Spring 2016

The Journal of Academic Administration in Higher Education

Volume 12 Issue 1

The Journal of Academic Administration In Higher Education

CONTENTS

Volume twelve Issue one
Spring 2016

JOURNAL OF ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION

JW PRESS

MARTIN, TENNESSEE

Published by

JW Press

P.O. Box 49

Martin, Tennessee 38237

Printed in the United States of America

Editor

Dr. Edd R. Joyner
EddJoyner@AWoIC.org

Board of Reviewers

Reviewer	Country	State/ Region	Affiliation
Cezair, Joan	United States	NC	Fayetteville State University
Chan, Tom	United States	NH	Southern New Hampshire University
Chang, Chun-Lan	Australia	Queensland	The University of Queensland
Chen, Fang	Canada	Manitoba	University of Manitoba
Chen, Steve	United States	KY	Morehead State University
Clayden, SJ (Steve)	United States	AZ	University of Phoenix
Cochran, Loretta F.	United States	AR	Arkansas Tech University
Coelho, Alfredo Manuel	France		UMR MOISA-Agro Montpellier
Collins, J. Stephanie	United States	NH	Southern New Hampshire University
Cosby-Simmons, Dana	United States	KY	Western Kentucky University
Cox, Betty	United States	TN	University of Tennessee at Martin
Cox, Susie S.	United States	LA	McNeese State University
Cunningham, Bob	United States	LA	Grambling State University
Dawson, Maurice	United States	CO	Jones International University
Deng, Ping	United States	MO	Maryville University Saint Louis
Dennis, Bryan	United States	ID	Idaho State University
Deschoolmeester, Dirk	Belgium		Vlerick Leuven Gent Management School
Di, Hui	United States	LA	Louisiana Tech University
Durden, Kay	United States	TN	University of Tennessee at Martin
Dwyer, Rocky	Canada	Alberta	Athabasca University
El-Kaissy, Mohamed	United States	AZ	University of Phoenix
Eppler, Dianne	United States	AL	Troy State
Essary, Michael	United States	AL	Athens State University
Etezady, Noory	Iran		Nova Southeastern University
Ethridge, Brandy	United States	OR	Social Science, Public Policy and Health Researcher
Fallshaw, Eveline M.	Australia		RMIT University
Fausnaugh, Carolyn J.	United States	FL	Florida Institute of Technology
Fay, Jack	United States	KS	Pittsburg State University
Festervand, Troy A.	United States	TN	Middle Tennessee State University
Finch, Aikyna	United States	CO	Strayer University
Finlay, Nikki	United States	GA	Clayton College and State University
Flanagan, Patrick	United States	NY	St. John's University
Fleet, Greg	Canada	New Brunswick	University of New Brunswick in Saint John
Fontana, Avanti	Indonesia		University of Indonesia
Foster, Renee	United States	MS	Delta State University
Fry, Jane	United States	TX	University of Houston-Victoria
Garlick, John	United States	NC	Fayetteville State University
Garrison, Chlotia	United States	SC	Winthrop University
Garsombke, Thomas	United States	SC	Claflin University
Gates, Denise	United States	CO	D&D Solutions
Gautier, Nancy	United States	AL	University of Mobile
Gifondorwa, Daniel	United States	NM	Eastern New Mexico University
Glickman, Leslie B.	United States	AZ	University of Phoenix
Goodrich, Peter	United States	RI	Providence College
Grant, Jim	United Arab Emirates		American University of Sharjah
Greenberg, Penelope S.	United States	PA	Widener University
Greer, Timothy H.	United States	TN	Middle Tennessee State University
Griffin, Richard	United States	TN	University of Tennessee at Martin

Reviewer	Country	State/ Region	Affiliation
Grizzell, Brian C	United States	Online	Walden University
Gulledge, Dexter E.	United States	AR	University of Arkansas at Monticello
Gupta, Pramila	Australia	Victoria	
Hadani, Michael	United States	NY	Long Island University - C.W. Post Campus
Hadaya, Pierre	Canada		
Hale, Georgia	United States	AR	University of Arkansas at Fort Smith
Haley, Mary Lewis	United States	TN	Cumberland University
Hallock, Daniel	United States	AL	University of North Alabama
Hanke, Steven	United States	IN	Indiana University-Purdue University
Haque, MD Mahbubul	United States	NY	SUNY Empire State College
Harper, Betty S.	United States	TN	Middle Tennessee State University
Harper, Brenda	United States	WV	American Public University
Harper, J. Phillip	United States	TN	Middle Tennessee State University
Harris, Kenneth J.	United States	IN	Indiana University Southeast
Harris, Ranida Boonthanom	United States	IN	Indiana University Southeast
Hashim, Gy R.	Malaysia	Selangor	Universiti Teknologi MARA
Hasty, Bryan	United States	OH	Air Force Institute of Technology
Hayrapetyan, Levon	United States	TX	Houston Baptist University
Hedgepeth, Oliver	United States	AK	University of Alaska Anchorage
Henderson, Brook	United States	CO	Colorado Technical University
Hicks, Joyce	United States	IN	Saint Mary's College
Hilary, Iwu	United States	KY	Morehead State University
Hills, Stacey	United States	UT	Utah State University
Hillyer, Jene	United States	KS	Washburn University
Hinton-Hudson, Veronica	United States	KY	University of Louisville
Hoadley, Ellen	United States	MD	Loyola College in Maryland
Hodgdon, Christopher D.	United States	VT	University of Vermont
Hollman, Kenneth W.	United States	TN	Middle Tennessee State University
Houghton, Joe	Ireland	Dublin	University College Dublin
Hu, Tao	United States	TN	King College
Islam, Muhammad M.	United States	WV	Concord University
Iwu, Hilary O.	United States	KY	Morehead State University
Iyengar, Jaganathan	United States	NC	North Carolina Central University
Iyer, Uma J.	United States	TN	Austin Peay State University
Jack, Kristen	United States	MI	Grand Valley State University
Jackson, Steven R.	United States	MS	University of Southern Mississippi
Jagoda, Kalinga	Canada	Alberta	Mount Royal College
Jennings, Alegra	United States	NY	Sullivan County Community College
Jerles, Joseph F.	United States	TN	Austin Peay State University
Johnson, Cooper	United States	MS	Delta State University
Johnston, Timothy C.	United States	TN	Murray State University
Jones, Irma S.	United States	TX	The University of Texas at Brownsville
Joyner, Edd R.	United States	TN	Academic Business World
Justice, Patricia	United States		Montage Education Technology
Kaya, Halil	United States	KY	Eastern Kentucky University
Keller, Gary F.	United States	WI	Cardinal Stritch University
Kennedy, R. Bryan	United States	AL	Athens State University
Kent, Tom	United States	SC	College of Charleston

Reviewer	Country	State/ Region	Affiliation
Kephart, Pam	United States	IN	University of Saint Francis
Kilburn, Ashley P.	United States	TN	University of Tennessee at Martin
Kilburn, Brandon	United States	TN	University of Tennessee at Martin
Kilgore, Ron	United States	TN	University of Tennessee at Martin
King, David	United States	TN	Tennessee State University
King, Maryon F.	United States	IL	Southern Illinois University Carbondale
Kitous, Bernhard	France		
Kluge, Annette	Switzerland	St. Gallen	University of St. Gallen
Korb, Leslie	United States	NJ	Georgian Court University
Korte, Leon	United States	SD	University of South Dakota
Korzaan, Melinda L.	United States	TN	Middle Tennessee State University
Kray, Gloria Matthews	United States	AZ	University of Phoenix
Kuforiji, John	United States	AL	Tuskegee University
Lamb, Kim	United States	OH	Stautzenberger College
Latif, Ehsan	Canada	British Columbia	University College of the Cariboo
Lee, Jong-Sung	United States	TN	Middle Tennessee State University
Lee, Minwoo	United States	KY	Western Kentucky University
Leonard, Jennifer	United States	MT	Montana State University-Billings
Leonard, Joe	United States	OH	Miami University
Leupold, Christopher R.	United States	NC	Elon University
Lim, Chi Lo	United States	MO	Northwest Missouri State University
Lin, Hong	United States	TX	University of Houston-Downtown
Lindstrom, Peter	Switzerland		University of St. Gallen
Long, Jamye	United States	MS	Delta State University
Lowhorn, Greg	United States	FL	Pensacola Christian College
Lyons, Paul	United States	MD	Frostburg State University
Marquis, Gerald	United States	TN	Tennessee State University
Mason, David D.M.	New Zealand		
Mathews, Rachel	United States	VA	Longwood University
Mavengere, Nicholas Blessing	Finland		University of Tampere
Mayo, Cynthia R.	United States	DE	Delaware State University
McDonough, Darlene M.	United States		St. Bonaventure University
McGowan, Richard J.	United States	IN	Butler University
McKechnie, Donelda S.	United Arab Emirates		American University of Sharjah
McKenzie, Brian	United States	CA	California State University, East Bay
McManis, Bruce	United States	LA	Nicholls State University
McNeese, Rose	United States	MS	University of Southern Mississippi
McNelis, Kevin	United States	NM	New Mexico State University
Medina, Carmen I. Figueroa	Puerto Rico	PR	University of Puerto Rico, Mayaguez
Mello, Jeffrey A.	United States	FL	Barry University
Mello, Jim	United States	CT	University of Hartford
Meyer, Timothy P.	United States	WI	University of Wisconsin-Green Bay
Mitchell, Jennie	United States	IN	Saint Mary-of-the-Woods College
Mlitwa, Nhlanhla	South Africa		
Mollica, Kelly	United States	TN	The University of Memphis
Moodie, Douglas R.	United States	GA	Kennesaw State University
Moore, Bradley	United States	AL	University of West Alabama
Moore, Gregory A.	United States	TN	Austin Peay State University

Reviewer	Country	State/ Region	Affiliation
Moore, Paula H.	United States	TN	University of Tennessee at Martin
Moraes dos Santos, André	Brazil		Universidade do Vale do Itajaí
Morrison, Bree	United States	FL	Bethune-Cookman College
Mosley, Alisha	United States	MS	Jackson State University
Mosquera, Inty Saez	Cuba	Villa Clara	Universidad Central "Marta Abreu" de Las Villas
Motii, Brian	United States	AL	University of Montevallo
Mouhammed, Adil	United States	IL	University of Illinois at Springfield
Negbenebor, Anthony	United States	NC	Gardner-Webb University
Neumann, Hillar	United States	SD	Northern State University
Newport, Stephanie	United States	TN	Austin Peay State University
Nichols, Charles "Randy"	United States	KY	Mid-Continent Universsity
Ninassi, Susanne	United States	VA	Marymount University
Nixon, Judy C.	United States	TN	University of Tennessee at Chattanooga
Oguhebe, Festus	United States	MS	Alcorn State University
Okafor, Collins E.	United States	TX	Texas A&M International University
O'Keefe, Robert D.	United States	IL	DePaul University
Onwujuba-Dike, Christie	United States	IN	University of Saint Francis
Otero, Rafael	United States	TX	The University of Texas at Brownsville
Owens, Valerie	United States	SC	Anderson College
Packer, James	United States	AR	Henderson State University
Palmer, David K.	United States	NE	University of Nebraska at Kearney
Patton, Barba L.	United States	TX	University of Houston-Victoria
Payne, Alina R.	United States	CA	
Peña, Leticia E.	United States	WI	University of Wisconsin-La Crosse
Petkova, Olga	United States	CT	Central Connecticut State University
Petrova, Krassie	New Zealand		Auckland University of Technology
Phillips, Antoinette S.	United States	LA	Southeastern Louisiana University
Pittarese, Tony	United States	TN	East Tennessee State University
Potter, Paula	United States	KY	Western Kentucky University
Powers, Richard	United States	KY	Eastern Kentucky University
Presby, Leonard	United States	NJ	William Paterson University
Redman, Arnold	United States	TN	University of Tennessee at Martin
Regimbal, Elizabeth E.	United States	WI	Cardinal Stritch University
Reichert, Carolyn	United States	TX	The University of Texas at Dallas
Ren, Louie	United States	TX	University of Houston-Victoria
Riley, Glenda	United States	IN	Arkansas Tech University
Rim, Hong	United States	PA	Shippensburg University
Roach, Joy	United States	KY	Murray State University
Robinson, Martha D.	United States	TN	The University of Memphis
Rood, A. Scott	United States	MI	Grand Valley State University
Roumi, Ebrahim	Canada	New Brunswick	University of New Brunswick
Roush, Melvin	United States	KS	Pittsburg State University
Russell-Richerzhagen, Laura	United States	AL	Faulkner University
Sanders, Tom J.	United States	AL	University of Montevallo
Sands, John	United States	WA	Western Washington University
Sarosa, Samiaji	Indonesia		Atma Jaya Yogyakarta University
Sarwar, Chaudhary Imran	Pakistan		Creative Researcher
Schaeffer, Donna M.	United States	VA	Marymount University

Reviewer	Country	State/ Region	Affiliation
Schechtman, Greg	United States	OH	Air Force Institute of Technology
Schindler, Terry	United States	IN	University of Indianapolis
Schmidt, Buffie	United States	GA	Augusta State University
Schuldt, Barbara	United States	LA	Southeastern Louisiana University
Selvy, Patricia	United States	KY	Bellarmine University
Service, Robert W.	United States	AL	Samford University
Shao, Chris	United States	TX	Midwestern State University
Shipley, Sherry	United States	IN	Trine University
Shores, Melanie L.	United States	AL	University of Alabama at Birmingham
Siegel, Philip	United States	GA	Augusta State University
Simpson, Eithel	United States	OK	Southwestern Oklahoma State University
Singh, Navin Kumar	United States	AZ	Northern Arizona University
Smatrakalev, Georgi	United States	FL	Florida Atlantic University
Smith, Allen E.	United States	FL	Florida Atlantic University
Smith, J.R.	United States	MS	Jackson State University
Smith, Nellie	United States	MS	Rust College
Smith, W. Robert	United States	MS	University of Southern Mississippi
Sobieralski, Kathleen L.	United States	MD	University of Maryland University College
Soheili-Mehr, Amir H.	Canada	Ontario	University of Toronto
Sridharan, Uma V.	United States	SC	Lander University
St Pierre, Armand	Canada	Alberta	Athabasca University
Steerey, Lorrie	United States	MT	Montana State University-Billings
Stokes, Len	United States	NY	Siena College
Stone, Karen	United States	NH	Southern New Hampshire University
Stover, Kristie	United States	VA	Marymount University
Stuart, Randy	United States	GA	Kennesaw State University
Stumb, Paul C.	United States	TN	Cumberland University
Swisshelm, Beverly Ann	United States	TN	Cumberland University
Talbott, Laura	United States	AL	University of Alabama at Birmingham
Tanguma, Jesús	United States	TX	The University of Texas-Pan American
Tanigawa, Utako	United States	AR	Itec International LLC
Terrell, Robert	United States	TN	Carson-Newman College
Terry, Kathleen Y.	United States	FL	Saint Leo University
Theodore, John D.	United States	FL	Warner University
Thompson, Sherwood	United States	KY	
Throckmorton, Bruce	United States	TN	Tennessee Technological University
Totten, Jeffrey	United States	LA	McNeese State University
Tracy, Daniel L.	United States	SD	University of South Dakota
Tran, Hang Thi	United States	TN	Middle Tennessee State University
Trebby, James P.	United States	WI	Marquette University
Trzcinka, Sheila Marie	United States	IN	Indiana University Northwest
Udemgba, A. Benedict	United States	MS	Alcorn State University
Udemgba, Benny	United States	MS	Alcorn State University
Ujah, Nacasius	United States	TX	Texas A&M International University
Urda, Julie	Inited States	RI	Rhode Island College
Valle, Matthew "Matt"	United States	NC	Elon University
van der Klooster, Marie Louise	Australia	Victoria	Deakin University
Vehorn, Charles	United States	VA	Radford University

Reviewer	Country	State/ Region	Affiliation
Voss, Richard Steven	United States	AL	Troy University
Voss, Roger Alan	United States	TX	Epicor Software Corporation
Wade, Keith	United States	FL	Webber International University
Wahid, Abu	United States	TN	Tennessee State University
Walter, Carla Stalling	United States	MO	Missouri Southern State University
Walters, Joanne	United States	WI	University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee
Wanbaugh, Teresa	United States	LA	Louisiana College
Warner, Janice	United States		Georgian Court University
Wasmer, D.J.	United States	IN	Saint Mary-of-the-Woods College
Watson, John G.	United States	NY	St. Bonaventure University
Williams, Darryl	United States	TX	Walden University
Williams, Melissa	United States	GA	Augusta State University
Wilson, Antoinette	United States	WI	University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee
Zahaf, Mehdi	Canada	Ontario	Lakehead University
Zaremba, Alan	United States	MA	Northeastern University
Zeng, Tao	Canada	Ontario	Wilfrid Laurier University
Zhou, Xiyu (Thomas)	United States	AK	University of Alaska Fairbanks
Ziems, Wendy	United States	OH	Stautzenberger College

The JW Press Family of Academic Journals

Journal of Learning in Higher Education (JLHE)

ISSN: 1936-346X (print)

Each university and accrediting body says that teaching is at the forefront of their mission. Yet the attention given to discipline oriented research speaks otherwise. Devoted to establishing a platform for showcasing learning-centered articles, JLHE encourages the submission of manuscripts from all disciplines. The top learning-centered articles presented at ABW conferences each year will be automatically published in the next issue of JLHE. JLHE is listed in Cabell's Directory of Publishing Opportunities in Educational Psychology and Administration, indexed by EBSCO, and under consideration for indexing by Scopus.

Individuals interested in submitting manuscripts directly to JLHE should review information at http://jwpress.com/JLHE/JLHE.htm.

Journal of Academic Administration in Higher Education (JAAHE)

ISSN: 1936-3478 (print)

JAAHE is a journal devoted to establishing a platform for showcasing articles related to academic administration in higher education, JAAHE encourages the submission of manuscripts from all disciplines. The best articles presented at ABW conferences each year, that deal with the subject of administration of academic units, will be automatically published in the next issue of JAAHE. JAAHE is listed in Cabell's Directory of Publishing Opportunities in Educational Psychology and Administration, indexed by EBSCO, and under consideration for indexing by Scopus.

Individuals interested in submitting manuscripts directly to JAAHE should review information on their site at http://jwpress.com/JAAHE/JAAHE.htm.

International Journal of the Academic Business World (IJABW)

ISSN 1942-6089 (print)
ISSN 1942-6097 (online)

IJABW is a new journal devoted to providing a venue for the distribution, discussion, and documentation of the art and science of business. A cornerstone of the philosophy that drives IJABW, is that we all can learn from the research, practices, and techniques found in disciplines other than our own. The Information Systems researcher can share with and learn from a researcher in the Finance Department or even the Psychology Department.

We actively seek the submission of manuscripts pertaining to any of the traditional areas of business (accounting, economics, finance, information systems, management, marketing, etc.) as well as any of the related disciplines. While we eagerly accept submissions in any of these disciplines, we give extra consideration to manuscripts that cross discipline boundaries or document the transfer of research findings from academe to business practice. International Journal of the Academic Business World is listed in Cabell's Directory of Publishing Opportunities in Business, indexed by EBSCO, and under consideration for indexing by Scopus.

Individuals interested in submitting manuscripts directly to IJABW should review information on their site at http://jwpress.com/IJABW/IJABW.htm

Administrative Hierarchy and Faculty Work: Examining Faculty Satisfaction with Academic Leadership

Michael T. Miller
Professor, Higher Education
Department of Rehabilitation, Human Resources, and Communication Disorders
College of Education and Health Professions
University of Arkansas
Fayetteville, Arkansas

Ketevan Mamiseishvili
Associate Professor, Higher Education
Department of Rehabilitation, Human Resources, and Communication Disorders
College of Education and Health Professions
University of Arkansas
Fayetteville, Arkansas

Donghun Lee
Doctoral Candidate, Counselor Education
Department of Rehabilitation, Human Resources, and Communication Disorders
College of Education and Health Professions
University of Arkansas
Fayetteville, Arkansas

ABSTRACT

Academic administrators at all levels have some impact on the performance of faculty members, yet each level of administration may interact differently with faculty. Literature has strongly supported the notion that department chairs, deans, and provosts can positively influence the performance and livelihood of faculty members. This study was designed to explore faculty satisfaction with each level of academic administration making use of the 2014 survey data collected by the Collaborative on Academic Careers in Higher Education (COACHE) at the Harvard Graduate School of Education. We found that faculty members at research universities were more satisfied with leadership at the departmental than college or institutional levels. Furthermore, assistant professors were significantly more satisfied with academic leadership at all levels than both associate and full professors.

INTRODUCTION

At the central functioning of the academic department are the activities of faculty members. As these individuals teach, conduct research, and provide valuable service, their combined success ultimately defines the success or failure of an academic department (Guvendir, 2014). Through the work of academic faculty, students are inspired to learn, research advancements are made, service is provided to local communities and professional societies, and all of these activities are to some extent harnessed and directed by an administrator typically referred to as a 'department chair.' The department chair or head does not work alone, however, and is linked directly with those working as deans and central academic administrators, such as the provost, also called a vice president for academic affairs or chief academic officer. A key activity for these administrators is the coordination of their efforts to advance the work of faculty members.

Faculty members become motivated to engage in productive practices based on a variety of factors, including their preparation for their current roles, mentoring, student quality, research resources, and self-motivation (Conley & Onder, 2014; Fitzmaurice, 2013). One area in particular that has been highlighted as a success-enabling factor is the support of the department chair and other academic administrators (Monteiro, Wilson, & Beyer, 2013). These individuals create reward systems and distribute resources that allow faculty members to complete their work, but they also create a culture in which faculty members can be creative and find self-motivation to be high performing (Kaufman, 2009).

Among the varied activities administrators can create to support faculty in their teaching and research roles are providing money to attend conferences and workshops on teaching strategies, resources to meet with grant funding agents, release time from teaching to write grants, and at some institutions, sabbatical leave programs to allow a dedicated time for research. Increasingly administrators are the individuals who structure the work of faculty members, determine workload and effort, and ultimately, evaluate those efforts and reward them with increased pay, rank promotions, and recognition.

Faculty productivity is strongly correlated with workplace satisfaction and the culture created and maintained by academic administration, especially at the departmental level (Czech & Forward, 2010; Fitzmaurice, 2013; Monteiro et al., 2013). The result of greater workplace satisfaction can be documented in higher retention rates of faculty, higher levels of academic output, increased teaching effectiveness, the recruitment of better faculty and students, and prestige indicators such as program rankings. But despite the obvious benefits of high faculty satisfaction and morale, many institutions fail to "treat faculty as a resource to be retained and developed" (Sanfey, Savas, & Hollands, 2006, p. 370). The current study was subsequently designed to explore faculty satisfaction with academic leadership at the departmental, college, and institutional levels.

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

The roles and functions of academic administrators have changed significantly over the past three decades. Academic deans, for example, were once primarily tacticians who planned curriculum, scheduled classes, and evaluated faculty members (Vacik, 1997). Today these individuals are the public faces of their academic colleges and are required to engage in active fund raising and public relations. They are responsible for establishing the priorities of an academic unit along with setting a vision and goals for the unit. These might include a heightened research profile or graduate degree presence, a greater emphasis on diversity, more value on outreach and partnering with non-academic entities (Wolverton, Gmelch, & Montez, 2001). Additionally, their energy is increasingly being devoted to the management of the growing business operations of academic units such as web-presence, computing and information systems, service unites, and facility maintenance. The same evolution has been seen in the provost, and to some extent, increasingly in the department chair position (Gmelch, 2011; Hammond, 2004; Sibley, 1998).

Similar to the decanal position, the provost position has changed at some institutions and remained consistent at others, often depending on the role and mission of the institution. Increasingly the position is seen as the individual next to the president or chancellor with overall responsibility for the institution. In some instances the provost position has the responsibility for all internal operations, including budgeting and facilities, allowing the president to focus on more external operations, such as board relations, political relationships, and fund raising. The provost's office is also responsible for regional accreditation and has broad responsibility for all instructional matters, including the faculty of the institution. As the office with final responsibility for instructional quality, individuals in the office have found creative and innovative strategies for enhancing and encouraging faculty performance. Some of these include offices or centers dedicated to teaching improvement, workshops on research strategies, special pay or financial rewards for academic accomplishments, and both formal and informal recognition ceremonies (Hammond, 2004).

The department chair position has also been changing, assuming many of the responsibilities once required of the dean. Chairs combine technical implementation with strategic planning to both build departmental cultures and atmospheres conducive to effective teaching and research, while also managing the technical aspects of classrooms, technology, course delivery methods, and even ordering teaching supplies. This administrative evolution to some extent can be empowering for faculty as they have more independence in some areas of their work, but can also reinforce the idea that faculty members are part of a managed profession (Gmelch, 2011).

Ultimately, all three levels of administration have some impact on the environment of faculty members, in addition to their recruitment, retention, and promotion, and therefore, play a critical role in shaping the faculty members' work climate and environment. Thus the relationship between faculty and administrators is critical to building an environment that supports the mission of higher education.

Some research (Rose, 2012) has found a strong relationship between organizational culture and commitment. The better an employee feels about the employer, the greater the productivity, workplace loyalty, and retention. This idea is grounded in social exchange theory where positive behaviors are demonstrated toward an employer based on the feelings of the employee (Deluga, 1994). This social exchange has been noted to be particularly well suited for higher education, as these human resource-rich environments function based not just on formal job descriptions, but on individual discretion to implement job duties

(Birnbaum, 1989). Implementing directives is particularly difficult in a higher education setting where faculty experience significant amount of freedom in completing their assigned academic tasks. In such settings, fostering positive and mutually respectful relationships between faculty and academic administration becomes essential.

METHODS

Sample

This study utilized survey data collected by The Collaborative on Academic Careers in Higher Education (COACHE) at the Harvard Graduate School of Education. We selected the sample of 2,355 full-time tenure-track or tenured faculty members at research universities who participated in COACHE survey in 2014 (Benson, Mathews, & Trower, 2014). Faculty members who held an administrative appointment at the time of survey administration were not included in the final sample. The final sample was evenly divided by rank with 785 (33.3%) faculty members at the assistant, associate, and full professor levels, respectively. Of the total sample, 1,556 (66.1%) were tenured and 799 (33.9%) were not tenured but on the tenure-track. Majority of the participants were White (78.1%) and male (60.6%). The final sample included 1,502 (63.8%) faculty members from research universities with very high research activity, 733 (31.1%) from research universities with high research activity, and 120 (5.1%) from doctoral/ research universities.

Measures

The COACHE survey is designed to investigate faculty satisfaction with the nature of their work, institutional support, mentoring, institutional climate, and other conditions of their employment (COACHE, n.d.). The COACHE survey contains fifteen themes, one of which is institutional governance and leadership. Based on the purpose of this study, we included 12 institutional governance and Leadership questions from the COACHE data set that asked faculty to rate their level of satisfaction with different aspects of departmental, college, and institutional leadership using a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from (1) very dissatisfied to (5) very satisfied. Specifically, faculty members were asked to rate their satisfaction with pace of decision making, stated priorities, and communication of these priorities to faculty at all three levels. In addition to these questions, faculty were also asked to indicate their level of satisfaction with ensuring opportunities for faculty to have input into departmental policy decision and school/college priorities. Finally, at the departmental level, faculty also rated their department head's or chair's fairness in evaluating their work. Table 1 includes descriptive data on each of the variables used in the study for the total sample as well as by academic rank.

