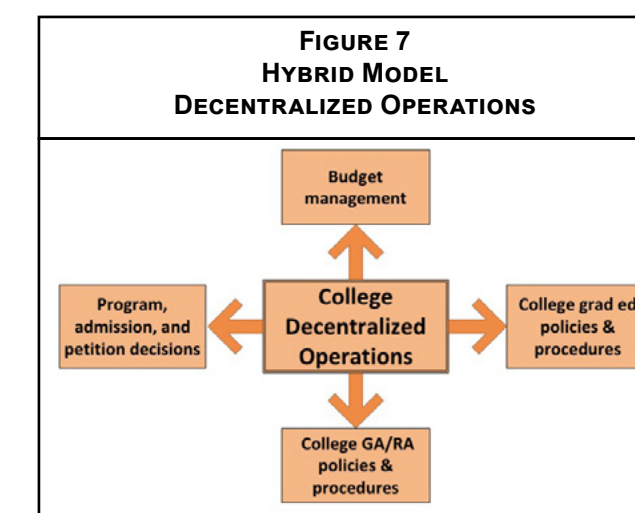
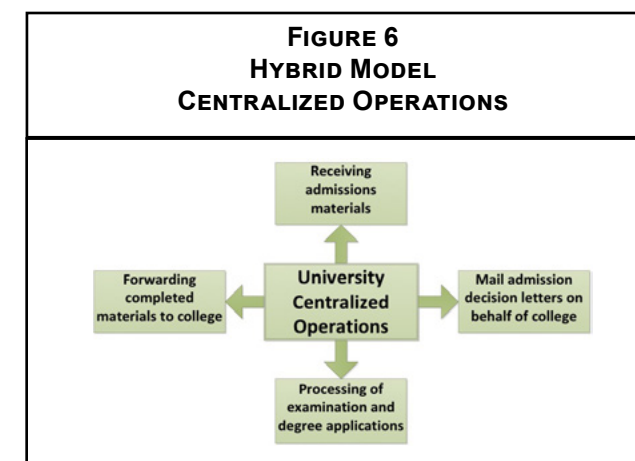
The hybrid model allows each college/ school/ center to identify specific criteria for individuals to serve on its graduate faculty. This change provides unique and diverse faculty expertise to be valued and recognized at the University graduate level. Given the variety of professional programs and the growing number of students in the DCHS, it was imperative to recognize and appoint graduate faculty members with varied clinical and professional vitae. This diversity continues to be integral to the success of the DCHS programs and their students. The result of more inclusive graduate faculty standards increased the number of graduate faculty within the DCHS and continues to provide an opportunity for faculty development through committee and advising activities with senior faculty.

BUDGETARY DECISION MAKING AND ALLOCATION

The benefits that stem from autonomous college budgetary decision making and intentional funding allocation is essential for the success of educational programming and outcomes. The transition shifted budgetary control to the specific educational unit affording greater flexibility in support of graduate education initiatives. The new budgetary model offered an opportunity to appoint an Associate Dean of Graduate Education (ADGE) responsible for the oversight of graduate education and a staff statistician responsible for mentoring, as well as developing and promoting research within all levels of educational programming within the college.

OVERSIGHT OF GRADUATE ASSISTANTSHIPS (GAS)

The number of graduate students increased in the Doisy College of Health Sciences (DCHS) because the post-baccalaureate professional programs now fell under the



graduate education umbrella. In recognition of this growth, the University awarded a 50% increase in GAs to the DCHS during fund decentralization. Furthermore, the DCHS gained full oversight of GAs including department allocation and budgetary management of associated funds. While the increase in GAs benefited existing graduate programs, it provided a developmental platform for the launch and development of new graduate programs. For example, the DCHS implemented a new Master of Science in Health Sciences (MSHS) program in the fall of 2013 and allocated five GAs in its inaugural cohort.

LIMITATIONS OF THE HYBRID MODEL

Although the DCHS has realized the benefits of all of these elements, such changes present challenges that must be overcome in the areas of educational program terminology, graduate faculty standards, budgetary decision making and allocation, and oversight of graduate assistants (GAs).

Although mainstreaming of terminology for post-baccalaureate education seems to align better with systems external to the university, the change presented program identity confusion across campus. Program administrators were not sure whether they fell under the undergraduate education model or the graduate education model and how these professional programs ‘fit’ into the traditional graduate education model.

Criteria for graduate faculty appointments were decentralized to allow the DCHS to develop and adopt its own standards. These criteria were customized in order to capture the diverse educational and professional experience required for teaching in the academic programs housed within the DCHS. Although this system streamlines the process within the College, the university lost consistent graduate faculty standards across the university as a whole. Some appointed Graduate Faculty falling into the new standards had not earned a terminal degree at the time of their appointments. Some critics may equate the lack of terminal degree with ill-preparedness as a faculty member.

Autonomous budgetary decision-making affords a greater opportunity in the allocation of resources, for example, the discretion to re-direct funding to priority initiatives as they evolve. However, this type of fiscal freedom comes with a cost to the school/college/center and the dean of the unit. The academic dean, in the end, assumes the responsible for the outcomes fiscal allocation decisions, good or bad, profit or loss. No longer can the responsibility be shifted to a source external to the school/college/center.

The increase in the number of GAs for the DCHS assisted in managing growth in undergraduate class-size and faculty workload. However, the DCHS is not only responsible for GA allocation, but is also responsible for funding GAs. Without additional GA funding in the DCHS budgetary model, there will be no new GA appointments in the college beyond those which were made available at the time of the transition.

STEPS BEING TAKEN TO OVERCOME LIMITATIONS

Perhaps the most significant step implemented to date to overcome the limitations brought about by dissolution of the graduate school is providing regular communication between the several levels of administration. For example, a website was developed for graduate education at the University level that outlined the centralized policies and procedures and contained a section dedicated to faculty resources.

The AVPGE conducts multiple open forum presentations around campus each semester to keep faculty engaged and current on recent developments in the area of graduate education at the university level as well as at the DCHS level. Written and verbal communication complements this effort by providing information on aspects of graduate education germane to the DCHS (e.g. budgetary decision making and allocation and oversight of GAs).

Graduate faculty members without terminal degrees receive regular and continued encouragement at the Department and DCHS levels to consider pursuing further education from both an instructor and personal professional development standpoints. As a result, the College has experienced an increase in the number of faculty pursuing (5%) and completing terminal degrees (5%) since the transition.

