Journal of Higher Education Management

Volume 36, Number 2 (2021)

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATORS

JOURNAL OF HIGHER EDUCATION MANAGEMENT
Volume 36, Number 2 (2021) ▪ ISSN 2640-7515

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From Conflict to Consensus: The Pedagogies of Peace

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To engage in a study of conflict resolution, educators might begin by recalling a biblical parable whose use of irony and hyperbole dramatizes divisiveness at its extreme. In the book of I Kings from the Old Testament, two women quarrel over the identity of an infant boy, each claiming to be his mother. Unable to resolve their differences, the disputants seek the counsel of King Solomon, who, upon listening to their conflicting accounts, orders them to bring him a sword. He then issues the following command: "Cut the living child in two and give half to one and half to the other" (New International Version Bible, 2011, I Kings 3:25). In this exaggerated scenario, the king proposes a concession through which each woman will receive half of a dead baby. The king's disarming order about halving the baby exposes the opposing motivations of the women. Moved by love for her son, the rightful mother exclaims, "Please, my lord, give her the living baby! Don't kill him!" while the imposter cries, "Neither I nor you shall have him. Cut him in two!" (I Kings 3:26). Whereas one woman expresses self-sacrificing love, the other succumbs to self-consuming jealousy. Later applauded by the Israelites, King Solomon's mediated solution, however unfathomable, accomplishes the intended effect of revealing the birth mother who would rather surrender her son to the charlatan than lose him to the king's sword. Having elicited the truth through this exchange, the king rules that the baby be returned to his mother.

As this biblical parable ironically illustrates, an irreconcilable conflict calls for a fair and ethical resolution. Inherent within the human condition, conflict manifests throughout today's complex, inter-connected global society. From the persistent civil war in Syria to the recent storming of the United States Capitol, conflict bedevils humanity, requiring the relentless pursuit of peace. Those entrusted to serve as educators in U.S. colleges and universities possess a unique opportunity to foster peace on their campuses and throughout their communities. Designed to serve the public good by promoting both individual and societal benefits, institutions of higher learning present ideal forums for the practice of deliberative democracy and shared governance, both of which seek to promote common understanding among diverse constituents. Inevitably occurring within human organizations, conflict necessitates that educators hone their ability to manage and resolve it. Integral to conflict resolution is the cultivation of mutual trust through the iterative processes of stakeholder engagement and deliberative dialogue. Just as academic knowledge and cognitive skills must be learned, so also must the advanced leadership competencies of conflict resolution and consensus building. Facilitated through cooperative learning, peace education provides a pedagogical framework for transforming both classrooms and campuses into collaborative communities where diversity, equity, and inclusivity thrive. In addition to the cooperative learning methods of constructive controversy,

integrative negotiation, and peer mediation, the multi-faceted model of interest-based bargaining offers another promising pathway to mutual agreement in higher educational settings. Together, these strategies comprise the pedagogies of peace through which college educators and their students can transform conflict into consensus.

Deliberative Democracy and Shared Governance in Higher Education

The Pedagogical Value of Deliberative Democracy. An exploration of consensus building in higher educational settings must begin with an examination of deliberative democracy—the political notion that decisions should result from "fair and reasonable discussion and debate among citizens" (Eagan, 2016). During deliberation, participants exchange ideas about policies, procedures, and practices intended to advance the public or common good rather than individuals' self-interests. Deliberative democracy engages discussants in discourse about competing views, the most compelling of which engenders a consensual decision (Eagan, 2016). As microcosms of a democratic society, colleges and universities represent a community of diverse constituents, including students, faculty, staff, administrators, trustees, business and industry partners, preceptors, non-profit organizations, and donors. The perspectives of constituents may vary considerably from those of their counterparts, thereby necessitating the facilitation of collaborative dialogues. As Mitchell (2007) asserted, "Deliberative democracy is particularly well-suited as a method for decision making and consensus building in the college environment." Emphasizing "public discussion and reasoned debate," deliberative democracy fosters the intellectual and ethical qualities that many faculty strive to cultivate in their students—namely, "honesty, open-mindedness, impartiality, patience, and diligence" (Mitchell, 2007). Admittedly, when contrasted with top-down, hierarchical governance structures like the traditional corporate model, democratic deliberations, which engage multiple stakeholders, can prolong decision-making (Mitchell, 2007). Reflecting upon the protracted nature of such deliberations, educators recall the familiar African proverb "If you want to go fast, go alone. If you want to go far, go together." Applied to a post-secondary setting, these words imply that time dedicated to consensual decision-making ultimately generates capacity-building, sustainable changes predicated upon the values of diversity, equity, and inclusivity. By engaging the "collective intellectual resources" of the campus, higher educational administrators increase the likelihood of making effective decisions (Mitchell, 2007). Indeed, "the very process of deliberative democracy" provides "pedagogical value," transforming participants into "teachers and learners" engaged in "cooperative inquiry" while promoting the common good inherent in higher education's mission (Mitchell, 2007). Wherever pedagogical value exists, therein lies an opportunity to influence the broader campus culture—and society—for the better.

Fostering Deliberative Democracy Through Consensus Building. The distinction between consensus and majority rule affirms the significant role that deliberative democracy plays in higher education. As Molina-Markham (2014) noted, consensus and majority rule represent the two major decision-making practices in American society (p. 158). Decision by consensus typically necessitates more time than that by majority rule because in the former, participants may choose to continue their dialogue when they disagree, whereas in the latter, the conversation often concludes with the majority vote. While consensus requires "the integration of the positions of all group members," majority rule risks provoking a "contest between the two most popular positions" (Molina-Markham, 2014, p. 158). With majority rule, the greater number of "yes" votes directs the decision, which some participants will undoubtedly deem polarizing. With consensus, common agreement determines the decision, which most, if not all, participants will accept. By design, consensual decision-making

entails collaborative processes in which participants agree to seek solutions that reflect the best interests of the whole group (Ciurea & Filip, 2019, p.5). Within higher educational settings, the consensus decision rule typically fosters a "more deliberative process," creating higher satisfaction among participants than does majority rule (Molina-Markham, 2014, p. 158). Intended to serve the public good by facilitating both individual and societal benefits, American institutions of higher learning provide ideal forums for the practice of deliberative democracy and the complementary concept of shared governance.

Shared Governance in Higher Education. As the term itself implies, *shared governance* engages higher educational stakeholders in the collective responsibility for the governmental structure and processes of decision-making. Kater (2017) characterized shared governance as a "co-constructed, sociopolitical process" that requires relationships rooted in mutual trust and respect between faculty and administrators. On college and university campuses, this process involves high-stakes decision-making about student learning, the faculty experience, program management, and budgetary oversight (Wolcott & McLaughlin, 2020; Clayton, 1997, p. 374). Such decision-making necessitates ongoing access to valid and reliable data, close analysis of the data, and the meaningful engagement of more than one stakeholder (Clayton, 1997, p. 374). Shared governance, moreover, requires a careful balance of faculty and staff involvement in decision-making for which organizational accountability must exist (Olson, 2009). As Olson (2009) explained, the governing board of a college or university serves as its official legal authority, delegating operational responsibilities to the president or chief executive officer, who in turn designates duties to cabinet officers, who then assign roles to their administrative staff. Jointly issued by the A*merican Association of University Professors, the American Council on Education, and the Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges, the "Statement on Government of Colleges and Universities" has significantly influenced American higher educational institutions' approaches to shared governance since its 1966 publication (Olson). The co-authors of the statement posit that "*a college or university in which all the components are aware of their interdependence, of the usefulness of communication among themselves, and of the force of joint action will enjoy increased capacity to solve educational problems" (AAUP, 1966). Through an awareness of their positive interdependence and a commitment to ongoing communication, higher educational constituents collaboratively enhance their ability to resolve presenting issues. Shared governance, then, empowers stakeholders with organizational structures and processes conducive to deliberative democracy.

Familiar to many higher education administrators, the following hypothetical scenario illuminates the practice of shared governance in a post-secondary setting. In response to the changing needs of local and regional hospitals, the nursing faculty at a public state college develop a curricular proposal containing substantive changes to the program admissions policies and the core courses. With the support of their dean, the nursing faculty submit the proposal for endorsement by the college's curriculum committee. Composed of inter-disciplinary faculty, academic administrators, and student services professionals, the committee serves as the recommending body to the provost. Upon supporting the proposal, the provost submits it for signatory review by the president, followed by the district board of trustees. Before implementation in the college's annually published catalog, the proposal requires additional approval from the regional accrediting body and the specialized nursing accrediting agency. From the nursing faculty to the external accreditor, each stakeholder in this scenario plays an integral role in the college's shared governance process. As Olson (2009) observed, although all constituents contribute to shared governance, they cannot reasonably participate in each stage of the deliberative process but rather do so relative to their respective roles within the deliberations. Through an intricate choreography of professional checks and balances, no

one entity exerts full control over decision-making absent the engagement of other stakeholders. A singular group vote, for example, represents but a small component of shared governance—a multidimensional process designed to "balance maximum participation in decision making with clear accountability" (Olson, 2009). By cultivating the "pooled wisdom" of a college or university's many diverse constituents (Clayton, 1997, p. 375), shared governance gives voice to those who, through deliberative dialogues, may feel at once united by their mutual concerns and divided by their conflicting interests.

Conflict Resolution Through Consensus Building

Conflict as Both a Challenge and an Opportunity. For many individuals, the word *conflict* evokes uncomfortable associations with quarrels, spats, and altercations. Understandably, these individuals may turn away from conflict rather than move toward it, but to move beyond it, they must first understand its place in human organizations. Defined by *The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language* (2020) as "a state of disagreement or disharmony between persons or ideas," the English word *conflict* originates from the Latin term *cōnflīctus*, meaning *collision*. Johnson, Johnson, and Smith (2007) explained that "a conflict of interests occurs when the actions of one person striving to achieve his or her goal interfere with and obstruct the actions of another person striving to achieve his or her goal" (p. 26). Because of intrinsic competition among individuals and groups, conflict becomes inescapable in human societies (Moyo, Ncube, and Nozizwe, 2011). Feeling uneasy about conflict, many individuals accordingly avoid engaging in controversy. Even within families, a tacit aversion to tabooed topics involving religion and politics may exist. At college, some students loathe to incite heated debates and therefore prefer not to engage in class discussions. Likewise, some faculty opt not to participate in potentially incendiary dialogues about such topics as curriculum, outcome assessment, and contractual negotiations, deferring instead to other colleagues. Administrators, too, may eschew such confrontations, including with faculty about matters concerning workload and remuneration. As individuals inevitably "clash over values and interests," conflict presents both a challenge and an opportunity—one that Moyo, Ncube, and Nozizwe (2011) further qualified as a "social necessity that requires proper management." Gamlem (2018) also viewed conflict management as an essential skill in the contemporary workplace. Recognizing conflict as innate to human behavior and organizational dynamics, educators will benefit from cultivating strategies for skillfully addressing it.

Integral to the ability to resolve conflict is an understanding of human beings' typical responses to it. Employing a gaming metaphor of wins and losses, Krogerus and Tschäppeler (2017) classified the following ways in which various stakeholders respond to conflict:

- **Flight:** When individuals attempt to avoid conflict instead of confronting it, they engage in flight, which results in a "lose-lose" situation.

- **Fight:** In this approach, participants may attempt to assert their position to the detriment of the other party's, thus producing a win-lose situation.

- **Giv[ing]-Up:** In this "lose-win" approach, individuals surrender their position and retreat, ultimately giving in to the other side.

- **Evad[ing] Responsibility:** In this "lose-lose" scenario, participants delegate the responsibility for a decision—and hence the conflict itself—to another party, typically to a

higher authority. While the authority figure may resolve the conflict, he or she may not make the most effective decision.

- **Compromis[ing]:** In this "win-lose" practice, one or both sides submit to the other party's demands, achieving a potentially acceptable, though often not ideal, outcome.

- **Reach[ing] Consensus:** Reflecting a new solution co-developed by both parties, consensus provides a "third way" that generates the desired "win-win" outcome for all (pp. 108-109).

From flight to fight, human beings vary significantly in their responses to conflict. Of the foregoing approaches, the distinction between compromise and consensus reveals an especially subtle nuance between losing current ground and establishing new ground. Whereas compromise necessarily assumes at least one party's defeat, consensus assures both parties' victory. K. Strasma (personal communication, September 4, 2020) underscored the importance of persistently searching for "a third way" to resolve conflicts and build consensus, thus enabling all parties to experience "wins." McKinley and Zielinkski (2019) concurred that "conflict rarely, if ever, results in a win for one side or the other"; rather, the win emerges when stakeholders collaboratively endeavor to discuss and resolve their differences. Without question, consensus-building represents the most effective of the recognized approaches for responding to conflict.

Managing and Resolving Conflict Through Consensus Building. Through consensus building, higher educational professionals can learn to manage and resolve conflict. By doing so, they foster a cooperative community premised on "communication and transparency," which Kater (2017) described as the "antecedent to trust." M. Gnage (personal communication, March 4, 2021) also characterized trust as the "foundational aspect" of any successful dialogue. Conflict resolution presupposes the intentional cultivation of trust among engaged stakeholders (Pipas, 2020, p. 12). All too often, however, conflicts remain unaddressed in higher educational settings, perhaps because constituents may want for the confidence, assertiveness, or ability to confront the underlying issues. When conflicts malinger, they worsen into "a source of frustration for employees and managers alike" (Gamlen, 2018). Johnson, Johnson, and Smith (2007) likewise identified trust and conflict as two critically important variables to the efficacy of collaborative inquiries and communities, explaining that "trust tends to be developed and maintained in cooperative situations" while "absent and destroyed in competitive and individualistic situations" (pp. 24-25). "Only in a cooperative context," Johnson and Johnson (2005) declared, are conflicts "resolved constructively" (p. 289). Johnson, Johnson, and Smith (2007) defined trusting behavior as "the willingness to risk beneficial or harmful consequences by making oneself vulnerable to another person," and they regard trustworthy behavior as "the willingness to respond to another person's risk-taking in a way that ensures that the other person will experience beneficial consequences" (p. 25). To establish trust in a group setting, participants must be both trustworthy and trusting; the more group members trust one another, the more effectively they cooperate (Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 2007, p. 25). In a similar vein, Lencioni (2002) observed that high-performing teams exhibit the following characteristics: trust, conflict, commitment, accountability, and results (as cited in Pipas, 2020, p. 13). To progress to the levels of commitment, accountability, and results, team members must first cultivate mutual trust and the willingness to address conflict by articulating disagreements (Pipas, 2020, p. 13). The open and respectful expression of disagreement facilitates the team's ability to discover common ground; unfortunately, groups unable to disagree agreeably eventually languish. Within cooperative

communities, trust casts the cornerstone for conflict resolution from which actionable results materialize.

Leading Through Influencing Styles. To produce mutually beneficial outcomes for conflicting parties, higher educational professionals should also hone their ability to influence others positively. This capacity originates with an awareness of one's preferred influencing style coupled with the recognition of others' preferences. Musselwhite and Plouffe (2012) identified the following distinct influencing styles:

- **Rationalizing:** Individuals with this preferred influencing style use logic, facts, subject matter expertise, and reasoning to present ideas and persuade others.

- **Asserting:** Individuals who use this style depend upon rules, laws, authority, and their own confidence to persuade others. Challenging those who disagree with their views, assertive individuals engage in debate and may resort to pressure tactics to convince others of their positions.

- **Negotiating:** To achieve an outcome that fulfills their interests, individuals who prefer the negotiating style offer compromises and concessions. Committed to the process of negotiation, they may defer a decision to increase the likelihood of reaching agreement among the differing parties.

- **Inspiring:** Individuals with the inspirational form of influence communicate a common vision through emotional appeals, narratives, and figurative language.

- **Bridging:** Individuals with this preference seek to connect relationally with others and thus to influence the desired outcome. In addition to relying upon reciprocity, the support of superiors, and consultations with constituents, these leaders form coalitions strengthened by personal relationships.

Individuals tend to employ the influencing style that represents their preferred way of being influenced (Musselwhite and Plouffe, 2012). By exclusively applying their preferred style, however, they compromise their ability to influence "as many as four out of five people" (Musselwhite & Plouffe, 2012). In addition, leaders who appropriate only their preferences may struggle when attempting to influence those over whom they exercise no direct authority. To mitigate against such challenges, individuals should learn to identify and employ each style (Musselwhite & Plouffe, 2012). By doing so, they "embrace conflict," despite the discomfort often associated with it, as an invitation to "enhanced collaboration" (McKinley & Zielnkski, 2019). Aware of the unique influencing styles, educators can holistically and situationally utilize them to build consensus among conflicting parties.

Conflict Resolution: A Collaborative Process of Group Development. A meta-analysis of empirical studies about Tuckman's 1965 Stages of Group Development provides additional insights into conflict resolution as a collaborative process rather than a one-time, linear event (Tuckman & Jensen, 1977). During the initial stage of group development, which Tuckman classified as *forming*, groups typically lack a clear sense of purpose, thus requiring additional guidance and direction from the leader. By the second stage, which involves *storming*, groups gain clarity about their purpose.

However, if they begin to experience power struggles and conflict, they will need further coaching from the leader. As teams progress to the *norming* stage, they acquire a stronger sense of their roles and responsibilities, enabling them to arrive at agreement and consensus. During this stage, the leader's role transitions from that of coach to facilitator. Upon arriving at the *performing* stage, groups attain a defined sense of purpose and vision, reflective of their emergent ability to focus on achieving goals together. In this stage, the leader's role commonly involves delegating tasks to individual team members. By the final stage, referred to as *adjourning*, which Tuckman and Jensen (1977) later added to Tuckman's 1965 model, groups have completed their identified tasks. The group members, therefore, feel a sense of accomplishment that the leader recognizes and celebrates. Because group development often occurs organically, teams may return to the storming stage throughout their interactions (Pipas, 2020, pp. 12-13). Tuckman and Jensen's study elucidates conflict resolution as an iterative process of collaboration—one during which groups commonly storm before they norm and perform in a manner that yields actionable results.

Achieving Consensus Through Peace Education and Cooperative Learning

Peace Education. Merely placing individuals together and assigning them a joint task does not result in a cohesive group that seamlessly reaches the adjourning stage identified by Tuckman and Jensen (1977). Just as people must learn the core technology of their professional positions, so also must they learn how to work collegially and productively with one another. Having examined consensus building as an essential facet of conflict resolution among groups, college faculty and administrators might next explore peace education, facilitated through cooperative learning, as a pedagogical framework for achieving meaningful and sustainable collaborations. Hurley, et al. (2020) reflected on the instructional use of a simulation and role-playing game to teach students in Virginia Tech's Master of Natural Resources program the following "advanced leadership skills": influence and negotiation strategies, group decision-making, conflict management, and consensus building. Acknowledging the difficulty of didactically teaching these skills, Hurley and associates referenced the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), whose vision statement reads as follows:

> Political and economic arrangements of governments are not enough to secure the lasting and sincere support of the peoples. Peace must be founded upon dialogue and mutual understanding. Peace must be built upon the intellectual and moral solidarity of humanity.

Adapting UNESCO's vision for world peace to the post-secondary context, higher educational stakeholders might concede that deliberative democracy and shared governance, unto themselves, will not garner the lasting and sincere support of faculty, staff, and administrators. Whether globally or locally, peace flourishes when individuals and groups engage in respectful dialogue, seek to understand and to be understood, and share a common interest in the well-being of all peoples. Through peace education, Johnson and Johnson (2005) offered unique insights into teaching the advanced leadership skills identified by Hurley et al. Applicable to both students and professionals, peace education provides instruction in the "competencies, values, and attitudes needed to build and maintain cooperative systems, resolve conflicts constructively, and adopt values promotive of peace" (Johnson & Johnson, 2005, p. 283). To foster enduring peace, groups must establish common goals, identify mutual benefits from achieving the goals, and develop a shared identity that assumes superior significance, ultimately transcending the interests of its individual members.

Cooperative Learning as the Foundation for Peace Education. The principles of peace education rest upon the foundation of cooperative learning—a pedagogical model in which faculty plan instructional experiences designed to foster positive interdependence among students. While remaining individually accountable for completing their portion of assigned tasks, learners promote one another's success through positive interaction in two-to-four-member groups. Exercising social and interpersonal skills, students periodically participate in group processing about the quality of their learning experiences (Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 2007, p. 27). As Johnson, Johnson, and Smith (2007) have observed, "Whenever two individuals interact, the potential for cooperation exists. Cooperation, however, will only develop under a certain set of conditions" (p. 23). An examination of the essential conditions for cooperative learning offers additional insights into peace education as a consensus-building model:

- **Positive Interdependence:** At the core of cooperative learning, positive interdependence provides a context in which "students work together in small groups to maximize the learning of all members, sharing their resources, providing mutual support, and celebrating their joint success" (Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 2007, p. 23). To engage in cooperative learning, students must believe that they are positively interdependent with their groupmates —that is, they must perceive that they either "sink or swim together" (Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 2007, p. 23).

- **Individual Accountability:** Instrumental to cooperative learning, individual accountability involves the assessment of each student's learning within a cooperative context. Accountable for actively contributing to the group's success, learners will ideally perform more strongly because of their cooperation with others.

- **Promotive Interaction:** When learners contribute to one another's completion of tasks while working to achieve the group's goals, promotive interaction occurs. To promote meaningful interaction, groups should range in size between two and four individuals who assist one another by sharing necessary information, raising critical questions about one another's logic and reasoning, as well as behaving in both a trustworthy and trusting manner. Throughout this symbiotic process, group members learn about one another both academically and personally.

- **Social Skills:** Interpersonal and small group interaction skills represent the fourth aspect of cooperative learning. As Johnson, Johnson, and Smith (2007) maintained, social skills encompassing "leadership, decision-making, trust-building, communication, and conflict-management" must be taught to students "just as purposefully and precisely as academic skills" (p. 24).

- **Group Processing:** By periodically reflecting on the group's performance and opportunities for improvement, participants engage in group processing, which culminates with the celebration of cooperative efforts and successes.

Given the aforementioned conditions, cooperative learning can occur. Though designed for classroom settings, cooperative learning provides a transferrable framework for small and large groups of higher educational faculty and administrators working together to solve complex problems.

By becoming both positively interdependent and individually accountable, professionals experience promotive interaction. In a cooperative work environment, moreover, they hone learned social skills that promote the success of the whole group. Through planned group processing, participants reflect together on the quality of their interactions, both searching for continual improvement and celebrating successes.

Cultural Transformation Through Cooperation. Johnson, Johnson, and Smith (2007) have reminded educators that a college education encompasses far more than academics alone; it also entails affective, social, and civic experiences. In addition to encouraging students to love learning, college should provide opportunities for them to differentiate sense from non-sense, feel pride in producing their best work, and continually endeavor to improve. Emphasizing the importance of self-care, college should teach students to adopt the habits of eating healthily, exercising regularly, and sleeping adequately. College should likewise facilitate learning opportunities through which students develop self-respect as well as respect for other human beings, thus contributing to their ability to fulfill assigned responsibilities effectively. Ideally, college students will discover "a meaningful purpose and direction in life, a desire to achieve, and a wish to contribute to making the world a better place" (Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 2007, p. 21). As Johnson, Johnson, and Smith (2007) opined, a college education should ultimately instill in students a passion for democracy, a respect for patriotism, and a commitment to becoming an engaged citizen—one who values the diverse peoples, cultures, and languages within a pluralistic society. To facilitate such transformative learning experiences, educators must exhibit the professional attitudes, dispositions, and behaviors that they expect from students. Indeed, faculty and administrators should ask no less of themselves than they do of their students. If faculty expect students to engage in courteous class discussions, they must exercise civil discourse during shared governance deliberations with one another and their administrative colleagues. If administrators desire respect from faculty, they must give it to faculty. Commonly attributed to Mahatma Gandhi, India's renowned leader of civil disobedience, the aphorism "Be the change you want to see in the world" impels educators to lead through professional example. Nowhere is this reflective practice more important than in an organization whose mission is to teach, research, and serve. By adopting the principles of cooperative learning and teaching them to students, faculty—and the administrators who support them—can contribute to a campus culture where cooperation becomes the transformative norm.