Data Analysis

IBM SPSS Statistics 22 software was used to analyze the data. First, we conducted factor analysis with Principle Component Analysis and Varimax rotation to explore the underlying factor structure of 12 variables selected for this study. The factor analysis confirmed three-factor structure with a strong validity: Departmental Leadership (Q185H, Q185I, Q185J, Q185K, and Q185L), College Leadership (Q185D, Q185E, Q185F, and Q185G), and Institutional Leadership (Q180L, Q180M, and Q180N). After the factors were confirmed, we conducted paired samples t tests to compare faculty satisfaction with leadership at the departmental, college, and institutional levels. Finally, one-way ANOVA tests were conducted to examine the differences in faculty satisfaction with leadership by academic rank. Prior to ANOVA tests, we checked for violations of normality and homogeneity of variance. ANOVA tests are typically robust to these violations when sample sizes are equal as was the case in this study (Field, 2013). Examination of skewness and kurtosis values did not reveal violations of normality in the data. However, Levene's test revealed that assumption of homogeneity of variance was violated for the satisfaction with departmental leadership factor; therefore, we used the Games-Howell post-hoc test to examine the group differences. Tukey's post-hoc tests were used to examine the group differences in faculty satisfaction with leadership at the college and institutional levels. To compensate for the effects of multiple testing and large sample size, alpha levels were set at $p < 0.001$.

RESULTS

Paired Samples *t*-Tests

Paired-samples t tests revealed that faculty were significantly more satisfied with departmental level (Mean = 3.57, SD = 1.18) than college level leadership (Mean = 3.12, SD = 1.10), $t(2354) = 17.41$, $p < .001$, Cohen's $d = .39$. Similarly, faculty indicated significantly higher levels of satisfaction with leadership at the departmental than institutional level (Mean = 3.15, SD = 1.01, $t(2354) = 15.18$, $p < .001$, Cohen's $d = .38$. However, faculty perceptions of leadership at the college level were not significantly different from their perceptions of institutional level leadership. Similar results emerged when we conducted paired-samples t-tests separately for assistant, associate, and full professors. Table 2 presents the summary of these results.

Table 1
Faculty Satisfaction with Departmental, College, and Institutional Leadership by Rank

Variable	Assistant Professor (n=785)	Associate Professor (n=785)	Full Professor (n=785)	Total (N=2355)
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)
Satisfaction with department head's or chair's...				
Pace of decision making (Q185H)	3.72(1.21)	3.40(1.25)	3.47(1.28)	3.53(1.25)
Stated priorities (Q185I)	3.68(1.23)	3.32(1.30)	3.35(1.34)	3.45(1.30)
Communication of priorities to faculty (Q185J)	3.69(1.29)	3.38(1.35)	3.41(1.36)	3.49(1.34)
Ensuring opportunities for faculty to have i nput into departmental policy decision (Q185K)	3.8(1.27)	3.51(1.39)	3.53(1.40)	3.61(1.36)
Fairness in evaluating my work (Q185L)	3.97(1.12)	3.59(1.32)	3.69(1.31)	3.75(1.26)
Satisfaction with dean's or division head's...				
Pace of decision making (Q185D)	3.39(1.09)	3.11(1.12)	3.10(1.16)	3.20(1.13)
Stated priorities (Q185E)	3.31(1.16)	3.06(1.19)	2.99(1.22)	3.12(1.20)
Communication of priorities to faculty (Q185F)	3.32(1.20)	3.05(1.22)	3.01(1.22)	3.13(1.22)
Ensuring opportunities for faculty to have input into school/college priorities (Q185G)	3.23(1.20)	2.96(1.22)	2.89(1.27)	3.03(1.24)
Satisfaction with institution's chief academic officer's (provost, VPAA, dean of faculty)...				
Pace of decision making (Q180L)	3.33(.97)	3.11(1.00)	3.13(1.04)	3.19(1.01)
Stated priorities (Q180M)	3.31(1.04)	3.01(1.09)	3.02(1.16)	3.11(1.11)
Communication of priorities to faculty (Q180N)	3.32(1.09)	3.09(1.11)	3.04(1.16)	3.15(1.13)

One-Way ANOVA Tests

Results from one-way ANOVAs indicated significant differences in faculty satisfaction with leadership at all three levels by academic rank. More specifically, the Games-Howell and Tukey post-hoc tests revealed that assistant professors were significantly more satisfied with departmental, college, and institutional leadership compared with both associate and full professors. No significant differences existed between associate and full professors. The summary of the results from one-way ANOVAs with the post hoc tests is presented in Table 3.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Considering the critical role of the departmental context in the life of a faculty member, the findings from our study are encouraging. Faculty members in general were significantly more satisfied with departmental than college and institutional level leadership. Academic department is the most important community for faculty members, and the role of the department chair is critical in shaping the identity of this community. In various contexts, the chair is not only the individual who hires the faculty member, but is also the individual most responsible for faculty development, support, and creating a culture that ensures faculty success. In large institutions this departmental culture can supersede institutional cultures, expectations, and norms. Through strong leadership, department chairs can encourage productive behaviors and serve as a resource for faculty as they learn to identify the criteria necessary for success. Therefore, the findings that faculty members in general were satisfied with department chair's decision-making, fairness in evaluating their work, and efforts

Table 2
Results from Paired Samples t Tests

Pairs		Assistant Professor (n=785)		Associate professor (n=785)		Full Professor (n=785)		Total (N=2,355)	
		t	p	t	p	t	p	t	p
Department	College	10.59	<.001	8.96	<.001	10.6	<.001	17.41	<.001
Department	Institution	10.04	<.001	7.48	<.001	8.92	<.001	15.19	<.001
College	Institution	-0.23	0.819	-0.61	0.54	-1.67	0.095	-1.47	0.141

Note. Degrees of freedom 784 for t-tests by rank and 2,354 for the total sample.

Table 3
Results from One-way ANOVAs with Post Hoc tests

Variable	Assistant Professor	Associate Professor	Full Professor	F	p	η^2	Multiple Comparisons p <.001
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)				
Satisfaction with Departmental Leadership	3.77 (1.10)	3.44 (1.20)	3.49 (1.22)	17.91	< .001	.02	a > b, c
Satisfaction with College Leadership	3.31 (1.08)	3.04 (1.09)	3.00 (1.21)	18.79	< .001	.02	a > b, c
Satisfaction with Institutional Leadership	3.32 (.97)	3.07 (.98)	3.06 (1.04)	16.96	< .001	.014	a > b, c

Note:
a = Assistant Professor,
b = Associate Professor,
c = Full Professor;
Degrees of freedom were 2, 2352.

to engage them in the departmental policy decisions are positive and reassuring.

However, we also found that associate and full professors were less satisfied with academic leadership at all levels than assistant professors. As faculty members progress through the life cycle or seasons of their academic life (Knefelkamp, 1990), they seem to become more critical of the decision-making process and the priorities set by the leaders as well as the opportunities awarded to them to provide input in setting these priorities. Faculty members who have successfully passed through the initial gateway of the academy and have been tenured and promoted, no longer have a singular goal of earning tenure. They have, in a sense, made it into the institution's life and are now in a position to exert influence and dominance over different processes through involvement in campus life and activities. The rewards for these faculty members are less driven by the immediacy of tenure and promotion and are more strongly linked to individualistic behaviors. As faculty progress through their careers, they may develop higher and clearer expectations of their leaders, and if these expectations are not being met, dissatisfaction will arise.

Findings may also highlight the changing nature of the academic leadership, particularly at large, research-oriented institutions. In these environments, the dean for example plays more prominent roles in fund raising and external relations, including working with policy makers, legislators, and others who have influence on institutional resources, rather than in the internal functioning of the college. Faculty may not find high levels of satisfaction with their guidance, precisely because these administrators are not employed in such settings to provide it. The lack of satisfaction with the senior academic officer, however, is somewhat surprising as a growing number of institutions have invested in enhancing faculty quality through provost-level activities, such as teaching centers, faculty ombudsperson offices, more structured research support, etc.

Based on this study, we are not able to determine the reasons for dissatisfaction of associate and full professors with academic leadership; but the findings do speak to the difficulty in generalizing discussions and programs targeted at "the faculty" at large. Further research is needed to unwrap the causes of this dissatisfaction. Studies that explore how men and women or faculty of color respond to leadership differently would also be helpful in creating programs and processes that take into consideration the needs of different segments of the professoriate. This study represents a modest first-step in unpacking and understanding the differences in faculty perceptions of their academic leaders, but more in-depth examination of what drives faculty satisfaction or dissatisfaction with leadership priorities and decision-making at different institutional types is clearly warranted.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT AND DISCLAIMER

The authors acknowledge that the reported results are based in whole on analyses of the COACHE Data Set. These data were collected as part of a multi-site survey administration and supported by funds from participating colleges and universities and made available to the authors by the Collaborative on Academic Careers in Higher Education. This article has not been reviewed or endorsed by COACHE and does not necessarily represent the opinions of COACHE staff or members, who are not responsible for the contents.

REFERENCES

Benson, R. T., Mathews, K. R., & Trower, C. A. (2014). *The Collaborative on Academic Careers in Higher Education: Faculty Job Satisfaction Survey, 2014* (Research version) [data file and codebook]. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University.

Birnbaum, R. (1989). *How colleges work the cybernetics of academic organization and leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Conley, J. P., & Onder, A. S. (2014). The research productivity of new PhDs in economics: The surprisingly high non-success of the successful. *Journal of Economic Perspectives, 28*(3), 205-216.

Czech, K., & Forward, G. L. (2010). Leader communications: Faculty perceptions of the department chair. *Communication Quarterly, 58*(4), 431-457.

Deluga, R. (1994). Supervisor trust building, leader-member exchange and organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 67*(4), 315-326.

Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistics using SPSS* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Fitzmaurice, M. (2013). Constructing professional identity as a new academic: A moral endeavor. *Studies in Higher Education, 38*(4), 613-622.

Gmelch, W. H. (2011). Typology of department chairs: The case of the swivel chair. *The Department Chair, 22*(2), 1-3.

Guvendir, M. A. (2014). A scaling research on faculty characteristics that higher education students prioritize. *College Student Journal, 48*(1), 173-183.

Hammond, T. H. (2004). Herding cats in university hierarchies: Formal structure and policy choice in American research universities. In R. G. Ehrenberg (Ed.), *Governing Academia* (pp. 91-138). Ithaca, NY: Cornell University.

Kaufman, R. R. (2009). Career factors help predict productivity in scholarship among faculty members in physical therapist education programs. *Physical Therapy, 89*(3), 204-220.

Knefelkamp, L. L. (1990). Seasons of academic life. *Liberal Education, 76*(3), 4-12.

Monteiro, H., Wilson, J., & Beyer, D. (2013). Exploration of predictors of teaching effectiveness: The professor's perspective. *Current Psychology, 32*, 329-337.

Rose, K. (2012). *Organizational citizenship behaviors in higher education: Examining the relationships between behaviors and performance outcomes for individuals and institutions*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, AR.

Sanfey, H., Savas, J., & Hollands, C. (2006). The view of surgery department chairs on part-time faculty in academic practice: Results of a national study. *American Journal of Surgery, 192*, 366-371.

Sibley, W. A. (1998). *University management 2020*. Stillwater, OK: New Forums.

Vacik, S. M. (1997). *Critical incidents impacting the role and development of the academic department chair, 1870-1925*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa, AL.

Wolverton, M., Gmelch, W., & Montez, J. (2001). *The changing nature of the academic deanship. ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report No. 28*. Washington, DC: George Washington University, ASHE-ERIC.

This page intentionally blank.

Performance Accountability and the Community College: Using Institutional Performance to Determine Faculty Salaries

Douglas A. Smith, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor
Department of Educational Leadership & Policies
Wardlaw College
University of South Carolina
Columbia, SC

Henry Tran, MPA, PHR, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor
Department of Educational Leadership & Policies
Wardlaw College
University of South Carolina
Columbia, SC

ABSTRACT

Performance accountability systems are increasingly utilized by state legislatures to hold community colleges more accountable for student outcomes and responsible spending through the linking of state funding to specific outputs. Through these actions, it is reasonable expect an emphasis on institutional performance to permeate into a community colleges' operations, decisions, and spending. Specifically, full-time faculty salaries are the largest and most significant expenditure. Salaries are determined by the selection of a labor market whereby employers compete for employees through competitive compensation. The purpose of this paper is to explore the feasibility of determining full-time community college faculty salaries using a performance based labor market. A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted to compare beginning and average faculty salaries as determined from both the performance based labor market and the actual negotiated labor market used by community college districts. The findings of our research are discussed as they relate to employees and employers and the principles of distributive and procedural justice within a performance accountability framework.

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, academic quality concerns and coinciding fiscal pressures have resulted in increased public scrutiny for community colleges to improve their efficiency of public funds usage (Dowd & Taing Shieh, 2013). Put another way, community colleges face growing calls to be accountable. Accountability is a term increasingly used in the vocabulary of community college administrators, policy makers, and the general public to describe this phenomenon. While there are many forms of accountability, accountability for student outcomes and accountability for responsible spending are two major areas that community colleges are increasingly being publicly evaluated on.

Performance accountability systems are one mechanism state legislatures are increasingly adopting to hold community colleges more accountable for student outcomes and responsible spending. States that have adopted performance accountability systems utilize two main forms; performance funding and performance budgeting.

Specifically, *performance funding* "ties specific state funding directly and tightly to campus performance on individual indicators" (Burke, 2005, p. 219). These indicators include performance metrics such as rates for certification obtainment, graduation, and transfer to a four-year university. Performance funding moves state funding beyond traditional considerations that do not consider outcomes, such as student enrollment, current funding, and inflation. It creates a direct, automatic, and formulaic link between performance and funding through the distribution of funds using defined institutional outcome measures (Burke, 2005).

Similarly, *performance budgeting* "allows governors, legislators, and higher education boards to consider campus achievement on performance indicators as one factor in determining allocations for public colleges and universities" (Burke, 2005, p. 219). Performance budgeting is focused on decision makers' consideration of organizational outcome measures during the budget development phase. The performance budgeting strategy creates opportunities for decision makers, at their discretion, to budget additional funding based on accomplishment or progress towards prioritized outcomes.

As more state legislatures adopt performance accountability systems to allocate funds to higher education institutions, it is reasonable to assume that community colleges may seek to respond in a way that incorporates performance in their policies, procedures, and operations. In particular, community colleges may wish to consider how performance could be incorporated into budgetary decisions to closer align their institution with the growing external performance accountability pressures.

Of the multitude of community college expenditures, instructional faculty costs represent the largest and most significant expense (Cohen, Brawer, & Kisker, 2014) and the primary source of instructional faculty costs is salaries. Performance accountability has become a dominating force in community college discussions at the state funding level. However, neglected from the conversation is mention of performance accountability's ability to incorporate performance into the individual community college accountability network (Harbour, Davies, & Gonzales-Walker, 2010) and specifically the largest and most significant expenditure–faculty salaries.

The purpose of this paper is to explore the feasibility of determining full-time community college faculty salaries using a performance based labor market. Through this, we expand the discussion of performance accountability to a broader scope to consider its potential to influence institution level decision makers and processes. To inform our discussion, we first provide a brief literature review establishing the principles of distributive justice and procedural justice as a framework to better understand community college faculty salaries and the labor markets used to determine them. Second, considering what is known about labor markets used to determine faculty salaries, we compare an empirically defined relevant labor market based on performance to the negotiated labor market that is actually used in the field setting. Lastly, we provide a discussion and implications of our findings for community college employees' and employers.

FRAMEWORK

Researchers applying social justice theories (Young, Delli, Miller-Smith, & Alhadeff, 2004) and organizational justice theories (Hartman, Yrle, & Galle, 1999) to compensation issues address principles of distributive justice and procedural justice within their frameworks. Accordingly, we apply the concepts of procedural justice and distributive justice within a performance accountability framework as they relate to compensation.

Discussions of compensation traditionally focus on the issue of outcome fairness, or what is known as distributive justice (Scarpello & Jones, 1996). Procedural justice, on the other hand, is focused on the fairness of the process resulting in the outcome, including the decisions made along the way (Hartman et al., 1999). According to Hartman et al. (1999) "distributive justice appears to have more influence on satisfaction with the outcomes, while procedural justice appears more related to attitudes about the relevant institution or authorities" (p. 337). In sum, distributive justice is concerned with outcome fairness and procedural justice is concerned with process fairness.

Scarpello and Jones (1996) established that "just outcomes matter because they minimize the risks of decreased output" and "just compensation procedures matter because they are the mechanisms for aligning the interests of agents [faculty] with those of the principal [community college]" (p. 296). Further, they established that "fairness of compensation procedures determines the fairness of the resulting compensation and motivates the agents' [faculty] actions toward the output [performance] desired by the principal [community college]" (p. 296). Put another way, a fair process to determine faculty salaries leads to the perception of fair faculty salaries, which motivates faculty to improve their performance and ultimately institutional performance. Taking this one step further, we posit that a process to determine faculty salaries can be fair for all involved, and ideally result in fair outcomes through the selection of a performance based labor market–specifically, institutional performance.

NEGOTIATED LABOR MARKETS

Labor markets represent the terrain from where employers compete for employees through competitive recruitment and compensation. To enhance procedural justice within the compensation framework, community college districts select particular relevant labor markets to aide in the salary determination process. Young (2008) presents several different empirically defined labor markets, each based on a corresponding economic theory. For instance, districts can define relevant labor markets based on geographic area, size, wealth, and performance.

Districts that seek to pay like other districts based on geographic area seek to pay based on the economic principle of *supply and demand*. Within the community college context, the rationale here is that districts compete with their neighboring districts for the supply of community college faculty members and therefore the salaries they offer must be comparable with those offered by their geographic peers. Districts that seek to pay like other districts based on size seek to pay based on the economic principle of *economy of scale*. The rationale here is that differently sized community college districts may have differing level of staff support, teaching load and other job responsibilities, and this should reflect in their pay.

Districts that seek to pay like other districts based on wealth seek to pay based on the economic principle of *ability to pay*. The rationale is that districts of similar financial standing should pay relatively similarly because they have the ability to do so. Finally, districts that seek to pay like other districts based on performance seek to pay based on the economic principle of *cost-benefit*. The rationale here is that high performing districts should be rewarded for their accomplishments and there should be a link between inputs like salaries (i.e., cost) and outputs like student performance (i.e., benefit).

The impact of the selection of different relevant labor markets on salaries has been examined in education. In the K-12 public school setting, Tran and Young (2013) and Young et al. (2004) have found that average salaries for teachers differed depending on the selection of different empirically defined relevant labor markets, but did not do so for beginning salaries. Specifically they found that salaries determined by the relevant labor markets based on geographic area, size and performance differed from one another.

In the community college setting, Tran and Smith (2015) examined the impact of selecting the same empirically defined labor markets on faculty beginning and average salaries for all community college districts in California. They did not find any substantive differences in salary outcomes as established by the different labor markets (geographic area, size, wealth, and performance). Consequently, they note that the selection of any of the relevant labor market would result in similar pay outcomes and therefore recommend the consideration of determining faculty salaries by a relevant labor market based on performance to address the mounting pressures and criticisms related to performance and financial accountability. In sum, the authors found that it did not substantively matter which empirically defined relevant labor market was selected for the purposes of determining community college faculty salaries.

METHODS

In this paper, we seek to extend the work conducted by Tran and Smith (2015) by comparing salaries determined by the performance based labor market to those determined by a negotiated relevant labor markets for California community colleges in the 2011-12 academic year. Negotiated relevant labor markets are negotiated upon by the faculty union and the community college district, and are the comparative districts actually used in the field setting for the purposes of salary determination. The comparisons of salaries determined by performance based labor markets to a negotiated relevant labor market provides us with an idea of whether we are currently over or underpaying professors within the accountability context.

The performance based labor market was empirically defined as the three districts with the closest level of institutional performance. The level of performance was reflected by the Student Progress and Achievement Rate (SPAR), which is the percentage of first-time degree or transfer seeking students who completed any of the following within six years: Transferred to a four year college, earned an associate's degree (AA/AS); or earned a certificate (18 units or more); or achieved transfer status. California used SPAR as its official accountability reporting measure for community colleges in the 2011-12 academic school year.

The negotiated relevant labor market was operationalized as the actual community college districts used by community colleges to determine their faculty salaries. To obtain data for the negotiated labor market districts, we randomly sampled five target community college districts and contacted their human resources department to inquire which community college districts were actually used in the field for the purposes of salary determination. Although five may seem like a small number, a sample of five target districts generates a much larger number of comparative districts (n= 43), which is the subject of our analysis. Descriptive statistics for the salaries determined by performance and negotiated labor market are displayed in table 1. Judging by the close proximity of these values, these statistics foreshadow potential minimal pay disparities between selecting either of the two labor markets for purposes of pay establishment.

RESULTS

A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted to compare beginning and average faculty salaries as determined from both the performance based labor market and the actual negotiated labor market used by community college districts. We used the negotiated labor market information collected from the randomly

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics

	Performance Labor Market		Negotiated Labor Market	
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation
Beginning Salary	$50,447.21	$7,229.47	$50,313.77	$7,626.87
Average Salary	$88,090.80	$7,915.61	$88,260.33	$9,867.16

sampled community college districts and compared that to the information generated from the empirically defined performance based labor market for those same five community college districts. The MANOVA results showed an insignificant multivariate effect, Wilk's lambda $F(6, 1718) = .67$, $p = .68$, which suggests that results do not support the hypothesis that the two labor markets differed statistically from one another for either beginning or average faculty salaries.

If salaries based on a negotiated relevant labor markets exceed those based on the performance relevant labor market, then this may suggest inefficiency in expenditures from an accountability perspective (Dowd & Taing Shieh, 2013). For instance, if professor salaries determined by the negotiated relevant labor market earn higher salaries than faculty paid based on a performance labor market, then professors are being overpaid from a performance accountability perspective. If salaries based on the negotiated relevant labor markets fall short of those determined by the performance relevant labor market, then community college professors may be underpaid relative to their contributions towards district outcomes. Either finding is important in a time where financial resources for education are slim and justifications for expenditures are required. The results of this study suggest that neither occurrences are reflected in the current state of affairs and that faculty salaries are comparable irrespective of the selection of different relevant labor markets.

By selecting a performance based labor market for salary determination purposes, an explicit link between performance and pay is created. However, it is unknown whether performance and pay are presently related in the current environment. To explore this question, we examined the potential link between present faculty salaries and performance. Specifically, we conducted a multivariate regression analysis that regressed beginning and average faculty salaries offered by community college districts on their performance. Because we worked with population data (i.e., data from all 72 community college districts in the 2011-12 academic year), we did not have a need to rely on p-values or inferential statistics to interpret these findings, as any difference observed represent actual differences in the population. Results suggest that district performance does predict district base salaries, b =11,85.31 and average salaries, b=24,095.15. Figures 1 and 2 display scatter plots of district beginning and average salaries against district performance.

These figures suggest a moderate relationship between district pay and performance. However, this is far from strong evidence to suggest that faculty are paid more for higher student outcomes. Because this analysis represents only a snapshot in time, we are unable to determine whether performance causes salaries to rise, whether salaries cause performance to rise, or whether there is some unknown lurking factors that connect both. In addition, the relationship between performance and pay, although seemingly present, is not strong, especially for beginning salaries. These results echo concerns expressed by others (e.g. Horne, Foley, & Flora, 2014) that faculty pay might not be as strong a motivator to improve student performance, as some perceive them to be.

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Our findings suggest that community college faculty salaries based on an institutional performance labor market do not differ from the labor markets currently used by community colleges. These findings extend findings from prior studies (Tran & Smith, 2015) that suggested faculty salaries determined by empirically defined labor markets based on geographic area, size, and wealth did not differ from an empirically defined labor market based on institutional performance.

As it relates to distributive justice (i.e. the fairness of the outcome), minimal disparity in salary outcome when selecting a labor market based on performance compared to using any of the other labor markets suggests fairness in outcomes. From an employees' perspective, they are not financially harmed by the selection of a labor market based on institutional performance as compared to the status quo. If they were to be financially harmed they likely would not support the selection of this labor market. However, because our findings suggest that performance based salaries do not vary much from the status quo, this

Figure 1
Scatter plot of
District's Beginning Faculty Salaries on District Performance

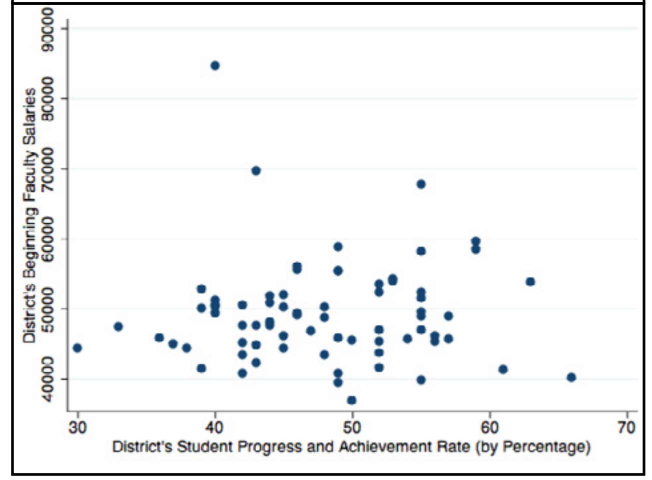
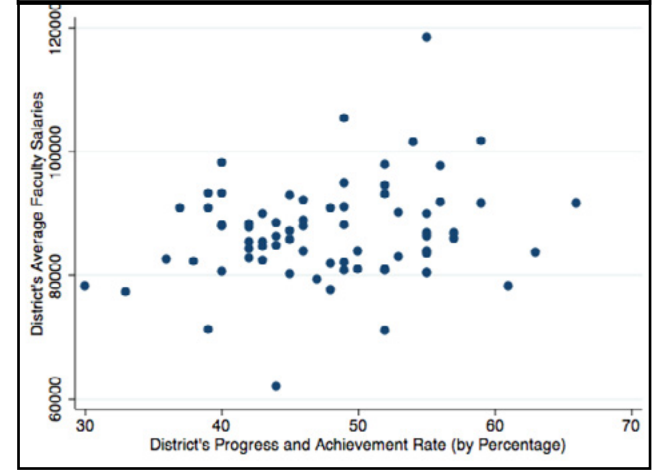


Figure 2
Scatter plot of
District's Average Faculty Salaries on District Performance



may result in the potential of increased buy-in from faculty (or at least less opposition) for linking faculty salaries to institutional performance.

From the employer perspective, selecting a labor market that pays based on institutional performance provides an opportunity to address increasing calls to be accountable for student outcomes and spending. This allows community colleges an opportunity to respond to stakeholders and demonstrate a responsiveness to these accountability demands. By linking faculty salaries to institutional performance through the salary determination process, community colleges may garner more public support.

As it relates to procedural justice (i.e. the fairness of the process), the selection of a labor market based on empirical data supports and guides decision makers during the salary determination process. From an employees' perspective, a fair process to determine pay practices and policies promotes transparency. From an employers' perspective, a district can demonstrate rational decision-making based on empirical evidence.

Like all studies, our work is not without its limitations. We recognize that institutional performance can be measured a variety of ways that differ from the measurement used in our study. Our definition of institutional performance aligned with the states definition of performance. However, future research should look at alternative definitions of performance.

In addition, the main analysis conducted for this study was based on a smaller sample. One potential problem with this is that statistical procedures may not have been able to detect any existing disparities. However, we feel confident that this is not the case as examinations of the beginning and average salaries between labor market (as evident in table 1) suggests minimal differentiation. Also, there are only 72 community colleges in California. Because we only focus on California, results may also not be representative of community colleges across the nation. However, California is the state that operates with the most number of community colleges, which is a reason for its selection. Future studies should replicate this study in other states.

Furthermore, we recognize that paying the lowest salaries to the lowest performing community colleges may be counter productive. Specifically, some may argue that underperforming community colleges should be offering higher wages to attract faculty that can improve institutional performance. However, these types of arguments are based on the assumption that offering higher pay is a viable mechanism for attracting faculty candidates who have the ability to improve community college outcomes. Future studies should examine whether the selection of a performance based labor market may serve as an incentive for subsequent institutional performance improvement. Our initial examination of a potential link between present faculty salaries and performance suggest a moderate relationship between district pay and performance, however this simple examination was exploratory and cross-sectional in nature. Future studies should consider examining the association between performance and salaries across time.