In summary, implementation of these strategies assists the university community in becoming familiar with (or with the adoption of) the educational program terminology and graduate faculty standards and provides guidance to those responsible for budgetary decision making/allocation and oversight of GAs.

CONCLUSIONS

Although the transition presented some organizational challenges, once the initial navigations of new processes and procedures were mastered, the benefits outweighed the limitations of this model thus far. As a result of this transition and the re-classification of professional majors into the graduate education model, students in the DCHS benefited from greater scholarship opportunity not previ-

ously available to at least 50% of the recipients because the professional department status was not recognized by the former Graduate School. Furthermore, an additional eight GA positions, five of which were made available to students in the new Master of Science in Health Sciences (MSHS) program launched in the fall of 2013 were available as a resource for educational initiatives within the DCHS.

The realignment of the administrative process for developing and proposing a graduate program under the hybrid model has yielded two new post-baccalaureate programs in the DCHS. Interestingly, under the old terminology, one of the new programs falls into the traditional category and the other into the professional category.

The autonomy afforded by the hybrid model allows for new and continued opportunities and growth in educational program terminology, criteria for graduate faculty appointments, budgetary decision making and allocation and oversight of GAs. As a result, the university continues to educate leaders of the future with knowledge and skills in their disciplines. Graduates will continue to be trained to discover and promote new knowledge and disseminate it in accordance with the Jesuit mission. With the creation of “academic flexibility and resources” at the College level, a promising future lies ahead.

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ORGANIZED ANARCHY: LEADING CHANGE IN HIGHER EDUCATION

A BOOK REVIEW OF:
MANNING, KATHLEEN (2013)
ORGANIZATIONAL THEORY IN HIGHER EDUCATION
LONDON AND NEW YORK: ROUTLEDGE.

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ABSTRACT

The higher education enterprise, characterized by shared governance, consensus management and faculty/student interaction is a complex and challenging management environment. In Organizational Theory in Higher Education, Kathleen Manning analyzes eight organizational "frames" that characterize universities, beginning with "Organized Anarchy." Scholarly chapters draw on research literature from higher education and theory from source fields in which the models were developed. Alternating chapters offer case studies inviting an application of each frame in a typical university decision process. Manning evaluates each frame's capability to enhance institutional responsiveness in a changing operating environment. As the work of a mature scholar who began her career in student affairs leadership, Organizational Theory in Higher Education offers conceptual and practical insights for leaders managing change in higher education. Nicely balancing a scholarly approach with an applied orientation, the book suggests fascinating opportunities for organizational design and organizational behavior research in the higher education context.

INTRODUCTION

"Higher education faculty, staff and administrators perform their life's work in extremely ambiguous, complex and politically charged settings"

Manning, p. 204

In *Organizational Theory in Higher Education*, noted scholar Kathleen Manning strikes at the heart of the intense debate about the future of higher education. If strategy and structure are inextricably connected, then higher education leaders, under pressure to design sustainable strategies for their institutions, must demonstrate sensitivity to organizational design frameworks and cultures. Drawing on her experience in student affairs and 25 years as a higher education faculty member at the University of Vermont, Manning takes a scholarly approach to analyze the organizational functioning of colleges through multiple "lenses." Linking a broad sweep of academic scholarship to higher education applications is the unique, sig-

nificant contribution of *Organizational Theory in Higher Education*. This work comes at a critical time, since "shaping the older organizations into new forms holds tremendous promise for the next era of U.S. higher education." (p. xii).

SIGNIFICANT CONTRIBUTIONS

Drawing on theoretical models in political philosophy, sociology, anthropology, feminism, positive psychology and post-modernism, Manning characterizes eight "lenses" useful for understanding higher education governance—and assesses their effectiveness. Her paradigm shift toward post-modernist assumptions about organizations generates approaches that "better match reality as lived in organizations" (p. 14). The book's interdisciplinary approach offers faculty, staff and students "multiple lenses through which to view their practices." (p. 1).

The discussion opens with "Organized Anarchy," a frame first proposed by Cohen and March:

The American college or university is a prototypic organized anarchy. It does not know what it is doing. Its goals are either vague or in dispute. Its technology is familiar but not understood. Its major participants wander in and out of the organization. These factors do not make a university a bad organization or a disorganized one; but they do make it a problem to describe, understand, and lead. (Cohen & March, 1986, p. 3).

The second most important frame, “The Collegium,” is most closely and uniquely linked to universities and is defined by collegiality, cooperation and equality. The Collegium model is nonhierarchical, with peer rather than authority relationships as the valued means of interaction and association. Peer review, faculty control of the curriculum and academic freedom are structural characteristics supporting this lens.

Six additional “frames,” including traditional approaches from the fields of politics, culture and business, along with organizational perspectives from social change literature, are assessed for their potential to describe higher education decision processes. Strong connections to underly-

ing theory suggest research topics in higher education leadership for scholars; the diversity of lenses encourages creativity and innovation in practice. University trustees and government policymakers at all levels will find more nuanced answers to inform their decisions as they adapt to the sea-change in higher education.

Each organizational “frame” is analyzed in light of its theoretical roots and higher education applications. The theory chapters include a bibliography for further research. Theoretical chapters alternate with chapters describing complex, high level situations faced by a higher education leader. Case study questions encourage the reader to design action plans, relying on the perspective of one or more “frames.” The frames predict how various actors in a higher education decision scenario might react because of the values underlying their perspective on the situation. Manning also challenges the reader to consider the implication of the “frames” and the resulting organizational design will impact the entire institution’s effectiveness:

“How can the organizational perspectives under consideration help college and university leaders

EXHIBIT 1 EIGHT ORGANIZATIONAL FRAMES IN HIGHER EDUCATION			
Organizational Design Frame	Theoretical Paradigms	Metaphor	Structure
Organized Anarchy	Political Philosophy Post modernism	Anarchy	Complexity, indeterminism, mutual causality
Collegial	Sociology	Circle	Cooperation, collaboration, “first among equals” based on academic freedom, tenure, self-government
Political	Sociology	Jungle	Loose network of individuals with divergent interests who gather together for the sake of expediency
Cultural	Anthropology	Carnival or Theatre	Organization is a set of meanings that people act out, talk out and back up.
Bureaucracy	Modernist Assumptions	Well-oiled machine	Hierarchical pyramid-shaped structure
New Science/ Quantum/Emergent	Post-positivist assumptions	Hall of mirrors	Heterarchy= hierarchy & networks functioning simultaneously
Feminist	Social construction of Gender	Web	Pervasive connectedness Adaptive, open and responsive. Inclusive and collaborative process. Communication in all directions, across all levels
Spiritual	Positive Psychology	Journey	Yearning for meaning and purpose. Frame used with many organizational forms.

get out ahead of the rapid change occurring in higher education? How do the frames enable or constrain innovation?” (p.9).