Social Interdependence: An Integral Component of Cooperative Learning. Integral to cooperative learning is the concept of social interdependence, which, as originally explained by Deutsch (1949, 1962), exists when the actions of individuals influence others' abilities to accomplish their stated goals. Johnson, Johnson, and Smith (2007, pp. 16-17) explicated the three forms of social interdependence thusly:

- **Positive Interdependence (or Cooperation):** Tantamount to cooperation, positive interdependence exists when individuals perceive that they can achieve their goals only if fellow group members also attain theirs. Positively interdependent individuals promote one another's efforts at producing desired outcomes.

- **Negative Interdependence (or Competition):** Evoking competition, negative interdependence occurs when individuals believe that they can accomplish their goals only if their competitors fail to fulfill their own. Negatively interdependent individuals attempt to interfere with one another's efforts to produce intended outcomes.

- **No Interdependence (or Individualism):** With a lack of interdependence, individuals feel that they can obtain their goals regardless of whether others in the same setting reach theirs. Such persons act independently of the broader organizational context.

After reviewing 305 comparative studies about the efficacy of cooperative, competitive, and individualistic learning in college and other professional settings, Johnson, Johnson, and Smith (2007) concluded that cooperation benefits learners in terms of higher achievement, longer retention of learning, increased application of critical and meta-cognitive thinking, heightened creative problem-solving skills, demonstrably higher grit, enhanced intrinsic motivation, greater knowledge transfer, and sustained time on task (p. 19). Additionally, when compared with competition and individualism, cooperation better enables students to cultivate "intellectual membership" in their college or university (p. 19). Citing Tinto (1993), Johnson, Johnson, and Smith (2007) further noted that cooperation contributes to students' "social membership in college" (p. 20).

Because of its well-documented effectiveness, cooperative learning should extend beyond the college classroom to the campus culture, transforming it into a cooperative community—one peopled with students and professionals whose shared values and goals contribute to attitudinal and behavioral expectations that enrich the quality of collegiate life. By contrast, academic communities often falter in competitive environments where individuals prioritize the pursuit of their own success at the sacrifice of others' accomplishments. Academic communities also flounder in an individualistic environment where constituents consider their self-interests without regard for others' needs. To work cooperatively is to cultivate mutual values, manifested in a commitment to the common good and to the well-being of all peoples. Responsibly contributing to the group's charter while respecting others' efforts, students and professionals within a cooperative community develop a collective identity.

Teaching Students to Resolve Conflicts Through Constructive Controversy. The pedagogical practice of cooperative learning metamorphoses competitive and individualistic campus cultures into cooperative ones that cultivate constructive controversies. Alternately defined as a "dispute, especially a public one, between sides holding opposing views" and as a rhetorical "act or practice of engaging in such disputes" (*The American Heritage Dictionary*, 2020), *controversy* may be addressed either "constructively" or "destructively" (Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 2007, p. 25). The disputants' ability to manage the controversy, in addition to their interpersonal and social skills, determines its outcome. An essential competency of cooperative learning, constructive controversy enables students to address conflicts productively. By exposing the political disagreements intrinsic within democracy, constructive controversy, as an instructional methodology, challenges students with differing "information, perceptions, opinions, reasoning processes, theories, and conclusions" to achieve agreement (Johnson & Johnson, 2005, p. 287; Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 2007, pp. 25-26). When employing constructive controversy, the teacher randomly assigns students to heterogeneous groups of four members. The teacher then divides each four-member student group into two pairs who receive a controversial topic about which they must successfully write and test. In this cooperative learning activity, one pair analyzes the pro side of the issue, the other pair the con side. Composed of the two dyads, the four-member group shares the mutual goal of reaching consensus about the topic by integrating the best thinking from both sides, co-writing a group report, and promoting the success of each member on an individual test.

Students engaged in constructive controversy complete the following learning activities (Johnson & Johnson, 2005, p. 287; Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 2007, p. 25):

- Researching information about their assigned position before preparing a convincing presentation about it
- Presenting and advocating for the position
- Engaging in open and spirited debate about the relative merits of the two opposing views
- Reversing perspectives to defend the best reasons for the other position
- Synthesizing the most compelling argument that emerges from the logic, reasoning, and evidence presented

During the synthesizing stage of constructive controversy, students no longer advocate for their respective positions; instead, they endeavor to integrate the various arguments into a novel position with which all members can agree (Johnson & Johnson, 2005, p. 287). Upon achieving consensus, the students work together to write a persuasive group report of their synthesized stance and then test on their understanding of the competing positions. Guided by the teacher, students next participate in group processing about both the effective and ineffective aspects of their interactions (Johnson & Johnson, 2005, p. 287). With the goal of continuously improving as a group, students celebrate their achievements through gestures of high-fives and explosive fist bumps, accompanied by words like "Congratulations!" and "Well-done!" When engaged in constructive controversy, students develop the research and rhetorical as well as social and interpersonal skills conducive to successful conflict resolution. Informed by this instructional methodology, educators might next examine the principles of integrative negotiation and mediation to resolve conflicts and build consensus on their campuses.

Fostering Peace Education Through Integrative Negotiation and Peer Mediation. Whether intentionally designed through constructive controversy or organically arising during group discussion, disagreements occasionally erupt in classroom settings. Disputes also emerge in many other areas of a college or university: the student government association, faculty disciplinary groups, the faculty senate, the curriculum committee, the faculty union, the deans' council, the president's cabinet, and the board of trustees, all provide fertile ground for conflicts of interest to develop. Reflecting on the geo-political tensions prevalent within many countries' school systems, Johnson and Johnson (2005) advocated for the need to institutionalize consensual peace through cooperative learning. "If peace is to last," however, "individuals must learn how to resolve conflicts constructively" (Johnson & Johnson, 2005, p. 288). By practicing the cooperative learning methodology of integrative negotiation and mediation, educators can foster a peaceful teaching, learning, and work environment. Unlike a distributive or win-lose negotiation in which one party succeeds only if the other fails, an integrative or problem-solving one involves a cooperatively constructed agreement from which all parties benefit (Johnson & Johnson, 2005, p. 288). Students engaged in integrative negotiation describe their desired outcomes and feelings as well as the reasons for said outcomes and feelings (Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 2007, p. 26). Next, the students hypothetically assume the opposing view and verbally summarize an understanding of the other party's expressed outcomes, feelings, and reasons. During an integrative negotiation, furthermore, students invent three options intended to amplify the benefits to both sides. In the final phase of this learning activity, student stakeholders choose the most mutually satisfactory of the options and then formalize the agreement by shaking hands (Johnson & Johnson, 2005, p. 288). Not only do the

students learn to address controversy constructively through this instructor-guided exercise, but they also contribute meaningfully to the growth of a cooperative campus culture.

Despite their best efforts, student stakeholders may not achieve agreement through the cooperative learning methodology of integrative negotiation. The instructor, therefore, may opt to guide students in a peer mediation session during which other group members mediate between the opposing parties. A neutral party who assists two or more individuals with resolving a conflict, a mediator facilitates the following four-step process to negotiate an integrative agreement:

- Working to resolve any hostilities between the parties
- Endeavoring to ensure that the participants feel committed to the process of mediation
- Assisting the opposing parties with successfully negotiating together
- Developing a contract based upon the agreement

Ideally, in situations when integrative negotiation does not produce consensual agreement, peer mediation will enable the opposing parties to resolve their conflicts (Johnson & Johnson, 2007, p. 26). As core competencies within the cooperative learning framework, integrative negotiation and peer mediation facilitate peace education among college students while complementing the guiding principles of interest-based bargaining—another pivotal practice for enhancing campus relationships.

Interest-Based Bargaining as a Model for Strengthening Campus Relationships

Positional Versus Interest-Based Bargaining. An alternative to traditional bargaining between labor and management parties, interest-based bargaining represents a collaborative problem-solving model for deliberative democracy among shared governance bodies in higher educational settings. When juxtaposed with the practices of traditional bargaining, interchangeably referred to as positional or collective bargaining, the benefits of interest-based dialogues become clear. Although negotiations between laborers and managers have occurred for centuries, deplorable work conditions during the Industrial Revolution in England and the United States catalyzed the rapid formation of new labor unions (Williams & Peters, 2018, p. 87). In a traditional bargaining session between union leaders and industry managers, the opposing parties present their positions via a series of "proposals, counter-proposals, demands, and counter-demands" (Williams & Peters, 2018, p. 88). Such a session typically consists of four stages: pre-negotiation, negotiation, ratification of an agreement, and implementation. As Williams and Peters (2018) observed, though, this process can become "adversarial" when "a high degree of animosity and antagonism" exists between labor and management with opposing views (p. 88). Whereas management typically seeks the greatest amount of time and effort from its labor force at the lowest costs, labor unions understandably desire the most favorable work conditions and the highest compensation for constituents. Unfortunately, positional bargaining frequently becomes a battle of wills as the opposing parties encounter seemingly irreconcilable differences that deteriorate into positional impasses.

Interests as Fundamental Human Needs. Through the Harvard Negotiation Project (2021), which endeavors to advance "the theory and practice of conflict resolution and negotiation," Fisher, Ury, and Patton (2011) originally proposed interest-based bargaining as "an alternative to positional

bargaining" (p. 11). With the goal of "produc[ing] wise outcomes efficiently and amicably," the model encompasses four primary elements:

- **People:** Separating the people from the problem
- **Interests:** Concentrating on interests, not positions
- **Options:** Inventing multiple options and searching for mutual gains before decision-making
- **Criteria:** Establishing an objective standard for the results (Fisher, Ury, & Patton, 2011, pp. 11, 13)

Contrasted with positional bargaining, this approach emphasizes participants' fundamental interests, the identification of mutually beneficial options, and equitable standards that facilitate a satisfactory agreement (Fisher, Ury, & Patton, 2011, pp. 14-15). Interest-based bargaining, unlike traditional bargaining, requires negotiators to think and act as members of one team that must balance the interests of the individual constituents with those of the overall organization (Williams & Peters, 2018, pp. 88, 94). At the crux of interest-based bargaining resides the aforementioned notion of interests—that is, the foundational values, needs, and motives held by individuals and organizations. Hurley et al. (2020) concurred that stakeholders' interests constitute "the heart of every negotiation." To illustrate, faculty union members negotiating for a contract with reduced workload hours and a higher salary clearly exhibit an interest in remuneration. The faculty's monetary interest, however, represents underlying interests in financial security and well-being. As Fisher, Ury, and Patton (2011) contended, "The most powerful interests are basic human needs," which, in addition to the peace of mind provided by a steady paycheck, include a sense of belonging, recognition for one's achievements, and self-control (p. 50). These elemental needs embody "the bedrock concerns that motivate all people" as well as diverse groups and nations (Fisher, Ury, & Patton, 2011, pp. 50-51). When negotiating parties explore the primary value or motivation that an interest in, say, money signifies, they become more likely to identify satisfactory options for resolving the issue (Cronin-Harris, 2004). Upon recognizing that "shared interests lie latent in every negotiation" (Fisher, Ury, & Patton, 2011, p. 74), negotiators learn to search for common ground that leads to mutually beneficial agreements. Answers to such questions as "Do we have a shared interest in preserving our relationship?" and "What costs would we bear if negotiations broke off?" galvanize the quest for negotiated consensus (Fisher, Ury, & Patton, 2011, p. 74).

A Multifaceted, Collaborative Process. A multifaceted, collaborative process, interest-based bargaining consists of six major steps. In step one, participants describe the problem and identify the issues, asking themselves questions like "What is not working in the current situation?" and "What is causing the difficulties?" At this stage, participants seek mutual understanding, not agreement ("Improve Campus Relationships," 2009). During step two, the bargaining team identifies the various stakeholders and their interests, posing such questions as "Why is the problem important?" "Whom does the problem harm?" and "Who will benefit from a solution to the problem?" ("Improve Campus Relationships," 2009). Imperative to the success of interest-based bargaining is stakeholder engagement: to maintain a stake in the decision's outcome, individuals must necessarily engage in the decision-making. If "not involved in the process," constituents are unlikely to "approve the product" (Fisher, Ury, & Patton, 2011, p. 29). To this point, Gardner (2017) cautioned against the appropriation of the phrase "faculty buy-in," which commodifies shared governance as a process

through which administrators sell ideas like after-market products to faculty. By intentionally engaging faculty in dialogue, step two of interest-based bargaining mitigates against the flawed construct of faculty buy-in. Throughout this stage of the process, participants carefully plan fact-finding inquiries, asking questions and endeavoring to understand the other party's perspective about various interests and priorities (Cronin-Harris, 2004). In addition to conducting a planning analysis of the other side's interests, negotiators obtain new data while reciprocally sharing information, which facilitates the ranking and prioritizing of identified problems (Cronin-Harris, 2004). Next, in step three of the process, participants create options by brainstorming as many potential solutions to the problems as possible. Withholding judgment and criticism throughout this stage, stakeholders continue to foster a common understanding as opposed to pursuing an agreement ("Improve Campus Relationships," 2009).

During the pivotal fourth step of interest-based bargaining, participants evaluate the proposed options based on the parties' stated needs ("Improve Campus Relationships," 2009). Stakeholders, moreover, may consider developing a formula, rubric, or matrix for the evaluation, although the instrument itself may need to undergo consensus-building (Cronin-Harris, 2004). Next, in the fifth stage, stakeholders clarify the options, eliminate duplicative recommendations, and group related solutions together, modifying some as appropriate ("Improve Campus Relationships," 2009). Having engaged in the evaluative process, participants then choose the most effective solution during the sixth step. To signal their votes, they may use thumb gestures, with a thumb-up indicating "I support," a thumb sideways communicating "I can live with the idea," and a thumb down expressing "I do not support" ("Improve Campus Relationships," 2009). The stakeholders then develop a written plan, which may include contractual language, timelines, roles and responsibilities, follow-up conversations and actions, as well as communications with other stakeholder groups ("Improve Campus Relationships," 2009). By promoting transparent and candid dialogue, interest-based bargaining illustrates a consensus-building approach that can enhance campus relationships far beyond the negotiation table.

Working as collaborators and partners, not as "yes votes in waiting," stakeholders develop relational trust—the quintessential element for achieving a mutually beneficial agreement ("Improve Campus Relationships," 2009; Gardner, 2017). Fisher, Ury, and Patton (2011) have encouraged individuals to develop "a personal and organizational relationship with the other side," thereby shielding themselves from the "knocks of negotiations" (p. 39). Gardner (2017) similarly recommended that members of the college community cultivate a collegial rapport with one another during "good times" so that as divisive issues arise, mutual trust will facilitate a positive resolution. When the campus relationships that unite participants become stronger than the bargaining issues that divide them, successful negotiations prevail. Though designed for labor and management negotiations, the multi-faceted, collaborative process of interest-based bargaining can positively influence efforts to resolve conflicts and build consensus in various shared governance settings. From curriculum committee convenings to faculty senate deliberations, interest-based bargaining provides a potential pathway to "yes" on college and university campuses.

Conclusion

Inherent to the human condition, conflict inevitably occurs within families, organizations, and communities. Americans need only reflect on the tragic death of George Floyd in May 2020 or the ongoing humanitarian crisis in Honduras to conclude that unresolved conflict can exact life-or-death consequences. As the biblical parable of the two warring women poignantly illustrates, dividing the baby in half does not offer a reasonable and ethical response to the presenting conflict. Whether large

or small, conflicts necessitate fair-minded management and rational resolutions. U.S. colleges and universities, as microcosms of a pluralistic society, provide unique organizational forums for engaging diverse stakeholders in deliberative democracy—a practice that, when coupled with shared governance, seeks to foster mutual understandings and peaceful agreements. Entrusted with serving the public good, post-secondary educators must answer to a higher calling by intentionally cultivating a collaborative community in which diversity, equity, and inclusivity flourish. In addition to teaching academic knowledge and cognitive skills, faculty should educate students about the advanced leadership competencies of conflict resolution and consensus building. To do so, faculty—and the administrators who support them—must themselves learn and model these competencies. Informed by cooperative learning, peace education embodies a pedagogical framework for engaging faculty, administrators, and students alike in constructive controversies, integrative negotiations, and peer mediations designed to resolve conflict. With its origins in labor and management negotiations, interest-based bargaining provides a complementary strategy for facilitating mutually beneficial agreements amid deeply divisive views. When combined, such practices become the tools for building cooperative communities founded upon shared trust. At this crucible moment in contemporary society, college educators and their students must embrace the pedagogies of peace to transform conflict into consensus.

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Critical Competencies for Effective Global Leadership

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firs
t step is not action: the first step is understanding" (p. xiv). An acknowledgement of this foundational principle appears to be missing in much of the applied research and practice regarding ways in which individuals and organizations can best prepare themselves for the complexities of global leadership. Too often, we find ourselves focused on the mechanics of designing global simulations, formulating international assignments, creating global task forces, and delivering language training, while giving short shrift to an understanding of what makes an effective global leader and why effective global leadership matters (Caligiuri & Dragoni, 2014). This paper is intended to encourage a thoughtful examination of complexity of leadership in a global context by exploring the ways in which various cultures' values and moral foundations affect how leadership is viewed and effectively practiced.

To begin to understand the global context to leadership, one must acknowledge that this involves multiple elements, including the relationship between the leader and his/her followers, the goal that guides and provides purpose to that relationship, the environmental or organizational context where that relationship takes place, and finally the cultural influences that contextualize certain behaviors (McManus & Perruci, 2015). Assimilating the complexity, cultural nuances, and contextual applications of effective leadership practice can allow the individual to develop themselves and others while contributing to the greater good of one's organization and broader society. In doing so, the individual leader has the potential to acquire the self-awareness and mindfulness essential to developing their whole selves.

The elements that begin to distinguish global-capable leaders include the ability to establish and build teams that encourage diversity of thought and leverage cultural differences and to insure that those cultural differences do not negatively influence the effectiveness of the team or larger organization (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004).

Having acknowledged the need for understanding the contextual aspects of applied leadership, it begs the question of how one defines effective leaders, a subject that has been extensively researched for quite some time. Bennis (1989, p. 259) wrote "Always, it seems, the concept of leadership eludes us or turns up in another form to taunt us again with its slipperiness and complexity. So we have invented an endless proliferation of terms to deal with it…and still the concept is not sufficiently defined." Some years later, another of the twentieth-century's leading scholars on the subject, stated that "Leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth" (Burns, 1978, p.2).

What Makes an Effective Global Leader?

In general terms, effective global leadership requires an individual to possess certain attitudes, learned behaviors, and experience that can only be acquired through exposing oneself to different and oftentimes challenging situations. Global leaders must have a certain degree of intellectual intelligence involving both business acumen and the skills to be able to cognitively process complex

and paradoxical problems, and emotional intelligence, which is comprised of cultural self-awareness, cross-cultural adaptability, and cross-cultural understanding and effectiveness (Rhinesmith, 2003). Together, these forms of intelligence equip global leaders with a high level of cognitive ability to process sometimes unfamiliar and frequently contradictory sources of information and make effective decisions.

Black & Gregersen (1999) approached the question of effectiveness from a qualitative perspective, identifying several personal characteristics that these leaders must possess. Global leaders need a strong sense of inquisitiveness as reflected by a love of learning, being intrigued by diversity, having a desire to seek out people different than oneself rather than those that make us feel comfortable, along with possessing a mindset that questions rather than confirms that which we think we already know. Another characteristic is the ability to embrace duality wherein uncertainty is viewed as invigorating and a natural dimension to global business, wherein one acts as opposed to hesitating when confronted with ambiguous, complex and rapidly changing situations.

And finally, global leaders must possess a strong character that enables the leader to connect emotionally with different cultures in establishing and reinforcing trustworthiness, by consistently demonstrating a high degree of personal integrity across a diversity of ethical conflicts (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012). A strong and consistent reputation for acting with integrity can serve to help influence the views of followers, while those lacking in integrity will fail to earn the respect they require from stakeholders within and outside their organizations.

Global leaders must also find a balance between resilience and humility. Here we define resilience as that combination of optimism and persistence that is necessary to move forward despite adversity, coupled with the hardiness required to cope with the inevitable stresses inherent in global relationships. Humility, the antithesis of arrogance and ethnocentrism, is an equally important quality for global managers to possess if they are to allow themselves to be open to learning from other cultures (Pauleen, Rooney, & Holden, 2010).

A review of the empirical research conducted over the past two decades reveals over 160 separate and specific competencies associated with global leadership effectiveness (Grundling, Hogan, & Cvitkovich, 2011). These competencies can be grouped into three major categories: characteristics of personality, attitude, and self; behavioral skills related to relationship building and cross-cultural connectivity; and cognitive and organizational acumen.

With respect to characteristics of personality, attitude, and self, global leaders tend to be resilient, possess strong elements of character, are naturally inquisitive, flexible and pre-disposed towards having a more cosmopolitan mindset. Resilience speaks to the leader's ability to process complex challenges across different cultural, political and regulatory systems in a confident manner that minimizes stress, is resourceful, and naturally optimistic by nature (Jenkins, 2012).

Given the inherent ambiguity and stresses associated with global business, leaders in such an environment require a higher than average sense of self-identity and core values, integrity, and maturity in order to deal with a broad set of ethical decisions, as well as a healthy degree of inquisitiveness, manifested by innate curiosity, an openness to learning, and a confident humility that is not threatened by and is open to being taught by others (Black & Gregerson, 1999). Finally, global leaders must have an inherent interest in and knowledge of the broader world, coupled with the cognitive ability to approach highly contextualized cultural, social, and political environments effectively (Miska, Stahl, & Mendenhall, 2013).

The second major category of global competencies involves those behavioral skills related to relationship-building and cross-cultural connectivity, which is essentially the ability to manage people and interpersonal relationships. A critical element of this ability is a respect for, and understanding of people as individuals and for their differences. Implicit in creating and maintaining

these relationships is an acknowledgement that they are fundamentally trust-based. Competency in interpersonal skills requires both emotional intelligence, which involves a healthy sense of self awareness and sensitivity to others, and the ability to influence followers towards a goal. Finally, global leaders require a high degree of competency in cross-cultural communication, which draws on an awareness of the contextual, cultural and individual differences in the way messages are coded, transmitted and interpreted (Muenjohn, 2011).

The third and final core competency of effective global leadership speaks to organizational acumen, which is founded on possessing a practical understanding of one's internal and external environments, and using that knowledge to accomplish objectives efficiently and effectively. This entails the ability to assess the complexity of these environments in a way the balances the tactical and strategic aspects of any decision, inclusive of understanding their interdependencies (Bird & Osland, 2004).