Lastly, we recognize that some community college districts may use more than one labor market to determine faculty salaries. Future research should explore community colleges using multiple labor markets to determine faculty salaries. Specifically, future research should look at the application of a performance based labor market as one of multiple labor markets informing salary determination decisions.

Over the next decade, community colleges will face increased pressure to be accountable for student performance and spending. Performance accountability systems have been one way in which community colleges have been encouraged by state legislatures to meet these demands. State funding linked to institutional performance is inherently a motivator for community colleges to focus on student outcomes and other state defined measures of performance. The next step for community colleges operating within performance accountability systems is integrating performance into local policies, procedures, and operations. Specifically, faculty salaries are one of the largest expenditures in a community college budget.

The findings of our research suggest that community colleges can integrate institutional performance into the faculty salary determination process by selecting institutional performance as a labor market. Our findings suggest that faculty salaries based on an institutional performance labor market do not differ from the negotiated markets currently in place. Accordingly, given the benefits, and lack of financial harm, to the employee and the employer from a distributive justice and procedural justice perspective, community colleges may wish to consider selecting institutional performance as a labor market in the faculty salary determination process.

REFERENCES

Burke, J. C. (2005). Reinventing accountability: From bureacratic rules to performance results. In J. C. Burke (Ed.) *Achieving accountability in higher education: Balancing public, academic, and market demands*. (p. 216-245). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Cohen, A. M., Brawer, F. B., & Kisker, C. B. (2013). *The American community college*. (6th Edition). San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Dowd, A.C. & Taing Shieh, L. (2013). Community college financing: Equity, efficiency, and accountability. *NEA 2013 Almanac of higher Education*. National Education Association.

Harbour, C. P., Davies, T., & Gonzales-Walker, R. (2010). The community college accountability network: Understanding institutional accountability at Aspen Grove Community College. *Community College Review*, *37*(4), 348-370.

Hartman, S. J., Yrle, A. C., & Galle, W. J. (1999). Procedural and distributive justice: examining equity in a university setting. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *20*(4), 337-351.

Horne, J., Foley, V. P., & Flora, B. H. (2014). Race to the paycheck: Merit pay and theories of teacher motivation. *Journal of Academic Administration in Higher Education*. *10*(1), 35-39.

Scarpello, V. & Jones, F. (1996). Why justice matters in compensation decision making. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 17*, 285-299.

Tran, H., & Smith, D.A. (2015). A Comparison of Relevant Labor Markets to Determine Full-Time Community College Faculty Salaries. Journal of School Public Relations, 36(2), 155- 175.

Tran, H. & Young, I. P. (2013). An efficiency assessment among empirically defined labor markets for determining pay for teachers. *Journal of School Public Relations*, *34*(2), 139-161.

Young, I.P. (2008). *The Human Resource Function in Education Administration. Ninth Edition*. Pearson Education, Inc. Upper Saddle River, New Jersey.

Young, I. P., Delli, D. A., Miller-Smith, K. A., & Alhadeff, A. B. (2004). An evaluation of the relative efficiency for various relevant labor markets: An empirical approach for establishing teacher salaries. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, *40*(3), 366-387.

Invisible Roles of Doctoral Program Specialists

Eva Burns Bachman, Ph.D.
Doctoral Program Specialist
University of Nebraska-Lincoln
Lincoln, NE

Marilyn L. Grady, Ph.D.
Professor
University of Nebraska-Lincoln
Lincoln, NE

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate the roles of doctoral program specialists in Big Ten universities. Face-to-face interviews with 20 doctoral program specialists employed in institutions in the Big Ten were conducted. Participants were asked to describe their roles within their work place. The doctoral program specialists reported their work interactions with other administrative offices, faculty and students. Their roles as problem-solvers, bridge-builders and being anonymous were dominant descriptors of their work. Based on the findings of the study, recommendations are offered for administrators, departments, faculty and students. Future research directions are suggested as well.

INTRODUCTION

Doctoral program specialists and their roles are invisible, embedded in the structures of universities. In this paper, we present the results of a study of doctoral program specialists at Big Ten universities in the U.S.

The administrative structure in higher education is distinctive to colleges and universities because no one, including academic staff and administrators, has total authority (Kuo, 2009). Administrative staff members are found from the highest administrative office to individual faculty offices, with a diverse range of work expectations (American Council on Education, 2004; Szekeres, 2006). The largest growth in personnel has been in support professionals, nearly ten times faster than increases in faculty, resulting in greater administrative discretion and growing importance in university work (Rhoades, 2001). Support staff comprise approximately 60% of the employees in higher education (Chock, 2008; Szekeres, 2006).

The increase in administrative personnel is a natural result of the expanding needs and changing roles in the institutions (Chock, 2008; Leicht & Fennel, 2008; Rich, 2006). An existing contradiction remains for administrative staff, viewed as residual employees, who remain invisible in the educational literature although the importance of their positions increases as universities' operational needs expand (DiPierro, 2007; Szekeres, 2006). Support staff professionals' significant role in student improvement and success cannot be ignored (Bensimon, 2007).

Roles within administration have evolved due to increased awareness of graduate student populations and needs. The focus of support systems has been altered as well (Altbach, 2011; Gardner, 2009; Lovitts, 2001; Mills, 2012). Organizational transformations have made the work of professional staff more central to the mission of the public university.

Differentiation of roles based on authority and shared specialized positions, defined by expectations and social structures, help form interactions between non-academic staff, faculty and students (Biddle, 1979; Merton, 1968; Weber, 1947). Consequences of diversification of tasks result in specializations within roles for both faculty and staff in higher education. In turn, this has led to uncertainty about how the defined roles play a part in the mission of the institution (Musselin, 2007; Robbins, 2013). According to Bennis and Nanus (2007), individuals are able to determine their roles within an organization if that organization has a clear sense of its purpose, direction, and future, which are widely shared. The individuals involved need to believe they can make a difference. Each role within the institution has a unique purpose to recruit and retain graduate students, yet the limited discussions about graduate schools restrict topics to those of the umbrella institutions, the key funding agencies, the departments, faculty or students (Kuo, 2009; Nyquist & Woodford, 2000).

The role for graduate schools is to assist students, collaboratively with programs, in successfully completing their graduate degrees which, as of 2008, was at a rate of only 50% (Council of Graduate Schools, 2008; Ehrenberg, Jakubson, Groen, So, & Price, 2007; Lovitts, 2001). Much has been written about graduate students' success and the impediments to degree completion from the student and mentor perspectives (Gardner, 2009; Golde, 2005; Rose, 2005). The relationships of students and their departments (Gardner, 2010), the nature of the doctoral dissertation process (Lovitts, 2001), and student characteristics and socialization to graduate school (Golde 2005; Tinto, 1993) have been reported.

Influences affecting student attrition are visible; these include the pressures of and experiences with administrative procedures inherent in institutional programs (Golde & Dore, 2001; McAlpine & Norton, 2006). Fundamental to the transition from classroom work to doctoral dissertation completion is the development of supportive networks and institutional programs. Retention efforts include student development and services directly purposed to assist graduate students in completing their programs and developing skills for the job market (Chock, 2008; DiPierro, 2007; West, Gokalp, Vallejo, Fischer, & Gupton, 2011).

In summary, because doctoral program specialists' roles within the graduate school and the larger institution have been absent from the research literature, it is difficult to discern the nature of the specialist's role. The diversity in position titles and job descriptions among institutions, reflected in the Big Ten institutions' websites, suggests the lack of uniformity in the roles of these staff members. Exploring the roles of doctoral program specialists and their professional relationships with colleagues, faculty and graduate students provides a view of their unique position. The findings of this study fill a gap in the research literature about graduate-level doctoral program specialists and their roles in the university.

PURPOSE OF RESEARCH

Doctoral program specialists and their roles are invisible and embedded in the structures of universities. In this paper, we present the results of a research study of doctoral program specialists at Big Ten universities in the U.S.

In any organization, there are roles that help define the work and promote productivity (Biddle, 1979, Merton, 1968; Weber, 1947). Although each role is important, leadership roles are discussed more often than support roles are. Research has focused on the dichotomous groups of "faculty and staff" or "faculty and administration" (Chock, 2008; Kezar, 2005; Szekeres, 2006).

Institutional standards are implemented by doctoral program specialists whose professional relationship is subsumed within the institutional system under the Graduate School umbrella. Although it is important to assess doctoral education through the eyes of the doctoral students (Golde & Dore, 2001) and the faculty mentors (Paglis, Green, & Bauer, 2006), there is a need to examine the roles of the doctoral program specialists based on their experiences.

METHODS

Exploring the roles of doctoral program specialists and their professional relationships with colleagues, faculty and graduate students provides a view of graduate-level administrative support staff and their roles, couched within the structures of their institutions. In order to examine the unique role doctoral program specialists have in the Big Ten universities, program specialists were interviewed. In 2012-2013, the Big Ten Conference consisted of twelve universities across the United States whose total student body populations, as of the 2013 reporting period, ranged from 17,072 to 63,964. Graduate and professional student populations within the Big Ten institutions had a range of 5,069 students at the University of Nebraska to 16,672 students at the University of Minnesota (University of Minnesota, 2014; University of Nebraska-Lincoln, 2014). At the time of the study, members of the Big Ten Conference were the University of Illinois-Urbana-Champaign, Indiana University (Bloomington), University of Iowa (Iowa City), Michigan State University (East Lansing), University of Michigan (Ann Arbor), University of Minnesota (Twin Cities), Northwestern University (Evanston), The Ohio State University (Columbus), Pennsylvania State University (State College), Purdue University (West Lafayette), University of Wisconsin-Madison. The twelfth institution, University of Nebraska-Lincoln (UNL), was not included in the study. A purposeful sampling method was used to select participants from the 11 institutions.

FINDINGS

Twenty participants were interviewed. Seventeen were female. Five of these females were employed at the department level. Of the three male participants, one worked at the department level. Ages of the participants were not sought. In Table 1 the doctoral program specialists' years of service are noted. Years of experience in the program specialist position were provided by the participants during the interviews. The average years of experience for the

twenty participants were eleven years. All participants were employed in a doctoral program specialist equivalent position at a Big Ten institution.

Table 1
Doctoral Program Specialists' Years of Service

Gender	Number In Study	Shortest Service	Longest Service	Average Years
Female	17	1	28	12
Male	3	2	13	7

Using Weber's (1947) definitions for roles within social and economic structures, semi-structured questions were developed to guide the interview procedure. Weber found there were general rules to govern conduct and create hierarchy within an organization. The rules defined the expected and acceptable behavior for those in the program specialist positions (Biddle, 1986).

As participants described their positions and responsibilities, four themes were identified: change, work interactions, policy and role identification. The themes, work interactions and role identification, were described most frequently by participants and are the subject of the following report. Table 2 includes the two themes and subthemes.

Table 2
Themes

Work Interactions
- Administrative Offices
- Academic Departments
- Students

Role Identifiers
- Problem-solver
- Anonymous
- Middle-person

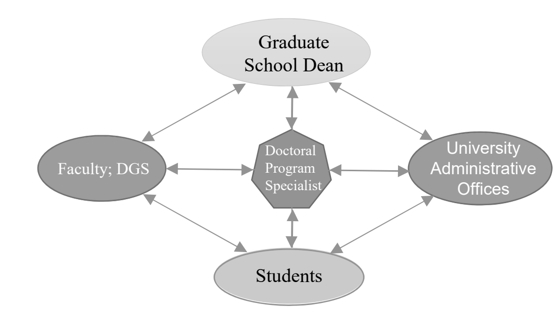
Work Interactions and Role Identification

Participants described their positions as "multi-faceted" and "wearing a lot of hats" as they interacted with academic departments, administrative offices, students and faculty. The general emphasis of their roles, as they related to doctoral graduate students, was to monitor the progress of each student toward graduation.

Participants offered services to doctoral students and to the faculty or departments who worked with the students. One participant summed up the work as, "I guess in a nutshell, I would call us a service center for our students and department as well as our faculty, particularly those faculty who are advisors for doctoral students."

In Figure 1, a visual of the lines of interactions between faculty, students and university administrative offices is presented. University administrative offices included student accounts, financial aid, human resources, university health centers and other support staff whose primary focus was to work with graduate students. Titles for department graduate representatives responsible for monitoring their department's graduate program were varied and included Director of Graduate Studies (DGS) or Graduate Committee Chair. Faculty were identified as being from departments, units or programs.

Figure 1
Work Interactions



As work with other administrative offices was described, the doctoral program specialists noted that establishing good working relationships was critical. One participant stated,

> You grow with the job and people learn to trust you as you grow with it, like any academic office. It takes a lot of people to make things work well. It takes a lot of dedication and willingness to work with outside people, students, faculty, but also within your own little group.

Another individual stated, "I believe that departments view us as just bureaucracy; and, we're just trying to make their life difficult. That isn't the case, obviously, but that's the impression." The program staff and directors of graduate studies were relied on to ensure that students are doing what they were supposed to do so that they could meet deadlines.

Seventeen participants, including the six employed in departments, described their roles as monitoring student progress as well as working with and training faculty, who may be Directors of Graduate Studies, and staff in academic departments. DGS appointments at the institutions represented in this study were usually non-paid, short-term appointments with delegated responsibility for oversight of the individual graduate programs within their departments. One participant reiterated an experience that was described throughout the interviews, "I've trained many different men to whom I report." The doctoral program specialists who worked in departments described their position as "dedicated to graduate administration. We are auditors working with a student's record. We represent the program in tracking the students' progress and telling the graduate school that all the requirements have been met."

One participant stated,

> The best part of this job is that you have the opportunity to come up with new things, implement or try them then maybe we can be more flexible in accommodating students.
>
> Graduate education is so different and structured different because we're not an academic college. We're strictly administrative. How we deal with departments and students, and what we can and can't do is completely different than how the undergraduate college has to deal with things.

Interactions with students were positive. Participants were involved in problem-solving with students, staff, and faculty. Problem solving activities involved interpretation of policies and procedures published by the graduate school or department. Two participants described their work as "we basically take care of our students from their first enrollment until their graduation" and "try to be as consistent and fair in applying policies to enable this process." Another participant noted, "We feel an obligation to find the answer to their problems." The amount of direct contact with students varied for each office because each institution has different requirements and milestones to document student progress.

One participant stated,

> A student once said to me, when I tell the other students I'm going to see you or that I'm going to the graduate school, they know exactly where I'm going or who I'm coming to see. You're that well-known on campus.

Fourteen participants described themselves as "problem-solvers." One even equated the role to "fighting fires." However, they enjoyed the role because it made them feel good when they "helped somebody move forward." One participant stated, "Of course, we have a lot of problems, but that's exciting to me because you have to solve those. You remember one thing – every problem has a solution. Maybe some are bad solutions but they are solutions. No problems are fatal." Another individual said, "We end up with lots of problems, at our level and stuff. We know we can solve them. Unfortunately, sometimes we solve too many because somebody else didn't do what they should have. We're the problem solvers."

Talking about her responsibility to track students' progress, one participant stated, "I'm in charge of making sure they are academically in good standing, and if they're not, I'm the person that they come to chat with about that." One participant stated, "We're here to advocate for them. That's our primary position." Three participants indicated that their mission was "to facilitate between graduate students and faculty to make sure the students were not focused on the nitpicky, administrative side of their degree." The participants described experiences with new students who would come in and say, "I was told by so and so to see you, that you know all the answers." A participant noted,

> I think getting information to the students, if there is a problem, and getting information out to them as quickly as possible and helping them to resolve it or giving them options, being realistic with them, I think is a big thing.

Providing professional development programs for both students and staff were services offered by the doctoral program specialists. These services were designed to better equip departments, who were considered part of the team, to be the "ground support" for students and faculty.

Participants described how they become the "middle-person – a bridge between student, faculty, other administration offices, and the university." Others used similar terms to describe their role as the in-between person, the person to run interference, the facilitator, the bridge-builder, or the catch-all.

Reiterating the understanding that it is all about student success, one participant stated,

> Anytime you have someone who comes in concerned or upset, who feels like they have an enormous problem, if we can make them feel better about the situation or we can help them find a solution, they leave here happy. Then that's a success.

Participants noted their positions connected the student to answers and services. One described it as: "I feel I'm actually a bridge-builder. Actually, I always feel I'm linking everyone including the data analysis person."

Using the analogy of solving a puzzle, they described their work with other administrative offices working to fit their services all together for the benefit of the student. Those interviewed described asking questions to try and figure things out "because what the student asks for may not be what they are after." Two participants described their primary position on behalf of students as an advocate. One individual said, "I counsel them with their problems. You hang your shingle, hand over the Kleenex and do your 'it's going to be alright' speech." Another person stated. "There's times when we do have to bring in the colleges when we're dealing with the programs [faculty, staff]. We're also dealing with our dean's office too. Because sometimes we have issues with our students so we need to work with the dean's office so they can deal with those unique situations."

There were times when the participants felt they were anonymous in their positions. One participant described her work behind the scenes during a project with her boss, the dean. She stated, "The dean was our institutional coordinator and I was his anonymous sidekick." One participant stated, "The departments and students never know the amount of behind the scenes work unless there is a problem." Another participant said, "It just gives you a good feeling that you can actually do something nice for someone. We didn't want fanfare. We didn't need pats on the back. We knew that it had to be done and he got it and that was all we needed to know."

However, one participant did note, "It's the lack of appreciation sometimes by your bosses, at least I experience that. We do what we can to get things done right and well and avoid problems. I think that they don't realize all the things we do behind the scenes to make them look good. That's one of the frustrations that I've had with this [job]."

According to the participants, the negative aspect of their identity being anonymous was when there was a disregard for staff input with decisions that affected their job (Bray, 2010). Even though they interact with many different administrative offices, these relationships were hidden in their job description. One participant compared the staffs' positions to that of an engine room of a ship.

> It's dirty, it's boring, it's greasy and it's gross and nobody wants to go down there. Sometimes the ship's running and people don't have any idea how it's running. They just don't know what's in the engine room. Sometimes we feel like the engine room – that people have no clue what student services does.

This anonymity resulted in decisions, policy changes and procedure adjustments that affected the participants' positions; the doctoral program specialists, according to these participants were not included in any of the change processes.

RECOMMENDATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

As we began this study, it became clear that there was a void in the literature about professionals in higher education. Examining the roles and issues affecting professionals is essential to understanding the complexion of higher education administration.

The implications from the study are important for students, faculty, departments and administrators. For instance, students would benefit from being given a clear view of the role of doctoral program specialists and the array of services provided by these individuals. A detailed description of the position and the services could be made available to doctoral students so that it could be accessed "just in time" as students approach different deadlines in their program toward the doctorate. Faculty members who are involved in doctoral education and advising would benefit from receiving the same road map of available services provided through the efforts of the doctoral program specialist. By having this information, faculty may be able to help eliminate aspects of student anxiety as they progress through their doctoral programs and direct students toward available resources.

By providing this information to students and faculty, the perceived invisibility of the position of doctoral program specialist could be reduced. Additionally, the description of the roles and responsibilities of the doctoral program specialist could be clarified and standardized. This would provide guidance about job expectations for doctoral program specialists and the individuals who are tasked with their evaluation. This would be beneficial to the hiring process for the position as well (Kuo, 2009).

Our findings and recommendations are compatible with the recommendation provided by Bray (2010) and Szekeres (2004). According to Bray (2010), broad discussions about staffing are not possible because norms and perspectives are not universal across higher education, but can vary by institution and across disciplines. He stated that higher education suffers because of the lack of consistency. The participants in this study provided evidence that their roles were unique to their individual settings.

Szekeres (2004) identified support staff as a hidden population; but showed that the position they hold, not only in the life of the student but of the University, is important for its functioning and mission. The findings of our study of doctoral program specialists provide evidence of the invisibility of this group of university employees.

The doctoral program specialists may benefit from opportunities for enriching their work life experiences through networking and training opportunities provided through the Committee on Institutional Cooperation (CIC). Their work may be strengthened through sharing best practices for the completing the work of doctoral program specialists.

Additional studies should examine tenure in the role of the doctoral program specialists. The advantages of long and short tenure in these roles could be revealed through such studies.

REFERENCES

Altbach, P. (2011). Patterns of higher education development. In P. Altbach, P. J. Gumport, & R. O. Berdahl (Eds.). *American higher education in the twenty-first century: Social, political and economic challenges (3rd ed.)*, (pp. 15-36). Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press.

American Council on Education. (2004, May). *Shifting ground: Autonomy, accountability and privatization public education. Higher education change 1994-1999.* Washington, DC: Author.

Bennis, W. & Nanus, B. (2007). *Leaders: Strategies for taking charge, 2nd Ed*. New York: HarperCollins.

Bensimon, E. M. (2007). The underestimated significance of practitioner knowledge in the scholarship on student success. *The Review of Higher Education, 30(4), 441-469.*

Biddle, B. J. (1979). *Role Theory: Expectations, identities, and behaviors.* New York: Academic Press.

Biddle, B. J. (1986). Recent development in role theory. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 12. 67-92.

Bray, N. J. (2010). The deanship and its faculty interpreters: Do Mertonian norms of science translate into norms of administration? *The Journal of Higher Education, 81(3). 284-316.*

Chock, M. (2008). *Managerial professionals in higher education: Change in number, roles, and responsibilities.* Retrieved from University of Hawaii Dissertations, HAWN_AC1.H3_5096_r.pdf.

Council of Graduate Schools. (2008). *Graduate enrollment and degrees: 1998 to 2008*. Nathan Bell, Ed. Washington, DC.

DiPierro, M. (2007). Excellence in doctoral education: Defining best practices. *College Student Journal*, *41*(2), 368-375.

Ehrenberg, R. G., Jakubson, G. H., Groen, J. A., So, E. & Price, J. (2007). Inside the black box of doctoral education: What program characteristics influence doctoral students' attrition and graduation probabilities? *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 29, 134-150.*

Gardner, S. K. (2009). The development of doctoral students: Phases of challenge and support. *ASHE Higher Education Report, 34* (6). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Gardner, S.K. (2010). Contrasting the socialization experiences of doctoral students in high and low completing departments: A qualitative analysis of disciplinary contexts at one institution. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 81(1). 61-81.

Golde, C.M. (2005). The role of the department and discipline in doctoral student attrition: Lessons from four departments. *The Journal of Higher Education, 76*(6), 669-700.

Golde, C.M. & Dore, T. M. (2001). *At cross purposes: What the experiences of doctoral students reveal about doctoral education*. Philadelphia: PA: Pew Charitable Trusts.

Kezar, A. (2012) Bottom-up/top-down leadership: Contradiction or hidden phenomenon. *The Journal of Higher Education, 83(5). 725-760.*

Kuo, H. (2009). Understanding relationships between academic staff and administrators: An organizational culture perspective. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management,* 31(1), 43-54.

Leicht, K. T. & Fennell, M. L. (2008). Who staffs the U.S. leaning tower? Organisational change and diversity. *Equal Opportunities International,* 27 (1) 88-106.

Lovitts, B. E. (2001). *Leaving the ivory tower: The causes and consequences of departure from doctoral study*. Lanham, MD: Rowman and Littlefield.

McAlpine, L. and Norton, J. (2006). Reframing our approach to doctoral programs: an integrative framework for action and research. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 25 (1). 3-17.

Merton, R. K. (1968). *Social theory and social structure.* New York: The Free Press.

Mills, N. (2012, Fall). The corporatization of higher education. *Dissent*. 6-9.

Musselin, C. (2007). The transformation of academic work: Facts and analysis. *Center for Studies in Higher Education Research & Occasional Paper Series: CHSE.4.07.* Retrieved on May 14, 2012 from http://cshe.berkeley.edu/publicatons/publications.php.

Nyquist, J.D. & Woodford, B.J. (2000). The Ph.D.: What concerns do we have? *Report to the Pew Charitable Trusts.*

Paglis, L. L., Green, S. G. & Bauer, T. N. (2006). Does advisor mentoring add value? A longitudinal study of mentoring and doctoral outcomes. *Research in Higher Education, 47(4), 451-476.*

Rhoades, G. (2001). Managing productivity in an academic institution: Rethinking the whom, which, what, and whose of productivity. *Research in Higher Education,* 42(5), 619-632.

Rich, D. (2006). Academic leadership and the restructuring of higher education. *New Directions for Higher Education,* 134, 37-48.

Robbins, S. P. (2013). From the editor – Balancing the personal and professional in an era of transformed faculty roles. *Journal of Social Work Education,* 49, 191-193.

Rose, G. L. (2005). Group differences in graduate students' concepts of the ideal mentor. *Research in Higher Education,* 46 (1), 53-80.

Szekeres, J. (2006). General staff experiences in the corporate university. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management,28*(2), 133-145.

Szekeres, J. (2004). The invisible workers. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management,26(1), 7-22.*

Tinto, V. (1993) *Leaving college: Rethinking the causes and cures of student attrition*, 2nd *Ed*. Chicago, IL: The University of Chicago Press

University of Minnesota. (2014). http://www1.umn.edu/twincities/campus-facts/. Retrieved February 25, 2014.

University of Nebraska-Lincoln (2014) *Factbook*. http://irp.unl.edu/institutional-research/fact-books. Retrieved February 25, 2014.

Weber, M. (1947). *Max Weber: The theory of social and economic organization*. Henderson, A.M. & Parsons, T., translators. New York: Oxford University Press.

West, I., Gokalp, G., Vallejo, E., Fischer, L., & Gupton, J. (2011). Exploring effective support practices for doctoral students' degree completion. *College Student Journal, 45*(2), 310-323

This page intentionally blank

Building Higher Doctoral Programs to Drive Faculty Development: Concepts for Integrating a European Model in the U.S. Higher Education System

Jason G. Caudill, PhD
Associate Professor of Business
School of Business and Economics
King University
Knoxville, TN

ABSTRACT

This paper provides an introductory discussion of the value and theoretical structure of a higher doctorate in American academia. The theory is that such a structure would help to guide academic careers and provide a credentialing system that is absent in most accrediting processes and disappearing with the decline of tenure. The goal is to ignite discussion about how to better support and recognize faculty in a dynamic, complex educational market.

INTRODUCTION

As credentialing and certification become more important in almost every career path in the American workforce there has been increased emphasis on the delivery of, and success rates in, higher education. For many institutions this has proven to be a valuable shift that continues to drive an increasingly diverse student population and motivates high growth in nontraditional student enrollment. Combined with formal education is the increasing emphasis on obtaining professional certifications and pursuing continuing professional development.

Some of this is being seen among the professoriate, particularly in required professional development work and the award of certificates for completed courses of professional development. The issue of actual credentialing beyond the doctorate, however, is one that continues to be absent in American higher education. While there is perhaps an argument that tenure has traditionally served this purpose the decreasing use of the tenure process in the United States leaves a gap that needs to be filled. From 1975 to 2007 the percentage of full time faculty who are not in tenure track positions increased from 18.6 percent to 37.2 percent (Ehrenberg, 2012). The challenge is to design or adopt a process by which faculty members who excel in their work can be recognized and properly rewarded.

INTERNATIONAL BENCHMARKING

In Business there is a common practice called benchmarking. Basically, benchmarking consists of researching a firm's industry, or even related industries, and identifying best practices that can be integrated to improve company performance. In considering how to properly recognize professors who go above and beyond the requirements of their jobs the best first step may be to examine how other educational systems answer the question. While not often considered an international market, higher education is shifting to a global model of "an import-export market in positional goods, characterized by uni-directional student flows and asymmetrical cultural transformations" (Marginson, 2006, p 18). As the market shifts to more international competition international benchmarking should naturally follow.

Perhaps the most formal example is the practice of habilitation. "The habilitation, which is normally a single-authored monograph, is the most important academic qualification in the German system" (Muller-Camen & Salzbgeber, 2005, p 280). In addition to the monograph professors also present a public lecture and discussion as well as compile a documented history of lecturing at a university (PhD and Postdoc). Following the completion of habilitation faculty members not only hold the title and recognition of advanced standing beyond the holder of a doctorate but this is also usually a requirement for serving on dissertation committees. This process closely mirrors the traditional tenure process in American universities, but the declining use of tenure in many institutions leaves a gap in recognition.