MULTIPLE ORGANIZATIONAL FRAMES FOR A COMPLEX VENTURE

Manning presents the eight perspectives in order of significance to higher education. A metaphor that describes each frame, the source theory, and organizational characteristics that emerge from the adoption of each “lens” are discussed (Exhibit I). Taken together, the frames depict the independence of perspective and diversity of thought emerging from faculty shared governance, an historic strength of the university organizational design, in a new way.

CHALLENGES

The book depicts broadly defined “lenses” or “perspectives” on organizational design. Very few prescriptive actions emerge from the portfolio of eight organizational perspectives. For example, the “garbage can” model of decision-making is suggested as a tool for managing in an “organized anarchy” environment. However, few specific tools that might work well within other frames, such as “skunk works,” pilot projects, teams, or other project level strategies are matched with particular organizational “frames.”

Implicit in the conversation is the notion of contingency leadership. Some discussion of how one might adapt styles of leadership to work with organizational units that have espoused specific frames might increase the impact of the book.

At times the author’s faculty perspective may influence the analysis, as in the somewhat simplistic assessment of the bureaucratic model. With the intensity and scope of strategic pressures that small private and public colleges and universities face today, relatively quick, market-responsive decision-making will be required. In this new operating environment, strong, directive leadership may differentiate the institutions that survive from those that do not.

The task Manning has undertaken requires a mature scholar; and both the breadth of scholarship incorporated in the discussions and the bibliography contribute to the field. Manning’s context is essentially American. Testing the organizational perspectives across global settings or offering applications or commentary from global scholars would be an interesting extension.

SUMMARY

The organization of universities and colleges is ambiguous, complex and politically charged. Higher education leaders in this decade will be change agents, shaping mature organizations into new models. The range of lenses Manning offers, backed by a theoretical perspective and peppered with fascinating applications, encourages faculty and staff leaders as well as policymakers to think creatively and innovate. The book offers a nuanced foundation for theoretical and applied research on the interplay between organizational design and organizational effectiveness in higher education. *Organizational Theory in Higher Education* offers a powerful, intuitive structure for analysis of higher education at the individual, unit and university level, which offers the potential to accelerate collaboration as higher education addresses changing local and global environments.

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ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION: PERCEPTIONS OF STAFF MEMBERS' LEVEL OF COMMUNICATION SATISFACTION AND JOB SATISFACTION

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research study was to explore the topic of organizational communication in higher education and examine staff members' perceptions about their level of communication and job satisfaction in their workplaces. This study was also designed to test the relationship between communication satisfaction and job satisfaction by analyzing the significance of different dimensions of Communication Satisfaction with the view that satisfaction is multifaceted.

The results of the study indicated that gender differences and the number of years in service do not seem to make a significant difference in the level of satisfaction among staff members, but the level of education and job classification seem to make a significant difference in the level of satisfaction among staff members. There were strong positive relationships found among all 8 dimensions of Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire (CSQ), which indicated that staff members when felt positive about 1 dimension of CSQ, also tended to feel positive about other dimensions of CSQ. A strong positive relationship and statistically significant correlation was found between overall communication satisfaction and job satisfaction scores, indicating that when staff members feel satisfied with communication in their workplace, they also tend to feel satisfied with their job in their workplace.

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this quantitative research study was to explore organizational communication and examine the perceptions of staff members' level of communication satisfaction and job satisfaction (Full-time and part-time nonteaching employees of academic institution) in a single higher education institution. The study was also designed to test the relationship between communication satisfaction and job satisfaction by analyzing the significance of different dimensions of communication satisfaction with the view that satisfaction is multifaceted.

Several studies have discovered that communication satisfaction among employees occur at different levels based on the facets that contribute to the satisfaction level. Staff

members play a key role in impacting the well-being, success, and smooth functioning of their institutions. It is important to understand the potential factors influencing organizational communication satisfaction and job satisfaction because low levels of job satisfaction has been associated with low productivity. Because the roles that staff members and faculty play are different, this study is focused only on staff members' perceptions of communication satisfaction and job satisfaction in their current work positions and the relationship between communication satisfaction and job satisfaction. Because the interest of this researcher is communication that occurs within the organization, for the purpose of this study the terms organizational communication and internal communication are used interchangeably to mean communication that

occurs among employees within the organization, in this case higher education institution.

To determine the level of communication satisfaction and job satisfaction among staff members at the participating institution of higher education, the following research questions were developed for this study.

Research Question 1:

Do staff members report they are satisfied with communication in their organizations to a significant extent?

Research Question 2:

Do staff members report they are satisfied with their jobs to a significant extent?

Research Question 3:

Is there a significant difference between male and female staff members' mean overall scores on the Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire?

Research Question 4:

Is there a significant relationship between the level of communication satisfaction among staff members and the number of years of service in their current work positions?

Research Question 5:

Is there a significant differences in the overall scores on Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire as compared by level of education achieved?

Research Question 6:

Is there a significant differences in the overall scores on Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire as compared by job classification?

Research Question 7:

Are their significant relationships among the eight dimensions of Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire (CSQ)?

Research Question 8:

Is there a significant relationship between overall communication satisfaction and overall job satisfaction (overall score on the eighth dimension of Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire)?

RELATED LITERATURE

Communication in the workplace, also known as organizational communication, has existed from ancient times and is probably even more important in modern complex organizations. A number of changes have taken place in the process of communication mostly because of technology. The way employees communicate today compared to the way employees communicated in the last several

decades have also changed. We greatly advanced from the times of industrialization, assembly lines, long-term employment, cross functional work teams, early years of Internet and electronic mail to the current era influenced by globalization, terrorism, climate change, and changing demographics (Miller, 2015).