Developing a globally-oriented strategic mindset requires leaders who possess, or acquire over time, the intellectual capital to grasp the complexities of global business and associated risks of having operations in different parts of the world, along with the cognitive capacity to connect complex elements in alignment to the organization's strategy. Global leaders further possess an interest in other cultures and socio-economic and political systems, and the mental flexibility, openness and respect for different and diverse perspectives and values. Finally, these leaders project the ability to build consensus and influence through authentic, trust-based interactions and are able to do so in a diplomatic manner (Javidan, Hough, & Bullough, 2010).

The Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the complexity of leadership in a global context by exploring the ways in which cultural values and moral foundations affect how leadership is viewed and effectively practiced. The study focused on three groups of predictive variables of global leadership: characteristics of personality, attitude, and self; behavioral skills related to relationship building and cross-cultural connectivity; and cognitive and organizational acumen, along with the demographics of the respondents, to identify any significant relationships between the variables. These were analyzed from the data derived from a survey that measured the relevance of these variables based upon the individual respondent's regional background.

The target population for this study was 192 senior higher education leaders operating in six major regions of the world (Asia, Europe, India, Latin America, the Middle East/Africa, and North America). These individuals were solicited based upon their positions within the major academic administration functions and were identified from country-specific college and university institutional databases.

Findings

Of the 192 senior higher education leaders who received invitations to participate in the study, 92 (48%) responded. Responses were strongest from Europe at 27%, followed by India and Latin America at 16% each. The responses from North America (12%), Asia (11%), and the Middle East/Africa (10%) were roughly equal.

Functional affiliation was led by Academic Affairs at 33%, Student Affairs at 21%, Finance & Administration at 16%, Admissions & Financial Services at 12%, followed by Enrollment Management and Development and the years of experience the respondents had worked in their functional area was heavily weighted towards 16+ years.

Table 1. Geographic Distribution of Respondents (n=92)

	n	%
Asia	11	12.0
Europe	27	29.0
India	16	17.0
Latin America	16	17.0
Middle East/Africa	10	12.0
North America	12	13.0

Table 2. Functional Affiliation of Respondents (n=92)

	n	%
Academic Affairs	30	33.0
Admissions & Financial Services	11	12.0
Development	8	5.0
Enrollment Management	9	5.0
Finance & Administration	15	16.0
Student Affairs	19	21.0

Table 3. Years of Regional Experience of Respondents (n=92)

	n	%
0 – 5 Years	0	0.0
6 – 10 Years	8	9.0
11 – 15 Years	8	9.0
16 – 20 Years	20	22.0
20+ Years	56	60.0

The survey then asked about the most important challenges facing global higher education leaders, with a significant number of respondents (59%) citing managing change as the leading issue, followed by building coalitions (22%), and managing diversity (13%). Cross-cultural communication and defining roles within organizations were minimally reported.

The study measured three groups of predictive variables of global leadership by region of the world: characteristics of personality, attitude, and self; behavioral skills related to relationship building and cross-cultural connectivity; and cognitive and organizational acumen. The highest rated competencies in Asia, Europe, India and the Middle East/Africa were correlated to behavioral skills related to relationship building and cross-cultural connectivity. The respondents from Latin America and North America rated those competencies associated with personality, attitude, and self the highest. Cognitive and organizational acumen was the next highest rated competency group in the Middle East/Africa region, but was otherwise not given high priority throughout the other regions.

Table 4. Global Leadership Challenges (n=92)

	n	%
Managing Change	54	59.0
Building Coalitions	20	22.0
Managing Diversity	12	13.0
Cross-Cultural Communication	4	4.0
Defining Roles	2	2.0

Table 5. Leadership Competencies by Region

	Personality		Behavioral		Cognitive	
	M	sd	M	sd	M	sd
Asia	3.33	.30	3.60	.69	3.07	.80
Europe	3.71	.63	3.83	.61	3.63	.78
India	3.95	.60	3.95	.56	3.75	.78
Latin America	3.95	.69	3.90	.51	3.40	.54
Middle East/Africa	3.70	.53	4.10	.32	3.90	.11
North America	3.87	.56	3.67	.64	3.53	.77

An analysis of variance (ANOVA), performed in order to determine if there was a statistically significant difference between the means of the regions, found significance when comparing the means for the personality and cognitive related competencies between the six regions.

Table 6. ANOVA of the Leadership Competencies by Region

	Sum of Squares	*df*	Mean Square	*f*	Sig
Personality	3.33	.30	3.60	.69	3.07
Behavioral	3.71	.63	3.83	.61	3.63
Cognitive	3.95	.60	3.95	.56	3.75

The study asked the respondents to then comment on the primary focus of leadership in their region of the world. Respondents in Asia emphasized that the primary focus of leadership is to motivate followers to higher levels of morality and collective purpose, and also stressed that leadership is most effective when it is subtle without appearing controlling. The European respondents gave high ratings to leadership that is guided by broader societal values and by their organization's strategic objectives.

Respondents from Latin America reported that effective leaders emphasize achieving results through charisma and by building personal relationships, while the Middle East/Africa respondents stated that an integral responsibility of every leader is to contribute to a more just society. Finally, the respondents from North America emphasized that the focus of leadership is more individually based and is derived from, and earned based upon a competitive meritocracy.

Implications

The study drew from the responses to a survey of senior higher education leaders drawn from six regions of the world, representing a diverse set of institutional affiliations. Of note, the level of experience of the respondents was extensive, theoretically contributing to a more well-informed understanding and assessment of critical leadership competencies.

One of the issues this research sought to examine pertained to what challenges senior higher education leaders were facing and how those issues might relate to regional or global influences. Managing change was rated the highest concern by 59% of the respondents, with building coalitions significant, but nevertheless a distant second at 22%, managing diversity cited by 13%, followed by cross-cultural communication (4.0%) and defining roles (2.0%).

Change management (59%) is a critical challenge for global leaders, given certain interpretations in the way different culture perceive and deal with change. Cultures with a preference for structure and order tend to be less comfortable with ambiguity and risk and may be more resistant to change, while other cultures may recognize change as an important cultural value to be accepted (Belias & Koustelios, 2014).

While certain cultures first focus on changing the attitudes of key stakeholders and then follow by realigning the organizational structure to fit the changed perceptions, others take the exact opposite approach by beginning with changes to the organizational structure in the hope that it will eventually encourage changes in the stakeholder's behavior and processes (Van Hove, 2012). In order to effectively manage change, global higher education leaders are well advised to develop visions with expectations that are clear and linked to organizational goals, communicate the change in a manner that is easily understood and reinforced, is founded on a previously established community of trust, and engage stakeholders at all levels of the organization to drive the initiative.

Table 7. Primary Focus of Leadership (Mean/Standard Deviation)

	Asia	Europe	India	Latin America	Middle East / Africa	North America
Morality & Collective Purpose	4.67 .49	4.00 .94	3.75 1.13	4.25 1.34	4.50 .53	3.67 1.30
Relationship Building	3.67 1.30	3.86 1.38	4.00 1.03	4.50 .52	3.50 1.60	3.67 1.30
Competitive Meritocracy	2.33 .49	3.00 .54	3.50 .89	3.75 1.13	2.50 .53	4.00 .85
Subtle Without Controlling	4.67 .49	3.57 1.07	2.50 .89	3.00 .73	2.50 1.60	2.67 .49
Societal Values & Strategy	3.00 1.48	4.00 .77	2.50 1.15	3.75 .86	3.50 .53	2.67 .49
Contribute to a Just Society	2.33 1.30	3.43 .92	3.00 1.26	3.75 .86	5.00 .00	2.00 .85

Global-capable leaders establish and build coalitions (22%) that are differentiated from their domestic counterparts in the diversity of their composition and in their distribution. The diversity of such teams can often bring the potential for higher levels of creativity, innovation, and overall

performance. Managing diverse and distributed teams can be challenging, given cultural differences and expectations regarding roles, decision making processes, and communication (Nica, 2013).

Managing diversity (13%) reflects, in many respects, on the inherent complexity of the breadth of issues global leaders must address. These leaders must deal with a far greater degree of ambiguity in managing across cross-cultural norms and differences (Lane, Maznevski, Mendenhall, & McNett, 2004). Through these intercultural experiences, leaders' prior opinions and convictions are altered as they realize a lessening of what they previously believed to be certain and an acknowledgment of that which is yet to be discovered (Steers, Sanchez-Runde, & Nardon, 2012).

Intercultural competence involves a process that often starts from an ethnocentric perspective that is transformed over time by acquiring the ability to empathize with others, communicate across cultural boundaries, and adapt one's frame of reference in aligning to the behavior of others (Bennett, 2009). It involves the ability to establish interpersonal relationships, communicate effectively, and manage ambiguity in dealing with different social systems (Paige, 1993).

Another aspect of intercultural competence involves having a sense of mindfulness in thinking in new ways and being open to different perspectives. By being aware of, and considerate of, our internal assumptions and cognitions, global leaders not only better understand themselves, but are better able to see things through the eyes of others (Thomas, 2015). Intercultural competence does not develop overnight, but rather through a series of transformational experiences that allows one to internalize the values and perceptions of other cultures, and become imbedded through a strong personal motivation to learn and adapt (Hassanzadeh, Silong, Asmuni, & Wahat 2015).

Managing differences in cross-cultural communication (4.0%), and the manner in which conflicts are resolved, is another major challenge for global leaders (Nishii & Özbilgin, 2007). In Latin American culture, it is entirely acceptable for team members to express themselves, even at the same time as others, and with open expression while in Asian culture, doing so would be interpreted as disrespectful; the same can be said for most cultures, where expressions of excessive emotion or opinion are generally discouraged. More collective cultures tend to be more sensitive towards the affective influence of team members to each other than found in (more individualistic) Western culture.

With respect to conflict resolution, certain cultures demonstrate respect for each other by expressing disagreement indirectly, while in other cultures, the exact opposite values encourage direct conflict engagement as a normal behavior (Illies et al., 2007). Given these varying norms of acceptable team communication and conflict resolution, effective global leaders must be particularly sensitive to take these cross-cultural differences into consideration.

The definition of roles (2.0%) can differ depending on the hierarchical nature of a given culture. For example, Indian, Latin American, and elements of Asian cultures tend to be more hierarchical, and as such teams in those regions typically have a single leader with full decision-making authority. Other, more collective cultures within Asia tend to define roles with greater flexibility, with individuals contributing in different ways towards a more distributed form of team accountability.

Certain European segments of Western culture assume that the leadership of teams should be shared, with different individuals taking the lead based upon the tasks at hand, while the more individualistic American segment typically defines task-specific roles so as to identify individual areas of responsibility (Illies, Wagner, & Moregson, 2007).

This study sought to measure three groups of leadership competencies by region of the world: characteristics of personality, attitude, and self; behavioral skills related to relationship building and cross-cultural connectivity; and cognitive and organizational acumen. The highest rated competencies in Asia, Europe, India and the Middle East/Africa were correlated to behavioral skills related to

relationship building and cross-cultural connectivity; respondents in Latin America and North America rated those competencies associated with personality, attitude, and self the highest.

An analysis of variance (ANOVA), determined that there was a statistically significant difference between the personality and cognitive related competency's means between the regions. The inference is that while the manifestation of these leadership-related competencies differs around the world, those competencies associated with behavioral skills related to relationship building and cross-cultural connectivity appear to be more universal.

Respondents in Asia emphasized that leadership serves to motivate followers to higher levels of morality and collective purpose, and stressed that leadership is most effective when it is subtle without appearing controlling. The European respondents gave high ratings to leadership that is guided by broader societal values and by organizational strategy. Respondents from Latin America emphasized the importance of achieving results through charisma and relationship building, while the Middle East/Africa respondents gave priority to the responsibility of leaders to contribute to a more just society. Finally, the respondents from North America emphasized that leadership is derived from and earned based upon a competitive meritocracy.

Leadership in Asian culture is challenging to capture in a single definition, given the significant cultural and political differences found throughout the region. Still, certain universal tenets of leadership philosophy are found throughout many Asian cultures. These include an understanding that every person in a society exists to function in a specific role, and that societal order is sought and valued. This perspective was reflected in the significant response (4.67) that leadership exists to motivate followers to higher levels of morality and collective purpose. Inherent in the underlying leader-follower relationships are a reverence for dignity, respect and humility, and an appreciation for the sagacity and wisdom one hopefully develops with age (Low, 2012).

Through experience, Asian leaders draw intuition on how to act through assessing the contextual environment. From a Western perspective, Asian leadership can appear to be subtle in that it strives to be effective without being overtly forceful or controlling, as reflected in the highest mean (4.67) for this variable of any of the regions in the survey. Finally, leaders are expected to place followers and the common good above their personal aspirations (Heller, 2012), as reflected in the rating (3.60) applied to behavioral skills related to relationship building and cross-cultural connectivity.

While challenging to define European leadership in one paragraph, given the various cultural influences that exist across the continent (size, degree of collectivism, socio-political system, east-west influence, etc.), most of these leaders are guided by broader societal values and an appreciation for the social contract that exists within the workplace. In addition, as a result of such constructs as the European Union, it is understandable that these leaders have adopted a greater sense for the interrelatedness of economies and cultures (Hofstede, 2001). These influences were reflected in the response to the importance of societal values and organizational strategy (4.00) and in the response (3.87) related to leadership competencies, with behavioral skills related to relationship building and cross-cultural connectivity.

India may hold the distinction of being the most diverse country in the world in terms of its social, economic, cultural, and linguistic dimensions. With respect to leadership philosophy, Indian leaders combine foreign ideas with historical values of interconnectedness, the leader as teacher and role model - as reflected in one of the higher means (4.00) for behavioral skills related to relationship building and cross-cultural connectivity - and an enlightened moral foundation (Cappelli, Singh, & Useem, 2014). Indian leaders place special emphasis on the broader mission of their organizations by focusing on social purpose, values, and strategic thinking. Driven by a desire to be creative in developing their organizations' value propositions, these leaders place priority on sustaining holistic employee development and in nurturing organizational culture (Wilson & Van Velsor, 2011).

Leadership in Latin American culture has been defined as *personalismo*, or the ability to persuade others through certain attributes and personal relationships. Leaders lead because they possess these qualities, most notably through a bold style combined with charisma. Followers are expected to recognize and respect their leaders through acts of loyalty and devotion and in that sense, the leader-follower relationship can be viewed as an extension of another foundational value in Latin America, that of family (Northouse, 2015). Latin American leaders ascend based upon personal qualities, achieve results through personal relationships, value order and hierarchy, inspire the loyalty and commitment of their followers, and define the moral dimensions of leadership as derived from a Judeo-Christian framework (Castano, de Luque, & Wernsing, 2015). These values were reflected in the highest mean of any region (4.50) when assessing the importance of charisma in building relationships, and for high ratings for leadership competencies related to personality, attitude, and self (3.95).

In Islamic culture, faith, politics, and society are inseparable. Whereas Western society views leadership as something to be pursued and attained in order to benefit one's self, Muslims generally hold that leadership exists to benefit the greater good. From this foundational principle, Islamic leaders are expected to follow the teachings of Islam, place value on the communities in which they lead, give priority to leading in a just manner, and to understand that they are entrusted to care for their followers in a reciprocal form of a leader-servant relationship (Ali, 2012). This trust is bestowed to the leader by his or her followers in order that they together may achieve a common goal.

In one sense, Islamic leadership philosophy is similar to secular transformational leadership theory except that the aspirational focus is to motivate the group to higher levels of morality and purpose, while encouraging each other to become better Muslims (Toor, 2008). In broader terms, the Islamic leader's responsibility is to help create a just society. This focus on the responsibility of leaders to contribute to a more just society was reflected in the highest mean (5.00) of any of the responses in the survey.

The study also asked the respondents to comment on the primary focus of leadership in their region of the world. Leadership in North American culture is noted for its focus on individualism and expression. The leader is viewed as an individual, a boss, and someone separated from his or her followers by rank or title. Leadership is earned based upon a competitive meritocracy, wherein followers are equated to subordinates and are thus deemed inferior to the leader. This perspective was reflected in the highest mean (4.00) for this variable of any of the regions in the survey. North American leaders are also given a fair degree of latitude and freedom of expression in the practice and projection of leadership philosophy (Chhokar, Brodbeck, & House, 2013).

These leaders see themselves as engaging in a social contract or transaction with their followers while motivating them expressly to accomplish a given task or goal. Success is measured by the leader's ability to utilize resources and people in order to accomplish those goals. This individual focus was reflected in the response related to leadership competencies, with characteristics of personality, attitude, and self, reflected the highest mean (3.87). Finally, these leaders are ethically guided to do what is right, grounded by a Judeo-Christian perspective, based upon concepts of equity, justice, and fairness (Tubbs, 2005).

Conclusion: Why Effective Global Leadership Matters

Becoming an effective global leader embodies both the possibilities that global engagement can offer and the means by which an individual's personal development can be further shaped towards reaching his or her potential. In order to realize these outcomes, these leaders must pursue this

development with purpose, well-grounded motivations, and self-discipline. Such a course is not a purely intellectual exercise, but requires a higher level of personal interest and engagement in seeking out new relationships with others quite different from themselves. By recognizing these challenges and opportunities, global leaders can seek out specific experiences that will allow them to learn and grow professionally (George, 2014).

Undergirding these experiences are the leader's inner values that guide the individual's behavior in deciding on moral or ethical matters. Globalization can, in turn, intensify certain differences in culturally-relative values as dissimilar peoples interact. Considering how one's personal and moral values may be different from one's follower's, and how the leader's behavior can affect their follower's mores, can stimulate a greater degree of openness, acceptance and humility as elements of a powerful personal learning experience (George, Sims, McLean, & Mayer, 2007).

Global leaders make a difference in the lives of their followers and in contributing to the greater good of their organizations and society. They foster the development of others through setting and inspiring a shared vision towards common goals, by setting an example through their values and ethical behavior, by taking risks and challenging the accepted, through collaboration and empowerment, and by encouraging their followers to aspire to greater things (Kouzes & Posner, 2008).

Effective global leaders recognize the concept that leadership can and should be seen as a social responsibility, wherein the leader's and follower's activities go beyond serving self-interests and seek to benefit the collective society. Acquiring a willingness to contribute to and build social capital requires connecting with, and bonding with other people who may hold different perspectives. Effective global leaders transcend parochial interests in establishing trust-based relationships with others who are often from different backgrounds, in order to contribute to a community's social capital (Putnum & Feldstein, 2003).

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Overcoming Barriers to African American Women Ascending to the College Presidency

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Journal of Higher Education Management, **36**(2), 32-38 (ISSN 2640-7515). © Copyright 2021 by the American Association of University Administrators. Permission to reprint for academic/scholarly purposes is unrestricted provided this statement appears on all duplicated copies. All other rights reserved.

Despite a diverse population of college communities, higher education institutions have historically failed to yield the desired outcome of diversity in the college presidency. Specifically, African American females in higher education are systematically disadvantaged by gender and race. It is not uncommon for these women to be targeted for racism, sexism, and classism that sometimes discourage them from seeking and ascending to the college presidency. According to Weisman and Vaughan (2007), Caucasian males who are 58 years old were the dominant community college presidents by 2006. By 2011, women made some strides towards college leadership; however, white men continued to lead most colleges as presidents (American Council of Education [ACE], 2012). Conversely, most elite colleges have made significant strides towards opening gateways for minority faculty and staff into leadership. More recently, Dr. Elmira Mangum was appointed the 11th president of Florida A&M University from 2014 to 2016 and the only African American woman to assume the institution's permanent position. Dr. Mangum proceeds to pioneer African American female leaders in colleges such as Dr. Shirley Ann Jackson, who in 1999 became the first African American woman to lead a national research college after an appointment as a college president of Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute. Likewise, Dr. Ruth J. Simmons became the first African American woman to lead a major college when she was selected as president of Smith College in 1995 and was later appointed the president of Brown University in 2000, the pioneer woman to hold such an Ivy League college position.

Though uncommon, Dr. Mangum, Dr. Shirley, and Dr. Ruth are not the only African American women to reach the college presidency. Research shows that the representation of women of color as college presidents from all post-secondary institutions increased to 30% in 2016 compared to 9% in 1986 (ACE, 2017). While the number of African American women as college presidents has gradually improved over the last 30 years, the group continues to be underrepresented in this pivotal leadership role. In 2016, the number of African American women in the college presidency reduced by 5% (ACE, 2017). But what has it taken for some African American women to overcome the odds in a male, white-dominated college environment while others fail to ascend to the highest leadership role? Aspiring African American women can emulate the strategies of previous successful African American women leaders. As a result, they can break the social constructs of gender and race in higher learning environments and society in general.

Purpose of the Study

While the literature of women in higher education leadership has advanced in recent years, few studies have gone beyond the barriers African American women face in ascending to the college presidency that reports on enablers of their pursuit to such a coveted leadership role. This study acknowledges that despite the underrepresentation of African American women in the college presidency, some women have found means to survive and prosper in the stereotyped principles present within higher education to become successful college presidents. The purpose of this study

was to review published literature on African American women who have ascended to a college presidency, specifically to: 1) evaluate their experiences in ascending to a college presidency, and 2) explore strategies the women have employed to successfully ascend to a college presidency.

Research Questions

1. What are the experiences of successful African American women in their path ascending to a college presidency?

2. What strategies and approaches have African American women used in the past to successfully ascend to a college presidency?

Methodology

This study employed a narrative literature review of publications related to African American women's experiences ascending to a college presidency and the approaches and strategies they used. The narrative literature review identifies and summarizes a variety of primary studies from which holistic conclusions are drawn about the study topic. A significant strength of the narrative literature review is that it comprehensively explores various pluralities and diversities around a scholarly topic in order to derive a common conclusion.

A literature search was conducted without a restricted timeframe of the scholarly sources to be used. Relevant peer-reviewed journal articles and scholarly sources were identified using research databases including ERIC, Elsevier, University and College Libraries, Springer, Proquest, and Google Scholar. Key terms used during the literature search were African American, women, college, president, and presidency. The key terms served to narrow down scholarly sources that were relevant to the study topic.

Subsequently, a literature search procedure was developed to align with the objectives of the study. This includes establishing inclusion and exclusion criteria. The inclusion criteria included 1) peer-reviewed journal articles and published dissertations, 2) articles that were full text and with accessible abstracts, and 3) research that focused on experiences of African American women ascending to the college presidency. The review excluded articles that were conference abstracts, commentaries, discussion papers, and journals solely focusing on experiences of women ascending to the college presidency.

Limitations. While many studies have observed that narrative literature review has important strengths in reporting distinctive pluralities around a phenomenon, the studies included in this review have limitations that should be acknowledged. Moreover, because the current study is not a systematic literature review and a few scholarly sources related to the topic were found, evaluations of methodology were not used to exclude journal articles and dissertations from the study; although, the scholarly sources were peer-reviewed and met the standard threshold of ethical research.

Results and Discussion

The literature search identified 76 peer-reviewed articles and dissertations of potentially relevant titles. After synthesizing the multiple studies, only one peer-reviewed journal article and eight published dissertations (n=9) met the study inclusion criteria. The participants in the studies were college presidents, vice presidents, and college administrators.

Experiences of African-American Women in the College Presidency. This study intended to explore challenges African American females experience on their path to the college presidency and recommend institutional and individual approaches to address them. The studies reviewed confirm African American women who aspire to become college presidents face numerous challenges despite the diversity in higher education institutions. Nine themes emerged from the review describing the experiences and challenges African American women face in their journey towards a college presidency. They include 1) balancing career and family, 2) male stereotyping, 3) female stereotyping, 4) racism, 5) lack of respect by colleagues and subordinates, 6) inhospitable institution culture, 7) pedagogical practices, 8) occupational gender discrimination, and 9) self-limitation (Table 1).