The other most frequently seen approach is that of the earned, rather than honorary, higher doctorate. Usually seen in Great Britain and other countries following the British educational model like Australia and New Zealand, although present in other places, this is a similar process to habilitation but without the connection to doctoral teaching qualifications. While specific practices vary among institutions the general approach and qualification process is very similar.

The higher doctorate, which may be awarded in any number of different disciplines, is designed as a mechanism by which accomplished faculty members can be recognized for their success in scholarship. As defined by The Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education (2008):

> Higher doctorates may be awarded in recognition of a substantial body of original research undertaken over the course of many years. Typically a portfolio of published work which has been previously published in a peer-reviewed context is submitted for assessment. Most higher education awarding bodies restrict candidacy to graduates or academic staff of several years' standing (p 23).

Primarily, the higher doctorates are based on contributions to scholarship, most frequently demonstrated by published research. Candidates assemble a portfolio of published work, often but not always with a synthesis piece explaining the path of the candidate's inquiries, and submit the complete collection to a review committee at the university. The committee reviews the work and makes a decision on whether or not the candidate's portfolio justifies the award of the degree. If a portfolio is declined then there are varying policies about when or if a candidate may reapply for recognition.

DOMESTIC BENCHMARKING

While there are excellent models available internationally there are also valuable assessment models in use in the United States, although they are seen in accreditation organizations rather than individual recognition programs. As one example the Accreditation Council for Business Schools and Programs (ACBSP) has a variety of qualification standards for Business faculty as either academically or professionally qualified. These qualifications require certain academic credentials, but beyond that focus on a professor's teaching skills and their contributions to scholarship or professional service as a total package required to certify them as qualified to teach in an ACBSP-accredited Business school. Another business accreditation model, the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) follows a similar model of faculty assessment.

While both of these accrediting models, as well as those used by regional accrediting agencies, review and recognize faculty accomplishments in their fields they lack any sort of lasting certification mechanism. Schools under review for accreditation will receive the results of the faculty assessment but faculty members are not credentialed for any period of time as certified under a particular system nor does approval at one school during one accreditation review necessarily guarantee approval in another review later in their careers. The reform of accreditation standards is far beyond the scope of this discussion, but the lack of a permanent credential does raise the question of how faculty can be better recognized for progress and accomplishment in their career.

A THEORETICAL AMERICAN MODEL

As there is no standard higher doctorate process in place in the United States the professoriate has an opportunity to create one. While excellence in research is certainly a noble goal it seems like too narrow a category by which to measure a professor's career. If, as a profession, the American professoriate values the multiple areas in which a professor contributes to the intellectual life of a university then the qualification process should encompass excellence beyond published work.

The primary challenge in designing such a program may be the definition of what accomplishments should look like. Much of the most important work that professors do is difficult to quantify and, by extension, is difficult to rank across candidates. This is ultimately not different from so much of what is done in academic settings every day. Thus, a qualitative assessment of candidate achievements will be at the core of the higher doctorate process.

Prior to the assessment will be a set of basic qualifying standards for applicants. Reasonably it takes time to build a portfolio of published work and a record of teaching and service. With this time in mind the higher doctorate may be linked to specific points of career advancement, such as promotion to associate professor or the award of tenure. There may also be other qualifying elements such as possession of an earned terminal degree before the award of the higher doctorate. Once such threshold measures are established candidates meeting them can advance to the assessment phase.

The assessment will focus on identifying and reviewing candidate performance across a range of professional responsibilities. These will include research as well as teaching, service to the institution, and service to the profession and/or community. Measures of success in these different aspects of professional activity will differ, but a key to a comprehensive model will be the proper inclusion of all factors in the review.

Scholarly production may be the easiest element to evaluate, although it does have its challenges. Because scholarship's output is a measurable product, specifically publications and presentations, the base measure for successful

scholarship is relatively simple to quantify. Beyond this basic quantitative measure, however, there are many questions about how to gauge a scholar's success. At the most basic level it would probably be acceptable to require all published work submitted for the award of a higher doctorate to be peer-reviewed. Beyond just the peer-review threshold is the question of how the overall value of the work is judged.

If an applicant has a low overall production of scholarly publications but the majority of those publications are in the top journal in their field does that mean more, or as much, as another applicant who has a high volume of peer-reviewed publications in lesser journals or conference proceedings? This highlights the qualitative nature of the review process. There are different measures of scholarly productivity and it would ultimately be up to a university or the review committee to make decisions about how such things would be considered. At some research-focused universities there is an unwritten rule that a publication in a top tier journal is required for tenure, and that could reasonably be carried forward to the higher doctorate review. At other institutions with a greater focus on teaching a different measure of scholarship may be more appropriate. This institutional focus will also inform the emphasis placed on other elements of the assessment process.

Teaching would be another of the three overall measures of candidate performance. More so than research this will be a very difficult area to quantify and will be very much a qualitative review of available evidence. Student evaluations of a faculty member's performance would certainly be one factor, but do not encompass everything about a professor's contribution to the teaching environment of a department. Other elements such as courses developed or redesigned, variety of courses taught, oversight of graduate teaching assistants, mentorship of other faculty, and other contributions to the delivery of material in a department could all be considered in evaluating a professor's teaching ability. Again, different institutions would use and weight different measures in different ways based on their environment, but a wide variety of professional service in the realm of instruction should be considered when looking at a candidate's overall quality.

The third and final broad category concerns professional service. This encompasses both service to the university and also service to the discipline. Various factors to consider may include committee service, serving in leadership roles in professional organizations, consulting, and other work in the field. Specific measures would depend on the common practice of a particular academic discipline as well as what a particular institution requires for faculty service to committees and other activities.

At this point in the discussion the review process is beginning to sound very similar to a tenure review, and that is a fair assessment of the process. What differentiates this from tenure is arguable but the potential place for such a system in the academy today is unfortunately quite clear. Across the United States tenured and tenure-track professorships are a decreasing percentage of the total professoriate. Institutions are moving to have fewer tenure-track positions, are eliminating tenure altogether, or simply did not have tenure and as they grow are choosing not to adopt it.

This fading of tenure in the academic system leaves a void for professional achievement that needs to be filled with a new credentialing process. The higher doctorate, as practiced in many other countries, can provide an answer that gives faculty the opportunity to have their body of work closely reviewed by senior academics and, if warranted, credentials them with a line on the vita and a different set of regalia that sets them apart from younger, less experienced members of the academy.

CONCLUSION

In an academic environment of increasing complexity, dynamic competitive conditions, and more challenging work conditions faculty need an avenue for professional development and recognition. Zusman (2005) says of higher education in our century that. "Changes both within and outside the academy are altering its character – its students, faculty, governance, curriculum, functions, and very place in society" (p 5). Adopting a higher doctorate model would be one way to provide faculty members with a template of professional accomplishment that leads to success. By measuring their efforts against a set review process at their institution they would have the opportunity to more deliberately plan and execute their own growth as scholars. Were these requirements to be public knowledge it would even give faculty the ability to look at other institutions and understand what expectations are, how they might fit, or how they may need to alter their professional pursuits to better match a desired future position.

This proposal is one that raises more questions than it answers. In our current shifting academic marketplace, however, such discussions need to happen. To continue producing and mentoring successful scholars, and by extension to continue educating students and producing quality contributions to scholarship, recognition and reward processes need to catchup with the market.

REFERENCES

Ehrenberg, R. (2012). American higher education in transition. *The Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 26(1), p 193-216.

Marginson, S. (2006). Dynamics of national and global competition in higher education. Higher Education, 52, p 1-39.

Muller-Camen, M. & Salzbgeber, S. (2005). Changes in academic work and chair regime: The case of German business administration academics. Organization Studies, 26(2), p 271-290.

PhD and Postdoc. Freie Universitat Berlin. Retrieved from: http://www.mi.fu-berlin.de/en/stud/prom-habil/index.html.

The Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education. (2008). The framework for higher education qualifications in England, Wales, and Northern Ireland. The Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education.

Zusman, A. (2005). Challenges facing American higher education in the twenty-first century. In P.G. Altbach, R.O. Bendahl, & P.J. Gumport (Eds.), American Higher Education in the Twenty-First Century, 2nd Ed., p 115-160. MD, The Johns Hopkins University Press.

An Emerging Population: Student Veterans in Higher Education in the 21st Century

Mary E. Falkey, Professor
Department of Business Studies
Prince George's Community College
Largo, MD

ABSTRACT

This paper, based on a qualitative study, explores the transition experiences of Post-9/11 Era military veterans from active duty military service to college students for the purpose of adding to the body of knowledge about this student population. The subjects, who voluntarily offered to participate, were 15 community college student/veterans and 10 four-year institution student/veterans. The themes which emerged from analysis of the interview transcripts were financial issues, interpersonal issues, academic issues, community issues, isolation, and inconsistency of information received from academic institutions.

Community college students reported high levels of interaction with faculty and virtually no interaction with other students, including other student/veterans, while the four-year institution students reported low levels of interaction with faculty, high levels of interaction with other student/veterans, and minimal interaction with nonveteran students. The information suggests the need and opportunity for continued in-depth studies of the student/veteran transition experience.

VETERANS AND HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE 21ST CENTURY

Student/veterans represent a different population than previous beneficiaries of military education assistance or previous GI Bill recipients (Morreale, 2011). Today's student/veterans bring many challenges to higher education, such as relocation, academic skills, lack of continuity in education, physical issues, psychological issues, and social isolation (Hopkins, Herrmann, Wilson, Allen, & Malley, 2010). Financial concerns continue to be problematic for student/veterans. The Post-9/11 GI Bill does provide more generous benefits for education than did prior versions of military educational assistance packages. However, it does not eliminate these issues. The cost of supporting a family is still the veteran's responsibility. The resulting need for employment while enrolled in school provides an additional challenge. Although becoming a college student may represent a positive transition, the fact is that the experience can be difficult, if not overwhelming.

Direct input from student/veterans is the source of findings in the recent report on *Service Members in School* (Steele, Salcedo, & Coley, 2010). Their study, which had a sample size of 500, reflects that student/veterans identified multiple challenges when transitioning to the role of college student.

Transition

Transition involves reintegration into the civilian community after active duty service (Quillen-Armstrong, 2007; Stiglitz, 2008, p. 51). The changes from life in the military community to life as a civilian may include relocation, loss of social support systems, reintegration into civilian lifestyle, different or nonexistent health care services, and possibly a new job or career path. While adjusting to the civilian community the student/veteran may also be adjusting to life as a college student.

Although returning veterans may bring maturity and a broader understanding of global issues to the learning experience because of their military service (Byman, 2007), it is important for educators to understand the perceptions of the student/veterans as they transition to college students. Early awareness by the institutions of this population's needs provides opportunities for the college community to develop appropriate techniques to minimize attrition and increase the chances of success. This section of the literature review explores some of the transition experiences of student/veterans.

Studies that address the transition from secondary education to college indicate that the transition into higher education can be especially challenging for the adult learner who enters college after having a break in academic studies (Coreyman, 2001; Diyanni, 1997). This applies to student/veterans who frequently experience a significant break in academic attendance as a result of the requirements of military service, which requires the student to readjust to the college environment and develop or recall appropriate study habits. Additionally, curriculum requirements may have changed during the student/veterans' service, requiring updating some academic skills.

Student/veterans experience a major change when they enter postsecondary education. Campus culture is quite different than military culture, so campus life, often referred to as campus culture, is one of the biggest adjustments for the student/veteran (Rumann, Rivera, & Hernandez, 2010). The college environment is typically designed to encourage creativity and individualism (Rumann et al., 2011); independence and individuality are embraced in academic communities while the military structure requires conformity and adherence to predetermined behavior rules. Transition from a highly structured environment to a less structured environment may be problematic for some student/veterans and institutions need to be prepared to assist student/veterans with this potential difficulty. The relatively unstructured campus atmosphere can be an impediment to student veterans' abilities to work within the system. The military provides a highly structured, regulated, and well-documented environment. There is a schedule for every hour of every day. The steps necessary to accomplish a task or complete an assignment are provided in detail (Rumann & Hamrick, 2010). Although the institution may offer a comprehensive orientation program, timing constraints may prevent the student/veteran from attending the orientation so they may begin college without the benefit of an orientation. If the student/veteran does attend the orientation, the event is not typically devoted to specific issues facing student/veterans. The bureaucracy of academic institutions may be puzzling to those individuals who are unfamiliar with it (Rumann, 2010). The unique campus culture of each institution is also a potential stumbling block for some student/veterans (Zinger & Cohen, 2010). According to the Defense Activity for Non-Traditional Education Support Agency (2004), some institutions have developed military services offices which are separate from the veterans' benefits processing offices. The offices may focus on the transition experience from an academic and social standpoint.

According to Herrmann (2007, 2009) the student/veteran's success relies not only on the individual, but also on the institution. Selection of an institution by the student/veteran is an important choice, but it is not as easy as it may seem. Murphy (2011) explains that what happens in the higher education process may be described as a "black box" (p. 45). Outward appearances of structure and program descriptions may not represent what is happening at the institution. It is difficult to understand the dynamics of a situation strictly from outside observations. An example of how a student/veteran and an institution might be incompatible are things as elusive as not acknowledging the presence of veterans on campus, a faculty member penalizing a student/veteran for missing class because of an appointment with the Veterans Administration, or an institution which does not recognize Veterans Day. Some institutions provide the requisite Veterans Services office and define themselves as military friendly organizations, but there is little to no support behind the self-assigned designation. Although the Veterans Administration (VA) website refers to and lists colleges which proclaim to be veteran friendly, what does the term "veteran-friendly school" mean? According to Harmeyer (2007) this is a general term used to describe those schools which have an awareness and sensitivity to military culture, which immediately establishes a common base of knowledge between the student/veteran and the institution. It is a loosely used term which is self-assigned by the institution. It is not a standardized term and is not monitored by the Veterans' Administration for its quality, nor is it a reflection of uniform institutional policies and practices for student/veterans. The VA website does list schools which have been approved by the VA to certify whether a student is a veteran. This "approval" does not reflect the treatment which veterans may receive at the institution, nor the institution's awareness of student/veteran issues (Herrmann et al., 2009).

Student/veterans must assess institutions for indications of a military-friendly environment. For example, the presence of a Reserve Officer Training Corps, commonly referred to as ROTC, unit on campus or at a minimum the lack of prohibition against ROTC creates a more military-friendly environment (Herrmann et al., 2009, p. 45). The veteran-friendly school is more likely to have administrative and faculty members with prior military service, which means some of the employees of the institution likely have a familiarity with various the challenges of military life. The process of selecting an institution is compounded by the fact that the military person is often faced with the need to select an institution far in advance of the actual date of matriculation. The geographical location of the prospective school may be across the world from the service member's current location. Information about the institution may not be readily available or the service member's ability to access such information may be limited as a result of mission requirements. This means that finding an appropriate school may be a difficult task for the student/veteran.

Student/Veterans as Nontraditional Students

Multiple definitions for what constitutes an adult learner exist. As early as 20 years ago, Cross (1981) described nontraditional students as including those who were employed full-time, had dependents, and were financially independent from their parents. Nontraditional college students have been identified as "adults beginning or continuing their enrollment as college students at a later-than-typical age" according to Ross-Gordon (2011, p. 26). Kenner and Weinerman (2011) define adult learners as "entry-level adult learners who are between the ages of 25 and 50, have a high school diploma or a GED, are financially independent and have one semester or less of college-level coursework" (p. 88). The National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) (Choy, 2002) defines nontraditional students as those students who meet one or more of the following criteria: college entry was delayed after high school by one or more years, single parents, do not have a high school diploma, students attending college part time, or 25 years of age or older. These definitions, depending on which one is used, indicate that nontraditional students range from 38% to 73% of the student population. Using the NCES definition of nontraditional students puts the categorization of nontraditional students at 73% of the student population (Choy, 2001).

Despite the relatively high percentage of nontraditional adult students, the field is open to research for programs that address these emerging populations' needs. Three groups that have been under addressed in the growing body of literature on the needs of adult students have been identified as adults with disabilities (Rocco, 2001), students of color (Ross-Gordon, 2003), veterans (Rumann & Hamrick, 2010). Other research identifies three groups of students who would benefit from supportive attention from faculty and staff: Veterans appear again, identified as veterans returning from Afghanistan and Iraq who delayed their education to serve in the armed forces; unemployed workers; and post-GED students moving into college coursework (Katopes, 2009; Kenner & Weinerman, 2011). In addition to specific support services to address the needs of each of these groups, these students often need developmental education. Student/veterans are generally older than traditional students, they are often transfer students because of prior credits earned, and they are considered nontraditional students (Herrmann et al., 2009; O'Herrin, 2011). Nontraditional students have a high attrition rate according to Kenner and Weinerman (2011). One body of research indicates that a counterpoint to high attrition is successfully integrating the nontraditional students into the college environment (Andres & Carpenter, 1997; Sandler, 1999; Weldman, 1985). An important motivator for adult students according to Clark (1999) is an effective support network.

The Post-9/11 GI Bill brings an increase in older students, an increase in minority students, and students with life experiences which are very different than those of other college students (Lum, 2009). It is interesting to note that Sander minimizes the age difference between student/veterans and traditional students, stating some student/veterans are "only a few years older than the traditional freshmen they sit next to in class" (2012c, p. 2). The difference, according to Sander, is not the age of the students, but rather the maturity level of student/veterans who have had more life experiences than traditional aged students (O'Herrin, 2011).

Student/veterans are adult learners and they are a campus minority (about 3% of a higher education institution's population (Herrmann et al., 2009), although O'Herrin (2011) states that the student/veteran population has increased to about 4% of the postsecondary education population.

Although the student/veteran has participated in numerous training programs in the military, the difference between skills training and academic success is marked by an increased emphasis on cognitive ability in the latter. The skills and competencies through which accomplishment is earned on college campuses may not readily transfer from military life. Lack of preparation or review of study skills for college as well as forced absences as a result of military duty requirements can be additional impediments for student/veteran success. Institutions need to be prepared to assist students in understanding how they can develop and adapt the necessary skills to perform competently in higher education.

PROBLEMS FACED BY TODAY'S STUDENT/VETERANS

Even though the recently passed Post-9/11 GI Bill provides the most generous education benefits for military veterans since the first GI Bill was implemented in 1944 (Mitchell, 2009), benefits alone are not enough to help student veterans succeed in higher education. A question arises: Why does it matter if the student/veterans succeed in higher education? During times of high unemployment, and a less-than-robust economy, education plays a major part in and helping veterans assimilate into society. Is it the role of the Veterans' Administration or the educational institution to help student/veterans transition to the academic environment? Both: The VA is responsible for providing military-related services and benefits, and the institution is responsible for helping the student/veteran acclimate to the academic environment. These groups must work together to maximize benefits to the student/veterans.

Veterans and Developmental Education

Student/veterans may bring a need for remedial education and colleges should be prepared to accommodate this need. A historic basis for a strong relationship between developmental education and veterans was established in the post-World War II era (Bannier, 2006), and "Developmental education must remain prepared to assist these new veterans with the same vigor that our own predecessors used 60 years ago" (p. 41). Today's college students bring challenges with them, whether or not they are transitioning from the military. Many students from various backgrounds have difficulty with basic math and writing skills which puts them at a disadvantage as they begin their college studies. Levine (1997) says today's postsecondary students, "are not as well-prepared to enter college as their predecessors" (p. 9). Levine's comments are echoed by Van Valey (2001), who notes that modern students do not write well.

Another form of student diversity is the lack of strong backgrounds in math and writing skills. This presents special challenges to institutions of higher education. Some institutions are more interested than others in providing such remediation. The Board of Trustees of the State University of New York (SUNY) decided to offer noncredit developmental courses soon after they adopted an open admissions policy (SUNY Office of Finance and Management, 1996). However, a report from the Institute for Philosophy and Public Policy on the decision of Board of Trustees of the City University of New York (1999) voted to eliminate remediation on its campuses and shifted the development work to junior colleges. The Board chair explained that they were not eliminating remediation, but rather shifting it to a different location.

Student/Veterans' Support Groups and Services

Student/veterans will also need on-campus support groups to improve their chances of success in the academic environment. Doc Foglesong, president of Mississippi State and a retired Air Force general, refers to his campus serving as a "halfway house for veterans coming back from the war and getting re-acclimated to civilian and academic life" (as cited in Kingsbury, 2007, p. 71). Mississippi State has about 400 veterans on campus and is one of the country's largest programs providing education benefits to veterans. The returning veterans bring needs not found in the typical student population, including readjustment to civilian life.

Litz (2007), Associate Director of the National Center for Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder, suggests that the veterans returning from the wars in Iraq and Afghanistan are at risk for "life course disturbances" and that these disturbances can continue throughout their lifetimes. This presents an additional challenge to those institutions which want to prepare to assist veterans returning to the academic community.

Student Veterans and Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder

Post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), not to be confused with traumatic brain injury (TBI), is another challenge facing many of the post-9/11 student veterans. This condition is often not readily apparent to those interacting with the student/veteran and yet affects a person's interaction with others and outlook on life as reported in a 2008 monograph entitled *Invisible Wounds of War: Psychological and Cognitive Injuries, Their Consequences, and Services to Assist Recovery* (Tanelian & Jaycox, 2008). Westgard (2009), a nursing instructor at Temple University, cites PTSD as being a challenge to diagnose. Sometimes the symptoms do not immediately appear, but may be delayed by "months or years" (p. 11). This complicates the student/veterans' access to treatment because of the delay between the appearance of symptoms and military service. It can also affect student/veterans' academic performance.

Many student/veterans come back with PTSD (Lafferty et al., 2008) and the institutions to which they return need to be prepared to help them with the reintegration process:

> Since the earliest record of warfare, the returning warrior has struggled to rejoin the society left behind. It has never been an easy transition, but the war on terror brings new and unanticipated complications for the combat veteran. New technology means survival for those who would have died in prior wars, yet that very survival is fraught with challenges we are only now learning to address. (p. 1)

A study of 2,530 soldiers indicates that "more than 40% of soldiers with injuries associated with loss of consciousness met the criteria for PTSD" (Hoge et al., 2004).

Greenwald's (2006) findings report that about 30% of the returning veterans will experience PTSD symptoms or diagnosis, with that percentage rising to 70% for those returning from a second deployment. The Millennium Cohort Study, started in 2000, studied 77,047 military members for concerns related to health surrounding deployments and other service connected experiences. The preliminary results indicate that 40% of the participants who reported combat exposure and were on active duty between 2001 and 2006 had three times the likelihood to experience PTSD symptoms or diagnosis (Smith, 2007).

This information indicates that the Post-9/1l Era veterans who return to campus are likely to need on-campus support beyond that of merely readjusting to the academic world. The implications of PTSD on psychological and sociological adjustments are still not fully understood by mental health experts (Hoge et al., 2004), but are an evolving discipline.

Veterans and Traumatic Brain Injury

Another consideration institutions must address is the way in which student/veterans' injuries will impact their studies. Institutions of higher education must be prepared to identify, recognize, and accommodate the unique needs of injured student/veterans. Traumatic brain injury (TBI) has been identified by the Veterans' Affairs as one of the "signature injuries" of the Iraq and Afghanistan wars (2007). TBI causes problems with thinking, memory, focus, and various other functions. Individuals who experience TBI often suffer with pain and mood disorders. The student/veteran who enters college with the burden of TBI requires special support such as knowledge and training to manage symptoms and to "live, work, learn and socialize" in different conditions (MacDonald-Wilson, McReynolds, & Accordino, 2009, p. 4). Institutions that put support in place make themselves more attractive to the potential student/veteran.

INSTITUTIONAL RESPONSES TO THE POST-9/11 GI BILL

Student/veterans are not a new presence on campus, but this population has the potential to increase as a result of the Post-9/11 GI Bill which will enable more veterans to participate in postsecondary education (O'Herrin, 2011). The anticipated increase in the student/veteran population (O'Herrin, 2011) suggests that postsecondary institutions prepare to serve this group by identifying their needs and characteristics. This section discusses what institutions are doing to prepare for student/veterans.

To help student/veterans sort out the multiple options available to them in higher education, The American Council of Education in conjunction with the Lumina Foundation for Education (2009) created a website called TodaysGIBill.org. This site provides information to help veterans who are interested in pursuing their education by providing details about specific colleges and their programs for student/veterans. One veteran who took advantage the website TodaysGIBill.org applied and was accepted to Dartmouth College in 2007 and relates that he has had a very positive educational experience on campus. Kingsbury (2007) reports that President James Wright of Dartmouth College, who previously served as a Marine, is highly supportive of having veterans on campus: "A student who has a gunshot wound from a battle in Fallujah is going to bring something intangible to any classroom discussion" (p. 71).

Despite the abundance of literature about the transition experiences of the student/veterans covered under the original GI Bill in 1944, relatively little is known about today's student/veteran population. Two seminal studies provide information for institutions about the anticipated student/veteran population and some of the issues the student/veterans face. The studies, *From Soldier to Student: Easing the Transition of Service Members on Campus* (Cook & Kim, 2009) and *Issue Tables: A Profile of Military Service Members and Veterans in Higher Education* (Radford & Wun, 2009) describe a basis of information from which to begin planning programs, practices, and policies to serve today's student/veterans.

From Soldier to Student: Easing the Transition of Service Members on Campus (Cook & Kim, 2009) presents the results of a survey of 723 institutions which asked colleges and universities what they plan to do in preparation for an increased student/veteran population as a result of the new GI Bill. The survey presented the data in three categories of institutions: 2-year public, 4-year public, and 4-year private. The three categories were shown individually and as a total. The results, in decreasing order of popularity were:

- Provide professional development and training for faculty and staff in how to work with veterans.
- Pursue federal and state funding sources and search for grants to assist with the cost of offering programs for veterans.
- Increase the number of programs and train counseling staff to accommodate veterans' health issues including post-traumatic brain injury, were tied for third place.
- Establish a center and increase staff.
- Increase budget. (p. 22)

The surveyed institutions plan to implement their plans within five years from the date the data was collected in 2008.

Another report, by the American Council on Education (2009), surveyed academic institutions, asking them to identify their most urgent student problems; 75% listed financial aid and retention. It is interesting to note that although retention is rated at 75%, less than a quarter of the institutions who serve veterans have a streamlined reenrollment process to help students who are deployed mid-semester and must therefore leave mid-semester. The majority of institutions require the students to reenroll through the traditional avenue when they return from deployment: "Only 22 percent of institutions with program and services for military personnel have developed an expedited re-enrollment process to help them restart their academic efforts" (ACE, 2009, p. 3). Of the 22% of institutions that reported an expedited reenrollment process for veterans, 16% of the institutions actually require students to begin the application process again, with no acknowledgement of their previous enrollment and interrupted status. Sixty-two percent of the institutions allow students returning from deployment to utilize the standard reenrollment process. The message given by the institutions is a confusing one. The majority of institutions identify retention as one of their primary concerns, but the processes to accommodate students who must interrupt their studies due to military service do not facilitate reentry and eventual completion of an academic program.

According to *Issue Tables: A Profile of Military Service Members and Veterans in Higher Education* (Radford & Wun, 2009), student/veterans enrolled in undergraduate education in public, postsecondary institutions in 2007 to 2008 represented 64.7% of the total student body. Of the 64.7% attending public postsecondary institutions, 43.3% chose public, 2-year institutions (ACE, 2009). The American Council on Education report entitled *Military Service Members and Veterans in Higher Education: What the New GI Bill May Mean for Postsecondary Institutions* include the following information. The gender distribution of the student/veteran population is 73.1% male and 26.9% female, which is the opposite of the nonmilitary independent undergraduate population which is 35.2% male and 64.8% female. The ethnicity of the student/veteran undergraduates is 60.1% White, 18.3% Black, 12.8% Hispanic, 3.2% Asian, and 5.7% other. The age ranges of student/veterans are similar to those of the nonmilitary independent undergraduate population, with the largest percentage of student veteran attendees in the 24 to 29 age range, followed by the 30 to 39 age range at 28.2%. The over-40 age group represents 24.9% of the student/veteran population and the students under 23 represent 15.5% of the student/veteran population. Regarding marital status, 35.3% of the student/veteran population is unmarried with no dependents and 32.5% of the independent student/veteran population is married with children. Those married with no dependents and single parents comprise about 29.3% of the independent undergraduate student/veteran population with 14.8% and 14.5% respectively (ACE, 2009).