As organizations get more complex in structure and in the way they function, it becomes necessary to reevaluate the way organizational communication occurs to ensure that they function effectively. Whether it is exchanging task related information or relational information, we need to communicate with others in the organization. Proper communication helps improve function, meet the goals, and maintain relationships in organizations. Communication plays a vital role in the functioning of any organization, whether it is for business, nonprofit, educational, or government organizations.

Effective communication affects a wide variety of components in an organization and can aid in achieving greater success for the organization (Steingrimsdottir, 2011). Effective internal communication can help create a healthy atmosphere of motivation, trust, engagement, and sharing of thoughts and ideas freely (Moyer, 2011). Lack of effective communication may cause miscommunication and adversely affect the smooth functioning of the organization.

Goris (2007) explained that unlike mechanical systems that operate on electrical impulse, organizations are social-systems filled with different people and hence operate and function through communication. He discussed the characteristics of the Job Characteristics Model (JCM) developed by Hackman and Oldman (1976) and stated that it was unique as it specifies the match between the needs of an individual and characteristics of a particular job and at the same time it highlights the performance and satisfaction variables (Goris, Vaught, & Pettit, 2000).

The early models of communication concentrated on one-way flow and focused on the sender and not the receiver. One of the well-known models of this type is the Shannon and Weaver's (1949) S-M-C-R Model, which is a very basic model of communication that mainly highlights the exchange of information and focuses on the sender (communicationtheory.org, 2010). Over the years, many approaches and processes came into existence that highlighted various ways communication and management should occur based on how organizations should function for maximum effectiveness. The various approaches and processes used for organizational communications include classical, human relations, human resources, systems and cultural approaches (Bolman & Deal, 1991; Moyer, 2011). Today one or more elements of each of these approaches are visible in different types of organization.

Communication in organizations occur at three primary levels, interpersonal level (between supervisor-subordinate), between groups (coworkers), and at an organizational level (within the organization and with outside stakeholders and clients) (Communicationtheory.org, 2010). Communication in organizations takes place in three major forms, verbal, non-verbal and written (Ober, 2001). The direction that communication flows is generally guided by the structure of the organization or organizational hierarchy. It may occur from top-down, bottom-up, or horizontally and between individuals, within or between groups, or at an organizational level (Postmes, 2003). The downward communication involves supervisor to subordinate communication, upward communication involves communication from subordinate to supervisor, and horizontal communication involves communication with people (coworkers) at the same level. Communication among different departments is referred as cross-channel communication (Ober, 2001).

Some of the communication that takes place in organization is formal, while other is informal. Formal communication is dictated by the formal structure of the organization, while informal communication does not follow any particular guideline (Postmes, 2003). Informal communication, also referred to as the grapevine, occurs in organizations through nonofficial channels (Ober, 2001). Communication in organizations occurs both internally, which is within the organization, and externally, which is outside of organization, and with outside stakeholders (Communicationtheory.org, 2010).

Research on communication in the workplace has often focused on interpersonal relationships that include the process of forming and maintaining relationships (Postmes, 2003). When studying the content of communication, it is often the case that the communication about the process and task at hand, communication about the policy and regulation, and communication dealing with human and rational factors are all considered as separate categories. Because each of the categories emphasizes different factors of organization, different approaches and style of communication may be appropriate.

Previous theorists and scholars have focused their research on organizational communication based on the sender or transmitter of the message or information, which later changed to focus on the receiver. Winska (2010) found that between 1950 and 1970 much of the research focused on vertical hierarchy, the downward and top-down communication. Also, much of the research in the area of organizational communication, supervisor-subordinate communication, or internal communication have mainly been focused on the supervisors' or employers' communication and communication skills, as opposed to subordinates' or

employees' communication competence or communication competence of both supervisor and subordinate as seen from both perspectives. Over time communication has changed from merely being a one-way, top-down flow to a two-way or multidirectional flow with increased use of informal communication among employees. This type of communication emphasizes human needs as one of the important aspect of a well-functioning organization.

Three prominent models that came into existence in the late 1800s and early 1900s played a role in developing a better understanding about organizational communication as well as human needs and behaviors was Taylor's 1911 Principles of Scientific Management that emphasized importance of task and matching job with workers (1947); Fayol's 1949 Classical Management Theory that highlighted the importance of a highly structured organization; and Weber's 1947 Theory of Bureaucracy that emphasized the importance of rules, authority, power, and discipline (Miller, 2015).

The importance of human relationships in workplaces was recognized as crucial and became an important component in organizational functioning through the popular Hawthorne Studies conducted by Elton Mayo in 1933 (Moyer, 2011). Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory (1943) also played an important role in emphasizing human needs that can also be applied to workplace settings (Miller, 2015). Based on the Motivation-Maintenance Model developed by Frederick Herzberg, two sets of factors or conditions known as hygiene or maintenance factors and motivators affect how employees behave in workplaces and how they affect their satisfaction and dissatisfaction levels (Drafke, 2006).

Among the types of communication channels or mediums, face-to-face communication have been seen as the richest channel (Byrne & LeMay, 2006; Hoy & Miskel, 2008; Moyer, 2011) and according to Byrne and LeMay (2006) when receiving information from supervisors, employees perceived greater satisfaction when face-to-face communication was used. Extensive use of communicating through e-mail has been associated with lower levels of job satisfaction among employees (Merten & Gloor, 2009).

Hecht (1978) described communication satisfaction as an enjoyable socio-emotional result that employees derive from interacting with others. Pettit, Goris, and Vaught (1997) highlight a key point of the importance of employee communication satisfaction by linking it with the organizational effectiveness. In a study at an Australian retail organization, subordinate communication and supervisory communication was found to be the areas where the employees experienced most satisfaction (Gray & Laidlaw, 2002). On the other hand, Ahmad (2006) studied subor-

dinate and supervisory communication and found media quality and horizontal communication as areas of high satisfaction perceived by the employees. Madlock (2008) highlighted the importance of supervisor communication competence as a strong predictor of communication and job satisfaction among the employees. Among the classifications of job, Ramirez (2012) found that among the various levels of employees, student workers experienced highest level of satisfaction, while managers experienced the lowest level of job satisfaction.