Table 1. *Experiences and Challenges of African American Women Ascending to the College Presidency*

Challenges/Barriers	Studies
1. Balancing career and family	Becks-Moody (2004); Jackson & Harris (2007); Munden (2015); Webster (2019)
2. Male stereotyping	Waring (2003); Becks-Moody (2004); Jackson & Harris (2007); Humphrey (2012); Alexander-Lee (2014), Munden (2015); Morris (2017); Webster (2019); Ray (2019)
3. Female Stereotyping	Waring (2003); Alexander-Lee (2014), Munden (2015); Morris (2017)
4. Racism	Waring (2003); Becks-Moody (2004); Jackson & Harris (2007); Humphrey (2012); Alexander-Lee (2014), Munden (2015); Morris (2017); Webster (2019); Ray (2019)
5. Lack of respect from colleagues	Becks-Moody (2004); Jackson, S., & Harris (2007); Morris (2017); Webster (2019);
6. Inhospitable Institution culture	Waring (2003); Becks-Moody (2004); Jackson & Harris (2007); Humphrey (2012); Alexander-Lee (2014), Munden (2015); Morris (2017); Webster (2019); Ray (2019)
7. Pedagogical practices	Jackson & Harris (2007); Humphrey (2012); Alexander-Lee (2014), Munden (2015)
8. Occupational Gender discrimination	Waring (2003); Becks-Moody (2004); Jackson & Harris (2007); Humphrey (2012); Alexander-Lee (2014), Munden (2015); Morris (2017); Webster (2019); Ray (2019)
9. Self-limitations	Waring (2003); Jackson & Harris (2007); Alexander-Lee (2014),

A review of the studies identified four core challenges African American women encounter in their path towards a college presidency: 1) male stereotyping and preconceptions, 2) racism, 3) inhospitable institution culture, and 4) occupational gender discrimination. The results depict that most successful, if not all, African American female presidents had experienced the four core challenges at some point of their college presidency journey. The challenges are evident when higher education institutions fail to promote African American women to higher leadership positions due to their gender, race, and institution male-dominated culture. According to Humphrey (2012), sometimes women deal with male supervisors who fail to promote them or assist with leadership development towards the college presidency. Consequently, self-limitations such as lack of confidence, insecurity, doubting individual abilities, and performance can also pull African American women behind in their college presidency pursuit.

Strategies Used by Successful African American Women Presidents to Attain the Presidency. The studies acknowledged it can be challenging for African American women to overcome barriers in the college community because most of the challenges are external and the women have no control over them. Simultaneously, one study suggested that despite most African American women presidents listing many experiences in the path towards the presidency, the challenges collectively were not as strong (Jackson & Harris, 2007). The study asserts that the women do not see the challenges as important barriers to their ascension to the college presidency. Instead, the current review found they have developed strategies to overcome the barriers successfully (Table 2).

Table 2. *Strategies Used by African American Women to Overcome Barriers to the College Presidency*

Strategies	Studies
1. Leadership Mentorship	Waring (2003); Becks-Moody (2004); Jackson & Harris (2007); Humphrey (2012); Alexander-Lee (2014), Munden (2015); Morris (2017); Webster (2019); Ray (2019)
2. Upgraded education skills	Jackson & Harris (2007); Humphrey (2012); Alexander-Lee (2014), Munden (2015); Morris (2017);
3. Intrinsic motivation	Alexander-Lee (2014), Munden (2015); Morris (2017);
4. Performing beyond standards/ exceeded performance.	Waring (2003); Becks-Moody (2004); Jackson & Harris (2007); Humphrey (2012); Alexander-Lee (2014), Munden (2015); Morris (2017); Webster (2019); Ray (2019)
5. Assumed positions that had visibility	Waring (2003); Becks-Moody (2004); Jackson & Harris (2007); Humphrey (2012); Alexander-Lee (2014), Munden (2015); Morris (2017); Webster (2019); Ray (2019)
6. Changed to institutions that allowed advancement	Jackson & Harris (2007); Webster (2019)
7. Seek leadership skills outside of	Becks-Moody (2004); Jackson & Harris

education	(2007); Humphrey (2012); Alexander-Lee (2014); Morris (2017); Webster (2019); Ray (2019)

The participants in all the studies recognized the importance of mentorship as the primary strategy of ascending to the college presidency for African American women. This means while mentoring has been historically informal, it has helped almost all African American women to become college presidents. Mentoring can be defined as a hierarchical relationship where an individual of superior rank or status at institutions of higher education guides, counsels, and facilitates the career and personal development of a less experienced individual. Humphrey (2012) asserts that formal and informal mentoring is the core approach that high-ranking African American women college presidents used to achieve career success.

However, the studies expressed a concern on the lack of a substantial number of African American leaders in higher education institutions to mentor young and aspiring African American presidents. The colleges should develop an internal mentoring program within their institutions to allow African American women faculty, staff, and administrators as well as ethnic groups to connect with current leaders who can assist in career and leadership development. The mentorship programs are two-fold: 1) the aspiring African American women leaders would understand the culture and barriers in higher education institutions, develop leadership skills, and advance in their administrative careers and 2) the mentoring relationship could assist the mentor to identify the leadership strengths of African American women and produce positive results in the overall diversification in higher education leadership positions.

Attainment of a doctoral or terminal degree was supported by most studies reviewed and considered an essential step in the career development of aspiring and current presidents. For example, an earlier study by Jackson and Morris (2007) found that the majority (93%) of all the African American women who were college and university presidents had a doctorate. Further--although including both men and women--a 2017 American Council on Education (ACE) study revealed that 89% of college and university presidents held a doctoral degree with 80% earning a PhD or EdD and 9% holding a professional doctorate (ACE, 2017). Therefore, aspiring African American female presidents should obtain a doctorate in order to remove one less barrier to ascend to a college presidency.

Developing leadership competency outside of the higher education environment has also been a successful strategy for African American women to obtain a college presidency. For instance, Becks-Moody (2004) describes a narrative of two African American women who were directly involved in the Civil Rights Movement in the 1960s and who would become college presidents later in their life. The experiences of the women helped them to develop their leadership skills, understand how the larger community perceived them, and identify the barriers that African American women face in communities as they seek leadership positions. Aspiring African American women presidents should, therefore, step out of their comfort zone to seek support from African American men and women outside of their institutions. The positions also allow them to gain visibility as capable and competent leaders. Higher education institutions need to support African American women presidential aspirants who are actively involved in community leadership through recognition of their efforts, rewards, and mentorship.

Self-motivation is the most important and often foregone strategy that African American women can employ to ascend to a college presidency. Most of the past African American women have relied on internal strength and self-motivation to help them push through the barriers and challenges faced in paths to leadership. Intrinsic motivation begins with the belief in self, individual abilities, and

acknowledgment of performance. African American women seeking a college presidency should, therefore, seek personal development to build their resilience, courage, and confidence. A positive attitude and high levels of confidence, combined with other strategies such as mentorship, education, and leadership experience, will ultimately propel more African American women to become college presidents while turning all the barriers involved into opportunities and lessons for growth (Martin & Cooney, 2020).

Conclusion and Implications of the Study

African American women in higher education institutions operate daily in a culture that marginalizes and stereotypes them. The issue is that their efforts to ascend to a college presidency are drowned out by dominant and powerful voices- usually the white male or female leaders and inhospitable work culture. The findings of the current research suggest African American women have become familiar with the higher education institution pipeline and, therefore, are prepared for the challenges imposed on them. By understanding the challenges, successful African American women presidents have cultivated on their strengths, acknowledged their weaknesses, pursued leadership mentorship, networked, and advanced their educational skills. The African American women presidents in the studies reviewed were not unique; however, they were innovative and creative enough to find ways to attain leadership in their respective institutions. Aspiring African American women could certainly emulate the strategies the pioneer women college presidents used and even develop more approaches to obstruct barriers involved in ascending to a college presidency.

This research paper recognizes the need to prepare African American women for leadership identities and combat stereotyped attitudes toward Black women's leadership. Given the disproportionately low number of African American women in a college presidency, the primary contribution of the current study is to promote diversity in the college presidency. The institutions must invest in approaches that will diversify their leadership and equip presidential aspirants with skills to compete in a highly culturally and gender-sensitive society. The findings of this study will help colleges understand strategies that can propel minorities, especially African American women, into college leadership. Diversification of individuals appointed as college presidents leads to a range of thoughts, innovations, and viewpoints to address the needs of the current college community (both internal and external). It is not uncommon for a college president who represents marginalized or minoritized groups to have had first-hand experience of challenges facing today's diverse student population. As a result, the ascension of more African American women in leadership will increase the ability of colleges to attract, retain, and graduate a more diverse student body while also serving as a role model for aspiring African American and female leaders of color.

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Responding to Disruptive Trends Facing Institutions of Higher Education: Activating the S-Power Leadership Model

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COVID-19 pandemic sent riveting shockwaves across the globe. It ushered in an unprecedented level of disruption for people, communities, and businesses. Leaders in institutions of higher education grappled with how to effectively lead the radical change of academia. These changes included limited funding, virtual learning, integration of new technologies, and responding to globalization through diversity, equity, and inclusion. The traditional approaches to higher education were scrutinized while leaders were confronted with thinking differently. Leaders of academia were challenged with acquiring a new set of leadership skills that incorporate tremendous amounts of agility, dynamic responsiveness, and interprofessionalism to face everchanging, complex educational issues.

Higher education and disruption are not strangers; however, their interactions require pivotal movement to benefit all stakeholders. The COVID-19 pandemic served as a catalyst for expedient movement in directions revolutionizing higher education operations and leadership. Organizations needed to convert from crisis management to an adaptive culture. Paradigm shifts of any caliber within higher education necessitated transformation of the leaders and organizations.

Leadership is not a title but an interrelational ecology where the leader holds influential, impactful, and transformative power to address the complex challenges of the institution. Academic leaders are at the forefront of ushering people through the disruptive trends of higher education. With such an imperative, academic leaders are compelled to seek creative and innovative capabilities to broaden and elevate their leadership acumen.

Through self-leadership, one can internally draw upon personal motivators for enhancement of knowledge, skills, and abilities. While, the sharing of leadership grants individuals the opportunity for team empowerment. However, the interlace of these approaches yields a contemporary leadership model known as the S-Power.

Self-Leadership

Self-leadership is a self-influencing process where individuals achieve the self-direction and self-motivation necessary to manage the perplexities of higher education (Neck & Houghton, 2006) (Table 1). The concept of self-leadership is rooted in the social learning (Bandura, 1969) and social cognitive (Bandura, 1999) theoretical frameworks (Table 1). Social learning theory proclaims individuals have the ability to influence their own cognition, motivation, and behavior in the context of their social experience (Neck & Houghton, 2006; Norris, 2008). Social cognitive theory postulates there is a continuous interaction between people and their environment; and the behavioral consequences associated with these interactions serve as a source of information and motivation (Neck & Houghton, 2006; Norris, 2008). Social learning and social cognitive theories are the

foundational premises for self-leadership, however, there were secondary theories incorporated to expand the concept.

Neck and Houghton (2006) provided insight on secondary theoretical context utilized in the development of self-leadership (Table 1). These constructs included self-regulation, explains how one adjusts their behaviors, thoughts, and feelings based on internal standards for goal attainment; self-management, focuses on behavior strategies one employs to reduce conflict between internally defined standards and the outer world experience; and intrinsic motivation, concentrates on one's self-determination to freely exercise competence and potential to achieve desired outcomes. Self-leadership is a framework derived from multiple theories which offers practical assumptions to progress in leadership endeavors.

Before academics can lead others and surmount the cacophony of institutional distress, they must be able to lead themselves. Jooste and Frantz (2017) assert leaders who are tuned-in with their own values and identity are able to create and promote a compelling leadership style to achieve results. Pundits of leadership research have indicated individuals who enlist self-leading strategies have significant impact on organizations.

Self-leadership is a unique constellation of strategies which provide leaders with prescriptive direction. These strategies consist of behavior-focused, natural reward, and constructive thought (Manz, 1986; Neck & Houghton, 2006; Norris, 2008). Behavior-focused strategies are designed to heighten self-awareness and facilitate self-management. The methods for behavior-focused strategies include self-observation, self-goals setting, self-reward, self-correction, and self-cueing (Neck & Houghton, 2006). Natural reward strategies emphasize the inherently pleasant or enjoyable aspects of the task or activity. With natural rewards strategies, individuals create ways to feel competent and self-determined to energize their performance (Manz, 1986; Neck & Houghton, 2006; Norris, 2008). Constructive thought patterns are strategies designed to facilitate habitual thinking to positively impact performance. Cognitive activities include the replacement of dysfunctional belief, mental imagery, and positive self-talk (Manz, 1986; Neck & Houghton, 2006; Norris, 2008). The utilization of self-leadership strategies provides leaders with a personalized behavioral aptitude, motivational energy, and cognitive foresight.

Individuals who embrace self-leadership character traits believe in their abilities to accomplish what they desire, direct their own path, personally motivate themselves, and continually renew thinking patterns (Manz, 1986; Neck & Houghton, 2006; Norris, 2008). With institutions of higher education being forced to adopt new strategies and practices, those who engage in self-leadership practices have the personal mastery, emotional intellect, and relational capacity needed to lead others and to achieve institutional results.

With the shifting paradigm of higher education, creative and innovative capabilities are necessary. Self-leaders with personal mastery have a grounded self-awareness, firm orientation toward achievement, and hold high expectations for self and others (Jooste & Frantz, 2017). Emotional intellect affords self-leading academics the opportunity to reflect and thoughtfully accept the changing uncertainties of the academic landscape (Browning, 2018). Lastly, since institutions of higher education are human-networked systems, academics who self-lead understand the significance of managing intrapersonal and interpersonal relationships (Browning, 2018; Sejeli & Mansor, 2015). Engaging relational skills afford leaders inner sensitivity and external collaboration with teams and stakeholders. Self-leadership is a proven model where academics and business executives have embraced leadership skills, practices, and behaviors in the workplace (Neck & Houghton, 2006; Norris, 2008). Self-leadership offers individuals the ability to strengthen their personal effectiveness, engage innovative behaviors, and lead workspaces to higher ground. Leaders who take the opportunity to work on themselves are equipped to lead others through team engagement.

Table 1. *Summary of Self Leadership*

Definition	Root Theories	Secondary Theoretical Constructs	Strategies & Activities	
A self-influencing process where individuals achieve the self-direction and self-motivation necessary to manage the perplexities of higher education	*Social learning theory* ability to influence their own cognition, motivation, and behavior in the context of their social experience *Social cognitive theory* a continuous interaction between people and their environment	*Self-regulation* explains how one adjusts their behaviors, thoughts, and feelings based on internal standards for goal attainment *Self-management* focuses on behavior strategies one employs to reduce conflict between internally defined standards and the outer world experience *Intrinsic motivation* concentrates on one's self-determination to freely exercise competence and potential to achieve desired outcomes	*Behavior-focused* heightens self-awareness and facilitates self-management	Self-observation Self-goals setting Self-reward Self-correction Self-cueing
			Natural reward strategies emphasize the inherently pleasant or enjoyable aspects of the task or activity	Create ways to feel competent and self-determined Generate actions to energize performance
			Constructive thought patterns facilitate habitual thinking to positively impact performance	Replace dysfunctional belief Formulate mental imagery Enlist positive self-talk

Shared Leadership

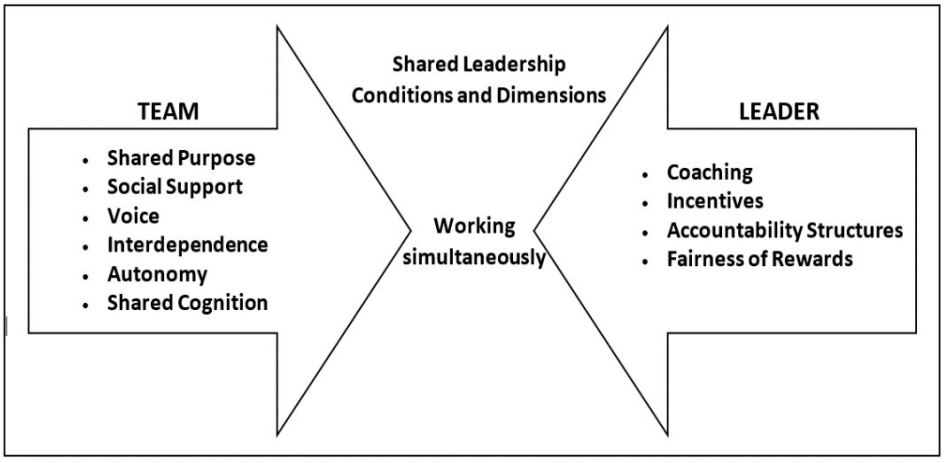
Historically, institutions of higher education have used a shared governance model where administrators, faculty, staff, and student governing bodies work together to address mid- to long-term goals for their campuses (Bejou & Bejou, 2006). The model serves as a guideline for collaborative relationships (Crellin, 2010). Ideally, shared governance is a model designed to prevent a one-sided decision-making process whereby only one governing body benefits with no consideration of the impact on the entire organization.

The shared governance leadership model is not ideal for handling complex issues due to the length of time it may take to finalize a decision (Bejou & Bejou, 2006). An expanded leadership model would assist in addressing this matter as the decision-makers become more comprehensive. In the early 2000s, researchers introduced shared leadership as a successful leadership model within the private sector, particularly with high-performing companies. As complex issues continue to confront higher education, a demand for new forms of leadership is necessary. Because shared leadership is ideal for complex organizations (with multiple stakeholders), expanding to higher education is achievable.

Shared governance is composed of official leaders whereas shared leadership consists of official and unofficial leaders (Manz, Pearce, Mott, Henson, & Sims, 2013). Shared leadership is manifested when team members transition from serving as the leader to stepping back to be a follower and allowing another person to lead because their knowledge is needed at that time in the social enterprise. When each team member rises to take the lead, the entire organization benefits because, customarily, every team member gains new knowledge from their colleagues and about the organization (Bolden, Jones, Davis & Gentle, 2015; Kezar & Holcombe, 2017). Ultimately, these team members are gaining leadership skills they would not have possessed before they engaged with individuals, whom they may not normally interact with. In addition, creativity and innovation permeate the organization.

Carson, Tesluk, and Marrone (2007) suggests there are two conditions (internal team environment and external coaching) and three dimensions (shared purpose; social support; and voice) necessary for successful implementation of the shared leadership model (Figure 1). Kezar and Holcombe (2017) broadened the list of conditions proposed by Carson et al. to include team characteristics of interdependence, autonomy, and shared cognition as well as incentives resulting in accountability structures and fairness of rewards (Figure 1).

Figure 1. *Shared Leadership Conditions and Dimensions*



Team members cannot operate in a silo. Being able to depend on the ideas of others in reaching organizational goals is imperative. Vertical leaders have to allow team members the opportunity to approach the social enterprise with minimal oversight, allowing ideas and decisions to flourish. Although team members are expected to bring their expertise to the social network, they eventually are supposed to meld their knowledge so that the team as a whole are speaking with one voice.

Employees tend to be interested in what they will get out of being charged with doing one more thing. Rewarding each team member equitably produces an employee willing to contribute to the organization's success. Although the team is able to approach their work with shared cognition and limited oversight of the vertical leader, stated accountability measures ensure that everyone is operating with a clear understanding of the end goal and how it will be achieved.

Intermittent external coaching by the vertical leader ensures maximum performance of the group. When the vertical leader communicates the end goal, team members discuss how they will move forward and establish a shared purpose. They must offer emotional and psychological support by encouraging each other, recognizing contributions, and celebrating accomplishments (Carson, Tesluk, & Marrone, 2007). The social support will empower team members to use their voices as all perspectives continue to be embraced.

S-Power in Higher Education

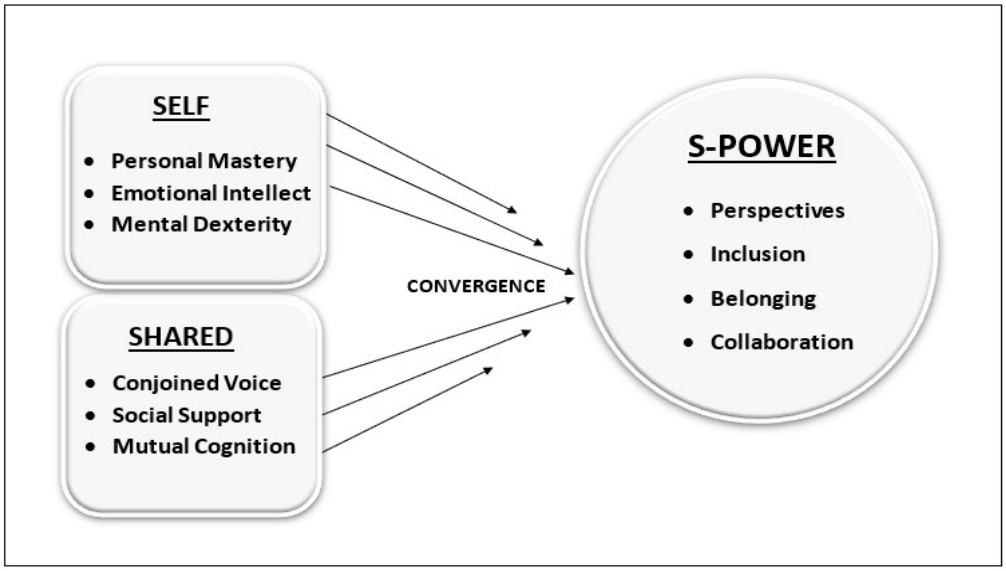
With multifaceted disruptions enveloping the landscape of academia, leaders are compelled to reengineer their leadership acumen to overcome the volatility and execute a transformational change to elevate the institution. Administrators of higher education must embrace new and creative leadership strategies (Honu, 2018). A plausible response is the incorporation of the S-Power, an integrated model of self and shared leadership components. The S-Power expands the leader's capability to effectively lead self, synergize teams, and transform organizational culture.

The S-Power is a conjointly configured leadership model that offers leaders a prescriptive concept on how to actively and effectively lead through the exasperated changes of higher education (Pearce & Manz, 2005; Andressen, Konradt, & Neck, 2012). It is an active leadership style which draws upon the principles of transformational leadership, whereby the leader's personal mastery garners ability to inspire followers to achieve a shared vision and to attain higher levels of team performance through the motivational relationship (Givens, 2008; Futner et al, 2012). The implementation of the S-Power promotes the alignment of a leader's individual proficiency and team empowerment for the advancement of the institution.

The S-Power model comprises four capabilities – perspectives, inclusion, belonging, and collaboration. These capabilities emerge when the major elements of self-leadership (personal mastery, emotional intellect, and mental dexterity) and shared leadership (conjoined voice, social support, and mutual cognition) are converged (Figure 2).