In 2007 to 2008 (ACE, 2009), military undergraduate students made up 4% of all postsecondary undergraduates. Within this group, 43% chose to attend public, 2-year community colleges. There are two schools of thought about whether this trend will continue. The authors of the American Council on Education report recently hypothesized that because the Post-9/11 GI Bill benefits are more financially generous than previous veterans educational assistance programs, the new student/veteran population may choose 4-year institutions (generally more expensive) because the benefits will make it possible for them to attend (2009). However, statistics indicate that the student/veteran population has historically chosen public, 2-year community colleges (Rumann et al., 2011).

A third study, although smaller in scale than those of Cook and Kim (2009) and Radford (2009), was presented by Adelman, Senior Associate at Institute for Higher Education Policy Veterans Summit, in 2008. "What Do We Know and Not Know about Service Members as College Students?" described a major problem in understanding and obtaining information about the student/veteran population. As recipients of the Veterans Education Project there are two services, The Sailor/Marine American Council on Education Registry Transcripts (SMARTS) and the Army/America Council on Education Registry Transcript Service, which are not integrated with the American Institute for Higher Education. This is in direct contrast to the Community College of the Air Force, which is integrated. The number of students in Veterans Affairs studies is based on students new to postsecondary education, which eliminates those students who entered postsecondary education and left it to join the military and then reentered postsecondary education (Adelman, 2008).

What is apparent is that U.S. colleges and universities have seen an increase in student/veterans' enrollment as a result of the Post-9/11 GI Bill benefits (Adelman, 2008). This is confirmed by O'Herrin (2011) who describes troops increasingly taking advantage of the Post- 9/11 GI Bill as the drawdown of military troops in Iraq and Afghanistan continues. According to Carr (2009), Deputy Undersecretary of Defense for Military Personnel, 97% of service members plan to use the new GI Bill for education benefits based on a survey conducted by the Department of Defense in August 2009.

In terms of the number of students applying for or using the Post-9/11 GI Bill, the numbers range from over half a million applications for certification (p. 1) with more than 300,000 individuals using the benefits (Carter, 2009) increasing the workload of administrators in postsecondary institutions. Reasons for this increased workload include increased enrollment, the need to understand/learn the ramifications of the new legislation and track its effects, and the need to provide student assistance in understanding their new benefits (Steele et al., 2010, p. vii).

O'Herrin expanded on this topic in 2011:

> One of the most important steps that campus leadership can take is to gauge the specific needs of veterans at their institution before devoting resources to new initiatives.... Both student veterans and campus administrators have spoken to the success of efforts that have been created with direct input from the enrolled student veteran population and have emphasized this is the best approach to designing supportive programs. (p. 3)

O'Herrin identifies six practices implemented by institutions attempting to proactively meet the needs of this population: (a) identify specific points of contact on campus for student/veterans; (b) create a multidiscipline campus working group; (c) collaborate with community organizations to provide services; (d) establish a student veterans campus group, educate faculty and staff about student/veteran issues, and establish a space designated for veterans use only; (e) veteran-specific campus learning communities; and (f) streamline veteran and disability services.

The services that colleges and universities are most likely to offer to veterans are financial aid counseling, employment assistance, and academic advising (ACE, 2009), services offered by 57%, 49%, and 48% of the institutions, respectively. Another finding is that schools with a small percentage of student/veterans are less likely to have special programs or offices devoted to assisting this population (Schuster, 2009). However, this is understandable considering institutions' emphasis on cost control and cost benefit relationships.

Services to student/veterans which were offered in fewer than 25% of the institutions included transition assistance to college, a veteran student lounge, and an orientation tailored to veterans (ACE, 2009). However, student/veterans, when asked, have reported the need to connect with other veterans on campus as being very important to them. A veteran student lounge and veteran orientation would be beneficial in providing opportunities for veterans on campus to get acquainted with each and establish some type of informal support system. Clubs or other veteran support organizations exist on only 32% of the campuses. At community colleges, only 7% of the campuses have veterans clubs or organizations (ACE, 2009).

Examples of Institutional Programs

Current literature contains numerous articles about developing issues related to the Post-9/11 GI Bill. On November 9, 2009, the *Staten Island Real-Time News* reported on the efforts being made by the College of Staten Island to welcome and support the recipients of the Post-9/11 GI Bill (Slepian, 2009). The staff and faculty had worked with the already existing on-campus Veterans Centers to facilitate veterans' registration process. The college had tailored an existing general education class to meet the needs of the veteran/students. A student, Adam Gramegna, was quoted as saying, "They really take care of us here" (Slepian, 2009, p. 1). His sentiments are echoed by student/veterans Lee Siegfried and Maria Durham who note that the veteran-specific general education course at College of Staten Island has created a niche in the college in which they feel very comfortable (Slepian, 2009).

Michael Johnson, Director of Military and Veterans Office at George Mason University in Fairfax, VA, was at the helm of a one-stop resource center for veterans, active duty personnel, and dependents (Lum, 2009). He planned to hire a part-time counselor to help with the Veterans' Administration's delay in providing these services (p. 2). This program continued under the direction of Jennifer Conors, Director of Military Services, and the site is now an established college unit. It provides a dedicated lounge area for student/veterans and is outfitted in a manner conducive to studying and well as providing a quiet place for reflection and decompression in a supportive environment.

Montgomery Community College in Rockville, MD, has instituted a program called Combat to College: Facilitating College Success for Combat Veterans (Sander, 2012d). The program, often referred to as C2C which stands for Combat to College, was developed in conjunction with the National Rehabilitation Hospital in Washington, DC, the National Center for Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder in Palo Alto, CA (currently housed at UCLA/National Center for Child Traumatic Stress), the VA Medical center in DC, and the U.S. Navy. The purpose of the program is to help student/veterans find a campus community and use the skills and characteristics developed as a result of military service to create a successful academic experience. Included in this program is recognition that some of the veterans have conditions beyond the "normal" adjustment from military to civilian to college student. Another consideration is that it can be implemented by maximizing existing college programs of student support and with minimal cost to adapting these programs to serve/apply to the student/veteran population.

A partnership between San Diego Community College and Balboa Naval Hospital provides continuity between recovery and life as a student/veteran. Carroll, chancellor of the San Diego Community College District, wrote about the American Council on Education's initiative Severely Injured Military Veterans: Fulfilling Their Dreams project which began in April 2007 and has assisted more than two hundred service members. This initiative, according to Carroll (2008), "aims to help these veterans by ensuring they receive the full support of the higher education community" (p. 17). The assistance program begins as veterans are still recovering in the hospital. They meet with academic advisors who help them identify career and/or academic goals and then determine a path of action to achieve those goals. Carroll (2008) continues to describe how the initiative supports veterans: They receive therapy and curriculum to help them understand the nature of their injury; "They are learning to develop new life skills, memory enhancement techniques, and other strategies" (p. 17) for coping with traumatic brain injury.

The needs of student/veterans on campus go beyond academic challenges. Describing aspects of the adjustment for student/veterans, Schwartz and Kay state "Academic difficulties are often the least of their issues" (2010, p. 2). Campus mental health services need to be proactive in serving student/veterans. Ideally, these programs would be offered cooperatively with the Veterans' Administration (Chang, 2010). Community college counselors confirm that student/veterans seek help for PTSD and other problems and report that they are often overwhelmed with students needing assistance with personal and/or mental health problems (Sewell, 2010, p. 1). Michael Dakduk, the former Deputy Executive Director of Student Veterans of America, stated, "one in five combat veterans reported having a disability, compared with one in 10 nonveterans. Veterans also spend more time working or caring for a family than do traditional college students" (as cited in Johnson, 2010, p. A6). This parallels the four categories of Thomas' (1991) classifications of challenges facing adults in postsecondary education: entry challenges, individual life cycles, societal changes, and the unique circumstances accompanying individuals as they enter the academic community (p. 81). These statements are further reinforced by Tanielian and Jaycox (2008), who report that approximately one-third of the Iraq and Afghanistan veterans have one or more of these after effects of the war.

Querry of Columbus State Community College in Columbus, OH, is the campus' Mental Health Coordinator and he echoes the needs for campus mental health services (2010). He identifies the population as having unique sets of needs as a result of their military experiences. He is also a consultant for U.S. military and works extensively with the veteran/student population both on campus and in his consulting work. Querry (2010) advocates strong faculty involvement in identifying and treating student/veteran issues.

Student/Veterans and Learning

Educators recognize that the student's frame of mind impacts his or her ability to learn (Palethorpe & Wilson, 2011). College performance is affected by physiological, psychological, and social functioning (Schwartz & Kay, 2010). Describing aspects of the adjustment for student/veterans, Schwartz and Kay state "Academic difficulties are often the least of their issues" (2010, p. 2). Campus mental health services need to be proactive in serving student/veterans. Ideally, these programs would be offered cooperatively with the VA (Chang, 2010). Palethorpe and Wilson (2011) discuss the impact of stress on a student's ability to learn, explaining that high levels of stress can hinder the ability to learn, while moderate levels of stress can enhance the ability to learn. Some individuals experience such high levels of stress that they are debilitated and therefore unable to learn, which can lead to high drop-out rates and poor academic performance. For student/veterans the risk of high stress levels is probable, especially for those returning from combat zones. These individuals may need assistance in identifying academic situations that could become stressful before they become problematic. Another study of stress on nontraditional students (Forbus, Newbold, & Mehta, 2011) explored the possible results in terms of lifestyle adjustments. Excessive stress on nontraditional students could result in various stress coping behaviors, negative attitudes about the institution and the college experience, and lower grade point averages.

Faculty members, who are often the first line contact with the student/veterans, need to be aware of the types of problems student/veterans may bring to the campus. The American Council on Education (Cook & Kim, 2009) identified faculty training related to needs of the student/veteran population was the primary activity institutions planned to initiate in response to the new GI Bill. This need is reflected in the works of Herrmann (2007) and Herrmann, Raybeck, and Wilson (2008). Faculty members are often not familiar with the challenges facing the student veteran. Statements made unwittingly by faculty members in the classroom can distress the student/veteran (Persky & Oliver, 2010). Unintentional statements made may cause sensitivity and may be perceived as negative to the student/veteran. This problem may not be limited to faculty. Students may be insensitive in their interactions with student/veterans. Finally, the student/veteran may become impatient with the students who have not had military service, further complicating the transition process (Sander, 2012c).

A large percentage of students, 83%, report that while transitioning to college they were also dealing with "career, family, health, religious, or citizen changes" (Aslanian & Brickell, 1980, p. 65). The career, family, and health categories have a strong probability of being present in the student/veteran population. Many student/veterans are transitioning from fulltime employment in the military to the role of full or part time college student. While making this transition they may also be reuniting with family members after long periods of absence. In some cases they will be adjusting to children born during their time of service while they were deployed. The health issues student/veterans may experience range from severe, in the form or some physical challenges due to loss of limb or other catastrophic injuries they may be in less visible forms such as post traumatic stress syndrome. Regardless of the level of severity and visibility of the impairment, this has relevance for the study of student/veterans because not only are they are transitioning from the military (career) which is a significant lifestyle change, but they also may be adjusting to physical or emotional challenges.

Reuniting veterans with their families post deployment requires careful attention and integration with the other aspects of their lives. An example of this is Lum's (2009) interview with Tess Banjko, a former Marine, who stated that she felt "more scared when she began college in 2004 than in her three years as a Marine" (p. 9). Banjko attributes this fear to the difference between the highly structured military life, to which she quickly became accustomed, and the relatively unstructured aspects of college life. She was also dealing with the loss of a spouse and injuries sustained in the Marine Corps which ended her career.

The Veterans Administration website, as well as sources on military bases, provide information about the transition to civilian life. However, the information offers limited discussion of the details of becoming a college student. This is a role for the academic institution. Many colleges and universities have offices to assist students who receive GI Bill assistance, but the primary activity of these offices is as certifying authorities for veterans' benefits. They also may do some academic advising and may assist veterans in registration for classes. The identification of student/veterans as an under addressed group reinforces the importance of research for this population (Katopes, 2009; Kenner & Weinerman, 2011).

Postsecondary Institutions and the New GI Bill

What do institutions have to do to attract federally funded veterans? One suggestion is to revive the partnership between the military and higher education with the goal of boosting enrollment, which would improve revenue flow for the institutions. Institutions must develop programs designed to attract and support veterans as they pursue their academic training. Jon Henry, Dean of Enrollment Services at University of Maine at Augusta, began gearing up to attract veterans as soon as he became aware of the legislation (Stone, 2008). The institution has a veterans' support team of more than 12 people whose goal is to provide support services to veterans including academic guidance, personal counseling and a student/veteran campus group. Roughly 5% of the University of Maine at Augusta's student population consists of veterans. The college hopes to attract more veterans, and their federally paid tuition, to strengthen their budget position in the coming years.

Research suggests that the student/veteran population pursuing postsecondary education faces unique circumstances (Lum, 2009; Rey, 2009) and reports that student/veterans may face unique problems as they transition from active duty military service to college student. The American Council on Education reports that one of the top two changes all institutions are considering are providing professional development for faculty and staff on dealing with the issues facing many service members and veterans, and exploring state or federal funding sources or private grant proposal to fund campus programs. A third change for many public institutions involves plans to increase the number of veteran services and programs on campus. (as cited in Cook & Kim, 2009, p. 5)

SUMMARY

Because the student/veteran population brings unique experiences to the learning stage it is important to develop programs which accommodate these experiences. Both Merriam and Brockett (1997) and Malley (2010) of the Creative Conflict Engagement Service identify colleges and universities as being in good position to assist student/veterans with their education and their reintegration into civilian society. At the 2009 Conference on Improving College Education for Veterans, Malley (2010) stated, "Effective re-integration into civilian society requires flexibility and adaptation, not only from the service member, but from those in the community" (p. 239). At the same conference Gomez (2010), Strategic Alliances Executive at Educational Testing Service, emphasized the need for institutions of higher education to recognize and utilize the human resources student/veterans bring. Gomez contended that emphasis is placed on K-12 education and that adult learning is often overlooked not only for veterans, but also other populations. He noted that veterans can be instrumental in improving our global competitiveness and productivity by improving educational attainment (pp. 94-96). This was also mentioned by Merriam (1993), who describes the learning process as being capable of being viewed from the perspective of "learner, process or context: considered together, we have a broadened understanding of the complex nature of learning in adulthood" (p. 105). Merriam and Caffarella (1991) first introduced this model of adult learning.

Student/veterans' success relies not only on the individual student, but also on the institution (Herrmann, 2007, 2008). The unique campus culture of each institution is a potential stumbling block for some student/veterans (Zinger & Cohen, 2010). A holistic approach by the institution is needed to address the needs of the student/veterans. Meeting these needs is not limited to one department but is a college-wide challenge and requires the coordinated efforts of all campus departments to support and serve this population. The need to develop interdepartmental programs requires coordinated effort, knowledge, and ability to support and serve this population.

Institutions of higher education have the potential to increase enrollment by attracting eligible veterans who will receive generous educational benefits under the new G I Bill. However, in return for the possibility of increased tuition dollars, the institutions must be prepared to create a campus environment which will enhance the chances of the veterans' academic and social success. Institutions will be well served by developing a campus environment that supports veterans. This study, therefore, provides information about today's student/veteran population and their perceptions of their experiences as they transition from active duty military personnel to college students from a transformative learning perspective.

REFERENCES

Adelman, C. (2008, June 6). *What do we know—and not know—about service members as college students?* Institute for Higher Education Policy. Retrieved June 4, 2010, from http://www.acenet.edu/Centent?Navigation Menu/Programs Services/Military Programs/Vet_Summit_June_08.htm

American Council on Education. (2009). *Military service members and veterans in higher education: What the new GI Bill may mean for postsecondary institutions*. Retrieved March 17, 2009, from http://www.acenet.edu/Content/ NavigationMenu/About/WhoWeAre/who_we_are.htm

American Council on Education. (2010, April 18). *From soldier to student: Easing the transition of service members on campus*. Washington, DC: Author.

American Council on Education, & Lumina Foundation. (2009, November 9). *Creation of website: www.TodaysGIBill.org*. Retrieved on November 12, 2009 from http://www.luminafoundation.org/reports/

Andres, L., & Carpenter, S. (1997). *Today's higher education students: Issues of admission, retention, transfer, and attrition in relation to changing student demographics*. Vancouver: University of British Columbia Centre for Policy Studies in Education.

Aslanian, C. B., & Brickell, H. M. (1980). *Americans in transition: Life changes as reasons for adult learning*. New York, NY: College Entrance Examination Board.

Bannier, B. (2006). Join the conversation: The impact of the GI Bill on developmental education. *The Learning Assistance Review, 11*(1), 35-44.

Board of Trustees of the City University of New York. (1999, January 25). *Text of Resolution 9*. Minutes of the board meeting held on May 26, 1998.

Byman, D., (2007). *The five front war: The better way to fight global jihad*. Hoboken, NJ Wiley.

Carr, C. (2009). Managing the enrollment boom. *The Community College Journal, 80*(1), 22-25.

Carroll, C. (2008). Educating severely injured veterans. *The Presidency, 11*(2), 17.

Carter, C. (2009, July). *Sending your children to college on the Post-9/11 GI Bill*. Retrieved September 5, 2010, from http://www.demilitaryed.com/ cms/story.pfp?ciunty=DCMilitaryEd&id=925

Chang, H. J. (2010, August 4). Prevalence of mental health problems and functional impairment among active component and National Guard soldiers 3 and 12 months following combat in Iraq. *Journal of the American Medical Association, 304*(5), 506.

Choy, S. (2001). *Students whose parents did not go to college: Postsecondary access, persistence, and attainment. Findings from the condition of education, 2000*. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics.

Choy, S. (2002). *Findings from the condition of education: Nontraditional undergraduates*. National Center for Education Statistics. Retrieved from http://nces.ed.go/programs/coe/2002/analyses/nontraditioal/index.asp

Clark, L. (1999). *In their own words: A content analysis of barriers and motivations to participation by adults at an urban four-year institution* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Memphis, TN.

Cook, B., &. Kim, Y. (2009). *From soldier to student: Easing the transition of service members on campus*. Washington, DC: The Lumina Foundation for Education.

Coreyman, M. (2001). Basic back to school training. *Christian Science Monitor, 93*(18).

Cross, K. (1981). *Adults as learners*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Defense Activity for Non-Traditional Education Support Agency. (2004). *Voluntary education fact sheet fy03*. Retrieved September 5, 2009, from http://www.dantes.doded.mil/dantes_wdeb/library/docs/voledfacts/FY03.pdf

Diyanni, R. (1997). *How to succeed in college*. Boston, MA: Pearson, Allyn, and Bacon.

Forbus, P., Newbold, J., & Mehta, S. (2011). A study of non-traditional and traditional students in term of their time management behaviors, stress factors, and coping strategies [2011 Supplement, Special Issue]. *Academy of Educational Leadership Journal, 15*, 109-125.

.Gomez, F. (2010). Improving college education of veterans: A valuable resource in a world of challenges. In C. Hopkins, D. Herrmann, R. Wilson, B. Allen, & L. Malley, *Improving college education of veterans* (pp. 91-96). Washington, DC: CreateSpace Independent Publishing Platform.

Greenwald, M. (2006, Spring). Teaching research methods in communication disorder: "A problem-based learning approach." *Communication Disorder Quarterly, 27*(3), 173-179. doi:10.1177/15257401060270030501

Harmeyer, E. (2007). *Dartmouth president founds college service for wounded veterans*. Retrieved May 13, 2008 from *VFW Magazine*, http:www.vfw.org

Herrmann, D. (2007, May). *What it is like to be a veteran in college today*. Presentation at the Veteran's Advisory Committee on Education, Washington, DC.

Herrmann, D., Raybeck, D., & Wilson, R. (2008). College is for veterans too. *NASPA Journal, 45*(1), 73-94.

Hoge, C. W., Castro, C. A., Messer, S. C., McGurk, D., Cotting, D. I., & Koffman, R. L. (2004). Combat duty in Iraq and Afghanistan, mental health problems, and barriers to care. *New England Journal of Medicine, 351*, 13-22. doi:10.1056/NEJMoa040603

Hopkins, C., Herrmann, D., Wilson, R., Allen, B. & Malley, L. (Eds.) (2010). *Improving college education of veterans*. Washington, DC: CreateSpace Independent Publishing Platform.

Johnson, J. (2010, November 8). Veterans who go back to school want more support. *Washington Post*, p. A5.

Katopes, P. (2009). Veterans returning to college aren't victims, they're assets. *Community College Week, 21*(15), 4-5.

Kenner, C., & Weinerman, J. (2011, Spring). Adult learning theory: Applications to non-traditional college students. *Journal of College Reading and Learning, 41*(2), 87-96.

Kingsbury, A. (2007, September 24). The ex-con next door. *U.S. News and World Report, 143*(10), 71.

Lafferty, C., Alford, K., Davis, M., & O'Connor, R. (2008, Autumn). S.A.M. *Advanced Management Journal, 73*(4), 4-13.

Levine, A. (1997). How the academic profession is changing. *Daedalus, 126*, 1-20.

Lum, L. (2009). New GI Bill brings new challenges. *Diverse: Issues in Higher Education, 26*(12), 9-10.

MacDonald-Wilson, K., McReynolds, C., & Accordino, M. (2009, July-September). Introduction to the special issue emerging issues in psychiatric rehabilitation. *Journal of Rehabilitation, 75*(3), 3-5..

Malley, L. (2010). How can institutions of higher education support citizen service members, veterans, and their families? In C. Hopkins, D. Herrmann, R. Wilson, B. Allen, & L. Malley, *Improving college education of veterans* (pp. 229-246). Washington, DC: CreateSpace Independent Publishing Platform.

Merriam, S. (1993). *An update on adult learning theory, No. 47*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Merriam, S. B., & Brockett, R. G. (1997). *The profession and practice of adult education: An introduction*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Merriam, S. B., & Caffarella, R. S. (1991). *Learning in adulthood: A comprehensive guide*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Mitchell, H. (2009, April 30). *Processing of applications for Webb–Mitchell GI Bill benefits to begin May 1*. Retrieved May 31, 2010, from http://www.2010military.com/military-news=story.cfm?textnewsid=2945

Morreale, C. (2011, May 12). *Academic motivation and academic self-concept*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). State University of New York, Buffalo, NY.

Murphy, M. P. (2011). *Military veterans and college success: A qualitative examination of veteran needs in higher education* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of North Carolina, Greensboro, NC.

O'Herrin, E. (2011). *Enhancing veteran success in higher education*. Washington, DC: American Association of Colleges and Universities.

Palethorpe, R., & Wilson, J. (2011). Don't panic! Coping with stressed-out learners: Wide variety of strategies to deal with anxiety, development and earning in organizations. *Development and Learning in Organizations, 26*(1), 26-28.

Persky, K. & Oliver, D, (2010). *Veterans coming home to the community college: Linking research to practice*. Seattle, WA: Council for the Study of Community Colleges.

Querry, M. (2010, April 18). *Dealing with difficult students and addressing disruptive behavior: Surviving the moment*. Columbus State Community College. Retrieved June 9, 2010 from http://www.cscc.edu/services/counseling/staff.shtml

Quillen-Armstrong, S. (2007, July 5). No soldier left behind: Veterans seek college education. *Community College Times*. Retrieved August 18, 2010, from http://www.communitycollegetimes.com/article.cfm?ERIXLWis=417

Radford, A. (2009). *Military service members and veterans in higher education: What the new GI bill may mean for postsecondary institutions*. Washington, DC: American Council on Education.

Radford, A. & Wun, J. (2009). *Issue tables: A profile of military service members and veterans in higher education*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics.

Rey, J. (2009, May 2). War veterans face unique adjustments to college life. *McClatchy-Tribune News*.

Rocco, T. (2001). Helping adult educators understand disability disclosure. *Adult learning, 12*(2), 10-12.

Ross-Gordon, J. (2003). Meeting the special needs of adult students. *New Directions for Adult and Continuing education, 102*, 43-52.

Ross-Gordon, J. (2011). *New directions for adult and continuing education*. Washington, DC: American Association of Colleges and Universities.

Rumann, C. (2010). *Student veterans returning to a community college: Understanding their transitions* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Iowa State University, Ames, IA.

Rumann, C., & Hamrick, F. (2010). Student veterans in transition: Re-enrolling after war zone deployments. *Journal of Higher Education, 81*(4), 431-458. doi:10.1353/jhe.0.0103

Rumann, C., Rivera, M., & Hernandez, I. (2011, Autumn/Fall). Student veterans and community colleges. *New Directions for Community Colleges, 155*, 51-58. doi:10.1002/cc.457

Sander, L. (2012c, May 4). With GI Bill's billions at stake, colleges compete to lure veterans. *The Chronicle of Higher Education, 58*(35), pp. A1-A8.

Sander, L. (2012d, April 1). Veterans journey from 'combat to college' on a Maryland campus. Retrieved on December 14, 2013 from *The Chronicle of Higher Education at* https://chronicle.com/article/On-a_Maryland_Campus_Veters?131399.

Sandler, M. (1999, November). *A structural model of student integration, finances, behavior, and career development. An elaborated framework of attitudes and persistence*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Association for the Study of Higher Education, San Antonio, TX.

Schuster, K. (2009, September 16). Hundreds of veterans enroll in Long Island colleges. *McClatchy-Tribune Business News*.

Schwartz, V. & Kay, J. (2010). *Mental health care in college: Caring for vets in college*. Chichester, West Sussex, U.K.: Wiley.

Sewell, M. (2010, June 13). Veterans use GI Bill largely at for-profit and 2-year colleges. *Chronicle of Higher Education*. Retrieved June 16, 2010, from http://chronicle.com/article/veterans-use-benefits of new/65914?sid-cc&otm

Slepian, S. (2009). Our heroic veterans tell their story. *Staten Island Real-Time News*. Retrieved November 12, 2009, from http:www.silive.com/news/index.ssf/2009/11smoothing_the road_from soldie.html

Smith, T. (2007). *PTSD: Prevalence, new onset, persistence and resiliency in a large population-based military cohort* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of California, San Diego, CA.

State University of New York. (1996, October). *Facts and figures*. Retrieved on September 10, 2011 from http://www.albany.edu/about_the_university/ research_at_ualbany/facts_and_figures/facts_and_figures_text.html

Steele, J., Salcedo, N., & Coley, J. (2010). *Military veterans' experiences using the*

Post-9/11 GI Bill and pursuing postsecondary education. Retrieved fromhttp://www.rand.org/content/dam/rand/pubs/monographs/2011/RAND_MG1083.pdf

Stone, M. (2008, November 13). We're calling out to veterans. *Kennebec Journal, Augusta, ME*.

Tanelian, T., & Jaycox, L. (2008). *Invisible wounds of war: Psychological and cognitive injuries, their consequences, and services to assist recovery*. Arlington, VA: The RAND Corporation. Retrieved May 28, 2009, from http://www.rand.org/pubs/monographs/MG720.1/index.html

Thomas, A. (1991). *Beyond education*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Van Valey, T. (2001, January). Recent changes in higher education and their ethical implications. *Teaching Sociology, 29*(1), 1-8. doi:10.2307/1318778

Weldman, J. (1985, April). *Retention of nontraditional students in postsecondary education*. Paper presented the Annual Meeting of the American Education Research Association, Chicago, IL.