Earlier studies often concentrated on the overall communication when evaluating the quality of communication in organizations, instead of treating communication in organizations as a combination of multiple facets. According to Miller a multifaceted approach to understanding the changing world is needed when studying organizational communication (Miller, 2015). Downs and Hazen (1977) stated a similar belief that communication satisfaction is multifaceted.

The level of content individuals perceive about their job, whether considering overall or individual facets is what Spector (1997) referred to as job satisfaction. From past research, it appears that job satisfaction has been studied from mainly the employees' perspective. Task related factors and communication, including interpersonal relations, are strong components that could influence job satisfaction (Zeffane, 1994). The top seven factors influencing the level of job satisfaction among employees found by SHRM Report (2012) are opportunities to use skills and abilities, job security, compensation or pay, communication between employees and senior management, relationship with immediate supervisor, benefits, organization's financial stability, and the work itself.

Several research studies on communication satisfaction have been linked to job satisfaction (Pettit, Goris, & Vaught, 1997; Pincus, 1986). Among other factors, leadership style has been associated with employees' satisfaction level in their organizations. The competence of the supervisor in communication has been found to affect employees' level of job and communication satisfaction (Madlock, 2008). Pincus (1986) discovered that supervisor communication, communication climate, personnel feedback, and top management communication are essentials elements needed for job satisfaction among nurses. When studying individual facets of job satisfaction and comparing it with the overall communication satisfaction, Goris, Pettit, and Vaught (1997) found that employees associated work, supervision, pay, promotion, coworkers, and overall satisfaction with communication satisfaction. It is common to find studies where organizational communication and job satisfaction have either been considered as an overall component or broken down

into individual facets (Pettit, Goris, & Vaught, 1997; Madlock, 2008; Pincus, 1986).

Among the scales used to measure communication satisfaction, Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire (CSQ) developed by Downs and Hazen (1977) is the most widely used scale across different types of organizations (Alsayed, Motaghi, & Osman, 2012; Gray & Laidlaw, 2004; Jones, 2006; Ramirez, 2012). Through test-retest, the reliability was reported at $r = .94$. Construct validity of the CSQ has been determined primarily through factor analysis, discovering eight factors contributing to communication satisfaction among employees (Downs & Hazen, 1977). Downs and Hazen developed eight dimensions through factor analysis that contribute to communication satisfaction among employees. The eight dimensions are communication climate, relationship with superiors, organizational integration, media quality, horizontal and informal communication, organizational perspective, relationship with subordinates, and personal feedback.

Job satisfaction has been studied either as the global overall measure or has been considered as being composed of several individual facets that measure job satisfaction. The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) developed by Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969), the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) developed by Weiss, Dawis, England, and Lofquist (1967), and modified versions of the original JDI, known as The Job in General, The Abridged Job Descriptive Index, and Abridged Job in General are some of the widely used scales for measuring job satisfaction among employees that either considers global measure of job satisfaction or evaluates job satisfaction based on individual facets of job satisfaction.

Academic organizations or higher education institutes serve a great number of individuals from diverse backgrounds and roles. To function effectively some mode of communication is essential that not only transmits the message or information but also considers its impact on employees along with its effectiveness. As higher education institutions change in the way they are structured, the way they function, especially with both virtual and on ground format, and the changes in demographics, they require constant evaluating of their communication practices to maintain and improve their effective functioning and building effective relationships with individuals they serve.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Sample

Approximately 2,600 staff members across three different campuses of a single institution in Northeast Tennessee

comprised the population. For this study nonteaching staff were included (no faculty members were used). The sample included a wide variety in terms of gender, number of years in service, education level, and job classification. The participants also represented a wide range of departments. The institution is a public 4-year institution that offers undergraduate, professional, graduate, and doctoral programs in a variety of fields. Approximately 15,000 students are currently enrolled at this institution. The non-random sample used for this study included both full-time and part-time staff members from various job classifications. Some of the classifications used in this study based on the information derived from institution's Fact Book 2013 and information from Human Resources Office were Executive Administration and Managerial, Professional Non-Faculty, Clerical and Secretarial, Technical & Paraprofessional, Skilled crafts, Maintenance, Service workers, and Student workers and Graduate Assistants.

Instrumentation

This research study was conducted using a modified version of a widely used Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire (CSQ) developed by Downs and Hazen (1977) and has been shown to be consistent and reliable across organizations. The original CSQ included 40 statements from eight dimensions with five statements in each dimension. Data were collected from a single higher education institution. The modified survey for this study included 36 statements and five demographic questions. The survey was used to collect relevant information about staff member's perception about their level of communication satisfaction and job satisfaction. The survey was a 7-point Likert-type scale, with 1 being strongly dissatisfied and a 7 being strongly satisfied. The survey was designed based on eight dimensions. The original CSQ included eight communication satisfaction dimensions, out of which seven were used in this study. The eighth dimension that focused on supervisor's perspective was omitted and replaced with a new dimension named job satisfaction. The focus of this study is communication and job satisfaction from subordinate or employee perspective.

The job satisfaction dimension included eight statements that were developed by the researcher and created based on the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969) and the SHRM Report (2012). From the original CSQ, 15 statements were omitted, 11 new were added. Some of the statements used minor modification in the way they were worded to fit the needs of the particular group being studied. All the dimensions included three to five statements each, except the eighth dimension, which included eight statements. An introductory paragraph about the research was included in the survey.

The survey was calculated to take less than 15 minutes to complete.

Data Collection

The survey was distributed through *SurveyMonkey*, an online survey service. A paper version of the survey was distributed to selected groups at the participating institute to increase the return rate. The participants were advised that their responses and identity will remain confidential and that they were free to stop participating in the survey at any time.

FINDINGS

Research Question 1

A one-sample t test was conducted on the mean scores for Dimension 1 of CSQ to determine whether the mean was significantly different from 4, the mid-point of the Likert-type scale. The sample mean for Dimension 1 (Personal Feedback) 5.14 ($SD = 1.43$) was significantly higher than 4, which represented neutrality, $t(398) = 15.94, p < .001$. The 95 % confidence interval for the mean scores on the communication satisfaction personal feedback dimension ranged from 1.00 to 1.28. The effect size ($d = 0.80$) indicated a large effect. The results indicated that participants were generally somewhat satisfied to satisfied with personal feedback.