Appreciate Diverse Perspectives. When leaders enable the *perspectives* capability of the S-Power, they recognize that team members bring differing viewpoints when they communicate with colleagues. High-performing teams are most successful when there is an openness to diverse perspectives, although some individuals are usually comfortable interacting with people who look and think like them (Homan, Hollenbeck, Humphrey, Van Knippenberg, Ilgen, & Van Kleef, 2008). Understanding the need for diverse perspectives in workgroup exchanges provide moments for personal growth because

Figure 2. *S-Power Leadership Model*



individuals are able to keenly listen and acknowledge another person's thoughts on how a decision should be made or how resolutions will impact others. When the workforce perceives there is an openness to diversity within their organization, they are able to see promotional opportunities for themselves which has a positive impact on organizational culture (Allen, Dawson, Wheatley, & White, 2008). Embracing differing viewpoints positions the organization to have a competitive advantage because of the innovative approaches team members are able to yield.

Appreciating diverse perspectives requires the leader to model the way. Becoming self-aware of one's own biases provides the leader with a clear understanding of how daily interactions are impacted. Leaders must serve as allies for marginalized groups. When they recognize a person within the team is not speaking up or a certain group is not represented, the leader should take the necessary steps to provide opportunities for expanded conversations whereby all voices are heard. Reminding people that the organization's values are the cornerstone for all team endeavors emphasizes that respectful communication is the guiding principle. Leaders must courageously speak out when organizational behaviors do not promote openness to dissimilar viewpoints. Being intentional about including everyone in brainstorming activities allows creative advice to be discussed and transformation of the organization to be realized.

Foster a Climate of Inclusion. When leaders administer the *inclusion* capability of the S-Power, they are creating workspaces where individuals feel valued and respected for their differences; justice and equity are espoused operating conditions; and leadership practices are authentic and culturally responsive (Shore, Randel, Chung, Dean, Ehrhart, & Singh, 2011). Inclusive-building leaders promote cohesiveness within the workgroup and optimal levels of creativity, innovativeness, and demonstrated performance. Establishing inclusive climates provide academic leaders with multi-perspectives to deal with the volatile and uncertain changes of academia.

Workspaces where individuals are respected and appreciated for their uniqueness are driven by leaders who take proactive steps to learn about people's personal identities, demonstrate genuine interest in the person, and encourage the individual's voice to be heard. Leaders who value fairness and impartiality, provide clarity of direction, equip all team members with the resources needed to fulfill comments, and engage inclusive behaviors for the betterment of the workgroup. As leaders initiate inclusive workspaces practices, authentic communications, transparency of trust, and empathic posturing are essential skills which permeate the team environment.

Inspire a Practice of Belonging. When leaders empower the *belonging* capability of the S-Power, they are opening up a space for people to authentically participate in team work without fear that something they say or do will be scrutinized. Maslow's hierarchy of needs listed belonging as a motivational force for humans. McClure and Brown (2008) suggested that it is within the workplace that people are able to discover self and the strongest sense of belonging emerges. The need to learn about self and interact with others in a way that moves the organization forward is paramount. If an individual brings a counterfeit version of themselves to group exchanges, transparent conversations are attenuated.

Leaders inspire belonging by validating the experiences of others, whether they agree with the individual who is sharing their story or not. Empathizing with team members shows the leader's willingness to allow individuals to express themselves in a safe, nonjudgmental environment. If leaders reflect on their own similar experiences, they are able to understand how important it may be for team members to feel connected to their peers when sharing their thoughts about a group topic. Self-acceptance is essential for team members and leaders. As these levels of interconnection take place in the organization, others will be motivated to chart the same territory. Teams that seize moments where authentic exchanges are commonplace create synergistic and collaborative relationships.

Engage Collaborative Relationships. When leaders implement the *collaboration* capability of the S-Power, they are building interdisciplinary and cross-functional relationships. Through collaboration, team members have shared authority and responsibility to negotiate the collective goals and achieve results based on mutually agreed standards (Morely & Cashell, 2017). Establishing an inspirational and synergistic environment means leaders create collaborative relationships where members are active participants, interdependency is appreciated, and systems thinking is integrated. With the rapidly changing trends of higher education, utilizing collaborative relationship building generates a collective process to handle the ever-changing complexities.

For leaders, collaborative relationships take form when participants willingly agree to confidently share their knowledge, skills, or expertise to achieve results. Interdependency signifies how coordination, cooperation, shared decision-making, and partnership are the norms to direct the group. With the integration of systems thinking, members are influenced by a dynamic problem-solving strategy which observes current complex conditions, identifies patterns, and generates viable options to achieve maximum results.

The incorporation of the S-Power is an assertive response to the continuous challenges of higher education. Appreciating diverse perspectives broadens creative possibilities for leaders to secure solutions for institutional impact. Fostering a climate of inclusion and belonging ensures leaders have a synergistic workspace for all members to thrive as high performers. When leaders apply the S-Power, they are establishing collaborative relationships that are infused with robust potential for transformative results.

Concluding Thoughts

The initial aim of this research was to conceptualize the combining of two leadership principles (self and shared leadership) and generate a new leadership model (S-Power) that would transform higher education. Revolutionized practices are required as academic administrators address limited funding, new technological approaches, and globalization. Leaders who recognize the transformative power they possess devise innovative strategies to propel their colleges and universities forward. The engagement of new capable leaders widens the problem-solving landscape to produce diverse solutions for any peril confronting the institution. When tapped, these leaders must be prepared to confidently serve and assertively perform for the well-being of the organization.

Self-leadership prepares individuals for new leadership opportunities. Academic leaders who are self-assured benefit from social learning and connect with the core values which guide their organization. Employing self-leadership strategies allows leaders to heighten self-awareness, cathartically self-correct when behaviors are misaligned with their beliefs, and seize opportunities for positive self-talk. Self-leadership empowers leaders to believe in themselves before engaging with others. These metamorphic behaviors enable leaders to confidently rise in group interactions.

Shared leadership is ideal for handling complex situations, particularly those faced by institutes of higher education. There is a need to expand the organization's mindset by allowing diverse groups of people to share their thoughts on how the organization should move forward. Self-leaders are asked to brainstorm with others and, throughout the process, each leader is able to share their expertise in respective areas that provides a different perspective on how to solve problems. Traditionally, individuals who are asked to serve in this capacity are noted official leaders of the organization. The shared leadership model invites unofficial leaders, with the experience needed to solve the complex issue, to be a part of the conversations.

Self and shared leadership produces the S-Power. Leaders who utilize the S-Power are capable of appreciating diverse perspectives, fostering a climate of inclusion, inspiring a practice of belonging, and engaging collaborative relationships. These performance actions will transform the leader, team members, and the organization as a whole.

Transformation is the ultimate resolution for higher education. Regardless of a pandemic or any other challenging issue, it is essential for academic leaders to augment their knowledge, skills, and abilities. Integration of the S-Power allows leaders to become a transformative agent and impact three areas – employee, team, and organization (Table 2).

Table 2. *Areas of Transformation*

Employee	Team	Organization
Empowerment	Committed Action	Adaptive Movement
Engagement	Self-directed	Participative Performance
Altruism	Trust	Learning Spirit
Upskilling	Accountability	Business Effectiveness

The employees who participate in the S-Power experience are afforded opportunities of personal and professional development. These employees are empowered to bring their whole selves to the

workspace; willingly embrace the shared vision; practice selfless actions; and obtain new skills to propel their career. As leaders champion the S-Power, employees formulate a cohesive team. These teams are committed to action; they operate in a self-directed manner; and trust and accountability are key attributes that permeate the team culture. Together employees and teams impact the organizational ethos. Their behaviors and actions produce an organizational climate where agility and adaptability are the initial leadership responses. The workforce actively participates in change management; creates a learning culture that captures, shares, and transfers knowledge; and business processes are efficiently and effectively executed. The S-Power is a holistic leadership model which empowers multiple entities and serves as an effective response to the changing topography of higher education.

Future Research

As the academic landscape continues to evolve, future research is warranted in the establishment of formalized shared leadership behaviors; the utilization of self and shared leadership attributes as a combined concept; and empirical investigation on how the S-Power impacts employee, team, and organization outcomes. Overall, initiating future research and analysis enlarges the developmental capacity of a leader and organization.

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Everyday Administration: A Descriptive Account of the People, the Work, and the Strategies for Pursuing Diversity, Equity, and Inclusion on Campus

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In today's global society, college students are expected to learn how to successfully navigate the social and cultural differences associated with working with individuals from diverse backgrounds (Dey, Ott, Antonaros, Barnhardt, & Holsapple, 2010). The campus administrative leaders who are responsible for diversity initiatives largely shape *how* colleges and universities pursue equity and inclusion, similar to how other administrators have influenced campus responses to access issues in the undocumented student context (Barnhardt, Phillips, Young, & Sheets, 2017; Burkhardt et al., 2012). Campuses have become increasingly diverse over the last twenty years (Zweifler, 2013), paralleling the demographic shifts in the racial and ethnic composition of the United States as it moves to a majority-minority population over the next few decades (Passel & Cohn, 2008). In light of contemporary policies and legal issues surrounding affirmative action (Kahlenberg, 2013), the roles that these administrative leaders play have become increasingly critical as they have evolved in response to political and environmental shifts, signaled by their rapid growth numerically, and concomitant rise in profile on college campuses (Flaherty, 2014; Gose, 2013).

Scholars have asserted that the appointment of a chief diversity officer (CDO) is a structural innovation used by colleges and universities to institutionalize their organizational commitments to diversity, inclusion, and equity (Kezar, 2007; Leon, 2014; Williams & Wade-Golden, 2007). By professional definition, CDOs are executive level administrators (typically reporting to the president or provost) who are charged with providing guidance, leadership, and oversight with respect to expanding and sustaining the capacity of the university to affirm diversity and inclusion in the pursuit of educational excellence (Williams & Wade-Golden, 2007). Typically, CDOs steward inclusion and equity within the context of the campus's larger mission and focus by pursuing: 1) affirmative action and equity programs in admissions or faculty recruitment; 2) multiculturalism as a way of organizing academic programs, student services, or research centers with a focus on identity groups; 3) the leveraging of structural and intellectual diversity as a pedagogical resource to enhance learning for all

students; or 4) a synergistic focus combining the aforementioned approaches (Williams & Clowney, 2007).

While the number of administrators working under the title of CDO is expanding, the extant body of research surrounding the CDO position remains limited. This lack of research is in part a result of the variety of institutional contexts, structures, and responses of campus communities and leaders to diversity issues (Flaherty, 2014). Prior to 1997, CDO positions were extremely rare on college campuses (Williams & Wade-Golden, 2007). Although these positions are still far from ubiquitous, the number of CDOs has increased dramatically in recent years; yet, the important work of these equity-focused professionals remains largely understudied (Worthington, 2012). Responding to this knowledge gap, the editor of the *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education*, in a summary of research on diversity matters, made a plea for "manuscripts written by and about CDOs, and the impact of their work in institutions in higher education" (Worthington, 2012, p. 4). Our study represents a response to this call. The current study involves a representative random sample of U.S. two- and four-year, degree-granting, public and private, not-for-profit higher education institutions to explore a range of administrative practices, routines, and approaches that describe the implementation of equity and inclusion work on college campuses. It seeks to unveil not only the roles played by CDOs, but equally importantly, to understand how equity work is structured and enacted on campuses that do not maintain a central diversity authority. As such, the research question guiding our study is: how is the administrative work around diversity, equity, and inclusion enacted on college campuses?

Background Literature and Conceptual Framing

CDOs have been a part of the higher education landscape since the 1970s, following the post-civil rights era expansion of African American enrollment (Banerji, 2005). Throughout much of the 1970s, 1980s, and early 1990s, CDO numbers were few, with estimates suggesting that there were fewer than 20 positions existing before 1997 (Williams & Wade-Golden, 2007). More contemporaneously, there has been a proliferation of campuses establishing CDO-type positions, with Williams and Wade-Golden (2007) estimating a near doubling of the number of CDOs in the field since 2002. The timing of this expansion of CDOs corresponds neatly to the 2003 United States Supreme Court's rulings in the University of Michigan *Grutter* and *Gratz* admissions cases. This timing suggests that as the field has experienced external threats to its categorical commitments to diversity (namely, legal challenges to university affirmative action policies and practices), some campuses have responded by hiring CDOs to tangibly organize their values, such as Gettysburg College's hiring of a CDO at the behest of its Advisory Commission on Diversity (Gettysburg College Press Release, 2014). To offer additional examples, Arnold and Kowalski-Braun (2012) chronicled the institutional processes and the requisite conditions preceding the creation of a CDO at Grand Valley State University. Wayne State University, an urban campus with a diverse student body, similarly created an Associate Vice Provost/CDO position in response to its advisory committee's recommendations to address persistent inequities for underrepresented minority students (Wayne State Retention Advisory Committee, 2013). These examples illustrate this trend of campuses establishing new CDO positions in response to threats surrounding their autonomy to exercise diversity commitments.

Arguably, campuses with CDOs possess a greater organizational capacity to create educational environments that exhibit clear and actionable commitments to inclusion and equity. Even so, organizational theory has long held that structural/positional authority is not necessarily tightly coupled to intended organizational outcomes; this is especially true for educational organizations

(Birnbaum, 1988; Weick, 1976). It is no wonder, then, that examples exist describing CDOs as struggling with organizational or cultural obstacles while pursuing the campus's stated goals for equity and inclusion (Clark, Fasching-Varner, & Brimhall-Vargas, 2012).

Prior research has indicated that discord exists among American colleges and universities regarding how diversity job functions are organized and implemented (Leon, 2014; Williams & Wade-Golden, 2007, 2013). Some experts have attempted to provide the higher education community with a model for the principal role where a senior administrator works "toward diversity-themed organizational change as a top priority at the highest level of leadership and governance" (Williams & Wade-Golden, 2013, p. 13). While this change vision is aspirational, the process of institutionalizing equity is ever unfolding, and is mediated by everyday routines and actions. We seek to draw out these nuances with this research and by building on the work of others.

Equity-Minded Practice. In her Association for the Study of Higher Education Presidential Address, Bensimon (2007) highlighted the lack of attention paid to the impact that campus practitioners have on college student success in the higher education literature as compared to practitioner impact on student success in K-12 education. Studies of college student success, instead, have largely suggested that individual student effort provides the primary underlying explanation of *who* succeeds in college and *why* (Bensimon, 2007). Bensimon challenged this attribution to individuals on the basis of equity for students belonging to minoritized racial and ethnic groups, arguing that institutional practices have systematically filtered students according to racial identity in ways that privilege whites (Bensimon, 2007). For minoritized and marginalized students of color, actions taken by individual institutional agents—i.e., practitioners—are frequently attributed to making the difference in students' persistence decisions and college success (Bensimon, 2007).

Bensimon and Malcolm (2012) proposed a model of equity-oriented administrative practices to capture the ways in which campus aspirations for inclusion can be pursued. Whereas traditional deficit models attribute student failures to the deficiencies of individuals and/or groups of students, equity-minded practitioners invert the old paradigm to focus on organizational change designed to promote student success (Dowd & Bensimon, 2015). Equity-minded thinking within an organization requires the constant reframing of rhetoric and misperceptions via the ongoing assessment of organizational data using both deductive and inductive epistemological orientations. Through institutional assessment, organizations can rely upon practitioner-as-researcher methodology to focus on creating equitable change (Bensimon, & Dowd, 2009; Bensimon, Polkinghorne, Bauman, & Vallejo, 2004). Influenced by Bensimon and colleagues, we approach this analysis with an equity-minded framework as we seek to contribute to institutional transformation toward greater equity, inclusion, and diversity outcomes.

Likewise, our work is influenced by scholarship relating to the structural, compositional, psychological, historical, and behavioral dimensions of campus climate, which have been characterized as pathways for affirming and supporting diverse and multicultural educational experiences or manifest as diverse learning environments (Hurtado, Alvarez, Guillermo-Wann, Cuellar, & Arellano, 2012; Hurtado, Milem, Clayton-Pedersen, & Allen, 1998; Milem, Chang, & Antonio, 2005). We juxtaposed the focus on the campus climate relating to diversity through the equity-minded practice lens, thus focusing our efforts on work routines, habits, and professional acumen for spotting and strategically organizing opportunities to amplify a campus's focus on diversity and equity. As such, we developed a comprehensive survey instrument designed to capture the administrative practices of equity and inclusion on college campuses to address the overarching research question: how is the administrative work around diversity, equity, and inclusion enacted on college campuses?

We assert that organizational capacity building around the educational values of diversity and equity should be understood by taking a broader view of the work, who does it, and how. Existing research has largely focused on CDOs from flagship or resource-rich institutions (Williams & Wade-Golden, 2013) to the diminishment of comparable administrative work that is happening across the field of higher education, across all levels of institutional type, including two-year and non-selective institutions. Our work deliberately emphasizes the organizational variety embedded in U.S. higher education by studying two- and four-year institutions in a systematic way. From the lens of equity-minded practice, we consider who is doing diversity work and how this varies by institutional type, as well as the power dynamics inherent within the administrative structuring of the work. These emphases are our attempts to respond to what we see as an entrenched tendency to either overtly or tacitly situate the most prestigious or well-resourced colleges and universities as modal reference points for what is construed as normative models of administrative performance, independent of the inherent power and status differences that exist.

Conceptual Framework. In this study, we have adopted a critical quantitative stance. Whereas the traditional postpositivist researcher utilizes models and theories seeking to explain generalizable organization and individual behaviors, the critical quantitative researcher interrogates the status quo, and instead seeks equity-driven outcomes (Stage, 2007; Stage & Wells, 2014). Stage (2007) outlines the two tasks of the critical quantitative scholar: (1) to utilize broad, generalizable data to draw attention to inequalities and the systemic processes and institutions that perpetuate them, and (2) to critically assess the theories, models, and analytic practices employed in quantitative scholarship and offer competing research methodologies and interpretations that better acknowledge those interests that have been systemically oppressed and/or misrepresented. In adopting this research lens, we recognize the complexities in quantitative social science scholarship and strive to highlight instances of underrepresented groups being disserved by the status quo (Carter & Hurtado, 2007; Bensimon & Bishop, 2012; Stage & Wells, 2014; Rios-Aguilar, 2014).

Much of the existing literature citing a critical quantitative lens within higher education focuses on the disparate experience and outcomes for individuals of historically underrepresented or marginalized groups. Many prominent authors have employed critical quantitative research, including Stage, Bensimon, Hurtado, Carter, Cabrera, Nora, and others (see Stage, 2007). One example of the use of critical quantitative inquiry is Conway's (2014) analysis of data to study the differences between native and immigrant students. In this study, Conway asserted that the racial/ethnic focus of most statistical understandings of differences in students overlooks the immigrant student population's particular needs and contexts. In our study, we apply a critical quantitative lens to describe CDO-types and their work on campuses in a manner that is not predisposed to confirm existing hypotheses or systemically preference a single conceptualization of the work that CDO-types perform. Rather, we seek to use findings gathered and analyzed through a deductive logic to inform the field's understanding of how diversity, equity, and inclusion work is enacted on campuses and by whom.

This critical quantitative lens complements our emphasis on equity-minded practice. Both bodies of literature emphasize the value of critically evaluating data from an equity-oriented perspective rather than a so-called "objective" approach. By addressing campus issues with equity in mind, we argue that campuses can make great gains in becoming more equitable and more just organizations.

Methods

Sample. Using IPEDS data, we drew a random sample of 447 institutions of higher education from the population of 2,789 degree-granting, not-for-profit postsecondary institutions in the United States. While we recognized that many of these randomly selected campuses would not employ an executive-level CDO per se, our intent was to capture differences in how institutions administratively organize and perform diversity and equity work. Our study is rare by virtue of it generating a representative sample of CDO-type administrators in an effort to uncover a broad, field-level understanding of the administrative structure of diversity on U.S. campuses. To accomplish this goal, members of the research team identified the most senior administrator on each of the campuses responsible for carrying out the campus's work focusing on diversity, equity, and inclusion, regardless of the official title of the administrator leading these efforts.

Research team members first searched campus websites for organizational charts and other administrative pages to locate the most senior campus professional responsible for diversity and equity work. As was the case for the bulk of campuses, it was not evident who the most senior campus diversity officer was based on campus websites; therefore, research team members contacted campus offices directly via email and phone communications. This outreach entailed initially contacting the president's office, the senior academic or student affairs officer, the human resources offices, or a combination of these, which led to a unique sequence of contacts on each campus. Team members maintained a uniform script, soliciting campus information from whomever they spoke with, asking for help in identifying "the most senior administrator on campus with responsibilities for campus diversity, equity, or inclusion initiatives, programs, or policies." Once the appropriate person was identified, researchers recorded the CDO-type administrator's occupational title, administrative unit, and contact information in a shared database. The research team then coded and grouped individuals with similar titles and administrative units. This resulted in the creation of two variables. One variable included eight categorical groupings depicting the rank of the administrator, and the other one consisted of six groupings of administrative units.

Instrumentation and Data Collection. The research team created a survey informed by the aforementioned literature on equity-oriented practices as well as campus climate research on diversity, equity, and inclusion. In the development stage, the researchers consulted current CDO-type administrators to refine the survey instrument prior to distributing it to the sample population. Survey items covered a variety of topics including questions about the campus administrative context, the CDO-type administrator's position and background, and questions about how the CDO-type administrator's work was shaped by the Supreme Court of the United States *Fisher v. University of Texas at Austin* case (this case centered on legal questions related to the use of race in selective college admissions). As a whole, survey items were designed to help illustrate a detailed portrait of the CDO-type administrator's role in diversity and equity work on campus.

The research team invited the 447 CDO-type administrators in the sample to participate in an electronic survey. The team followed Dillman's (2000) total design method and contacted potential respondents up to three times within a four-week period to solicit their participation. As an incentive, all respondents were offered the opportunity to participate in a drawing for a $200.00 gift card. The survey yielded a 10% response rate, with 43 of 447 individuals participating, and 7% (33 respondents) completing a large portion of the survey items. While our response rate was not as high as we had hoped to achieve, it is noteworthy that the rate was twice as high as that of another survey targeting CDO-type administrators (Witt/Kieffer, 2011). Respondents were representative of the

sample in many critical ways including the type of institutions they worked at, the racial and gender composition of the campuses, and the racial and ethnic backgrounds of campus employees; however, campuses that used selective admissions and had religious affiliations were slightly overrepresented in the sample (see Table 1).

Table 1. *Comparison of the Universe of Campuses with Sample Population Campuses*

	Universe	Sample	Respondent Group
	All US not-for profit institutions granting 1st undergrad degree, no seminaries	Random sample of institutions	Institutions participating in the survey
Characteristics:	N=2,789	N=447	N=43
Selective admissions	56.8%	55.0%	69.8% *
% Public	56.8%	59.7%	51.2%
% 4-Year	62.9%	60.2%	69.8%
% Religious affiliation	23.3%	21.7%	34.9% *
% Female students	58.2%	57.9%	57.1%
% Nonwhite students	40.5%	39.2%	41.4%
% Nonwhite employees	24.3%	23.3%	23.6%

Note: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Analyses. Our primary mode of analysis consisted of bivariate techniques, including mean comparisons, cross tabulations with chi-square statistical tests, and correlations. While the survey response rate limited our ability to generate regression analyses, the descriptive statistics provide important insight into the individuals tasked with diversity, equity, and inclusion work on college campuses. Given the expansive scope of the survey questions and the overall representativeness of the respondent group, we used our analysis as a way to develop a composite profile of contemporary campus administrative work surrounding diversity, equity, and inclusion. Thus, although our study is quantitative, the findings are communicated in a format that resembles a descriptive style that is more typical of qualitative investigations, on account of it interweaving units of descriptive data with theoretical and interpretive reflexivity throughout (Creswell, 2013).