Westgard, E. (2009, May). Coming home with post-traumatic stress disorder. *American Journal of Nursing, 109*(5),11.doi:10.1097/01.NAJ.0000351482.30993.48

Zinger, L. &. Cohen, A. (2010). Veterans returning from war into the classroom: How can colleges be better prepared to meet their needs. *Contemporary Issues in Education Research, 3*(1), 39-51.

This page intentionally blank.

Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis Support and Encouragement Study

Jenny Lee
Graduate Fellow
Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis Department
East Tennessee State University
Johnson City, TN

Megan Owens
Graduate Fellow
Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis Department
East Tennessee State University
Johnson City, TN

James Lampley
Associate Professor
Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis Department
East Tennessee State University
Johnson City, TN

ABSTRACT

Among doctoral programs, attrition rates and student feelings of isolation are high. In an attempt to determine the current levels and sources of support and encouragement from students enrolled in a Doctor of Education program, a survey was sent to students. There were 94 respondents to the online survey. Fifty-two (65%) of the respondents were female, and 28 (35%) were male. Fourteen respondents did not self-identify. Using an independent samples t-test, it was determined that female and male doctoral students report very similar experiences in support and encouragement. The majority of doctoral students reported the highest level of support (Total Support) for almost all of the areas of survey.

When asked to rank a list of sources of support and encouragement, over 71% ranked Spouse, Partner, or Significant Other as being most important. Other sources that were ranked as important were Immediate Supervisor, Children, and Workplace Peers. Most financial support for doctoral students came from a combination of Self (72%), Employer (66%), and Financial Aid/Scholarships (59%).

INTRODUCTION

The well-being of graduate students has become a common concern for higher education institutions (Mistler, Reetz, Krylowicz, & Barr, 2012). Many students are moving to new places, balancing a job along with schoolwork, while simultaneously fulfilling roles as a spouse, parent, or caregiver. The overwhelming process that is graduate school, particularly doctoral programs, can often prove to be too much, leading to struggles with anxiety and depression and a high rate of attrition (Ali & Kohun, 2006). The estimated attrition rate of 40% to 70% (Ali & Kohun, Gardner, 2008b, Gardner, 2009) for doctoral students appears to be a clear symptom of these struggles. Gardner (2008b) reported that doctoral students frustrations resulting from lack of support and direction, coupled with too much isolation with their independent work as the leading cause of attrition. Students in Gardner's study repeatedly commented on support from an adviser as the most crucial factor in their success (Gardner, 2008b, p.340).

Isolation was a frequently cited reason for anxiety, depression, and attrition (Ali & Kohun, 2006, Grady, LaTouche, Oslawski-Lopez, Powers, & Simacek, 2013). Ali and Kohun (2006) found the most common reasons for attrition to be related to financial troubles, overwhelming family obligations, emotional upset, feeling isolated, and confusion regarding requirements and expectations of the program (p.24). Positive experiences with faculty and advisers greatly decreased the stress experienced by one group of doctoral students in a study on role strain and the effects that strain has on mental health (Grady et al., 2013). Once again, doctoral students' isolation and lack of support led to a great deal of stress and feelings of not being understood by those closest to them at home and in their program of study.

The importance of providing support to doctoral students as they navigate their new world as students and independent researchers is even more difficult in the age of online learning, a format which can be isolating. Findings from an annual survey through the College Board reported that in the fall of 2010, 6.1 million students were enrolled in at least one online course (Allen & Seaman, 2011). In addition, a recent report from the National Center for Educational Statistics declared that women are completing higher education degrees at a higher rate than men, a dramatic shift over the past 20 years (*The Condition of Education*, 2013, p.1). Zembylas (2008) found that women experience higher rates of anxiety in the online environment due to a lack of connectedness and support in the online environment (p.77). These overwhelming emotions, paired with the added pressure of studying at home while not being relieved of mothering or household responsibilities, emphasizes the need for supportive environments for students to be healthy and successful (Zembylas, 2008, p.83).

With an increased demand for fully online programs, and a change of demographics in degree seekers and degree recipients, understanding the factors that lead to persistence and continued well-being is imperative. The support and encouragement felt by doctoral students can be a key factor in their persistence through the program and ability to cope with the variety of stressors they will undoubtedly endure (Ali & Kohun, 2006, Gardner, 2008b, Grady et al., 2013). The purpose of this study was to determine the perceived levels of support and encouragement doctoral students enrolled in a totally online Ed.D program experienced from various stakeholders in regard to completing their degree. Pauley (1999) determined that support from partners, children, parents, and other family, peer support, and departmental support to be the most critical factors in successfully completing their degree. These dimensions of support were substantiated by many other researchers (Gardner, 2007, Ali & Kohun, 2006, Grady et al., 2013), and led to those dimensions being the focus of this study. A 15 question survey regarding perceived levels of support was distributed to online cohorts of Ed.D. students. We collected 94 responses. This research takes special interest in any differences in the levels of support doctoral students may perceive according to gender. The following is a review of the current literature.

LITERATURE REVIEW

High rates of student attrition is a concern for administrators of on-ground and online doctoral programs. It is necessary to examine support structures that facilitate degree completion. At some level, attrition is to be expected and can be the result of an appropriately rigorous degree program (Most, 2008, p.172). Nonetheless, attrition comes at great cost to all stakeholders. Universities invest a great deal of resources in doctoral students; this investment comes both in the form of dollars spent, and also the time of faculty and staff members (Pauley et al., 1999, p. 226). The University of Notre Dame determined that approximately $1 million dollars each year could be saved if the attrition of doctoral students diminished by 10% (as reported in Gardner, 2008a, p. 126). Concern for the student should also compel administrators to limit forces that constrain degree completion.

It is generally understood that doctoral education is a difficult and lengthy process. Additionally, it is frequently understood to be done largely on one's own (Cockrell & Shelley, 2011, p. 470). Throughout the process, student support may look different and will make different claims on the time and energy of stakeholders (Cockrell & Shelley, p. 472). The various challenges of doctoral students include gender differences, family and workplace commitments, navigating relationships within the academic department and processes, and financial struggles.

Gender Differences

The current body of research indicates that women in doctoral studies face constraints that men do not. These frequently included struggles around relationships with other academicians, opportunities for research and publication, and getting connected to opportunities within the department (Mansfield et al., 2010, p. 728). Until very recently, men continued to women in their degree completion, and completion in a timely manner (Most, 2008, p. 180). Mansfield, Welton, Lee, and Young's (2010) research indicated five primary arenas of struggle for women: "constraints within the organizational culture, personal and familial sacrifice, struggles with identity, questioning self, and experiences with mentoring" (p. 731). Most (2008) suggested that given the longitudinal evidence for gender differences in the success and failure of doctoral students, policy makers ought to take notice (p. 186).

Support from Family

Many students find family to be a significant source of both stress and support during their time as doctoral students. Pauley, Cunningham, and Toth (1999) found that marital status was not significantly related to the completion of the degree (p. 228). However, familial support was a significant determinant in receiving the doctoral degree (p. 230). More specifically, Pauley et al. (1999) determined that those who did not complete their degrees were less likely than those who did to report that they received a great deal of support from their families (p. 230). Maher, Ford, and Thompson (2004) reported that doctoral students of either gender who experienced family struggles throughout the course of their studies had a particularly difficult time (p. 388). They also determined that women who finished their degree early were more likely than women who finished later to have reported having experienced support from their families (74% of early-finishers versus 53% of late-finishers) (Maher et al., p. 399).

Students who do not receive support and encouragement from their family members are likely to feel isolated. Moore, Lampley, and Moore (2010) explained that a perceived lack of support may be the result of a family member not understanding the nature of the graduate student life (p. 85).

Support in the Workplace

Many doctoral students anticipate finding a job upon the completion of their degree program. Moore et al. (2010) explained that a key part of graduate education is connecting with "academic professionalism" as students earn degrees to develop their careers (p. 86). However, as online doctoral programs proliferate, students who are already ensconced in a job and career have the opportunity to continue their education. Offerman (2011) pointed to previous research that suggested nontraditional students are now already employed full-time, are frequently in management positions within their current careers, and are fitting their studies into their already busy lives (p. 24, 27). As such, support from within the existing workplace is crucial.

Support in the Academic Environment

Support within the academic setting is crucial to the success of students, and students seek this support from their peers, department faculty and staff, advisers, and dissertation chairpersons. Sutton (2014) reported that students in the online setting have the opportunity to interact with others while developing a community that is encouraging (p. 6). Furthermore, online interaction with faculty developed appropriate boundaries, expectations, and idea sharing in an academic setting (Sutton, p. 6).

Support and Encouragement from Program Peers

Research has determined that students benefit socially and emotionally from moving through a doctoral program in a cohort (Cockrell & Shelley, 2011, p. 480). Pauley et al. (1999) determined that support from student peers was positively associated with, and an important factor determining whether or not a student completed the doctoral program (p. 231-2). Moore et al. (2010) found that support from friends may be the most important and least received type of support for female doctoral students (p. 98). Finding support and connection among fellow students may be particularly important for nontraditional students. Gardner (2008a) noted that the culture of many doctoral programs continues to be structured primarily for white males; as such, those who do not match that profile are more likely to feel isolated (p.128, 135). Learning to participate appropriately within the social norms of an academic field is an important part of the degree program. Determining these frequently hidden rules of conduct is a result of positive interaction with peers and faculty.

Support and Encouragement from Faculty

Advisers and faculty support are undeniably important for the success of a doctoral student. Barnes (2010) reported that advisers assist in providing students with valuable experience and relationships, planning for the future, structuring academic life, connecting with research and publication opportunities, and create confidence and support (p. 324). Additionally, the adviser helped to teach doctoral students the social norms of the field (Barnes, 2010, p. 324). Maher, Ford, and Thompson (2004) reported that many students enter doctoral programs with little experience conducting research; as such, many students have to learn about research prior to partnering with faculty and finding employment (p. 387-8). Research projects are important opportunities for interacting with faculty, and lead to greater productivity throughout the degree program; students who conducted research are more likely to complete the degree (Maher et al., 2004, p. 388).

Pauley et al. (1999) determined that students (regardless of gender) who reported a high level of support from faculty members were more likely to complete the degree (p. 231). Similarly, Mansfield et al. (2010) reported that women who finished their doctoral degrees earlier had experienced good mentoring and research opportunities with capable faculty members (p. 729). Female students who had relationships with female faculty were more likely to complete their programs (Mansfield et al., 2010, p. 729). Maher et al. (2004) determined that early-finishing women in doctoral programs were more likely to have received good advising and good relationships with faculty members (p. 394, 397). Alternately, women who took longer to complete their degree reported having experienced poor advising (47%) and obstruction from faculty members (36%) (Maher et al., 2004, p. 397).

In researching the common expectations exceptionally successful advisers had for their doctoral students, Barnes (2010) determined that these advisers expected "1) Advisees will be committed to the doctoral degree process; 2) Advisees will have integrity; 3) Advisees will work hard; 4) Advisees will make progress; and 5) Advisees will be good departmental/disciplinary citizens" (p. 331). Previous studies indicated that students expected their advisers to serve as role models, motivators, guides, professional development experts, and sources of information (Barnes, 2010, p. 325-6).

Developing collegial and meaningful relationships between faculty and students is key for providing students with needed support. Golde recommended fostering relationships through departmental traditions and events (as cited in Cockrell & Shelley, 2011, p. 480). Pauley et al. (1999) found that students believed more non-classroom interaction with faculty would be beneficial (p. 233). Mansfield et al. (2010) recommended utilizing resources from external sources to ensure that female students are fully supported and encouraged throughout their programs of study (p. 735).

Support and Encouragement from Dissertation Chair

In addition to the support required from faculty members and academic advisers, support from the dissertation chair is key. Pauley et al. (1999) found that students who reported receiving support from their dissertation chairperson were more likely to finish their degree program (p. 232). Furthermore, Barnes (2010) reported on a study that determined 44% of students who completed coursework but not their dissertations attributed their failure to negative relationships with their dissertation chairperson (as cited in Barnes, p. 324).

Financial Concerns for Doctoral Students

As in all iterations of higher education, funding a doctoral program is a concern for many students. Pauley et al. (1999) determined that the amount of funding available was positively connected with degree completion (p. 229). Furthermore, a lack of funding can be connected to a longer time spent completing the program (Maher et al., 2004, p. 387). Maher also reported that "women were more likely than men to be dependent on personal resources (40.5% versus 25.7%)" (p. 387). As many students accrue student loan debt throughout their undergraduate and graduate school educations, it becomes difficult to continue borrowing to pay for education.

METHODS

The purpose of this quantitative study was to determine the ways in which men and women experienced support and encouragement during their Doctor of Education program. Using the following research questions, we determined that a survey would be the best method for seeking the answers to our questions.

Research Question 1

Is there a significant difference on the mean scores of the Family dimension of the Support and Encouragement survey between female and male doctoral students?

Research Question 2

Is there a significant difference on the mean scores of the Place of Employment dimension of the Support and Encouragement survey between female and male doctoral students?

Research Question 3

Is there a significant difference on the mean scores of the Program Peers/Faculty dimension of the Support and Encouragement survey between female and male doctoral students?

Research Question 4

Is there a significant difference on the mean scores of the Dissertation Chair dimension of the Support and Encouragement survey between female and male doctoral students?

After securing approval from the Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis Department and the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at the participating university, the survey was distributed by email to all doctor of education students. The survey questionnaire included 10 Likert-Scale questions regarding perceived levels of support and encouragement, one question regarding financial support, two ranking questions, and one demographic question regarding gender. The research questions and subsequent survey questions were grouped into dimensions (Family, Place of Employment, Program Peers/Faculty, Dissertation Chair) that were commonly reported dimensions discovered through a review of the literature as important sources for support and encouragement.

RESULTS

Data were collected over a three-week span from the initial distribution. There were 94 respondents to the online survey. Fifty-two (65%) of the respondents were female, and 28 (35%) were male. Fourteen respondents did not self-identify. Using an independent samples t-test, it was determined that female and male doctoral students report very similar experiences in support and encouragement among all dimensions. The majority of doctoral students reported the highest level of support (Total Support) for almost all of the areas of survey. Spouse, Partner, or Significant other was the highest rated level of support, 67%. Other high level rankings were for family members (52%), employment peers (54%), immediate supervisor (59%), student peers (52%), and program adviser (48%).

For Research Question 1 an independent-samples t test was conducted to evaluate whether the mean scores on the Family dimension (spouse, children, and other family members) of the Support and Encouragement survey were significantly different between male and female doctoral students. The perceived level of support and encouragement received from family was the test variable and the grouping variable was gender. The test was not significant, $t(92) = -.37$, $p = .713$. The h^2 index was .001, which indicated a small effect size. Male doctoral students' ($M = 12.83$, $SD = 1.77$) perceived level of support and encouragement from their family members was about the same as female doctoral students' perceived level ($M = 12.97$, $SD = 1.70$). The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means was -.90 to .62. The distributions of scores for the two groups are displayed in Figure 1.

For Research Question 2 an independent-samples t test was conducted to evaluate whether the mean scores on the Place of Employment dimension (peers, immediate supervisor, and top supervisor) of the survey were significantly different between males and females. The perceived level of support and encouragement received at their place of employment was the test variable and the grouping variable was gender. The test was not significant, $t(92) = 1.06$, $p = .347$. The h2 index was .012, which indicated a small effect size. Male doctoral students' ($M = 13.17$, $SD = 1.86$) perceived level of support and encouragement from their place of employment was about the same as female doctoral students' perceived level ($M = 12.67$, $SD = 2.20$). The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means was -.43 to -1.42. The distributions of scores for the two groups are displayed in Figure 2.

For Research Question 3 an independent-samples t test was conducted to evaluate whether the mean scores on the Program Peers/Faculty dimension (student peers, adviser, and department faculty) of the survey were significantly different between males and females. The perceived level of support and encouragement received from program peers/faculty was the test variable and the grouping variable was gender. The test was not significant, $t(92) = -1.74$, $p = .318$. The h2 index was .032, which indicated a small effect size. Male doctoral students' ($M = 12.17$, $SD = 2.34$) perceived level of support and encouragement from their program was about the same as female doctoral students' perceived level ($M = 12.92$, $SD = 1.77$). The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means was -1.62 to .11. The distributions of scores for the two groups are displayed in Figure 3.

For Research Question 4 an independent-samples t test was conducted to evaluate whether the mean scores on the Dissertation Chair dimension of the survey were significantly different between males and females. The perceived level of support and encouragement received for the dissertation chair was the test variable and the grouping variable was gender. The test was not significant, $t(49) = -.733$, $p = .162$. The h2 index was .006, which indicated a small effect size. Male doctoral students' ($M = 4.00$, $SD = 1.42$) perceived level of support and encouragement from their dissertation chair was about the same female doctoral students' perceived level ($M = 4.24$, $SD = .90$). The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means was -1.62 to .12.

When asked to rank a list of sources of support and encouragement, over 71% ranked Spouse, Partner, or Significant other as being most important. Other sources that were ranked as important were Immediate Supervisor, Children, and Workplace Peers. In regards to financial support, most reported a combination of Self (72%), Employer (66%), and Financial Aid/Scholarships (59%) funding their pursuit of their doctoral degree.

DISCUSSION

Respondents of the survey were doctoral students in an Educational Leadership program. The department's primary purpose "is the graduate preparation of individuals who will serve as educational leaders in K-12 schools, community/technical colleges, four year colleges and universities, and organizations/agencies" ("Welcome," n.d., para. 4). Students advance through the program in cohorts of approximately 12-15 students. Course offerings are exclusively online, but the department is based on a campus, all faculty members are located on campus. Additionally, the participating university employs a Graduate Student Success Specialist whose job is to provide specialized assistance to students as they face academic and personal hardships. Based on survey results, these current support structures seem to be providing adequate support for students at this time.

Doctoral students reported feeling supported and encouraged, but there continues to be room for growth in this area. Responses from the question inviting participants to share other comments regarding their support and encouragement throughout the program indicated that some students perceived the need for increased support for each dimension of the study.

Limitations

It is important to note that this study was conducted in one department at a mid-sized, regional university. The homogeneity of the participants could be a meaningful limitation. Further research in this regard could expand into other departments, programs of study, and universities. Additionally, further research could examine the ways in which support and encouragement is conveyed, and the ways in which individuals communicate their need for support.

Recommendations

We recommend department administrators consider creating opportunities for students and their families to interact in relaxed, fun environments. By bringing those separate spheres together, families may respond with more support. Furthermore, spending time together may help students and faculty members build meaningful, supportive relationships. Academic advisors and faculty could consider implementing “check-in” communications with students throughout the semester. Standardizing due dates and communication response times may also provide support to students. Finally, administrators should ensure that students are aware of the various resources that are available to students.

CONCLUSION

Educating, retaining, and preparing doctoral students requires a high level of support and encouragement. Pauley et al. (1999) determined that the most significant predictor of degree completion was the student’s self-reported level of motivation (p. 232). Nonetheless, through the infrastructure of supportive systems provided by faculty and administration, this internal motivation can be bolstered and student outcomes can be improved.

As evidenced by the results in the survey, the majority of students currently enrolled in the participating doctoral program, regardless of gender, are feeling high levels of support from most dimensions in their life. Doctoral students have diverse backgrounds and correspondingly, diverse needs for support and encouragement. The results indicated that most respondents reported that they were getting the support they needed. While improvements to provide more support on an administrative level may be necessary, doctoral students in this study are receiving the levels of support and encouragement needed to persist to completion.

REFERENCES

Ali, A., & Kohun, F. (2006). Dealing with isolation feelings in IS doctoral programs. *International Journal Of Doctoral Studies*, *1*, 21-33.

Allen, I. E., & Seaman, J. (2011). Going the Distance: Online Education in the United States. *The Sloan Consortium*. Retrieved April 17, 2015, from http://sloanconsortium.org/publications/survey/going_distance_2011

Barnes, B. J. (2010). The nature of exemplary doctoral advisors’ expectations and the ways they may influence doctoral persistence. *Journal of College Student Retention: Research, Theory & Practice, 11*(3), 323-343.

Cockrell, C. N. & Shelley, K. (2011). The relationship between academic support systems and intended persistence in doctoral education. *Journal of College Student Retention: Research, Theory, & Practice, 12*(4), 469-484.

Gardner, S. K. (2007). Graduate student involvement: Socialization for the professional role. *Journal of College Student Development, 84*(4), 369-387. Retrieved April 16, 2015 from http://muse.jhu.edu/journals/journal_of_college_student_development/v048/48.4gardner.html

Gardner, S. K. (2008a). Fitting the mold of graduate school: A qualitative study of socialization in doctoral education. *Innovative Higher Education, 33*(2), 125-138. DOI: 10.1007/s10755-008-9068-x

Gardner, S. K. (2008b). What’s too much and what’s too little?: The process of becoming an independent researcher in doctoral education. *Journal of Higher Education, 79*, 326-350. Retrieved April 16, 2015 from http://www.jstor.org/stable/25144671

Gardner, S. K. (2009). Conceptualizing success in doctoral education: Perspectives of faculty in seven disciplines. *Review of Higher Education, 32*(3), 383-406. Retrieved April 16, 2015 from http://muse.jhu.edu/journals/review_of_higher_education/v032/32.3.gardner.html

Grady, R.K., LaTouche,R., Oslawski-Lopez, J., Powers, A., & Simacek, K. (2013). Betwixt and between: The social position and stress experiences of graduate students. *Teaching Sociology, 42(1),* 5-16. DOI: 10.1177/0092055X13502182

Maher, M. A., Ford, M. E., & Thompson, C. M. (2004) Degree progress of women doctoral students: Factors that constrain, facilitate, and differentiate. *The Review of Higher Education 27*(3), 385-408.

Mansfield, K. C.; Welton, A., Lee, P., & Young, M. D. (2010). The lived experiences of female educational leadership doctoral students. *Journal of Educational Administration, 48*(6), 727-740.

Mistler, J.B., Reetz, D.R., Krylowicz, B., & Barr, V. (2012). The Association for University and College Counseling Directors Annual Survey. Retrieved May 1, 2015, from http://files.cmcglobal.com/AUCCCD_Monograph_Public_2013.pdf

Moore, H., Lampley, J. H., Moore, T. (2010). Perceived social support among college graduate students. *Enrollment Management Journal, 4*(1), 81-104.

Most, D. E. (2008). Patterns of doctoral student degree completion: A longitudinal analysis. *Journal of College Student Retention: Research, Theory, and Practice, 10*(2), 171-190. DOI: 10.2190/CS.10.2.d

Offerman, M. (2011). Profile of the nontraditional doctoral degree student. *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education,* 129, 21-30. DOI: 10.1002/ace.397

Pauley, R., Cunningham, M., Toth, P. (1999). Doctoral student attrition and retention: A study of non-traditional Ed.D. *Journal of College Student Retention, 1*(3), 225-238.

Sutton, R. (2014). Unlearning the past: New foundations for online student retention. *Journal of Educators Online, 11*(3), 1-30.

The Condition of Education. (2013, April 1). *National Center for Educational Statistics*. Retrieved 2015, April 16 from http://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/indicator_caa.asp

Welcome. (n.d.). *Department of Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis.* Retrieved from http://www.etsu.edu/coe/elpa/

Zembylas, M. (2008). Adult learners’ emotions in online learning. *Distance Education, 29*(1), 71-87. Retrieved April 16, 2015 from https://login.ezproxy.etsu.edu:3443/login?url=http://search.proquest.com/docview/217779239?accountid=10771

This page intentionally blank.

Analysis of 2014's Thirty Best Undergraduate Accounting Programs

Darlene A. Adkins
Lecturer of Accounting
College of Business and Global Affairs
The University of Tennessee at Martin
Martin, Tennessee

Mary F. Geddie
Assistant Professor of Accounting
College of Business and Global Affairs
The University of Tennessee at Martin
Martin, Tennessee

Paula Hearn Moore
Associate Professor of Accounting
College of Business and Global Affairs
The University of Tennessee at Martin
Martin, Tennessee

Richard B. Griffin
Professor of Accounting
College of Business and Global Affairs
The University of Tennessee at Martin
Martin, Tennessee

ABSTRACT

This paper examines primarily the courses in the accounting major and a portion of the business core of the best thirty accounting programs in the United States as identified by the Accounting Degree Review. A thorough examination of each school's web site has been conducted to gather current (2014) information concerning the requirements for a degree in accounting. Course descriptions rather than simply course titles have been evaluated for each accounting course included in the business core and accounting major requirement. The emphasis of the study is, not only to develop a profile from the best programs but also, to compare accounting programs at public and private schools. Also, possible differences between accounting programs in schools with Accounting accreditation and schools with Business accreditation are shown.

INTRODUCTION

The list of the 30 best accounting schools for undergraduates is published by the Accounting Degree Review, an online resource dedicated to providing unbiased and objective rankings and reviews of accounting and finance degree programs. In an effort to combine the rankings from U.S. News & World Report, Bloomberg Businessweek, and Public Accounting Report, the Accounting Degree Review reassesses factors such as reputation, prestige, student evaluations, accreditation, and costs in developing its listing (D. Barizo, 2015). U. S. News & World Report surveys deans and senior faculty members from business schools that are accredited by the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) International (Morse, 2014). Respondents are asked to appraise the undergraduate business program quality on a scale of 1 (marginal) to 5 (distinguished) for each program with which the respondent is acquainted (Morse, 2014). The Public Accounting Report also utilizes a survey approach but focuses exclusively on acquiring the opinions of accounting faculty (Public Accounting Report, 2013). Bloomberg Businessweek analyzes 27,561 surveys from senior business majors that consider their satisfaction with program performance in teaching, academic services, and career support, as well as, 218 employer surveys that

Table 1
The Best 30 Undergraduate Accounting Programs' Degree Hour Requirements and Graduate Accounting Degrees Offered by School

Rank	School	Public/ Private	Accounting Accredited	Undergraduate Degree Requirements			Graduate Degree Hour Requirements and Programs Offered						
				Bus Degree	Bus Core	Acct Major	Master of Science in Accounting					MBA	PhD
							Acct	Auditing	Audit Systems	Tax	IS		
1	Brigham Young University	**Private**	**Yes**	120	34	24	33			33			No
2	University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign	Public	Yes	124	46	21	32			36			Yes
3	University of Notre Dame	Private	Yes	126	43	18	30			30			No
4	The University of Texas at Austin	Public	Yes	121	51	24	36						Yes
5	Indiana University Bloomington	Public	Yes	124	54	31	30						Yes
6	The University of Pennsylvania	Private	No	37cu	36cu	27cu						57	Yes
7	University of Southern California	Private	Yes	128	46	26	30			30			Yes
8	Wake Forest University	Private	Yes	120	38.5	18	30						No
9	University of Washington	Public	Yes	120	47.4	27	47			45			Yes
10	University of Georgia	Public	Yes	121	39	24		30	30	30			Yes
11	Texas A&M University	Public	Yes	120	42	23	30			30			Yes
12	Virginia (McIntire)	Public	Yes	120	57.5	12	30			30			No
13	Michigan State University	Public	Yes	120	54	19	30			30	30		Yes
14	New York University	Private	No	128	58	12	30					60	Yes
15	Bentley University	Private	Yes	122	42	24	30						Yes
16	Arizona State University	Public	Yes	120	49	19	30			30			Yes
17	University of Wisconsin-Madison	Public	Yes	120	39	24	30						Yes
18	The Pennsylvania State University	Public	No	120	51	21	30						Yes
19	The Ohio State University	Public	Yes	121	53.5	24	31					57	Yes
20	University of Florida	Public	Yes	120	61	22	34						Yes
21	University of Michigan	Public	No	120	52	12	30					57	Yes
22	University of California, Berkeley	Public	No	120	41	26							Yes
23	Cornell University	Private	No	120	54	15							Yes
24	The University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill	Public	No	120	43	12	32	32		32			Yes
25	Southern Methodist University	Private	No	122	42	21	32			32			No
26	University of Missouri	Public	Yes	120	52	21	30						Yes
27	Boston College	Private	No	114	45	15	30						No
28	Miami University (Ohio)	Public	Yes	128	52	25	30						No
29	Northern Illinois University	Public	Yes	120	33	30	30			30			No
30	The University of Tennessee, Knoxville	Public	Yes	120	49	27		30		30			Yes

consider which programs produce the highest quality of graduates (Gloeckler, 2013). In addition to the surveys, which account for 50 percent of the final rank, Bloomberg Businessweek considers other data related to SAT scores, student-faculty ratio, the class size of core business classes, student internship percentages, and other factors related to the Master of Business Administration (MBA) program (Gloeckler, 2013). Therefore, by utilizing the ratings from all these sources, the Accounting Degree Review list incorporates the subjective input of deans, faculty, students and employers, as well as objective data. Therefore, by utilizing the ratings from all these sources, the Accounting Degree Review list incorporates the subjective input of deans, faculty, students and employers, as well as objective data.