A one-sample t test was conducted on the mean scores for Dimension 2 of CSQ to determine whether the mean was significantly different from 4, the mid-point of the Likert-type scale. The sample mean for Dimension 2 (Relationship to Supervisors) 5.41 ($SD = 1.44$) was significantly higher than 4, which represented neutrality, $t(366) = 18.79, p < .001$. The 95 % confidence interval for the mean scores on the communication satisfaction personal feedback dimension ranged from 1.27 to 1.56. The effect size ($d = 0.98$) indicated a large effect. The results indicated that participants were generally somewhat satisfied to satisfied with relationship to supervisors.

A one-sample t test was conducted on the mean scores for Dimension 3 of CSQ to determine whether the mean was significantly different from 4, the mid-point of the Likert-type scale. The sample mean for Dimension 3 (Horizontal and Informal Communication) 5.19 ($SD = 1.30$) was significantly higher than 4, which represented neutrality, $t(365) = 17.60, p < .001$. The 95 % confidence interval for the mean scores on the communication satisfaction horizontal and informal communication dimension ranged from 1.06 to 1.32. The effect size ($d = 0.92$) indicated a large effect. The results indicated that participants were

generally somewhat satisfied to satisfied with horizontal and informal communication.

A one-sample *t* test was conducted on the mean scores for Dimension 4 of CSQ to determine whether the mean was significantly different from 4, the mid-point of the Likert-type scale. The sample mean for Dimension 4 (Organizational Integration) 5.21 (*SD* = 1.19) was significantly higher than 4, which represented neutrality, *t* (393) = 20.13, *p* < .001. The 95 % confidence interval for the mean scores on the communication satisfaction organizational integration dimension ranged from 1.09 to 1.33. The effect size (*d* = 1.02) indicated a large effect. The results indicated that participants were generally somewhat satisfied to satisfied with organizational integration.

A one-sample *t* test was conducted on the mean scores for Dimension 5 of CSQ to determine whether the mean was significantly different from 4, the mid-point of the Likert-type scale. The sample mean for Dimension 5 (Organizational Perspective) 4.92 (*SD* = 1.37) was significantly higher than 4, which represented neutrality, *t* (399) = 13.43, *p* < .001. The 95 % confidence interval for the mean scores on the communication satisfaction organizational perspective dimension ranged from 0.78 to 1.05. The effect size (*d* = 0.67) indicated a medium effect. The results indicated that participants were generally somewhat satisfied with organizational perspective.

A one-sample *t* test was conducted on the mean scores for Dimension 6 of CSQ to determine whether the mean was significantly different from 4, the mid-point of the Likert-type scale. The sample mean for Dimension 6 (Communication Climate) 4.91 (*SD* = 1.52) was significantly higher than 4, which represented neutrality, *t* (368) = 11.43, *p* < .001. The 95 % confidence interval for the mean scores on the communication satisfaction communication climate dimension ranged from 0.75 to 1.06. The effect size (*d* = 0.60) indicated a medium effect. The results indicated that participants were generally somewhat satisfied with communication climate.

A one-sample *t* test was conducted on the mean scores for Dimension 7 of CSQ to determine whether the mean was significantly different from 4, the mid-point of the Likert-type scale. The sample mean for Dimension 7 (Media Quality) 5.25 (*SD* = 1.37) was significantly higher than 4, which represented neutrality, *t* (359) = 17.40, *p* < .001. The 95 % confidence interval for the mean scores on the communication satisfaction media quality dimension ranged from 1.11 to 1.39. The effect size (*d* = 0.92) indicated a large effect. The results indicated that participants were generally somewhat satisfied to satisfied with media quality. The results of all the communication satisfaction dimensions indicated that staff members are generally satisfied with the communication in their workplace.

Research Question 2

A one-sample *t* test was conducted on the mean scores for Dimension 8 of CSQ to determine whether the mean was significantly different from 4, the mid-point of the Likert-type scale. The sample mean for Dimension 8 (Job Satisfaction) 5.43 (*SD* = 1.20) was significantly higher than 4, which represented neutrality, *t* (359) = 22.60, *p* < .001. The 95 % confidence interval for the mean scores on the job satisfaction dimension of CSQ ranged from 1.31 to 1.56. The effect size (*d* = 1.19) indicates a large effect. The results indicated that participants were generally somewhat satisfied to satisfied with job satisfaction dimension. The results indicated that staff members are generally satisfied with their job in their workplace.

Research Question 3

An independent samples *t* test was conducted to evaluate whether the mean overall scores on Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire (CSQ) differed significantly among female and male staff members. The mean overall scores (Dimension 1 through Dimension 8 of CSQ) was the test variable and the grouping variable was female staff members or male staff members. The test was not significant, *t* (315) = .36, *p* = .722. Therefore, *H*_{0.3} was retained. The η^2 index was <.01 which indicated a small effect. The female staff members (*M* = 5.26, *SD* = 1.22) tended to score about the same as the male staff members (*M* = 5.21, *SD* = 1.19) on the CSQ. The 95% confidence interval for the differences in means was-.24 to .35.

Research Question 4

A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed between the mean scores (overall scores from Dimension 1 through Dimension 8) on Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire (CSQ) and the number of years of service to test the relationship between the level of communication satisfaction among staff members and the number of years of service in their current work positions. The results of the correlation analysis revealed a weak negative relationship between the mean scores on CSQ (*M* = 5.25, *SD* = 1.21) [*r* (317) <.01, *p* = .361]. Therefore, *H*_{0.4} is retained. In general, the results suggest that the staff members' mean scores on Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire is not related to the number of years in service.

Research Question 5

A one-way analysis of variance was conducted to evaluate the relationship between total overall mean scores of staff members on Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire and the highest level of education achieved by the staff

members. The factor variable, the highest level of education achieved by the staff members, included five levels (High school diploma, Some college, Undergraduate degree, Graduate degree, and Doctorate degree or higher). The dependent variable was the total overall mean scores of staff members on CSQ (Dimension 1 through Dimension 8). The ANOVA was significant, *F* (4, 312) = 3.57, *p* = .007. The strength of the relationship between the total overall mean scores of staff members and the highest level of education achieved by the staff members as assessed by η^2 was small (.04).