Limitations

Although the survey response rate prohibited the utilization of regression analyses, those who did respond were a representative group, enabling us to produce a composite profile of administrative work relating to the practice of equity and inclusion on campuses. In addition, the responses offered some initial insight into how campuses without official CDOs organized diversity and equity work.

Notably, our survey response rate and the respondent group's characteristics are congruent with a similar national survey administered to CDO-type officers in March of 2011 (Witt/Kieffer, 2011). In the 2011 survey, 1,800 CDO-types from public and private institutions were invited to participate (how the researchers sampled respondents was not reported in their findings), and it yielded 94 responses, or a 5% rate of response. In contrast, the overall response rate for our survey was 10%. Both surveys found that 54% of CDO-type administrators were part of their respective campus administrative leadership teams, with about one-fifth of CDOs reporting to the provost (the 2011 study indicated 20% as compared to 21.2% in our survey). Though the number of cases available for analysis does present limitations, the data collected in our survey is representative of the random sample (Table 1), rendering its use appropriate in considering the prevalence and importance of equity-minded practices in campus equity and inclusion efforts.

Findings

The Structure of CDO-type Administrative Work. Within our sample of two- and four-year colleges and universities (N = 447), human resources (HR) and student affairs units were the dominant organizational homes for the majority (67.8%) of CDO-type campus leaders (Table 2). The tendency to house CDO-type responsibilities in HR was greater in two-year compared to four-year campuses, with 44.9% versus 22.3%, respectively (X^2= 35.78, p<0.001). Four-year campuses also tended to organize CDO-type work in diversity units (17.5%) as compared to other organizational arrangements, whereas just 5.1% of two-year campuses organized it in this way (X^2= 15.069, p<0.001). These data suggest that two-year campuses may organize equity work through a compliance and employment lens rather than a student development lens, which is a paradox, given the discrete equity focus that underscores the philosophical role of open-access, two-year colleges. The findings may suggest that HR functions around issues such as racial, gender, or age equity are more pressing organizational concerns relative to the labor force matters that two-year institutions confront.

Table 2. *Administrative Area of Senior Diversity Administrator by Level of Degree Campus Offers*

	4+ Years	2-Year but less than 4-years	All
Student Affairs	40.9%*	29.8%	36.5%
Academic Affairs	5.6%	4.5%	5.1%
Human Resources	22.3%	44.9%***	31.3%
President's Office	6.3%	6.7%	6.5%
Diversity Office	17.5%***	5.1%	12.5%
Other	7.5%	9.0%	8.0%
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Note: *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001

Our interpretations of these findings are not designed to indict two or four-year campuses in any way, but to raise consciousness about the possible unintended consequences of the structures that may represent assets or reasons for concern for the larger cause of campus equity and inclusion. Equity and inclusion for students and employees are both paramount organizational concerns and values. Our findings raise questions about the degree to which HR professionals are connected to the educational or student-focused components of campus-wide visions for diversity, with a focus on the role of diversity in the curriculum being a likely notable gap in HR leaders' expertise. Alternatively, if four-year campuses tend to situate diversity functions through a student affairs organizational lens, this may favor a co-curricular focus on diversity and equity over a curricular focus, or it might downplay routine compliance or legal aspects of equity in employment or labor relations on campus. Williams, Berger and McClendon (2013) argue for a more synergistic organizational structure that allows for the merging and overlapping of these domains; these findings support this synergistic approach to an extent. However, our findings also allude to the pattern that a synergistic structure, such as organizing through a dedicated diversity office, is a structure associated with four-year institutions. Academic prestige may also be driving these organizational arrangements. Campuses that situated the CDO-type position within the structure of the president's office were significantly more academically competitive than the other four-year selective institutions in the sample ($p<0.05$).

Leadership. Across the 447 sample campuses, we found that 6.3% of diversity work was performed under the moniker of an official "Chief Diversity Officer" title, with the majority of CDO-type administrators holding the title of Director or below (see Table 3). Whereas 38% held the title of Director, Associate Director, or Assistant Director, only 20% held the title of Vice President. These findings on diversity administrators most starkly diverge from Williams and Wade-Golden's (2013) reporting. Their seminal work on CDOs emerged from a study of campus administrators, who, as with our study, were the "most high-ranking diversity administrators" (p. 20). Williams and Wade-Golden also required that their respondents have a "direct reporting relationship to their institution's president or provost," (p .20) and that they hold a position title with a high-status moniker (e.g. senior advisor, vice …, associate vice…, or dean). Our approach did not limit the individuals in this way. Instead, we looked at where the most senior diversity administrator existed in the organizational hierarchy, assuming diversity work must have been conducted, even if the organization did not situate a position for diversity in the top level of its administrative structure. As a consequence of our approach, we tested whether the hierarchical status of the CDO-type administrator varied according to institutional type, and it did. More four-year campuses labeled their CDO-type administrator as an assistant or associate vice president/provost/chancellor (6.3%) compared to two-year campuses (2%), $X^2=7.106$, $p<0.01$). Alternatively, 45.5% of two-year campuses ranked their most senior CDO-type administrator as a director, associate director, or assistant director, compared to 33.5% of four-year campuses that used these same categories for their diversity officers ($p<0.01$).

Together, the rank of the CDO-type administrator coupled with the structure of the organization, tells us that the administration of diversity, equity, and inclusion is structurally unique in the two-year and four-year institutional contexts. We know that half of the students enrolled at community colleges (which are largely two-year, non-selective institutions) identify as racial or ethnic minorities, and that nearly a third are first-generation college students (American Association of Community Colleges, 2021). If, in two-year colleges, the CDO-type leader tends to reside at both a lower administrative rank, and in an HR unit, are the teaching and learning aspects of equity being attended to in a way that will facilitate retention and transfer? In addition, are the equity concerns of faculty (particularly part-time and contingent faculty), or trades and services employees being optimally

served where the senior diversity administrator is situated in a student affairs vice presidency structure?

Respondent Group Insights: Who is doing the work? The findings from our respondent group (N = 43) provide a composite for CDO-type practitioners. Black or African American individuals represent a substantial number (37.5%) of the leaders who serve as their institution's CDO-type senior diversity officer. When aggregating people of minoritized racial backgrounds together, this percentage rises to 75%. Williams and Wade-Golden's (2013) work on the most senior CDOs observed 74% of their sample comprised of individuals with African American racial backgrounds. However, when broken down by institutional level, only 17% of senior diversity administrators in our sample were Black or African American on two-year campuses (X^2= 11.26, p<0.05). This finding may be related to the tendency of two-year institutions to house CDO-types within HR, which tends not to prioritize students' concerns about diversity. Notably, while students have been the ones advocating and demanding greater racial representation among universities' academic leaders (Chessman & Wayt, 2016), HR units have not necessarily been the target for such reform, even though HR units could be associated with the underrepresentation of Black or African American CDOs on two-year campuses. In contrast to the CDO-type employment pattern at two-year campuses, more than half of the students enrolled at community colleges identify as racial or ethnic minorities (American Association of Community Colleges, 2021).

Table 3. *Patterns of Titles for Senior Administrators Focused on Diversity, Equity, and Inclusion*

	Count	Percentage
President	9	2
Chief Diversity Officer	28	6
Vice President	89	20
Associate or Assistant VP	19	4
Dean	34	8
Associate or Assistant Dean	21	5
Director, Assoc. Dir., or Asst. Dir.	171	38
Other	76	17
Total	447	100

From a critical quantitative perspective, the data associated with structural positions of the CDO-type role are complicated. The most senior diversity administrator is both a leader and symbolic figure on campus. Who occupies this role, and what this person brings to the table, in terms of their personal attributes, competencies, and experiences with structural and institutionalized forms of oppression, are of immediate and central importance to transforming and advancing organizational goals for equity and inclusion within a campus community. As Jackson and O'Callaghan (2009) suggest, the CDO-type administrator role can contribute to structural tokenism in organizations. When institutionalized norms on campus have historically foreclosed the possibility of people with minoritized identities from rising to relatively high administrative leadership positions, the initiation

of a CDO position may become *the* place for advancement, rather than one of many opportunities throughout the organization. Alternatively, what these findings may reveal is a pattern indicating that minoritized individuals tend to demonstrate or acquire greater competence, leadership, and commitments for working with diversity, equity, and inclusion, and social justice issues compared to individuals from majority backgrounds. Our findings provide support for this interpretation; 72% of CDO-type administrators reported holding graduate degrees. All of the CDO-type leaders in our respondent group who held graduate degrees also produced diversity-related theses. This in fact suggests that the respondents at four-year campuses were decidedly more competent, expert-level, and better trained on the subject matter required for the job. Speaking to their potential commitment might be the pattern, we found that 38% of the CDO-type administrators at four-year campuses were the first in their families to obtain an undergraduate degree, and 54% were the first to obtain a graduate degree. These findings might suggest a particular passion for work in education (however, further analyses would be required to fully assess this assertion). Together, these findings suggest that four-year CDO-type administrators, prior to holding their campus positions, have worked to contribute to the literature in their academic fields surrounding diversity, perhaps in part as a reflection of their lived experiences.

Our data further suggest that many senior diversity leaders are relatively new to their positions. The majority (66%) had served in their CDO-type professional role four or fewer years. The longest current term among the campus diversity leaders surveyed was approximately fourteen years. Only four respondents indicated that their campus maintained a CDO-type position before 2000. Three more campuses instituted a CDO-type role by 2003, and the rest of the respondent group indicated that their organizational role was established after 2003, or in the post-*Grutter/Gratz* timeframe, as has been suggested in prior literature (Williams & Wade-Golden, 2007; Williams & Wade-Golden, 2013). While it is not apparent from these statistics whether there is a high turnover rate in CDO positions or whether any growth in the number of positions accounts for the relatively short average tenure length in the position, these numbers highlight the relative lack of historical knowledge of individuals in these positions on many campuses, which may complicate CDO-type administrators' efforts to invoke systemic institution-wide change.

Among those providing diversity, equity, and inclusion administrative leadership, only one-fifth of the respondent group had this as their singular professional focus (see Table 4). For three-fifths of the respondent group, their CDO-type duties amounted to half of their overall responsibilities. The degree of administrative responsibility (ranging from none, partial, or full responsibility) for different forms of work related to diversity, equity, and inclusion varied widely. These variations were not correlated with institutional type (two or four-year), the relative financial need of the student body (percentage of Pell-eligible students), or the overall graduation rate of students. These findings call into question how much attention CDO-type administrators may be able to pay to diversity and equity matters on campus given competing priorities. Issues of a political nature may also arise, complicating these CDO-types' abilities to champion diversity (Williams & Wade-Golden, 2007; Birnbaum, 1988). It is unclear from our findings *why* so many CDO-types must fulfill a variety of other functions on campus, yet the fact that so many do raises questions about the degree to which diversity is functionally attended to on campus—whether diversity initiatives themselves are adequately funded, and whether CDO-types have manageable workloads given their multiple responsibilities. Within our sample, campus compositional diversity was correlated with the degree of professional responsibility in specific domains. We found a negative relationship between the percentage of students and the percentage of employees identifying with underrepresented racial backgrounds on campus and the corresponding degree of professional responsibility that the CDO-type administrator had for: (a) recruiting and reaching out to prospective students of diverse

backgrounds, and (b) providing support to underrepresented students on campus (see Table 4). In other words, as the percentage of students and employees of color increased, the CDO-type's degree of professional responsibility for recruitment and support of underrepresented students decreased, on average. This finding raises the question of whether campuses with diverse student and employee bodies are relying upon structural diversity alone to achieve their inclusion and equity goals (Hurtado, Milem, Clayton-Pedersen, & Allen, 1998), or whether campuses are approaching the process of facilitating diversity-related outcomes with purpose. It is possible, for instance, that other units are responsible for fulfilling these inclusion and equity-related tasks on campus. However, it seems that the synergies, mutuality, and community conversations so critical to equity-minded practitioners championing the cause of equity and inclusion on campus – especially through the use of data monitoring and institutional-level coordination – are at risk.

Implications

Our results provide insight about the administrators fulfilling CDO-type roles and their work. Although the predictive capacity of our data is limited, our sample offers value in its representativeness (for both two- and four-year campuses) and the expansive scope of topics explored in the survey data. Notably, our data suggest that while CDO-type administrators hold a large share of the responsibility for cultural and climate dimensions of diversity on campus, they hold far less responsibility for structural tasks, such as recruiting diverse students and employees, and data monitoring tasks designed to evaluate the relative representation of demographic groups.

As such, CDO-types may need to become stronger advocates in articulating the relationships between the structural aspects of equitable policy and practice on campus, and the climate aspects of cultivating feelings of inclusion among campus community members. Senior campus administrators (and those who supervise CDO-type administrators) must also recall the importance of recruiting and data monitoring practices as keys to advancing campus equity and inclusion objectives. While this study is formative, we aim to position this research as a reference point for understanding the ways diversity and equity work occur day-in and day-out on college campuses. As Williams, Berger and McClendon (2013) described, are diversity administrators being buried in the layers of HR structures, as they were initially in the corporate sector? Is the compositional diversity of a campus really driving the work routines of diversity administrators in monitoring equity? These are some of the pressing questions that must be further addressed. Educational equity and inclusion are moving targets that must be continuously re/assessed and re/evaluated through the ever-changing lenses of social attitudes, political structures, and economic opportunities available to individuals based on their social identity and status at any given time.

Table 4. *Senior Diversity Leaders' Responsibilities for Administrative Tasks Relating to Diversity, Equity, and Inclusion & Significant Correlations with Campus Characteristics*

	Proportional Level of Responsibility (%)			Correlations					
	None	Partial	Full	Select-ivity	Percent Female	Religious	Campus Size	Percent Students of Color	Percent Employees of Color
Data monitoring & reporting of campus performance	19.4	54.8	25.8						

indicators on diversity & equity									
Recruitment & outreach to prospective students of diverse backgrounds	29.0	58.1	12.9					-0.536**	-0.380*
Support to underrepresented students	3.2	58.1	38.7					-0.404*	-0.621***
Monitoring procedural adherence to diversity & equity in admissions policies	64.5	29	6.5						
Monitoring procedural adherence to diversity & equity in employment policies	58.1	29	12.9				0.575***		
Implementing campus-wide diversity & equity educational programming	6.5	51.6	41.9						
Overseeing compliance with Title IX	41.9	29	29						
Recruiting diverse faculty/staff	45.2	48.4	6.5			-0.477***	0.547***		0.390*
Administering external grant-funded programs that promote diversity or equity on campus	54.8	3.3	12.9	-0.379*					
Responding to concerns over the quality of the climate for diversity or equity on campus	0	48.4	51.6						
Developing communication strategies for addressing issues of equity on campus	9.7	58.1	32.3						
Support to veteran students	48.4	48.4	3.2		0.388*				
Support to international students	35.5	45.2	19.4			9.361*	-0.463***		-0.454***
Coordinating study abroad programs	87.1	9.7	3.2						

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"*If the Economic Dominates Life . . .*" The Ethics of Revenue-Sharing Partnerships for Online Learning

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Driven by the continuous need for new revenue sources and the desire to extend the reach and solidify the "brand" of an institution, college and university administrators have turned to online possibilities, found their internal capacities not up to the task of a high quality turn to online programming, and looked to (or been seduced by) for-profit online program managers (OPMs) to fill a very real gap quickly and without requiring upfront investment of resources. COVID-19 (and the promise of future pandemics and environmental crises) has only intensified the need to look outside the institution for online programming assistance and support, as administrators and faculty pedal as fast as they can to keep students learning and enrollment returning. As in any significant change, ethical and educational dangers lurk. In this essay, offered as a grounded philosophical analysis, we both identify those dangers utilizing a critical pragmatist ethic of responsibility and offer concrete guidance for higher education administrators who confront the need for high quality online offerings *now*.

We are not the only ones ringing the alarm about revenue-sharing partnerships between universities and OPMs. Such partnerships have been criticized for being "too good to be true," as in the particular case of Concordia University (Newton, 2020), or examined and found wanting in the aggregate by, for example, The Century Foundation (2019). Here we argue that an ethical standpoint is the right point of entry when considering a revenue-sharing partnership with a for-profit OPM, and that the right ethic is a critical pragmatist ethic of responsibility, or "responsible leadership." Only a critical ethical stance consistently surfaces four important factors—time, power, care, and justice—and underscores the importance of how/where attention is focused in the process of designing new online programs. The failure to pay attention to these factors in the process of decision-making results in programs that do not respect the university and those interactions that make it what it is, nor respect the persons—faculty and students—who learn together within that institution.

We proceed here *through* a constructed case study and accompanying analysis. We represent the case in two installments that track the phases of program decision and design, and implementation and improvement. After describing the case, we offer a more detailed theoretical explanation of "responsible leadership" to set up our analysis. As you will see, a *failure to attend* to matters of time, power, care, and fairness in the decision and design phase result in problematic student and faculty experience in the implementation and improvement phase. The ethical import of a non-profit/for-profit partnership can only be seen in its effects tracked back on processes of decision-making. This is the particular insight of a pragmatist ethic, and it is why we urge its use as the most fruitful approach to potential partnerships where values are clearly at odds even when interests may seem to align or be complementary.

We conclude with a discussion that takes up the relationship between what is educational and what is ethical and how both can be corrupted when what is profitable becomes the primary metric and model for decision-making.

The Case: Elite University and WeCan2

EU is a private university, well-known for excellence in research, graduate and professional education, *and* the undergraduate student educational experience. Although the university has a strong endowment and considerable financial security, it has faced the same challenges that impact higher education elsewhere. Tuition from graduate education in professional areas had been used by EU as a revenue stream to support other programming that does not itself generate sufficient revenue. In the historic higher education landscape, making use of this source of revenue had been limited by the geographic reach of the university. The possibility of online education—especially if the program is conceived in a high-quality way— offers an enticing opportunity to imagine new dollars into existence, dollars that could be used to prevent existing programs from being shuttered, jobs being lost, or financial aid being cut.

Historically, programs in the EU School of Education prioritized the preferences of faculty for weekday-daytime class times and traditional semester schedules. Prior to the COVID-19 pandemic, little appetite existed among faculty for online components of courses, accompanied by a perception that online higher education offerings were not high quality and possibly even predatory in nature.

WeCan2 (WC2) is a for-profit, publicly traded company that contracts with non-profit institutions of higher education to offer online degree and credentialing programs. Rather than conferring degrees itself, WC2 supports institutions by providing a cloud-based platform, marketing capacity (including social media), high production values, technical know-how, limited course design support, and capital to deliver online programs. WC2 emphasizes revenue-sharing arrangements with higher education institutions that allot the company a large slice of tuition revenue (typically at least 60%) and long-term contracts in exchange for the university's ease of quick start-up with little upfront investment.

Decision and Design. WC2 approached EU administrators and pitched the possibility of partnering. WC2 projected a large pool of potential new professional students and, with it, a reliable new revenue stream and an expanding positive reputation. Department chairs in the School of Education were encouraged to come up with proposals for potential programs. One proposal was to build a professional doctorate that would be similar to but slightly different from a highly regarded and well-subscribed Doctor of Education (Ed.D.) program on campus, a typical formula for these ventures.

The WC2 team visited campus several times to encourage senior (highly accomplished and visible) faculty to develop two hours/week asynchronous course materials that would be supplemented with 90-minute synchronous sessions each week across a 14-week term. The live sessions would be largely taught by adjuncts hired for that purpose. While the costs for the development of the initial asynchronous material (faculty compensation) would be borne by the university, production expenses of additional tens of thousands for each course would be borne upfront by WC2 as an investment against future earnings.

Faculty asked predictable questions: Am *I* required to teach in this program? Can online teaching meet our pedagogical standards? How will digitally distanced teacher-student relationships impact student learning? There were also questions about partnering with a for-profit entity. Would the instructional model provide value to the students? Would the program embody the pedagogical, relational, and intellectual values that faculty took for granted?

While questions and concerns predominated, there was also muted support. Some faculty were persuaded that having a program like this would spread the EU "brand" widely *and* allow the college to attract a more unique and diverse student body than it had previously. They were also buoyed by the idea that the faculty role would involve only developing and teaching the courses one time; WC2

would handle all logistical concerns, including recruiting high quality adjuncts to teach subsequent iterations of each course.

In the end, faculty resistance was vocal but left unresolved, and no tenure track faculty stepped forward to champion the effort. A group of respected lecturers were charged by administrators with developing a sketch of the program and recruiting lead instructors to develop the asynchronous content. Over the course of a few months, they had identified a set of courses for a three-year program, ordered largely by those who could quickly turn their attention to course development. The program was approved by the appropriate departmental and college committees in record time without approval of the still-to-be-developed courses.

The contract would bind WC2 and EU for 10 years. WC2 would garner 60% of all tuition revenue; the school would net the rest after paying instructional costs. A new cohort would begin in September, January, and May each year with a goal of approximately 60 new students each term. By the time the first cohort graduated, there would be about 540 students somewhere in the program pipeline at any given time. For the university, this business model would generate revenue based on low profit margins but high volume. WC2 also promised to provide student support personnel, help candidates in navigating the program, offer students procedural and academic guidance, and identify adjunct instructors for each live session section.

WC2 began recruiting students before the first courses were fully produced. The required capstone experience was envisioned but not specified, and the annual on-campus immersion experiences were little more than a line on a plan. Who would teach which course sections had yet to be worked out. In addition, the program had no formal director, curriculum committee, or mechanism for coordination among faculty about course content or about concern for students. In the early design phase, faculty raised questions with the WC2 "design consultants," with one response consistently emphasized: "You don't have to clarify everything now. Some of this will be building the plane while flying it."

WC2's recruitment was effective but less than transparent. Prospective students were not told that the employees of WC2, who called themselves "admissions counselors," were not employees of EU and were not connected to campus or faculty in any direct way. Prospective students were repeatedly called and emailed by these WC2 recruiters to ensure that they met application deadlines. Recruiters noted when particular students were at risk financially but took no steps to help students determine whether they would be able to pay degree costs or to support an analysis of return on investment. The total cost of the degree was substantial (more than a year's salary for many students), and there was virtually no scholarship money available. Students were, of course, free to take out loans for the cost of the program, and some students' employers provided tuition support.

Uncertainties abounded. Because this was a new degree program, there was no way to predict with certainty how having the degree would impact candidates' professional development and future earnings. Also, no one discussed how difficult and stressful it would be for students to pursue an advanced degree while working full-time largely removed from any in-person cohort support or face-to-face faculty guidance.

The initial cohort of prospective students was recruited and vetted by WC2 and reviewed and admitted by EU faculty (despite prior assurances that such work would not fall on faculty). The cohort numbered 30 including more persons of color than is typical in on-campus EU programs, *and* it represented an array of positions/professional interests as hoped. Faculty who had agreed to develop courses were excited about getting started with a qualified and diverse group of students.

Implementing and Improving. Enrollments rose as promised and by the third cohort, the size of each new group was approximately 60 students, requiring 4 live session sections of 15 students of

each course each semester. The quick growth of the program was a financial windfall, but the numbers made it more difficult to respond to students' concerns and address early gaps in planning.

Some student concerns related to the quality of instruction. Adjunct instructors referred by WC2 to teach course sections varied widely in qualification and in expectations for students. Students regularly complained about a lack of feedback on their assignments and considerable inconsistency from one class to another. This necessitated EU to take over the task of identifying and hiring qualified instructors. To stabilize instruction, three persons with strong teaching records were hired as full-time lecturers for the program. Their role included the teaching of a full load of sections year-round (four sections each semester) as well as serving as anchor faculty for specific courses, taking the lead with other adjunct instructors to ensure consistency and quality. They also helped to prospect instructors for each course. This move had a significant positive impact on the quality of instruction but reinforced that the program was being staffed by "shadow faculty," persons who did not reside on campus and had little institutional leverage or legitimacy.