The information for this paper has been acquired by visiting the web pages for the accounting programs listed in the Accounting Degree Review as the best 30 undergraduate accounting programs. Additionally each school's catalog web page has been visited to gather supplemental information and to review the content of accounting and business courses included in this study. Information in tables as presented to show findings from private and public schools as well as Business Accredited (only) and Accounting Accredited schools.

BEST 30 UNDERGRADUATE ACCOUNTING PROGRAMS

The best 30 undergraduate Accounting Programs are shown in Table 1 by rank as determined by Accounting Degree Review. A closer look at Table 1 reveals that 20 of the programs are in public universities and 10 are in private. While all 30 programs possess AACSB accreditation, 16 of the programs at public universities or 80% also have AACSB accounting accreditation compared to 5 programs or 50% of the private programs.

Hours in an Accounting Degree and Other Graduate Accounting Degrees Offered

A summary of the best undergraduate accounting program's general hour requirements and the additional accounting graduate programs offered at these universities are summarized in Table 1 by school

The number of semester hours for an undergraduate degree is indicated in the Degree column and ranges from a maximum of 128 credit hours (required at two schools) to a minimum of 114 credit hours. The most common requirement is 120 hours required by 46.7% or 14 of the schools. If a school operates on the quarter system, all hours in all tables have been converted to a semester basis. The University of Pennsylvania does not measure undergraduate graduation requirements by credit hours but by credit units. The core column refers to courses required in the business core at the school. When the school's catalog for business did not present a business core, the courses required by the different majors in business were compared to determine those courses which are common to all majors. Introductory courses in accounting are not included in the accounting major hours but in the business core. The University of Virginia requires the most hours required in the business core, 57.5 hours, and Northern Illinois University the least hours, 34 hours, are required by. Only two schools, University of California, Berkley and Cornell University did not offer some type of Masters of Accountancy Degree or an MBA with an accounting concentration; however, both of these schools along with 21 other schools did offer a doctorate in accounting.

Table 2 provides a summary of the information by type of degree from Table 1, dividing the list into those schools with business-only and those with accounting accreditation, further subdividing each accreditation category into public and private schools. The last column in the table presents a total overall average for all schools regardless of category. Between four and six programs in the best 30 programs in the authors' opinion do not really offer an undergraduate accounting degree but were voted for likely because of the business schools' reputation.

In undergraduate accounting programs, private schools on average require more hours for a degree than public institutions. However, while private schools require on average more hours both in the core and accounting major than public business accredited schools, public accounting accredited schools require more hours both in the core and accounting major than accounting accredited private schools.

Undergraduate Accounting Required in a Degree

A summary of the accounting curriculum is presented in Table 3. Accounting curriculum requirements show that a school requires the course as (1) either part of the business

TABLE 2
OVERVIEW OF THE BEST 30 UNDERGRADUATE ACCOUNTING PROGRAMS AND RELATED GRADUATE PROGRAMS BY TYPE OF DEGREE

Data Description	Business Accredited only			Accounting Accredited			Grand Total
	Private	Public	Total	Private	Public	Total	
Schools	5	4	9	5	16	21	30
Min Hours for a BS Degree	114	120	117	120	120	120	118.5
Max Hours for a BS Degree	128	120	124	128	128	128	126
Average Hours for a BS Degree	121	120	120.5	123.2	121.2	122.2	121.4
Min Hours in Acct Major	12	12	12	18	12	15	13.5
Max Hours in Acct Major	27	26	26.5	26	31	28.5	27.5
Average Hours in the Acct Major	18	17.8	17.9	22	23.3	22.7	20.3
Avg Sem Hours in the Business Core	47	46.8	46.9	40.7	48.7	44.7	45.8
Avg Hours of Acct in the Bus Core	6.4	6.5	6.5	6	6.2	12.2	9.3
Schools Offering an MS in Acct	3	3	6	5	16	21	27
Schools Offering an MS in Tax	1	1	2	3	9	12	14
Schools Offering MS in Info Sys			0		1	1	1
Schools Offering an Acct MBA	2	1	3		1	1	4

TABLE 3
ACCOUNTING COURSES AND SEMESTER HOURS REQUIRED IN A DEGREE

Categories	Business Accredited			Accounting Accredited			Grand Total
	Private	Public	Total	Private	Public	Total	
Introductory (Number of Schools)	5	4	9	5	16	21	30
Introductory (Avg. Hours Required)	6.4	5.8	6.1	6	6	6	6.0
Intermediate (Number of Schools)	4	4	8	5	16	21	29
Intermediate (Avg. Hours Required)	5.3	5.0	5.1	7.0	6.3	6.5	6.1
Tax (Number of Schools)	4	4	8	5	14	19	27
Tax (Avg. Hours Required)	3	3.3	3.1	3	3.2	3.1	3.1
Cost/Managerial (Number of Schools)	3	3	6	4	14	18	24
Cost/Managerial (Avg. Hours Required)	3	3	3	3	3.1	3	3
Auditing (Number of Schools)	2	2	4	5	14	19	23
Auditing (Avg. Hours Required)	3	3.5	3.3	3.6	3	3.1	3.2
AIS (Number of Schools)			0	4	14	18	18
AIS (Avg. Hours Required)			0	3.5	3.1	3.3	3.3
Analysis of FS (Number of Schools)	2	3	5		1	1	6
Analysis of FS (Avg. Hours Required)	3	3	3		3	3	3
Adv Financial (Number of Schools)	1	1	2	1	1	2	4
Adv Financial (Avg. Hours Required)	3	4	3.5	3	3	3	3.3
Other (Number of Schools)	5	4	9	5	16	21	30
Other (Avg. Hours Required)	10.4	4.9	7.9	4.4	8.5	7.5	7.7

core as a requirement of all business majors or (2) as part of the required accounting major at the school. Elective courses have not been included in this table. The courses are listed with the course being required most often being listed first in the table, followed by the second most often required course. This process is followed until accounting courses required by less than 4 programs are lumped together in the "Other" category. Accounting Courses are shown as to the number and type of school requiring the course and the number of semester hours required.

Introductory Accounting

Table 4 an "Overview of Introductory Accounting" summarizes how the first course of accounting is covered in all of the best 30 accounting programs. Schools naming the first introductory course Principles of Accounting are not distinguished from those referring to the first course as Fundamentals of Accounting. According to course descriptions reviewed, the use of the name Principles of Accounting consistently indicates that, rather than separating financial accounting and managerial accounting into two separate courses, the first required course covers a portion of the financial accounting required in the program and the second course completes the study of financial accounting, at the introductory level, in the first portion of the second course. The remainder of the second principles course is devoted to the study of managerial accounting.

Twenty-five of the thirty schools teach introductory accounting in a two course sequence with the first course being financial accounting and the second being managerial accounting. Three Schools teach introductory accounting using the principles of accounting format and the remaining two schools require one course which is a survey of financial and managerial topics.

Intermediate Accounting

Only one of the best 30 programs does not require Intermediate accounting. Several of the programs listed in the best 30 do not offer a degree in accounting at the undergraduate level. Although, one program does not require intermediate accounting, intermediate accounting is one of several accounting elective courses that can be chosen for a business degree. Table 5 includes as intermediate courses those titled "Intermediate" or "Financial Reporting & Analysis." Intermediate refers to the traditional method of teaching intermediate. Financial Reporting & Analysis refers to using the Accounting Codification and case studies to teach intermediate accounting. At least one intermediate course is required by 29 of the programs; however, a second course in intermediate accounting is required by 25 schools. Although the traditional approach to teaching intermediate is the most common approach to teaching the first course in intermediate for the 30 best programs, the table reveals that several schools using the traditional approach switch to the case approach in the second course. This switch accounts for more programs requiring the case approach for the second course than the first course. A third course in intermediate accounting, all of which are taught using the traditional approach, is required at only two schools. Both of those schools are public and have AACSB accounting accreditation. The catalog description of any school requiring a third course has been examined to ensure that it is actually intermediate and not advanced accounting. Any that consisted of primarily advanced accounting textbook topics was counted as an advanced accounting course.

Federal Income Tax

Table 6 shows a tax course is required in 27 of the best 30 accounting programs. No program required more than

Table 4
Overview of Introductory Accounting

Principles of Accounting	Business Accredited only			Accounting Accredited			Grand Total
	Private	Public	Total	Private	Public	Total	
Schools Requiring Courses in Introductory Accounting	5	4	9	5	16	21	30
Average Hours Required in Introductory Accounting	6.4	5.8	6.1	6	6	6	6
Schools Requiring Accounting Principles I				1	2	3	3
Schools Requiring Accounting Principles II				1	2	3	3
Schools Requiring Survey of Accounting		1	1		1	1	2
Schools Requiring Financial Accounting	5	3	8	4	13	17	25
Schools Requiring Managerial Accounting	5	3	8	4	13	17	25

one tax course and the number of semester hours for the course ranged from two semester hours to four semester hours. In six of the 27 programs the course is based on individual income tax. No program required a course in primarily corporate income tax. Five of the schools have a course than is part Individual and part corporate income tax. At the remaining sixteen schools requiring a tax course, the course is based upon tax and business decisions.

Cost Accounting

In the best 30 accounting programs, Table 7 shows that 24 schools require a course in Cost Accounting. The course is a three semester hour course at 21 of the 24 schools. At two schools, it is a four semester hour course. At one school using the quarter system, it is a three hour quarter course, which converts on the semester system to a 2.7 semester hour course.

Table 5
Overview of Intermediate Accounting

Intermediate Accounting	Business Accredited			Accounting Accredited			Grand Total
	Private	Public	Total	Private	Public	Total	
Schools Requiring Courses in Intermediate	4	4	6	5	16	21	29
Average Hours Required in Intermediate	5.3	5	5.8	7	6.3	6.5	6.1
Schools Requiring Intermediate 1	3	3	6	3	11	14	20
Schools Requiring Intermediate 2	3	2	5	3	7	10	15
Schools Requiring Intermediate 3				0	2	2	2
Schools Requiring Fin Reporting & Analysis 1	1	1	2	2	5	7	9
Schools Requiring Fin Reporting & Analysis 2				2	8	10	10

Table 6
Overview of Federal Income Tax

Federal Income Tax	Business Accredited only			Accounting Accredited			Grand Total
	Private (N=5)	Public (N=4)	Total	Private (N=5)	Public (N=16)	Total	
Schools Requiring Courses in Tax	4	4	8	5	14	19	27
Average Hours Required in Tax	3	3.3	3.1	3	3.2	3.1	3.1
Schools Requiring Individual Tax	1	1	2	1	3	4	6
Schools Requiring Corporate Tax	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Schools Requiring Ind & Corp Tax	0	0	0	1	4	5	5
Schools Requiring Tax & Bus Dec.	3	3	6	3	7	10	16

Table 7
Overview of Cost Accounting

Cost/Managerial	Business Accredited			Accounting Accredited			Grand Total
	Private (N=5)	Public (N=4)	Total	Private (N=5)	Public (N=16)	Total	
Schools Requiring Courses	3	3	6	4	14	18	24
Average Hours Required	3	3	3	3	3.1	3	3

Auditing

Auditing is required only in 23 of the best 30 undergraduate programs. The course at 21 of the schools is a financial auditing course. One school requires internal auditing and one school requires a two semester hour course in financial auditing and a two semester hour course in internal auditing. For reporting purposes the Table 8 combines the two, two semester hour auditing courses, into one, four hour semester course.

Accounting Information Systems

Table 9 shows accounting information systems are required in 18 of the best accounting programs. The course ranges from 2.7 semester hours to 4 semester hours. Sixteen of the schools show the course as Accounting Information Systems. At one school, the course is titled Business Process Analysis and at the remaining school, it is Enterprise Process Analysis and Design. The most frequently used phrases in the course descriptions are "internal controls", mentioned by 14 schools, and "business processes" or "transaction cycles", mentioned by 12 programs.

Analysis of Financial Statements

In the best 30 accounting programs, Analysis of Financial Statements is required by six schools as shown in Table 12. The course if offered is a three hour semester course at all schools.

Advanced Accounting

Table 11 shows that only four schools require Advanced Financial Accounting. An examination the Catalog descriptions of all four courses indicated that the primary topic common to all these courses is Business Combinations.

Other Courses Required by the Accounting Major

The Overview of Other Required Courses by the Accounting Major, Table 12, shows other courses required for the accounting major outside the business core that are both accounting and non-accounting courses in the 30 best undergraduate accounting program. Accounting courses are shown only if the number of programs requiring the course is less than four programs. One of the interesting findings is that at the undergraduate level none of the 30 best programs required either a Non-Profit/Governmental course or an Internship course. This finding is not say the courses are not offered as an undergraduate elective course but that they are not required. Twelve of the schools required a minimum of one elective accounting course and three other schools required a minimum of one accounting or business elective course. Of the 12 schools requiring accounting electives, two require three accounting electives and two require 2 accountings electives. Of the three schools requiring an accounting or business elective, two of the schools require two courses.

Other Required Courses

An Accounting Ethics course is required at only two of the 30 best accounting programs both programs are AACSB accounting accredited. Eleven other schools required an ethics course as part of the business core. Six of these schools required a course in Business Ethics and five required a course in Professional Responsibilities and Leadership. An additional 11 programs require ethics as part of the business core. Of the 11 programs, seven have accounting accreditation and of the 11 programs, six and public universities.

Only two programs require a business law course on the Uniform Commercial Code as part of the accounting major. At both of the schools, a business law course – Legal Environment of Business – is required as part of the business core of all business majors. Only one school did not require a business law course as part of the business core or accounting major. Of the 29 schools requiring business law as a part of the business core, 18 of the schools required the Legal Environment of Business and 11 schools required the Uniform Commercial Code.

While not part of the accounting major, the math requirement at these 30 schools is informative as seen in Table 13. One school does not have a Math requirement due to choices available to all students in the University's General Education Requirements; however, all prospective accounting students are informed that courses in Finite Math and statistics are not required but are "strongly recommended." It should be noted that at this school admission is required to the accounting program prior to the junior year. The remaining 29 programs require at least a calculus course and at least one statistics course. Eleven of the programs require a second math course. Both schools, in which Math for Business Analysis is required, require calculus as a prerequisite for this course.

Further Study

With the almost universal requirement of 150 hours to sit for the CPA exam, a study including graduate hours could be revealing. All but two of the schools studied have graduate accounting master's degrees or MBA's with an accounting emphasis. One of these schools requires 26 upper division hours of accounting in its program. If

Table 8
Overview of Auditing

Auditing	Business Accredited			Accounting Accredited			Grand Total
	Private (N=5)	Public (N=4)	Total	Private (N=5)	Public (N=16)	Total	
Schools Requiring Courses in Auditing	2	2	4	5	14	19	23
Average Hours Required in Auditing	3	3.5	3.3	3.6	3	3.1	3.2
Schools Requiring Financial Auditing	2	1	3	5	14	19	22
Schools Requiring Internal Auditing	0	1	1	1	0	1	2

Table 9
Overview of Accounting Information Systems

Accounting Information Systems (AIS)	Business Accredited			Accounting Accredited			Grand Total
	Private (N=5)	Public (N=4)	Total	Private (N=5)	Public (N=16)	Total	
Schools Requiring Courses in AIS	0	0	0	4	14	18	18
Average Hrs Required in AIS	0	0	0	3.5	3.1	3.3	3.3
Schools Requiring AIS	0	0	0	4	12	16	16
Schools Requiring Business Process Analysis	0	0	0	0	1	1	1
Schools Requiring Enterprise Process Analysis and Design	0	0	0	0	1	1	1

Table 10
Overview of Analysis of Financial Statements

Analysis of Financial Statements	Business Accredited			Accounting Accredited			Grand Total
	Private (N=5)	Public (N=4)	Total	Private (N=5)	Public (N=16)	Total	
Schools Requiring Courses in Analysis of Financial Statement	2	3	5		1	1	6
Average Hours Required in Analysis of Financial Statement	3	3	3		3	3	3

Table 11
Overview of Advanced Accounting

Advanced Financial	Business Accredited			Accounting Accredited			Grand Total
	Private 5	Public 4	Total	Private 5	Public 16	Total	
Schools Requiring Courses in Advanced	1	1	2	1	1	2	4
Average Hours Required in Advanced	3	4	3.5	3	3	3	3.3

Table 12
Overview of Other Required Courses By the Accounting Major

Other	Business Accredited			Accounting Accredited			Grand Total
	Private (N=5)	Public (N=4)	Total	Private (N=5)	Public (N=16)	Total	
Schools Requiring Other Courses	5	4	9	5	16	21	30
Average Hrs Required in Other	10.4	4.9	7.9	4.4	8.5	7.5	7.7
Schools Requiring Non Profit							0
Schools Requiring Internship							0
Schools Requiring Analysis of Fin Stat	2	3	5		1	1	6
Schools Requiring Business Valuation	2		2				2
Schools Requiring Advance Fin Rept				1	1	2	2
Schools Requiring International Acct	1	1	2				2
Schools Requiring Acct Ethics				1	1	2	2
Schools Requiring Career Planning					5	5	5
Schools Requiring Uniform Com Code					2	2	2
Schools Requiring Business Comm					4	4	4
Schools Requiring Portfolio Mgmt	1		1				1
Schools Requiring Corporate Finance					1	1	1
Schools Requiring Micro Econ					1	1	1
Schools Requiring Decision Processes				1	1	2	2
Schools Requiring Operations Mgmt					1	1	1
Schools Requiring Strategic Mgmt					5	5	5
Schools Requiring Spec. out of Acct					2	2	2
Schools Requiring Acct Electives	2	1	3	1	8	9	12
Average Hours of Acct Electives	6	6	6	3	4.1	4	4.5
Schools Requiring Acct or Bus Elect	2		2		1	1	3

Table 13
Required Math Courses

Type of Math Course	Schools Requiring Course
Pre-calculus	2
Finite Math	7
Calculus	29
Math for Business Analysis	2
Statistics	29

Appendix
University Web Sites:

Name of University	University Catalog Web Site
Brigham Young University	http://saas.byu.edu/catalog/2013-2014ucat/
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign	http://provost.illinois.edu/ProgramsOfStudy/2013/fall/programs/index.html
University of Notre Dame	http://registrar.nd.edu/BOI/BOI.php
The University of Texas at Austin	http://registrar.utexas.edu/catalogs
Indiana University Bloomington	http://www.indiana.edu/~bulletin/iub/
The University of Pennsylvania	https://spike.wharton.upenn.edu/ugrprogram/advising/concentrations/accounting.cfm
University of Southern California	http://catalogue.usc.edu/
Wake Forest University	http://www.wfu.edu/academics/bulletins/
University of Washington	http://www.washington.edu/students/gencat/degree_programsTOC.html
University of Georgia	http://bulletin.uga.edu/
Texas A&M University	http://catalog.tamu.edu/
Virginia (McIntire)	http://records.ureg.virginia.edu/
Michigan State University	http://www.reg.msu.edu/AcademicPrograms/
New York University	http://www.stern.nyu.edu/cons/groups/content/documents/webasset/con_039479.pdf
Bentley University	http://www.bentley.edu/offices/academic-services/core-curriculum
Arizona State University	https://catalog.asu.edu/
University of Wisconsin-Madison	http://www.wisc.edu/academics/catalogs.php
The Pennsylvania State University	http://bulletins.psu.edu/bulletins/bluebook/
The Ohio State University	http://fisher.osu.edu/undergraduate/academics/
University of Florida	https://catalog.ufl.edu/ugrad/current/Pages/home.aspx
University of Michigan	http://www.bus.umich.edu/pdf/bbabulletin.pdf
University of California, Berkeley	http://catalog.berkeley.edu/
Cornell University	http://courses.cornell.edu/content.php?catoid=12&navoid=2382
The University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill	http://www.kenan-flagler.unc.edu/
Southern Methodist University	http://www.smu.edu/catalogs
University of Missouri	http://registrar.missouri.edu/degrees-catalogs/index.php
Boston College	http://www.bc.edu/offices/stserv/academic/univcat.html
Miami University (Ohio)	http://miamioh.edu/academics/bulletin/
Northern Illinois University	http://catalog.niu.edu/index.php
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville	http://catalog.utk.edu/

BIBLIOGRAPHY

The Accounting Degree Review (2/9/2015), http://www.accounting-degree.org/best-accounting-schools

Bloomberg's Website (2/9/2015), http://www.bloomberg.com/bw/articles/2013-04-22/the-best-undergraduate-b-schools-for-accounting

Gloeckler, G. (2013, April 22), Bloomberg Business. Retrieved from Bloomberg Business: http://www.bloomberg.com/bw/articles/2013-04-22/the-best-undergraduate-b-schools-for-accounting

Griffin, Richard B., Edd Joyner, Ernest R. Moser and Bob Putman, "An Overview of Undergraduate Accounting Education in AACSB Accredited Accounting Programs," Journal of Business and Economic Perspectives, Vol. XXXIIII (Fall/Winter 2007) No. 2, pp. 77-90.

Griffin, Richard B. and Joyner, Edd R., "A Profile of AACSB Schools Accredited in Accounting," Published in *The Collected Papers of The 2004 International Applied Business Research Conference*, San Juan, Puerto Rica, March, 2004.

Griffin, Richard B. and Joyner, Edd R., "Mathematics, Statistics, and Other Quantitative Coursework: What do AACSB Accredited Schools Require?," Published in *The Collected Papers of The 2003 International Applied Business Research Conference*, Acapulco, Mexico, March, 2003.

The Public Accounting Report (2/9/2015), http://www.baruch.cuny.edu/news/documents/PARSurvey2013-BaruchRankings.pdf

U. S. News and World Report website on methodology for business schools (3/3/2015), http://www. usnews.com/education/best-colleges/articles/2014/09/08/best-undergraduate-business-programs-methodology

U. S. News and World Report website on general rankings methodology (3/3/2015), http://www.usnews. com/education/best-colleges/articles/2014/09/08/how-us-news-calculated-the-2015-best-colleges-rankings

Experiences Sustaining a Conference and Building a Network

Marilyn L. Grady, Ph.D.
Professor, Educational Administration
University of Nebraska-Lincoln
Lincoln, NE

ABSTRACT

The Women in Educational Leadership Conference (WELC) was founded at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln in 1987. The 28th conference was held in October 2014. A database related to the conference has been maintained throughout these years. Using these data, the following report includes the factors that have sustained the conference, the network that has developed through conference attendance, the research studies that are underway related to the conference and conference attendees, the successes and challenges experienced by conference attendees, and the unintended benefits and opportunities provided through the conference.

INTRODUCTION

The Women in Educational Leadership Conference (WELC) was founded in 1987 at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln. This was a time in the U.S. when Title IX was new and few women held leadership roles in higher education or K-12 settings. Affirmative action was a national concern at the time. In 1987, 2% of the professors of educational administration were women. The University of Nebraska-Lincoln hired its first woman professor in the department of educational administration in 1986.

At that time, the department was experiencing a steady increase in the number of female students in the traditionally, all-male educational administration program. To address the challenge, a survey of women educators was conducted in 1986 and served as the basis for developing WELC.

The conference was designed as a benefit to the graduate students in the educational administration program at the university. The conference featured women administrators and faculty members from higher education and K-12 settings as invited presenters. These individuals were to serve as potential role models for the graduate students. From the beginning women and men have attended the conference.

During the past 28 years, the conference has developed into a national event. Conference presenters and attendees throughout the years have come from all 50 states and other countries as well.

HOW WELC HAS BEEN SUSTAINED

In the U.S., professional associations and conferences have experienced difficulty in sustaining membership and attracting the necessary attendance at conferences to meet the expenses of the events. Petersen in 2000 conducted a study of three prominent national educational professional associations to identify the organizations' experiences sustaining membership and activities. The associations reported declining numbers and difficulty attracting participation at the conferences that were sponsored.

The core theme of WELC has continued to be leadership. The topic has not faded in importance in the field of educational administration. The conference has been strengthened and sustained through a) a continuous emphasis on research, b) attendees who have attended the conference multiple times, c) "word-of-mouth" endorsements of the conference, d) individuals who bring colleagues to the conference. e) the role of graduate students in the conference, and f) the opportunities that arise from conference attendance. Each of these aspects is discussed in the following sections.

Research focus

In the early years, the conference attendees were predominantly teachers and administrators from K-12 settings. Individuals from Nebraska were the core audience. However, when school district policies changed in the state, the teachers and administrators were required to "stay in their buildings." For a time, there was limited funding for professional development. This led to decreased participation by the K-12 individuals.

In recent years, an increase in postsecondary faculty attendance has enhanced the research focus of the conference. In turn, the conference has been a welcoming experience for individuals who are traveling the promotion and tenure track. Increased attendance by postsecondary administrators has emphasized the practice of educational leadership during the sessions and in the conversations. This transformation has extended the reach of WELC from a Nebraska phenomenon to a national and international event.

Doctoral students have the opportunity to present their research in its various phases and receive "constructive" feedback from a supportive audience who "get it." Professors from other universities sponsor their graduate students at the conference as well.

In the early years of the conference, the presenters were invited speakers. However, the practice of issuing an annual call for proposals for conference presentations became a regular feature of conference planning by the fifth year of the conference. In the first years of the conference, there would be as many as four keynote presentations and no more than ten concurrent sessions.

Since the conference's fifth year, 75 proposals for concurrent presentation are accepted each year and typically two keynote speakers present as well. This process has increased the value of the conference to attendees who have multiple session options. The content of the conference has been enriched as well. The presenters for the 75 sessions have "ownership" of the conference through their active participation in the event.

Repeat attendance, "word-of-mouth" endorsements, and bring a colleague

Throughout the years of the conference, some individuals have attended every conference since its founding. Some individuals have attended many conferences. Some first-time participants attend each year. The repeat attendees continue to return for a variety of professional and personal reasons.

Word-of-mouth endorsements became evident by the fifth year of the conference. At this conference, it was announced by a first-time conference attendee that as a new, untenured woman professor at a Texas university, she had been strongly encouraged by a male colleague in her department to attend because he knew the conference coordinator and had heard about the value of the event. This was a critical point in the history of the conference since it was clear evidence of the word-of-mouth aspect of spreading the network for women in educational leadership. The professor from Texas has returned to the conference many times.

Individuals have developed allegiances with the conference because of their involvement as graduate students. Professors welcome the opportunity to present their research. Conference attendees have access to contemporary research on women and leadership. Individuals bring colleagues or graduate students as guests to the conference. Individuals come to the conference to announce faculty and administrative positions at their institutions or to seek papers for journals they edit. Job connections and publication opportunities have been created through the network. External reviewers for promotion and tenure files have been identified by meeting new colleagues at the conference.. Mentoring relationships have been formed among conference participants.

Role of graduate students

Throughout the 28 years of the conference, a graduate student assistant has been assigned to work with the conference coordinator. With one exception, these students have been completing doctoral studies at the university. The students who assist with the conference have been considered conference co-coordinators. The graduate assistants participate in all aspects of the planning, organization and delivery of the conference. Additionally, the students have been the point of contact for many of the conference presenters. They interact with the presenters and through this process increase their network with faculty and administrators from institutions throughout the U.S. and other countries. The conference coordinator's doctoral students have had responsibilities at the conference as well.