Because the overall *F* test was significant, post hoc multiple comparisons was conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among the means of the five groups. A Tukey procedure was selected for the multiple comparisons because equal variance was assumed. There was a significant difference in the means of the group that received some college and the group that achieved graduate degree (*p* = .033), and between the group that achieved a graduate degree and the group that achieved doctorate degree or higher (*p* = .044). However, there was not a significant differences in the means of the groups that achieved high school diploma and the groups that received some college (*p* = .869); the group that achieved high school diploma and the group that achieved undergraduate degree (*p* = .984); the group that achieved high school diploma and the group that achieved doctoral degree or higher (*p* = .709); the group that achieved doctoral degree or higher (*p* = .709); the group that received some college and the group that achieved undergraduate degree (*p* = .908); The group that received some college and the group that achieved doctoral degree or higher (*p* = .981); the group that achieved undergraduate degree and the group that achieved graduate degree (*p* = .069); and the group that achieved undergraduate degree and the group that achieved doctorate degree or higher (*p* = .715). It appears that receiving high school diploma or some college, high school diploma or undergraduate degree, high school diploma or graduate degree,

high school diploma or doctorate degree or higher, some college or undergraduate degree, or some college and doctorate degree or higher, undergraduate degree or graduate degree, and undergraduate degree or doctorate or higher degree, are equally responsible for achieving higher scores on Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire (for perceiving higher communication satisfaction in the workplace among staff members). The 95% confidence intervals for the pairwise differences, as well as, the means and standard deviations for the five levels of education group, are reported in Table 1.

Research Question 6

A one-way analysis of variance was conducted to evaluate the relationship between job satisfaction and the total overall mean scores of staff members on Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire (CSQ). The factor variable job classification included five levels: Executive, Administrative, Managerial (Group 1), Professional Non Faculty (Group 2), Clerical and Secretarial (Group 3), Technical, Skilled, Maintenance, Service, Others (Group 4), and Student Worker, Tuition Scholar, Graduate Assistant (Group 5). The dependent variable was the difference in the total mean scores of staff members on the CSQ (Dimensions 1 through Dimensions 8). The ANOVA was significant, *F* (5, 311) = 4.65, *p* < .001. The strength of the relationship between job classification and the total mean scores on CSQ as assessed by η^2 was small (.07).

Because the overall *F* test was significant, post hoc multiple comparisons were conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among the means of the five groups. A Tukey procedure was selected for the multiple comparisons because equal variances were assumed. There was a significant differences in the means between the professional Non Faculty group and the Student Worker, Tuition Scholar, Graduate Assistant group (*p* = .008) and the

TABLE 1 MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS WITH 95% CONFIDENCE INTERVALS OF PAIRWISE DIFFERENCES							
Level of Education	N	M	SD	High School	Some College	Undergrad	Graduate
High School	13	5.16	1.26	-1.37 to .66	-.37 to .72	-.02 to .84	-1.48 to .01*
Some College	51	5.51	1.27	-1.14 to .77	.03 to 1.14*	-1.06 to .39	
Undergrad	121	5.34	1.16	-.73 to 1.19	-9.7 to .65		
Graduate	108	4.93	1.21	-1.65 to .60			
Doctorate/ Higher	24	5.68	1.02				
**. Significant at 0.01 level (2-tailed).							

Clerical and Secretarial group and the Student Worker, Tuition Scholar, Graduate Assistant group ($p < .001$). However, there was not a significant differences in the means between the Executive, Administrative, Managerial group and the Professional Non Faculty group ($p = .535$); the Executive, Administrative, Managerial group and the Clerical and Secretarial group ($p = .220$); the Executive, Administrative, Managerial group and the Technical, Skilled, Maintenance, Service, and Others group ($p = .934$); the Executive, Administrative, Managerial group and the Student Worker, Tuition Scholar, Graduate Assistant group ($p = .998$); the Professional Non Faculty group and the Clerical and Secretarial group ($p = .957$); the Professional Non Faculty group and the Technical, Skilled, Maintenance, Service, and Others group ($p = .999$); the Clerical and Secretarial group and the Technical, Skilled, Maintenance, Service, and Others group ($p = .941$); and the Technical, Skilled, Maintenance, Service, and Others group and the Student Worker, Tuition Scholar, Graduate Assistant group ($p = .627$). It appears that Group 1 or Group 2, or Group 1 or Group 3, Group 1 or Group 4, Group 1 or Group 5, Group 2 or Group 3, Group 2 or Group 4, Group 3 or Group 4, and Group 4 or Group 5, are equally responsible in affecting the mean scores of the staff members on the CSQ. The 95% confidence intervals for the pairwise differences, as well as, the means and standard deviations for the five job classification groups, are reported in Table 2.

Research Question 7

Pearson correlation coefficients were computed among the eight Dimensions of Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire (CSQ). Using the Bonferroni approach to control for Type 1 error across the 28 correlations, a p value of less than .002 ($.05/28 = .002$) was required for significance. The results of the analysis revealed strong positive relationships among all eight Dimensions with

the strength of the relationship ranging from $r = .67$ to $r = .88$ and p values all $< .001$ (Table 3). All the relationships were positive and strongly related, therefore high score on one Dimension tended to produce higher scores on other Dimensions. Table 3 displays the bivariate correlations among dimension 1 through dimension 8 of CSQ.

Research Question 8

A Pearson correlation coefficient was conducted to evaluate the relationship between staff members overall communication satisfaction score (Dimension 1 through Dimension 7) with their overall job satisfaction score (Dimension 8) of Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire. The results of the correlational analysis revealed a strong positive relationship between Communication Satisfaction ($M = 144.53$, $SD = 35.07$) and Job Satisfaction ($M = 43.35$, $SD = 9.70$) and a statistically significant correlation [$r(299) = .88$, $p < .001$]. In general, the results suggest that the staff members that perceive being satisfied with communication in their workplace also tend to perceive being satisfied with their job.