Curricular issues also emerged. Students identified overlap in course content. Because changes to asynchronous course materials were discouraged by WC2 due to production expense, overlaps were nearly impossible to remedy. Other issues were fixable. For example, feedback from students after the end of their first year on-campus immersion experience prompted changes in the experience for subsequent cohorts, including face time with highly regarded tenure track faculty (who were not teaching in the program). Later, as the first cohort struggled through capstone development, the capstone assignment was made more manageable by replacing not-yet-developed courses with two dedicated capstone courses, one to develop a capstone proposal and the other to complete the actual data gathering and write-up.

Students' most consistent frustration centered on issues related to recognition and status. Students in the program expressed to instructors, in assignments, and to each other that they felt like invisible and ill-treated stepchildren. They asked why they were not eligible for financial aid as were other professional students. They wondered why their immersion sessions seemed overly frugal despite their significant tuition costs. They asked why capstone sites were prospected and arranged for those enrolled in the on-campus Ed.D., while they had to find their own sites (outside their own places of employment). They noted that faculty who were not regularly involved in the online program hinted that they were not "real students" during immersion sessions. When they came on campus, they wondered where their course designers and instructors were, as well as the folks who had been their points of contact during application, admission, and enrollment. They observed an increase of live session class size in their second year and complained about reduced access to instructor attention.

From the start, it was evident that the cultural and professional diversity of the students created challenges for interaction and instruction. The curriculum (individual courses and overall program structure) had not adequately addressed the needs and interests of the diverse group of individuals enrolled. There were also a significant number of complaints with respect to institutional racism, microaggressions (on the part of both instructors and peers), and some simmering racial tension between and among specific students.

Even requests to WC2 for technical support were not always addressed in a timely way. Both faculty and students grew frustrated with WC2 over unmet promises. Many procedures—schedules for new instructor access to online course materials (two weeks before start dates) and schedules for minor online content adjustments (five weeks into the prior semester), for example—seemed focused on making things administratively easy for WC2 rather than timed to instructional need and feedback.

Instructors who heard and experienced these concerns passed them on to the program director. The program director, though receptive, did not have the institutional authority to make program changes on her own, especially concerning any decisions with revenue impacts. Still, students and instructors continued to learn and teach; a new cohort of roughly 60 students began the program each term.

Driving Decision-Making with an Ethic of Responsibility

How are we to think of this case, a case representative of universal possibilities if not each specific reality of revenue-sharing partnerships for online programs? In the telling of the case above, it seems clear that elements unacknowledged and unattended to in decision-making and design lead not just to practical problems but to ethical concerns. If students are not cared for, are treated unfairly, are marginalized, this is an ethical matter. If high quality instruction is not ensured, this is an ethical matter. If curriculum overlaps and omissions are not addressed, this is an ethical matter. A mode of decision-making that ensures attention to these matters *as (potentially) ethical*—especially when engaged with a partner whose *raison d'être* is profit-based—is much needed.

The critical pragmatist approach to ethical decision-making we take up here is framed by the naturalist ethics of classical pragmatists like William James (1891; 1899) and John Dewey (1922; 1932; 1939); by the "hyperbolic ethic" of Emmanuel Levinas (1981); by the language of Christian theologian H. Richard Niebuhr in his 1963 book, *The Responsible Self*; and by the perspectives of feminist ethicists, especially Kelly Oliver (2002; 2018). These authors understand that response-ability lay at the heart of ethical possibility. But they also value the intersectional insights of critical scholars of race, class, gender, ability, and other forms of oppression, insisting that social location matters in anticipating and assessing the quality of human interaction. It is an ethic that is optimistic but without illusion, looking ahead to what can be, while acknowledging all that is and has been.

An ethic of response begins in the acknowledgement that much of daily action, including professional decision-making, takes shape in automatic reaction to immediate circumstances rather than reflective response to situations fully considered. We often *react* automatically rather than act thoughtfully, because we are moved by habit into usual ways of doing things expressed in policy and procedure. Such reacting is not a problem in itself. It is the way that administrators enact responsibilities efficiently, at least when habits have been well-formed in the face of a rich and inclusive understanding of the world. It is only when policies and procedures fail to meet the situation—in the face of new persons, new values, new circumstances—that leaders are moved to think anew and to reconstruct the habits that have served until now. Then decision-makers do well to *respond*, not simply to react. For a university administrator, a potential *partnership* (as opposed to vendor relationship) with a for-profit entity flags the need to reflect and respond, to put a pause on the automatic, and to acknowledge competing motivating values through a conscious process of interpretation and anticipation of consequences in the context of communities of action and value.

A heuristic for doing just this can be found in Niebuhr's elucidation of the ways we think-into-action ethically and how we can do it well and thoroughly. Rooted in a Deweyan vision of ethical functioning, Niebuhr acknowledges that all human action is in response to situations only partly of our own making. Being able to recognize and acknowledge when circumstances present a novel challenge is the first step. This recognition short-circuits business-as-usual and begins the process of more thorough and nuanced interpretation of the problem itself. Put simply, one asks, what is going on here?

A university's potential partnership with a for-profit entity is the kind of prompt or provocation that requires such recognition. There is no question that running a university is "big business,"

requiring a careful but realistic assessment of the financial impact of programs and partnerships. But the profit-motive is not the same as fiscal responsibility within a non-profit framework. The potential for distortion of purpose looms large if circumstances are not fully interpreted and understood.

In this *interpretive movement,* in Niebuhr's terms, the administrator is compelled to look for the ways that this situation is different from other similar situations and how the differences present new ethical challenges and possibilities. One draws on past practice and standard operating procedures, of course, but also on other sources of data—stated mission and goals, relational factors, interests of stakeholders, and overlapping elements of context—that uncover concerns not addressed by those standard procedures. How one operates with non-profit funders, for example, does not serve as a guide for how to negotiate and cooperate with for-profit OPMs.

Only after interpretation reveals potential temptations and/or problematic shortcuts can administrators begin to frame appropriate modes of proceeding and options for action, which may be familiar or newly invented. Options are then subject to mental rehearsal, anticipating what might be the consequence if universities, for instance, negotiate away responsibility for functions like student recruitment and advisement, and whether those likely consequences embody the values and mission of the university.

Of course, this interpretation and anticipation is never the practice of an isolated individual administrator *even though it may feel that way to the decision-maker*. A university's identity, rooted in what it has been and hopes to become, embodies priorities and values. The administrator's task is both to conserve that identity while reconstructing it when needed. The possibility of partnership with a for-profit entity offers opportunity for preserving what is of educational value while conceivably altering fiscal presence. This is the admittedly difficult challenge in the kind of case presented here. How are access and equity, caring, curricular coherence, and pedagogical integrity—as well as traditions of faculty governance and institutional reputation—safeguarded while opening to new sources of income designed to answer other motivations?

Niebuhr's pragmatist and situated ethic of responsibility is rendered critical when dimensions of race, class, gender, and other forms of oppression (and the privilege that accompanies oppression) are intentionally and explicitly acknowledged and analyzed. That is, a critical ethic of responsibility is affirmatively anti-oppressive and anti-racist. As we see below, using privilege as a lens (with respect to race, to proximity to campus, and to equity access to financial aid) yields concerns worth considering.

The critical pragmatist response is an ethic of and for concrete cases and consequences that give meaning to acts taken. What is determinative is not good intentions, but whether one responds to the known demands in any given situation, and whether one is willing to *expand the known* in order to respond more fully and fittingly in the light of communities of action and the values that emerge from them.

With this ethic in mind, we turn to the case above to suggest that early failures to carefully attend to the demands of similar situations will impact the quality of a program. By demonstrating how this ethic illuminates this particular type of case, we are making a *prima facie* argument that leaders in higher education today should employ this mode of decision-making as the lines between non-profit and for-profit entities are blurred.

A critical pragmatist response mode requires that we attend carefully and respectfully—at the juncture(s) for decision-making—to persons in context, to institutional realities, to external circumstances, and to possibilities for both preservation and change. That means, for example, that student complaints must always be taken seriously, but they must also always be taken in context. A program's success in generating much-needed new revenue is a compelling point for attention, as are external pressures like changing demographics, a faltering economy, and a global pandemic. In addition, any new program—no matter what its origins—will have growing pains. Such sore points, once identified, can be analyzed to shine light on causes that can then be rooted out and avoided going forward. This is an ethical responsibility when a program problem is recognized. At the same time, it would be irresponsible from a pragmatist perspective not to review decisions and decision-making processes in light of their consequences in order to inform or reveal their ethical quality. That is, the "growing pains" that become evident as the program proceeds may be understood as the consequences of past failures of (in)attention and (lack of) anticipation.

Here we consider some of the early failures of attention and anticipation that yielded effects that made an ethical difference. Were the program problems described here predictable (and avoidable), or primarily a function of changing circumstances? Circumstances *do* change and one's specific responsibility changes with them. However, the important point here is *how the habits that the academy has long lived by to ensure program quality may be pushed aside in the pursuit of revenue (and the crux of the problem when profit/non-profit motives collide).*

Five potentially problematic elements of the case described here seem like they could have been recognized and avoided had administrators viewed the case through an ethical lens—and prepared to resist the press of a for-profit timeframe and motive (see also, Moore, 2019):

1. Misunderstandings (and possibly misrepresentations) may exist as to the respective substantive and contractual responsibilities of the university and the Online Program Manager (OPM).

2. Recruitment practices and tuition charges can be, or can be perceived to be, predatory.

3. A hastily-fashioned program may not be adequately designed for a) content-rich learning experiences, integrated with b) authentic pedagogical relations *specific to an online environment*, that reflects c) the experience of already extant programs/institutions with analogous contexts and modes of delivery, and that ensures high quality faculty in adequate supply.

4. Students in the online program can be—or at least perceive themselves to be (unjustly)—less valued by the university than are students in on-campus programs in the absence of affirmative steps to prevent that reality.

5. The promise of a more diverse student pool requires careful consideration in the design of the program and will not be taken into account unless consciously addressed.

Below we consider each of these concerns. Following the frame of an ethic of responsible leadership, we engage in a process of interpretation and anticipation in order to understand the actions of decision-makers and the outcomes of those actions.

Clarify Contractual Misunderstandings/Misrepresentations. It seems important to stipulate that the kind of misrepresentations we find in this case stem from the fact that the two parties *simply may not understand each other's missions and modus operandi.* Nonetheless, we suggest that these misunderstandings are not benign and can have consequential ethical implications.

Consider the nature of the contract negotiated: an OPM offers an immediately attractive deal that would get a program up and running within a year with modest initial investment on the part of the university (though with surrender of substantial long-term tuition revenue).

Is this arrangement fair? There is a market logic built into this sort of contract that obscures any question of fairness. If a university is willing to agree, then it is, on its face, fair. But buyer beware! Why not simply negotiate with an OPM for specific services: production, marketing, et cetera? Because the OPM—in a savvy business move—recognizes a need, absorbs the upfront expense and risk, and amortizes (and appreciates) the investment over a relatively long period of time. It is in the OPM's best interest to start quickly and maximize the number of students in the program. Given the current financial state of higher education, it seems advantageous for the university as well. However, there may be other factors constraining the university that would not impact an OPM. For example, can a college adequately administer and attend to a single program that has up to 540 students—a figure that exceeds *all* its on-campus professional program enrollment—enrolled at any given time? Is any college able to offer the same quality of relational and instructional value to those enrolled? This is an ethical question. The students benefit from the university's reputation, but do they benefit from an equivalent education?

There are three clear elements of potential contractual misunderstanding that have educational and ethical import. First, an OPM offers course design assistance, but that does not necessarily mean the same thing to an OPM that it does to professional educators. The OPM employs a rotating slate of course designers with virtually no pedagogical experience who wield pro forma templates in weekly meetings as the faculty develop courses. It seems that a view of teaching as telling predominates. The relational dimensions of teaching get short shrift. When an OPM indicates that they have instructional design expertise, they are probably telling the truth as they understand it, but that understanding may or may not match the university's understanding. The value of what is on offer can easily be missed.

Second, the OPM claims that prospecting qualified instructors for sections as the enrollment rapidly grew to 18 sections each term would be a simple task. They also suggested that the remote instructors' qualifications were less important since they were simply facilitators of the course content created by the faculty designers. However, this is contestable. *Students* view section instructors as *teachers*. They justifiably expect their instructors to have more than passing acquaintance with the content of the course—and certainly more in-depth knowledge than the students themselves could glean from the readings, videos, and mock student discussions. They expect instructors to provide feedback on assignments, grade fairly, and be prepared for class sessions. If the adjunct instructors recommended by an OPM are unable to meet students' minimum expectations, then the university fails to provide a high quality program. The failure is the OPM's, but the ethical responsibility falls on the university.

Third, can recruitment, application, and admissions be handled in a competent and caring way by outsiders with no feel for the life of and expectations for a student of the university? And is it realistic and responsible for a university to accept this premise? Those teaching course sections had no direct knowledge of what students were promised or how the program was represented. Enrolled students were handed off with promises of support but without any continuous contact. This would never be the case for a student enrolling in an on-campus program.

What is at stake here is the question, what constitutes a university education? Unsurprisingly, an OPM may view education as a matter of content delivery. Both sales pitch and contract typically assume this; so does the assistance provided at each stage of implementation. While this is a view with significant currency in a social and economic milieu that focuses on the individual student's economic value (Stengel, 2017), it is problematically narrow from most historical and philosophical perspectives (Mann, 1848; Biesta, 2010). That any university does not thoroughly question this perspective before entering into a contract—and as a result, does not foresee potential gaps—is ethically troubling.

Resist Predatory Practices. In March 2019 the Brookings Institution issued a report entitled, "The Failings of Online For-profit Colleges." They documented the ways that for-profit colleges systematically seek revenue (especially the state and federal student loan monies available to students) knowing that their target populations are African Americans, women, and older students (beyond 25), and knowing in advance that their outcomes are poor, completion rates are low, and earnings after enrollment and even completion do not represent a positive return on investment. Students "are attracted by easy enrollment and assistance in procuring student financial aid [in the form of government loans], but are subsequently disappointed with the poor quality of education provided. Their hopes of improved financial stability through the pursuit of higher education meet head on with disappointing labor market outcomes and unsustainable levels of student debt." These arrangements are typically represented as "predatory" (Safier, 2019).

It is further worth noting that online revenue sharing between for-profit OPMs and non-profit universities may actually be illegal (Shireman, 2019). The Higher Education Act of 1992 states, "The Institution will not provide **any** commission, bonus, or other incentive payment based directly or indirectly on success in securing enrollments or financial aid to **any** persons or entities engaged in any student recruiting." The gray area emerges when the OPM is doing *more* than recruiting. If they are providing technical services and student support, then perhaps the recruitment "commission" can be overlooked. The Obama Administration made this decision when asked to approve the "bundling" of services that included recruitment.

Whether or not the practice is currently illegal does not answer the question of whether the practice is unethical and, more specifically, uncaring. When a non-profit educational institution pays a for-profit entity for leading students to them, there is a danger that those operating out of a profit motive are unrestrained by any concerns about whether the practice is predatory. It is, after all, not their problem if a person recruited is not ultimately able to finish a program as long as they remain a tuition-paying student for a significant period of time.

It goes without saying that predatory practices are neither caring nor educational. Nel Noddings (1983), in a well-known phenomenology of caring as an ethical and educational experience, talks about the *displacement* of one's own needs and goals in deference to those of the cared-for and also about the *engrossment* in the cared-for's welfare and development. These patterns of attention are at the heart of the non-profit university's *raison d'être*, but they are not, by definition, the driving forces when the profit motive leads. So central to the response-ability of the university is a careful consideration of the recruiting and marketing processes and practices that will bring students to any program.

And what of the other bundled services? It certainly makes sense to contract out specifically digital/technical services that a university does not have the expertise to offer. This is done regularly. But to cede responsibility (and give up tuition dollars) for obviously educational functions like advisement, student support, and recruiting faculty—functions that are well within university expertise and typically accompany caring instruction—seems ill-advised. At least, time should be

taken to develop a clear (and shared) justification for giving away educational responsibilities to a for-profit, not clearly educational (or caring) entity.

Design for an *Online* Program. Displacement and engrossment are also in play when educators design programs that ensure the well-being of students at any level. This does not mean that a careful design considers *only* the well-being of students. Naturally, there is a need to think about program sustainability with respect to faculty effort, costs, and fit with other programs and with the mission of the institution. The best program designs are synergistic; that is, student learning and growth is the starting point for planning, with designers working back and forth to optimize what is good for students with what is good for faculty and sustainable for the institution. When important elements of program design are left out of the process from the beginning, handed over to an entity whose purpose is profit over care, then it is hard to imagine how the program can truly be said to be carefully designed with online students in mind—or that the partnership is actually a partnership rather than an instrumental transaction.

One question to check the ethical defensibility of the decision-making is, (how) did past institutional experience inform the process of design *for an online program*? In institutions like EU where there is little past online experience, it is worthwhile to learn from colleagues at other institutions. If there was no concerted effort to base future plans on past experience—especially past experience with specific OPMs—then designers are on shaky ground, both practically and ethically.

It is possible to proceed, of course, without the benefit of past experience, if critical pedagogical principles—both instructional and curricular—are clear and clearly shared. In situations like the case described here, programs are often modeled after extant on-campus programs. These are typically successful programs that have gone through multiple design iterations over time and can usefully inform both design and practice. The wild card, of course, is the *online* quality of the experience. Much of the content and structure may remain the same, but so much does not.

Consider especially the often more heterogeneous audience for online programs and the digital quality of face-to-face contact between and among faculty and students. Online programs generally attract students from outside the region who prioritize access and convenience. Students who seek affiliation with a specific university may remain where they live but attend from anywhere. This is a positive opportunity to build a more diverse (racially, professionally, linguistically) community but only if the pedagogical strategies are carefully planned. It is not required that each course covers a full range of student interactions (that does not happen on campus), but it is important that a program be planned to ensure that students have multiple opportunities to interact with both breadth and depth, both intellectually and more personally, across a set of courses and program experiences.

As a program is being designed, it is ethically necessary to ensure time-consuming conversations about authentic pedagogical relations when the teaching-learning time is both asynchronous and synchronous—and when the synchronous time has the appearance of "Hollywood Squares" rather than actual humans occupying actual space in a classroom. Instructors report that it takes longer (more "contact hours" in synchronous sessions) for instructors to feel that they know their students than it would in face-to-face encounters. It surely is possible to develop caring relations digitally, but there are unquestionably differences (body language, facial expressions, et cetera) that require attention and planning.

Another pedagogical area involves advisement and progress-monitoring of students, not only within each course, but also across the program. Are opportunities planned in advance to allow and encourage program faculty to express concerns and raise questions about students' performance *for formative purposes*? If a student struggles to keep up, how do instructors determine whether this struggle is a blip or a pattern? And what are the protocols and procedures for regular advisement in

such cases? Is it the sole responsibility of individual course instructors? Does each student have an advisor who is also an advocate? Planning to review and respond to student progress on a regular basis ensures that no student falls through the cracks and also that no student is permitted to bypass legitimate academic benchmarks without demonstrating mastery of program objectives.

Finally, online program designers need to plan opportunities for informal engagement among faculty and students. Because there can be no drop-in to the office, or impromptu gatherings in the lounge, or quick meetings for coffee, or chance encounters in the hallway—elements that are integral to the growth of professional students on campus—thought can be afforded to digital alternatives.

These are not concerns that should surprise decision-makers. These represent predictable student needs based on concrete differences in program design. To fail to take these into account in advance of the launch of a program—or to turn these needs over to an OPM without taking steps to ensure that the OPM would address these needs *in a manner consistent with the institution's mission*—is ethically suspect under a response model of decision-making that calls us to all things considered prior to determining ethical action. It may also fly in the face of program values expressed in course content about the (ethical) demands of professional practice.

Pedagogical content and interaction have greater positive impact when high-quality instruction is ensured rather than assumed. There are several critical concerns related to identifying "qualified" instructors, concerns that reflect directly on the quality of the program and the reputation of the institution. These concerns depend on the answer to a prior question an OPM and an elite university might disagree upon: What is the role of the live session instructor? Is that person a teacher or a teaching assistant? Does that person offer content clarification based on developed expertise, or facilitate students' wrestling with the ideas and skills embedded in asynchronous material? The institution prioritizing care of and learning for students might well choose all of the above. This is especially true since all assessment (formative) and evaluation (summative) is the responsibility of the section instructor. It seems indispensable for the instructor to have at least passing expertise in the course content.

This is not how OPMs sell the ease of identifying adjunct instructors. They cannot provide assurances that well-qualified instructors are readily available to take on this responsibility for modest compensation. They simply suggest that they will handle it. However, this is not an area of expertise that one could appropriately expect of an OPM—certainly not greater than the capacity of the university faculty with respect to judgment and professional connections.

An ethic of responsibility applied to program design calls for the careful interpretation of past, present, and potential practice in the service of caring for and ensuring the growth of students. It demands as well the creative imagination of possible actions and the anticipation of likely consequences of each action/plan with educational caring clearly in mind. This does not replace financial concerns, but ethically, it must drive the consideration of *a full array of concerns.* And that interpretation, imagination, and anticipation has to occur in a timely way—as much as possible—in order to ensure that caring is built into the design rather than adopted as an afterthought.

Design for Recognition and Respect. Students in online programs are willing to pay full tuition (sometimes without possibilities for financial aid) to gain access to faculty and degree cachet of an elite institution. In an online program, they gain the benefit of convenience, do not have to interrupt their current employment, and save (most) travel expenses associated with on-site programs with weekend classes. Most seem to appreciate these trade-offs (with the exception of the differential treatment with respect to financial aid). However, they are understandably unwilling to be disrespected or unrecognized as "real students" of the university. This disrespect can be manifested in a variety of ways.

In most iterations of OPM/elite university programs under scrutiny here, the faculty with whom students interact are generally not the faculty who created the courses, nor are they regular college faculty (that is, faculty who would have their positions even if the program did not exist). As already noted, this is *by design*. The model is that "regular" faculty would create asynchronous course content and adjunct instructors would facilitate the 90-minute live meetings each week. If the program cannot be run cheaply using adjunct instructors, then the contract terms (typically under 40% of all revenue) are not favorable for the university, which carries all instructional costs. This suggests that students may be correct in their assessment that the program has less respect and recognition value than other campus programs.

The ethical question to be raised is what steps can be taken to work against this perception (and its underlying reality) while maintaining financial viability. It seems that at least four steps could mitigate against this:

1. Recruit a strong, dedicated program faculty (section instructors not just course designers), and highlight them and their accomplishments the same way that the university highlights its regular faculty.

2. Be sure that all instructors are closely aligned with what is going on in the program regarding student progress and curriculum revision.

3. Ensure that there is a university leadership team (not just a competent program director) composed of OPM and university personnel that is dedicated to the success of the online students—and that students know how to reach the team.

4. Pay careful attention to the spaces "in between" the classes, the "connective tissue" that provides informal links to and relationships with faculty over time.