Unintended consequences and benefits

The conference has led to unintended consequences and benefits. The students in the educational administration program and the conference coordinator have experienced professional benefits.

As students pursued faculty positions at other universities, they have used their role in the conference as evidence of their leadership activities during their doctoral programs. Some students have benefitted from their involvement in the conference through the positions they have acquired upon completion of their doctoral degrees.

The ***Journal of Women in Educational Leadership (JWEL)*** is an outgrowth of the conference. The journal provides an extension of the conference for the participants who choose to submit their presentations as formal papers to be submitted to the refereed journal.

A number of other opportunities can be linked to the conference. The following are examples of these opportunities.

An invitation to participate in the founding of Women Leading Education Across the Continents (WEL) is an example of the unanticipated benefits of the conference. This organization was founded in 2007.

An invitation to participate in the Advancing Theories of Women in Leadership initiative was another unexpected opportunity that emerged from the conference. This has led to research on Purpose and Calling related to Women as Leaders.

RESEARCH STUDIES

Throughout the years of the conference, contact information for the attendees and presenters has been maintained. Additionally, the topics presented at the conference have been recorded as well as the subjects addressed by the speakers.

Data from the conference is in a format that provides the basis for research. Data exist for 3,467 individuals who have attended the conference. Using the information from the conference, surveys and interviews of past participants are underway. The following questions guide these studies.

- What have been the career trajectories of women who have attended the conference?
- What challenges have the women faced as they pursued their careers in leadership?
- What colleague relationships emerged from attendance at the conference?
- What opportunities emerged from conference attendance?
- What led participants to attend the conference for multiple years?
- According to the participants, how has the status of women in educational administration changed since their first conference attendance?

The network that has been created through the conference continues to sustain the visibility and success of the annual Women in Educational Leadership Conference.

This page intentionally blank.

Integrating Interview Methodology to Analyze Inter-Institutional Comparisons of Service-Learning within the Carnegie Community Engagement Classification Framework

Jarrad D. Plante, Ed.D., Sr.
Special Projects Assistant
Office of Student Involvement
University of Central Florida
Orlando, FL

Thomas D. Cox, Ed.D.
Assistant Professor Higher Education and Policy Studies,
Department of Child, Family, and Community Sciences
College of Education
University of Central Florida
Orlando, FL

ABSTRACT

Service-learning has a longstanding history in higher education in and includes three main tenets: academic learning, meaningful community service, and civic learning. The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching created an elective classification system called the Carnegie Community Engagement Classification for higher education institutions to demonstrate the depth and breadth of student learning and involvement through partnerships and engagement in the community. This study examines data from qualitative interviews key administrators from three different institutions to understand the institutionalization of service-learning at three different institution types – a Private Liberal Arts College, a Private Teaching University, and a Public Research University located in the same metropolitan area. Using comparative analysis, this study highlights emerging concepts to inform higher education institutions seeking to increase service-learning opportunities that benefit higher education practitioners as well as community leaders.

INTRODUCTION

"Besides enrolling for classes, getting involved is the single most important thing one can do as a student…" (Plante, Currie, & Olson, 2014, p. 89). According to Astin (1999), involvement is an investment of energy yielding positive student learning outcomes. Student involvement occurs along a continuum and can be measured quantitatively and qualitatively. Student development and learning gains are associated with the quantity and quality of student involvement with the effectiveness of educational policy being reflected by the capacity of a practice or policy that increases student involvement (Astin, 1999).

In a quantitative study, Preston (2014) at the University of Central Florida's Office of Student Involvement, using NSSE data, surveyed 370 students who had completed at least 30 credit hours participated in a survey on how involvement may play a role in the linkage between classroom learning and activities for future employment. Preston's study concluded that *involved* students outscored uninvolved students in several key areas: socializing on campus (80%), a sense of belonging (78%), supplemental instruction (68%), and career plans (70%). Results established that, among other student engagement activities, utilizing service-learning, provides an enriching educational experience as well as supports academic scholarship (Preston, 2014).

The service-learning principles of instruction, curriculum, and developing community provide lenses through which one can understand the overlap between educational and service experiences that are cross-cultural, while offering an opportunity to build relationships that create a community of support (Keith, 1997).

Service-learning has a longstanding history in American higher education (Burkhardt & Pasque, 2005). College campuses are regarded as catalysts for community change, and college students remain crucial contributors of community engagement for their campuses ("History of Service-Learning in Higher Education," n.d.). Butin (2012) states that the majority of faculty members believe that working in and with the community is an important component of the undergraduate educational experience. According to McGoldrick and Ziegert (2002), there are three key principles of academic service-learning: enhanced academic learning, relevant and meaningful service, as well as purposeful civic learning. Therefore, service-learning can be a conduit for community engagement (CE). Measuring student engagement, service-learning, and student experience are critical to understanding how institutions impact community engagement.

Active participation in service-learning has been shown to increase grades/GPA (Astin et al., 2000) and retention rates (Hara, 2010b) while exposing students to real world experiences (Nicoterea et al., 2011), and provides opportunities to work with a diverse group of people (Cox, Murray, & Plante, 2014). For anything to become institutionalized, including service-learning activities, it goes through bureaucratization – an ideal for maximizing characteristics of rationality (Bolman & Deal, 2008). A designation capturing the characteristics, culture and approaches of service-learning, the Carnegie Community Engagement Classification (CCEC) is being institutionalized at participating higher learning institutions. The CCEC is the first-of-its-kind elective classification system distinguishes higher education institutions by their level of community engagement. Beginning in 2006, the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching sought to recognize institutions that are committed to their communities, encouraging collaboration among institutions for a mutually beneficial exchange of knowledge and research. There were three categories of recognition for the classification in the initial application process of 2006. Curricular Engagement are schools that use teaching, learning and scholarship to connect faculty, students, and community partners to address needs in the community. This broadens students' academic and civic learning and enriches institutional scholarship. Outreach and Partnerships are applied to community engagement – "Outreach" being the resource for the community to use and "Partnerships" referencing the collaborative interactions between institution and community for a common purpose, such as capacity building, research, and economic development. In both the 2006 and 2008 classifications, institutions were classified for either or both categories, Outreach and Partnerships. In the 2010 application and 2015 reclassification procedures, however, Carnegie combined the two categories. Data sought by the CCEC application can serve as a resource for institutions seeking to increase prestige and can also offer guidance to those seeking to institutionalize engagement, and enhance student experience. In 2006, 56 institutions received the community engagement classification and those institutions allowed their data to be used for research offered benchmarks of innovative activities and institutionalization of community engagement using the best practices of service-learning (Sandmann, Thornton, & Jaeger, 2009).

PURPOSE STATEMENT

The purpose of this study was to compare data from qualitative interviews of representatives from three different institution types within the same metropolitan area to better understand the institutionalization of service-learning in the respective institutions.

RESEARCH QUESTION

What are the differences regarding inter-institutional comparisons of service-learning across three institution types within the same metropolitan area?

METHOD

To answer the research question, qualitative analysis of the 2008 and 2015 applications across institution types were conducted to identify emerging themes. The results of the qualitative interviews were compared to the results of the secondary data analysis for further insight. Qualitative interviews of the coordinators of the CCEC application process were used to explore three higher education institutions in order to understand the similarities and differences of the institutionalization of service-learning at each of the three institution types. These data provided the researcher the opportunity to review and compare relationships of social structures across institution types. The study was conducted through qualitative interviews because it was determined that the key players in the process would be able to articulate best what service learning and community engagement in their institution is. Further, the most common sources of data collection in qualitative research are interviews, observations, and review of documents (Creswell, 2009b). The use of interview for this study is an effective methodology for service-learning research as it is supported by measures four constituencies: faculty, students, institutions, and communities, to assess impact and include feedback for continuous improvement (Driscoll, Holland, Gelmon, & Kerrigan, 1996).

DATA COLLECTION

Data were collected via the qualitative interviews from the coordinators of the three different institution types: a

Private Liberal Arts College (PLAC), a Private Teaching University (PTU), and a large Public Research University (PRU) within the same metropolitan area. Table 1reflects the distinct institutional profiles based on *US News and World Report 2013*.

The Private Liberal Arts College (PLAC) was ranked number two among southern regional universities. Both in-state and out-of-state tuition was $43,080. Undergraduate enrollment was 1,890 with the acceptance rate of 47.22 percent. The average GPA was 3.2 with SAT of 1290 and ACT of 29 in the 75th percentile for prospective students. The Private Teaching University (PTU) was ranked number 6 among southern regional universities. Both in-state and out-of-state tuition was $22,467. Undergraduate enrollment was 2,729 with the acceptance rate of 59.25 percent. The average GPA was 3.9 with SAT of 1270 and ACT of 28 in the 75th percentile for prospective students. The Public Research University (PRU) was ranked number 173 among national universities. The in-state tuition was $6,368 and out-of-state tuition was $22,467. Undergraduate enrollment was 51,269 with the acceptance rate of 48.94%. The average GPA was 3.8 with SAT of 1270 and ACT of 28 in the 75th percentile for prospective students.

Data collection included qualitative interviews with lead authors of the 2015 reapplication process. Questions were asked of one key administrator of each of the three institutions. The three individuals were instrumental in preparing the 2015 Carnegie Community Engagement Classification reapplication and provided the researchers insight on the process, approaches, and changes she/he observed. The interview protocol was developed after an exhaustive review of the literature and Carnegie applications. Each interview lasted approximately 45-minutes, was conducted in-person with follow-up questions and requests for the interviewee to elaborate on their answers. Interviews were transcribed by the first author with member checks performed by the second author. Each interviewee was given a pseudonym for this study – Melinda at PLAC, Patrick at PTU, and Rose at PRU. Interviews were recorded and transcribed then analyzed as part of following "standard procedures that are used from one interview to another" (Creswell, 2014, p. 194).

DATA ANALYSIS

Qualitative analysis included data from qualitative interviews at each of the three higher education institutions in the same metropolitan area. Part one of the analysis was coding the data. "All qualitative methods employ coding techniques to help organize and analyze the overwhelming amount of data" (Hahn, 2008, para. 1). Data coding process consisted of four levels. The first level, or, open coding, took the raw qualitative data and assigned labels. The second, or, categorical coding, reexamined level one data to focus the data, and ascertain a foundation for identifying themes. The third level, called either axial or thematic coding, built upon the previous two levels of coding to develop refined themes. From the first three levels, themes emerged from previous levels' categories and themes. Lastly, examination of the data through an independent lens provided deep insight into each question answered and the purpose behind the questions (Creswell, 2014).

Part two of the process analyzed interview data of the three individuals from each of the three institutions. Procedures for interview analysis, according to Agar (1996), included "data organized categorically and chronologically reviewed and coded" (Creswell, 2014, p. 210). The three interviews were coded then compared to identify emerging concepts that will possibly elucidate the secondary data analysis from the CCEC applications and strengthen the study.

RESULTS

All three institutions examined in this study earned the Carnegie Community Engagement Classification designation in 2008 and reclassification in 2015 for active community engagement. As a qualitative research study design, the results and interpretations impart subjectivity due to the nature of the "data were derived mainly

Table 1
Institutional Profiles

Inst	Inst Type	Pub/ Pri	Rank Type	Rank #	In-State $	O-O-S $	Enroll	Accept	GPA	SAT	ACT
PLAC	Lib Arts	Pri	Reg U	2	$43,080	$43,080	1,890	47.22%	3.2	1290	29
PTU	Teach	Pri	S. Reg U	6	$40,040	$40,040	2,729	59.25%	3.9	1270	28
PRU	Res	Pub	S. Nat U	173	$6,368	$22,467	51,269	48.94%	3.8	1270	28

through...overall impressions of particular phenomena" (Schwartz, 2013). The coded results of the interviews (personal communications) can be found in Tables 2-4.

Two main themes were extracted from the data regarding the reasons for why each institution applied and reapplied for the CCEC in 2008 and 2015: 'institutionalization of community engagement at their campus' and 'Carnegie as a premier standard their institution measures itself against.' Melinda from Private Liberal Arts College reported that the classification is a higher education best practice and the institution and community feel that it is important, and provides PLAC clout for what they are doing with community engagement which "lends credibility to institutionalization of service-learning" (Melinda, personal communication, April 24, 2015). This information can be found in Table 2.

Carnegie is the gold standard to measure effectiveness of community engagement, according to Patrick from the Private Teaching University. PTU has valued community engagement for the past 132 years in its school's history, as it is embedded in their mission statement. PTU has allocated significant resources over the 20 years to institutionalize community engagement and remain an institution of distinction (Patrick, personal communication, April 27, 2015). This information can be found in Table 3.

Rose shared that many of the faculty, staff, and students at the Public Research University have been engaged with the community from the very beginning. She explained that PRU was the first university in the state to have both awards of community engagement; indicating Outreach & Partnerships and Curricular Engagement in 2008 as they were separate during that classification period. "We were amazed they were giving the award and excited to receive one...we went at it heart and soul" (Rose, personal communication, April 16, 2015). This information can be found in Table 4.

Each of the three interviewees indicated that the preferred method of information gathering regarding tracking and assessment for the purposes of completing the CCEC application was through a committee. This purported to make the most difference in ease and when applying and receiving the elective designation. Melinda, who led the process in 2015, indicated that since the application process itself was so institutionalized, PLAC had many sources of information and support. From the president's, provost's, and deans' offices, as well as marketing and communication, advancement and community relations, there were key individuals across campus and community partners that were involved in some way. "People were willing to come to the table because they recognized the importance to the mission of PLAC" (Melinda, personal communication, April 24, 2015). This information can be found in Table 2.

Patrick, who co-wrote the 2015 application, reported that PTU had multiple perspectives by individuals from across campuses that were able to bring both qualitative and quantitative information to the application, especially during the 2008 classification. PTU's center expanded the depth of its relationships across campus and was less dependent on the outside individuals. With the assistance of the Institutional Review Office, Registrar's Office, and

Table 2
PLAC Institutionalization Questions, Codes, and Quotes

Theme	Questions	Codes	Quote
Institutionalization	1. Why did the institution apply for the CCEC application in 2008 and then reapplication in 2015?	Credibility Clout	"lends credibility to the institutionalization of service-learning"
	2. What areas of focus, data collection procedures, and resources made the most difference when applying and receiving the elective designation?	Process Institutionalized People willing to come to the table	"People were excited and willing to come to the table because they recognized the importance to the mission of the institution."
	3. Identify the internal and external funding as well as the fundraising partnerships that pertain to service-learning	Guesstimate Unsure accuracy	"Internal and external would probably be more than half...and fundraising, close to 100% goes to support SL efforts."

Table 3
PTU Institutionalization Questions, Codes, and Quotes

Theme	Questions	Codes	Quote
Institutionalization	1. Why did the institution apply for the CCEC application in 2008 and then reapplication in 2015?	Effectiveness Accreditation Gold standard	"to remain an institution of distinction when it comes to community engagement across this country"
	2. What areas of focus, data collection procedures, and resources made the most difference when applying and receiving the elective designation?	Committee Different perspective Relationships across campus	"In 2008 and 2015, we put together a committee of people from across campus with slightly different perspectives but who are able to bring quantitative and qualitative information to the table to put into the application"
	3. Identify the internal and external funding as well as the fundraising partnerships that pertain to service-learning	Ballpark Doesn't break it down	"If you wanted to ballpark it and say 50/50, that wouldn't be inaccurate."

Table 4
PRU Institutionalization Questions, Codes, and Quotes

Theme	Questions	Codes	Quote
Institutionalization	1. Why did the institution apply for the CCEC application in 2008 and then reapplication in 2015?	Involved Engaged	"to show how totally engaged the institution was with community and how it always has been"
	2. What areas of focus, data collection procedures, and resources made the most difference when applying and receiving the elective designation?	Committees Thorough coverage Matrix Cooperative	"We would work individually and then come back as a committee to discuss every question providing thorough coverage"
	3. Identify the internal and external funding as well as the fundraising partnerships that pertain to service-learning	Can't ID Can't break it out	"We can talk about internal and external resources, but I can't break that out for you to answer your question."

three different online software programs, PTU was able to pull reports on total number of hours students volunteered through volunteering or Community Engaged Learning or Community Based Research courses offered and the amount of faculty teaching them, social topic they focused on, and agencies students worked with (Patrick, personal communication, April 27, 2015). This information can be found in Table 3.

PRU was very thorough and utilized a very large committee to complete the application. Rose, who was in charge of putting together the 2015 CCEC application, attempted to include representatives from across campus including Experiential Learning, Faculty Senate, Institutional Research Board, Undergraduate and Graduate Studies, and Student Development and Enrollment Services to assist in fielding questions in their area of expertise. Working as individuals to do the information gathering, the committee would regroup to assess the data from each question, load the data into a matrix, and revised until it was complete. "It was a great community effort, but it started with individuals…sometimes teams of individuals that would get together…but everyone was cooperative" (Rose, personal communication, April 16, 2015). This information can be found in Table 4.

While Rose at PRU was unable to identify the internal and external funding as well as the fundraising partnerships that pertain to service-learning specifically (Rose, personal communication, April 16, 2015), Melinda at PLAC (Melinda, personal communication, April 24, 2015) and Patrick at PTU (Patrick, personal communication, April 27, 2015) approximated that about 50% of their internal and external funding went toward service-learning/community engaged learning/community-based research activities. Patrick explained that approximately 100% of the Bonner program funding went toward community engaged learning and about half of the fundraising pertained to community engaged learning (Patrick, personal communication, April 27, 2015). Melinda reported that fundraising "is close to 100% because it goes to support service-learning efforts" (Melinda, personal communication, April 24, 2015). Information regarding funding for PLAC can be found in Table 2, for PTU in Table 3, and PRU in Table 4.

DISCUSSION

Emerging Concepts

As with many institutional initiatives, funding can make or break the progress and success of the process. All three institutions identified internal and external sources as well as fundraising for CE activities that promote service-learning. Patrick, at PTU, estimated that 50% of the needed resources came from all three areas – internal and external sources as well as fundraising; and Melinda at PLAC reported that 50% of internal and external funding provided resources for CE activities, but nearly 100% of support needed in service-learning efforts for the community was provided by fundraising. Rose, at PRU, was unable to identify the amount or percentage for each of the three pieces of funding, but suggested that it was a considerable amount based on the comprehensive list provided in their 2008 and 2015 CCEC applications as well as the considerable amount of funding for CE activities discussed from PLAC and PTU.

Although each institution places the personnel at different parts of their campus, all three institutions reported utilizing of AmeriCorps members to support service-learning programs. Each institution also reported tracking and assessing service-learning activities through at least one Web-based software program with all three institutions using the results from the data for various reports, community impact and accreditation purposes. Campus Compact was an essential source for securing grants so that faculty, staff, and administrators alike had the resources necessary for attending and/or presenting at various conferences.

Finally, although service-learning or community engaged learning activities are an active course component within the "soft" disciplines such as the social sciences; all three institution types continue working to improve its prioritization in all fields, especially within the STEM disciplines.

Limitations

There were several limitations of the present study, including issues with the qualitative interviews. For example, the 2008 and 2015 CCEC applications both asked how many faculty members taught service-learning courses. However, the question posed a limitation because each institution may define the term "faculty" differently. Melinda indicated that the overall method by which PLAC defines "faculty" is through their yearly handbook, but is currently under review for development. Patrick indicated that PTU defined "faculty" as any employee teaching SL classes (community engaged learning) and engaged in this type of curriculum across the institution. This may include tenure-track, non-tenure track faculty on record, adjunct, and/or teaching assistants.

Representatives from each institution interviewed were integral to the authorship of the 2015 application process, and, while their expertise was informative, their close association presented limitations. None of the interviewees played a major part of the 2008 application process, but instead made inferences about the areas of focus during the original classification period whereby using their own institutional knowledge to answer the interview questions related to why the institution applied for the CCEC in 2008.

Implications for Future Research

The current study conducted qualitative interviews with only one person at each institution; which may have provided a limited perspective and limited information. Interviewees, for example, indicated that they could not provide deeper knowledge of the original classification cycle. Rose, from PRU, was unable to provide any insight and suggested contacting individuals from other offices across campus. Additionally, the interviewees for this study represented different institutional administrative levels. This

may have influenced the type of information discriminated in the qualitative interview. Future researchers may consider conducting focus groups to gain broader perspectives of the institutionalization of service-learning.

Traditionally, the researchers of the Carnegie Community Engagement Classification have focused exclusively on institutions that received the CCEC, overlooking those institutions that did not receive the classification. One final recommendation would be to develop a comparative analysis between like institutions, comparing those that *did* receive the classification and/or reclassification to those institutions that *did not* receive the CCEC designation. Researchers could examine application documents from similar institutions that did not classify for the CCEC to those who did receive the designation to examine emerging concepts of those who classified and compare those emerging patterns to the institutions who did not receive the classification. Additionally, researchers could interview CCEC committee members to elucidate the findings from the aforementioned secondary data analysis. A comparative analysis in this arena would be great value to the field to aid practitioners seeking to understand why some institutions did not received the classification while others did.

CONCLUSION

In order for institutions to have impactful community engagement and service-learning, colleges and universities must surround these initiatives, programs, and reward systems with resources (Weerts & Hudson, 2009). Each institution adapted, modified, and enhanced their approach, policies and ethos with the institutionalization of service-learning. This was evident with the emphasis on quality over quantity when reporting, for example, their drop in the number and percentage of service-learning courses, faculty members, departments, and student participants due to recalibrating the depth of students' service-learning experience, moving from "surface level volunteering to deeper, more sustainable service-learning" (Melinda, personal communication, April 24, 2015).

The findings regarding PRU implied the institution experienced a more pervasive experience between the 2008 to 2015 CCEC application processes. PRU broadened their approach, including specifics from their offices, colleges, departments, and programs involved in community engagement and service-learning on campus. "Service-learning is more broadly incorporated into the university instead of just being put into a course. In other words, our students are so much more involved in service-learning and community service; we don't need to make a special thing sticking it into a course" (Rose, personal communication, April 16, 2015).

Research on PTU suggested the largest transformational change over the 2008 to 2015 timeframe. This change can be attributed to change in infrastructure and name change from Center for Service-Learning to Center for Community Engagement, the adoption of "community engaged learning" for service-learning as the development of a unified campus-wide definition, and the implementation of a community engagement minor. Since the changes within community engaged learning and its implementation throughout campus, the numbers and percentages for service-learning course, faculty teaching SL, departments housing SL, and student participants has steadily increased from the original classification cycle to the 2015 designation, while other two higher education institutions in the same geographical area steadily decreased. PTU was the only institution to increase in all four categories. Additionally, curricular engagement activities increased, and community engagement present on student co-curricular transcripts in 2015, both were absent from campus in 2008. It is evident in "how deep our infrastructure and institutionalization had become and how we had become responsible for doing this across the entire campus" (Patrick, personal communication, April 27, 2015).

This study considered the institutionalization of service-learning as a best practice in higher education using inter-institutional comparisons utilizing the Carnegie Community Engagement Classification framework. This study confers with and broadens the body of literature in the hopes that these qualitative findings will be of benefit to institutional and community. "It is one thing to study our community as academics, but we must also participate in serving our community as citizens and achieve participatory excellence" (Plante, 2015).

REFERENCES

Agar, M. H. (1996). The professional stranger: An informal introduction to ethnography (Vol. 2). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Astin, A.W., Vogelgesang, L.J., Ikeda, E.K., & Yee, J.A. (2000). How Service-Learning

Affects Students. Los Angeles, CA: Higher Education Research Institute.

Astin, A. W. (1999). Student involvement: A developmental theory for higher education. Journal of college student personnel, 40(5), 518-529.

Bolman, G.L. & Deal, T.E. (2008). Reframing Organizations: Artistry, Choice and Leadership (fourth Ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Burkhardt, J., & Pasque, P. A. (2005). Academic leadership for the civic engagement movement. Michigan

Journal of Community Service Learning, 11(2), 61-66. Retrieved from https://login.ezproxy.net.ucf.edu/login?auth=shibb&url=http://go.galegroup.com/ps/i.do?id=GALE%7CA187772628&v=2.1&u=orla57816&it=r&p=STOM&sw=w&asid=6fb0637f7cabb22cbcfc59bdbcf2f1f4

Butin, D.W. (2012). When engagement is not enough: Building the next generation of the engaged campus. In D.W. Butin & S. Seider (Eds.), The Engaged Campus: Certificates, Minors, and Majors as the New Community Engagement (pp. 1-11). NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Cox, T., Murray, L.I., & Plante, J.D. (2014). Undergraduate student diversity paradigm expansion: The role of international service learning. International Forum of Teaching and Studies, 10(1), 3-13. Retrieved from http://www.americanscholarspress.com/content/IFOTS-One-2014.pdf.

Creswell, J.W. (2014). Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches (fourth Ed.). Lincoln, NE: Sage Publications.

Creswell, J. W. (2009b). Editorial: Mapping the field of mixed methods research. Journal of Mixed Methods Research, 3(2), 95-108.

Driscoll, A., Holland, B., Gelmon, S., & Kerrigan, S. (1996). An Assessment Model for Service Learning: Comprehensive Case Studies of Impact on Faculty, Students, Community and Institution (Abstract). Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 3, 66-71.

Hara, B. (2010b, July 8). Service-learning (for students). Chronicle of Higher Education. Retrieved from http://chronicle.com.ezproxy.net.ucf.edu/blogs/profhacker/service-learning-for-students/25360

History of Service-Learning in Higher Education. (n.d.). Retrieved from http://www.servicelearning.org/history-service-learning-higher-education.

Keith, N.Z. (1997). Doing service projects in urban settings. In Waterman, A.S. (Ed.), Service

Learning: Applications From the Research (pp. 126-149). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

McGoldrick, K.M., & Ziegert, A. (2002). Introduction. In K.M. McGoldrick & A.L. Ziegert (Eds.) Putting the Invisible Hand to Work: Concepts and Models for Service-Learning in Economics (pp. 1-8). Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan Press.

Plante, J.D. (2015). Published Dissertation: Institutionalizing Service-Learning as a Best Practice of Community Engagement in Higher Education: Intra- and Inter-Institutional Comparisons of the Carnegie Community Engagement Elective Classification Framework. Orlando, FL: University of Central Florida.

Plante, J.D., Currie, T.J., & Olson, S.L. (2014). Volunteer UCF: Igknighting Volunteerism. In T.A. Bryer (Ed.) National Service and Volunteerism: Achieving Impact in Our Communities (pp. 89-101). Lanham, MD: Lexington Books: Rowman & Littlefield Publishing Group.

Preston, M. (2014, May 6). Half-baked: How student involvement and co-curricular experience provide a vital competencies link between the classroom and future employment. Lecture presented in Classroom I, room 308 on University of Central Florida, Orlando Campus.

Sandmann, L.R., Thornton, C.H., & Jaeger, A.J. (2009). In L.R. Sandmann, C.H. Thornton, & A.J. Jaeger (Eds.), Institutionalizing community engagement in higher education: The first wave of Carnegie classified institutions. New Directions for Higher Education (pp. 99-104). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass/Wiley Publishing.

Savanick, S. (2014). Service-learning. Retrieved from http://serc.carleton.edu/introgeo/service/index.html

Schwartz, A. (2013, September 26). The Difference Between Objective and Subjective Data:

Scientific Data Collection. Retrieved from http://adamschwartz.hubpages.com/hub/The-Difference-Between-Objective-and-Subjective-Data

Weerts, D. & Hudson, E. (2009). Engagement and institutional advancement. In L.R.

Sandmann, C.H. Thornton, & A.J. Jaeger (Eds.), Institutionalizing community engagement in higher education: The first wave of Carnegie classified institutions. New Directions for Higher Education (pp. 65-74). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass/Wiley Publishing.

JOINT CONFERENCE
May 24th, 25th and 26th 2017 in

Academic Business World International Conference (ABWIC.org)

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.

Business Disciplines

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.

International Conference on Learning and Administration in Higher Education (ICLAHE.org)

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:

Learning

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.

Academic Administration

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