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the comparison of previous research and the present study, the results support the concept that communication satisfaction is a multidimensional as found by Downs and Hazen (1977), and that each dimension contributes to the level of communication satisfaction among employees. Previous research by Mueller and Lee (2002) revealed that full-time employees (respondents) of nonprofit organizations perceived moderate amounts of communication satisfaction in their workplaces for all the communication satisfaction dimensions. The results of the same study also indicated that Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) played a key role in positively affecting subordinates' perceptions of communication satisfaction in each

TABLE 2 MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS WITH 95% CONFIDENCE INTERVALS OF PAIRWISE DIFFERENCES							
Job Category	N	M	SD	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4
Group 1	23	5.49	1.06				
Group 2	80	5.02	1.28	-.33 to 1.27			
Group 3	68	4.85	1.34	-.18 to 1.45	-.39 to .72		
Group 4	18	5.14	1.15	-.71 to 1.41	-1.00 to .76	-1.18 to .61	
Group 5	121	5.60	1.01	-.88 to .65	-1.07 to -.10*	-1.26 to .24**	-1.31 to .39

** . Significant at 0.01 level (2-tailed).

TABLE 3 BIVARIATE CORRELATIONS AMONG DIMENSION 1 THROUGH DIMENSION 8 OF CSQ							
	Personal Feedback	Relationship to Supervisors	Horizontal and Informal Communication	Organizational Integration	Organizational Perspective	Communication Climate	Media Quality
Dimensions	Dim1	Dim2	Dim3	Dim4	Dim5	Dim6	Dim7
Dim2: Relationship to Supervisors	.85**						
Dim3: Horizontal and Informal Communication	.73**	.80**					
Dim4: Organizational Integration	.86**	.78**	.74**				
Dim5: Organizational Perspective	.71**	.69**	.72**	.80**			
Dim6: Communication Climate	.82**	.86**	.87**	.82**	.80**		
Dim7: Media Quality	.78**	.87**	.87**	.76**	.73**	.88**	
Dim8: Job Satisfaction	.80**	.85**	.82**	.79**	.67**	.83**	.82**

** . Correlation is significant at a 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Dim1–, Dim2–, Dim3–, Dim4–, Dim5–, Dim6–, Dim7–, and Dim8

of interpersonal, group, and organizational contexts (all dimensions of communication satisfaction). The higher the quality of LMX, the higher communication satisfaction among subordinates was indicated. A previous study found that the composite mean scores for each of the communication satisfaction dimensions were all calculated to be above the mid-point of four for their employees which indicated they were at least somewhat satisfied in each dimensions of communication satisfaction (Jones, 2006).

The following recommendations should be considered to improve practice.

1. Research on the topic of organizational communication practice, communication satisfaction and job satisfaction among staff members could be conducted over a long period of time to see if similar perceptions are maintained or changed in order to get a better understanding of what factors contribute the most to communication satisfaction for staff members. This knowledge could be used to develop effective strategies for future.
2. Effective communication is crucial for many aspects of the organization's proper func-

tioning. Constant and ongoing evaluation of effective approaches and creating a communication practice plan for the organization's departments or units (higher education institution) through collaboration with other members of the organization at all levels can aid in effective communication practices. The supervisors can provide better communication practices by creating open-door policy, more face-to-face communication opportunities, use of different mediums or channels of communication, trust, conveying feedback, and opportunities for their subordinates (staff) to interact, contribute, and participate in the process for improvement and coming up with solutions.

3. A communication plan or procedure can be a great asset for improving the functioning of the organization. Similar strategies for effective communication by different units of the organization can aid in the overall effectiveness of the functioning of the organization. Receiving right amount of information through two-way communication, having a

good communication flow through appropriate channels of communication, and receiving personal feedback can aid in higher satisfaction in communication and job satisfaction. To make this possible, the organizational leaders could emphasize using clear and consistent information to improve the internal communication process that currently exists in their organizations.

4. It is important for both supervisors and subordinates to understand each other, listen, communication, and maintain a positive and healthy relationship. Organizations can improve communication by providing opportunities for training programs and workshops for continuous improvement with the focus on effective communication and leadership skills. By providing more collaboration opportunities at all levels, organizations can improve relationships that can help improve professional relationships.
5. The higher education institution that participated in this study found that its staff members were for the most part somewhat satisfied to satisfied for all the dimensions of communication satisfaction except organizational perspective and communication climate, where they were found to be somewhat satisfied. The institution's leaders should develop strategies and update policies and procedures by adding clear information and updates based on the needs and areas of concern, to keep employees (staff members) well-informed.
6. The leader of each unit or department should facilitate communication by creating an opportunity for staff to come together and collaborate on the needs, understanding of the existing policies, and design a plan for communication improvement based on the suggestions and concerns presented. A well-thought strategy based on the needs, accomplishments, resources, and past failures and successes can help create an environment where everyone works towards a common goal and perceive themselves to be part of a team. Leaders could send out information through a monthly or quarterly newsletter about the accomplishments, recognition, and state of the department. Also, they could create opportunities for group collabora-

tion for departmental projects to help build healthy and positive co-worker relationships.

7. Communication satisfaction has been shown to be crucial for job satisfaction. The results from this study found that communication satisfaction and job satisfaction has a direct relationship. Keeping this in mind, the supervisors can educate their individual units or departments on the importance of effective communication. By creating an environment of open communication, organizations can create an effective workplace.

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The aim of Academic Business World is to promote inclusiveness in research by offering a forum for the discussion of research in early stages as well as research that may differ from 'traditional' paradigms. We wish our conferences to have a reputation for providing a peer-reviewed venue that is open to the full range of researchers in business as well as reference disciplines within the social sciences.

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We encourage the submission of manuscripts, presentation outlines, and abstracts pertaining to any business or related discipline topic. We believe that all disciplines are interrelated and that looking at our disciplines and how they relate to each other is preferable to focusing only on our individual 'silos of knowledge'. The ideal presentation would cross discipline borders so as to be more relevant than a topic only of interest to a small subset of a single discipline. Of course, single domain topics are needed as well.

All too often learning takes a back seat to discipline related research. The International Conference on Learning and Administration in Higher Education seeks to focus exclusively on all aspects of learning and administration in higher education. We wish to bring together, a wide variety of individuals from all countries and all disciplines, for the purpose of exchanging experiences, ideas, and research findings in the processes involved in learning and administration in the academic environment of higher education.

We encourage the submission of manuscripts, presentation outlines, and abstracts in either of the following areas:

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

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We encourage the submission of manuscripts pertaining to the administration of academic units in colleges and universities. We believe that many of the challenges facing academic departments are not discipline specific and that learning how different departments address these challenges will be beneficial. The ideal paper would provide information that many administrators would find useful, regardless of their own disciplines