Capstone experiences and annual brief campus "immersions" are two particular elements of the "in between" in many online programs. Are they planned with more than content in mind? Are a significant number of course designers and section instructors present for each immersion, at least for some social time? Are there capstone coaches who have the time and capacity to support candidates through their final project? Again, whatever is provided for on-campus students should be provided in some roughly equivalent, if digital, way to online students.

Very often online programs proceed, as this one does, in revolving cohorts, with a new group beginning each semester. This puts them out of sync with on-campus programs that often start one year with a greeting from the dean and finish up another year just in time for May commencement. A program that begins in January and ends in December does not make these kinds of greetings and goodbyes seamless. Careful thought is required so that what is provided is seen as distinctive and satisfying.

Design for Diversity. Perhaps the most educationally attractive element of the deal with a marketing-oriented OPM is the possibility of a more diverse student pool than a university's reach and reputation (and archaic admissions requirements) usually allow. Universities have recruiting arms, but they are constrained by the niceties of "college recruitment." A company that is recruiting for multiple degree programs and multiple universities has a "ground game" (fueled by social media and staffed by a sales staff) that can identify prospects and match them with programs that fit. This includes connections with communities and persons of color.

But it is simply not possible to "add diversity and stir" when welcoming students who bring stories and backgrounds that are unlike those you typically teach. Years of exploring the need for culturally responsive or culturally sustaining pedagogy (Ladson-Billings, 1995; Paris, 2012) at all levels have made it clear that modes of interaction, patterns of address, possibilities for support, and content references, among other things, may need to be overhauled to meet the needs of a culturally diverse student body in order to reach the same carefully considered educational goals. This is often a gap in both on-campus and online programs. In a program where students already feel disrespected, the failure to think this through is more substantive than a microaggression and feeds a sense that students have reason to feel aggrieved.

In truth, the presence of culturally diverse students in any cohort or section simply highlights something that is too often missed in settings where the students appear homogeneous. Intellectual integrity and pedagogical responsibility both demand a curriculum (including both the courses and the spaces between) that provides points of entry and identity for all comers. This is not a simple matter of adding a reading by an African American or Asian American scholar here or there, though the absence of work by scholars of color is telling. It requires rethinking both the life and political assumptions that underlay the very structure of the course. Does the thinking emerge from the experience of the privileged or the dispossessed? Does the framing represent the most fruitful responses in a wide range of settings? In programs that highlight professional responsibility, where are the alternative representations of actions that both support the status quo and interrupt it?

Curriculum is not the only consideration. Are faculty prepared to acknowledge and respond to potentially different communicative expectations as well as legitimate challenges to privilege that are likely to come from students who want the prestige of an elite university degree but who may also resent having to leave their minds and hearts behind in the process? (How) are faculty prepared for hard questions and difficult discussions about status, race, et cetera? What work do faculty and students do prior to and within the program to challenge their horizons of sociocultural (mis)understanding?

There is a temptation to view sociocultural difference as deficit, and it can be true that any student comes to a program without having mastered some critical skill. But that is not the same thing as looking for ways to connect students to content through their past experience and present understandings. Moreover, cultural modes of interaction (for example, an emphasis on collaboration over competition) should be understood as differences and not construed as weaknesses. Are the available digital tools up to the task of cross-cultural communication?

Diversity (within cohorts or across university programs) implies more than racial difference, of course. Simply acknowledging that students are generally adults on their own and work full-time introduces several concerns related to money and time. On the one hand, we might assume that persons earning a regular salary need less support than youngsters without an income. On the other hand, time is a luxury beyond measure for those completing a terminal degree in three years. It is reasonable to think that the question of financial aid for adults working full-time and studying full-time ought to be figured out independent of the considerations taken into account for full-time students. For example, perhaps additional financial aid is needed to provide childcare for class time and study time (a need that may disproportionately burden female students) so as to not stretch the time or the budget of students even more than their tuition debt demands.

Cynthia Dillard (2019) writes of the need for "new covenants of equity and diversity" as she considers the education of educators. Her language suggests why and how this failure to attend to the fact of diversity is an ethical issue. To fail to fully consider what/when difference makes a difference is a straight line to inequity and exclusion. An ethic of responsibility calls on us to reject the currently dominant—and rarely acknowledged—covenants Dillard articulates, covenants that rely on and

continually reinscribe Whiteness as the norm for matters of professional responsibility. Dillard replaces covenants of Whiteness (and by extension, homophobia, misogyny, et cetera) with the tenets of Martin Luther King, Jr.'s "beloved community," tenets based on shared humanity and dignity, again evoking an ethical framing. She goes a step further—as Ibram Kendi (2019) does in his recent *How to Be an Antiracist* and Kevin Kumashiro does in "Toward a Theory of Anti-Oppressive Education"—to call for (and call forth) an affirmative effort to disrupt any curriculum or communicative structure that assumes a dominant sociocultural identity.

Education, Ethics, and Profit

The elements interrogated here constitute a set of concerns that could have been anticipated and should have been considered *before* the program launched. They represent failures of attention—a critical category in a pragmatist ethic of responsibility—that occurred in the face of a rushed timeline, not-always-transparent power dynamics, sidestepping matters of care for students and faculty, and not naming critical differences in value and valuing. These failures of inattention were partly a function of a partnership negotiation that pushed issues raised as nonissues—and for the OPM, they *were* nonissues. When your only good, your only value, is revenue generation and profit-making, it is easy to dismiss concern about program integrity, student care, diversity impacts, and staffing by saying either "we've got that" or "we can address that later." Universities who enter into agreements with for-profit entities with revenue generation at the forefront must take extra care to ensure that they do not give away or neglect other mission-critical elements. When that happens, both the educational experience of the students *and* the reputation of the institution are at risk. This is surely a practical matter, but it is also a matter of ethical responsibility.

As a pragmatist ethic of responsibility explicitly acknowledges, the ethical quality of any partnership is already shaped by its roots, by the circumstances that prompt it. When the partnership is a revenue-sharing arrangement between a not-for-profit university and a for-profit OPM, when the university needs revenue and the OPM has an interest in generating it, there are pressures on decision-makers that must be acknowledged and defused if the relationship is to be ethically encouraging rather than ethically problematic. This results in both implicit and explicit pressures on university actors to cut corners and to risk exploitation (Boyles, 2019). A clash of values—especially when interests apparently align—distort possibilities for just, caring, and educative relationships. This applies to the partnership itself, but also, as we have shown above, to the relationships of administrators, faculty, and students who pursue the common goal of education.

Can a Revenue-Sharing Partnership with a For-Profit Entity be Ethical? If we employ a pragmatist lens consistently, this is not a question that can be answered in advance. We have to "take a shot" and then assess what we have done—but still we have the responsibility to take our best shot, based on interpretation and anticipation that is as complete as we can make it and as open to correction as we can muster.

Revenue sharing may not be immediately unethical, but it is unquestionably cautionary for all the reasons we document here. Senior faculty may not be excluded from decision-making per se, but they are generally *not* affirmatively engaged in the adoption of a new program under such arrangements. Program decisions and design are too often rushed. There is a lack of attention to unfolding curricular and instructional challenges of care for students, for faculty, and for the institution. Contracts lack transparency. Equity and difference are sidestepped. Basic respect for persons is lost in the shuffle. How all this will impact institutional reputation gets short shrift.

Deron Boyles quotes educational philosopher John Dewey in describing this phenomenon:

> If the economic dominates life—and if the economic order relies chiefly upon the profit motive as distinguished from the motive of professional excellence, i.e. craftsmanship [sic], and from the functional motive of giving a fair return for what is received—there is danger that a part of life, which should be subordinate or at most coordinate with other interests and values, may become supreme. (John Dewey, quoted by Boyles, pp. 117–118)

In his *Ethics*, Dewey distinguishes between functional and acquisitive societies. Functional societies have individuals performing their own roles and duties for some shared/greater good, while in acquisitive societies individuals perform their own roles and duties potentially at the expense of the greater good. We might think of the university (in conception at least) as a functional society and an OPM, as a for-profit organization, as acquisitive. A partnership between an organization called to focus on what is functional and one commanded to prioritize acquisition places pressures on both to sacrifice their calling. In a neoliberal sociopolitical environment, it is unlikely that a university can resist this pressure of monetary incentives that have perverse *educational* impacts without a clearly articulated guide for making decisions of this kind.

Just one example of such monetary incentives will suffice here. It is clearly in an OPM's interest to admit any marginally qualified student and to push students to take on loans to begin a program that they might not be able to complete because of financial or other constraints. While low standards and disappearing students might eventually impact the program's reputation, initially at least, getting warm bodies in front of the computers generates revenue for both the OPM and the university. At the same time, it is in the university's economic interest—and no real concern to the OPM since it does not impact their bottom line—to offer no financial aid unless needed to fill seats. This means that online students pay more than on-campus students for a similar degree, despite lacking access to the best-known faculty and some of the school's well-regarded student supports.

We acknowledge the power of these economic pressures, masquerading as mutual interests for the partnering OPM and university. The only way to foreground the perversity of these considerations is to begin from an explicitly ethical perspective. In the case presented here, it is relatively easy to identify unintended ethical lapses. While we do not insist that an ethical revenue-sharing partnership is impossible, we think it highly unlikely because it would require greater investment of time and attention to power, caring, and justice than a university would find possible.

Why a Critical Pragmatist Ethic? Education at any level is a moral endeavor, a relational practice of response and responsiveness that both requires and gives rise to responsibility. Because education is an intrinsically moral enterprise, potential value conflicts lurk at every turn. When an educational institution yokes itself to a profit-making entity, it becomes more difficult to sort out the university's educational responsibilities—and how those responsibilities are obscured and even impeded by the partnership.

Using a critical pragmatist ethic of responsibility brings these response-abilities back into focus. Those acting in complex circumstances are asked to consider all things—present provocation, past practice, immediate need, shared (and contested) values, available experience and research, guiding principles, diverse perspectives, and (likely) consequential outcomes—in thinking-into-action. Was there time to pursue these questions? Were all who would be impacted by the decision invited to the table? Were issues of care given the same careful attention as issues of economic need? Is the outcome just?

For the critical pragmatist, the ethical task, always, is to imagine the better. As persons, we are called to interpret the world and what it offers us as expansively and richly as we can, to generate multiple reasonable (and reasoned) options for response, to anticipate the consequences of each option in imaginative "rehearsal," to recognize the "fitting" option—that is the option that enacts (given anticipated consequences) what is of most *value* to *us*, the community(ies) of agents/practice in which we live. This is a pretty fair description of what it would take to construct responses to administrative challenges that are both educative *and* ethical, that convey and support the motivating purposes of higher education writ large.

Others have warned, in the strongest terms, of the dangers of revenue-sharing partnerships between universities and OPMs. As Stephanie Hall argued in a 2019 Century Foundation Report:

> Online higher education programs are essentially wolves in sheep's clothing: while these courses are being offered under the guise of a public institution, in reality they are being run—often from top to bottom—by private, for-profit companies. This presents real and profound risks—not only for students but also for the institution itself, whose hands are often tied as a result of their contract with an OPM.

Hall is right, in our estimation. The risks she talks about are neither merely institutional nor only educational. They are ethical in nature and demand an ethical sensibility to resolve the risk and to enact responsible leadership.

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A Gendered Lens: Perceptions of Leadership and Leader Self-Efficacy of Women Faculty Members in Higher Education

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It has been more than 5 years since the "lean in study", Sheryl Sandberg's (2013) book *Lean In*, in which she states that "conditions for all women will improve when there are more women in leadership roles giving strong and powerful voice to their needs and concerns" (p. 8). Lacking clear explanation, the gender gap persists in higher education by professorial rank and administrative position (Ellinas, 2019). According to Johnson (2016), women are less likely than men to achieve tenure and advance in rank, therefore, women are more likely to retain lower ranking positions. In addition, women are less likely to be hired into a tenure-track position which inherently creates a "sticky floor" (Ford, 2016) effect as the leadership opportunities for advancement in higher education without achieving tenure are sparse. This is highlighted by the uneven progress of women in top leadership and equality that persists world-wide (Georgeac, 2019). Public perception may be that there is leadership equity in higher education as greater than 50% of the student population is female, earning more baccalaureate and advanced degrees than their male peers (Johnson, 2016).

Reality contradicts this perception. Women remain unable to achieve parity in leadership roles within the workplace when compared to their male peers (Ford, 2016). The Pipelines, Pathways, and Institutional Leadership report (2016) noted a 65% increase in women University presidents across all types of institutions from 1986 - 2011. However, the American Council on Education (2017) cites that only 30.1% of presidential positions of U.S. institutions of higher education are held by women. A mere 3.7% increase from 2011 - 2017. This gap by gender extends beyond higher education to the larger national leader population in law, medical schools, and the corporate "corner offices".

It is theorized that history of higher education with men as the founders of institutions and then heavily dominating the fields related to law, politics, religion, the academy, the state, and the economy, the subordination and exclusion of women has become part of ordinary institutional functioning (Acker, 1992). This may cultivate an environment where women may work against one another to advance or where women may alter their leadership approach to align their actions with the normative masculine model. Experiencing invisible barriers, such as horizontal violence, goldilocks syndrome, and double bind, may have a significant negative impact on the academic career advancement for women across the institution (Dorsey & Perolio, 2019). At the same time, organizations often claim to be neutral when it comes to gender issues. This is typically based upon the assumption that "neutrality" equates to the male as the standard thereby eliminating the distinction of any inequality which may exist (Sheppard, 1992).

As is evident, the gender gap in leadership persists across disciplines and environments and is believed to be influenced by macro and micro factors (Hogue & Lord, 2007). Macro factors include the social information processing approach to leadership. In this approach, individuals acquire leadership roles when the individuals perceived attributes align with the cognitive representations of observers and followers (Zacccaro, Green, Dubrow & Koze, 2018; Vial, Napier, & Brescoll, 2016).

Other macro factors include fit perception, stereotype violations (Vial et al., 2016), follower perceptions, views of performance accomplishment, and the impact of situational contingencies on leader emergence (Zacccaro et al, 2018). Wherein, micro factors would include foundational traits of the individual and leadership capacities, which remain relatively stable over time and situation (Zaccaro et al., 2018). Consider the personality theories of leadership where leadership situations may entail a level of problem solving which is then linked to the foundational traits of competence and achievement striving. Per Zaccaro et al. (2018), leadership capacities refer to a leader's readiness to express behaviours or actions imposed by the leadership situation. This would include a belief in self as a leader, leader role identity (Kwok, 2018), and a belief in one's own capacity to effectively produce the outcome needed in that leadership situation, leader self-efficacy (Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Bong & Skaalvik, 2003). Therefore, leader self-identity and leader self-efficacy are inherently linked. Identity, like self-efficacy, motivates or demotivates people to seek out opportunities to experience and practice relevant to leadership behaviours (Day, 2011).

When assessing self-efficacy, there is not a comparison to others but rather a gauge of oneself against known performance standards (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003). Self-efficacy can be construed to be either task specific such as considering one specific behavioural aspect or task associated with the leader's performance or domain/context specific such as looking at the leader within a specific occupation or situation (Bandura, 1977; Schyns & Sczesny, 2009). Research on leader self-efficacy is narrowly focused on what a leader believes they can do within a certain task or context (Hannah, Avolio, Walumbwa, & Chan, 2012; Hannah, Avolio, Luthans, & Harms, 2008). Self-efficacy in leader performance can be defined as both task and domain specific. The development of self-efficacy not only necessitates identified experiences which may positively or negatively impact the development of self-efficacy: performance accomplishment, verbal persuasion, vicarious experiences, and the impact of psychological or emotional state (Bandura, 1977); but also requires a level of reflection or subjective interpretation of the experience for it to ultimately influence a change in self-efficacy (McCormick, Tanguma, & Lopez-Forment, 2002).

Leadership philosophy, approach, and style. Leadership theories and philosophies are abundant within the literature (Zhu, 2019). There is a persistent belief of a gender difference in leadership style or approach since the earliest studies of leadership behaviour (Eagly, Karau, & Makhijani, 1995). Past studies have evaluated gender stereotyping on the perception of leadership style by the observer or the influence of gender stereotyping on the adoption of a leadership style (Gardiner, 1999). A recent meta-analysis (Eagly, Nater, Miller, Kaufmann, & Sczesny, 2019) concluded that contemporary gender stereotypes demonstrate gender equality in competence with a small advantage by women. As the research has evolved, there is recognition of gender stereotyping influencing viewpoints in gender dominated industries. Yet, the consideration of this variable, is insufficient to overcome the persistence of thought on "gendered" leadership style (Isaac, Griffin, & Carnes, 2010; Heilman, 2001).

Published studies exploring gender and leadership style focus on the titled leader (Parker, Horowitz, & Igielnik,2018; Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & van Engen, 2003). In a recent survey of Americans, the majority of those surveyed believe that there is a gender difference in leadership styles (Parker et al., 2018). Referencing top positions in business and politics, 63% of women but only 50% of men reported gender differences in leadership styles although the majority of those surveyed stated that neither gender has a "better" approach to leadership (Parker et al., 2018). Perhaps, unsurprisingly, there is little information on leadership style of faculty members within the United States (Bryman, 2007; Isaac et al., 2010; Jones, Ryland, Lefoe, & Harvey, 2012).

This study aimed to explore the leadership experiences of women faculty members from the perspective of higher education. Specifically, this paper reports on how women faculty members perceive definitions of leadership and leaders; the prevalence of leadership theory; if women view themselves as leaders in the absence of a titled position; and what are the reported levels of leader self-efficacy.

Methods

This is a mixed methods study of women leaders with and without a formal /titled position in the higher education environment. Criteria for recruitment was self-identification as a woman and employed as faculty within a single higher education environment. Recruitment occurred via nomination, word of mouth, meeting announcements, and an internal service of the organization which delivered news to the community via email. Participation included survey completion on leader self-efficacy beliefs using a validated instrument, the Leader Efficacy Questionnaire (LEQ), which measures action, means, and self-regulation efficacy (Hannah et al., 2012). This instrument consists of 22 questions where the participant is asked to indicate level of confidence using a 0 -100 scale where 0 represents "not confident at all" and 100 represents "totally confident." The LEQ was scored for the average of each section: action, means, and self-regulation efficacy and a total score (LSME) was calculated. Descriptive statistics, comparison between groups and means (one-way ANOVA, independent sample t-test) were computed with IBM Statistics SPSS 26.

Participants were also given the opportunity to participate in an one-on-one semi-structured interview. Each author participated as an interviewer. The interview strategy combined a guide approach with a standardized format (Patton, 2015). Questions included topics on the definition of leadership, mentoring, and diverse experiences of leadership development. The interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed verbatim. Each participant engaged in a member check of the transcript to ensure accuracy and transparency throughout the process. In this mixed methods study design, a multi-round inductive review of the transcripts by the authors identified thematic elements for definitions of leader and leadership, and experiences that shaped the participant's self-efficacy. Multiple resources were used for the deductive approach to identify leadership theories explained or adopted by the participants. Finally, there was a return to the transcripts for a final inductive review to integrate the deductive findings and quantitative findings from the LEQ.

Results / Outcomes

Fifty-three female faculty members participated in the survey portion of the study. Twenty-nine of the participants also participated in the semi-structured interview. The population was exclusively from a long standing, traditionally rooted, Jesuit, "high research" Carnegie ranked institution. Survey duration was ~ 3 to 24 minutes. Interviews ranged from 21 to 78 minutes.

Leader and leadership defined. During the semi-structured interview, participants were asked for their definition of a leader or leadership. Following the category of leadership and information processing from Dinh, Lord, Gardner, Meuser, Liden, and Hu (2014), neither a pre-defined context nor a specific definition was given and the participant was not pressed to define both or distinguish between the two. Of the 29 participants interviewed, only one did not give a definition of a leader. Responding to the question of "do you have a definition of a leader?', participants described a leader as someone with a vision and initiative; as a person "willing to entertain different perspectives." For the question, "how do you define leadership or what does leadership mean?", the emerging themes

from the participant's responses included the ability to take charge and coordinate initiatives/actions of individuals to move forward towards a common goal. Some expressed leader satisfaction from the outcomes of their activities leading a student group, a research group/initiative, or institutional initiative in a quasi-leadership role. There was also recognition by the participants of leadership expressed within the context of the situation.

Self - reported identity as a leader. During the semi-structured interview, participants were asked explicitly, "Do you consider yourself a leader?" Ninety-three percent of the participants (27/29) identified themselves as leaders citing leadership in the classroom, meetings, committees, and in research settings. These participants did not report holding a titled, formal leadership position within the University.

Leader self-efficacy as measured by the LEQ. Participants completed either the LEQ only (n = 24) or the LEQ with the one-on-one interview (n= 29). Overall, 58.5% (31/53) of the participants reported moderate to high leadership self-efficacy (LEQ overall score (LSME) = 70 or greater). Using an independent samples t-test, no statistical differences were found in the LEQ between participants completing the LEQ only and those completing the LEQ and the one-on-one interview with respect to age, degree earned, marital status, presence of children, academic rank, or possession of tenure. Using bivariate correlations, the data was examined for a statistically significant relationship between the scores of the LEQ and the dichotomous variables of self-reported identity as a leader, transformative leadership theory, participation in an interview, and for the continuous variables of age and years at the institution. A moderate negative correlation ($r = -0.375, n= 29, p = 0.045$) was found between self-reported identity as a leader and age with a shared variance of 14.06%. A moderate positive correlation ($r = 0.415, n= 29, p = 0.025$) was found between LEQ Means efficacy and self-reported identity as a leader with a shared variance of 17.22%.

Leadership theory. During the semi-structured interview, participants were asked for their definition of leadership and their guiding leadership philosophy / theory. Using inductive coding with pre-defined leadership theories, each participant transcript was examined by two authors for the prevalent leadership theory. Each transcript and assigned code were discussed by the full author group to confirm consensus. The leadership theory of transformative leadership was identified as the primary leadership theory for 15 of the 29 participants. Team leadership theory was identified as a primary theme in 4 participants. Both servant and change leadership theories were coded for 3 participants each. Through the discussion process, secondary theories were identified for 9 of the participants. Using bivariate correlations, the data was analyzed with the dichotomous variable of primary theory as transformative leadership theory and the scores of the LEQ. Within these study participants, there was no correlation to the sections of the LEQ and to a single or specific leadership theory.

Discussion

In contrast to previous studies (Bryman, 2007; Isaac, et al., 2010; Jones, 2012), this paper reports on the perceptions of women faculty members who did not necessarily hold a specified or identified leadership role within higher education. The queries on the micro influences of leadership (definitions of leadership, perceptions of self as leaders in the absence of a titled position, levels of self-efficacy, and prevalence of leadership theory) fill a gap in the literature for this population in higher education.

Higher education institutions in the United States are in a state of change and this higher education institution that was not immune to these changes. Participants often reflected that the discussion of the semi-structured interview was a cathartic sharing of the challenges posed by the changes within the environment. Given that the interviewers were aware of the changes within the higher education institution, steps were taken within the construction of the guide and format of the semi-structured interview to explicitly address the potential ethical issues (DiCicco-Bloom, 2016) that could constrain an open and honest conversation regarding the participant's perceptions of leadership and the influences to their leader self-efficacy beliefs. The interviewers were women who were also members of the higher education environment where the study was being conducted. The interviewers adopted the stance of "empathetic neutrality" (Patton, 2012, p 59-60). The focus of the interview was to gain a clear understanding of the participant's story via questions that were neutrally worded while acknowledging that as the interviewers were also female, there may have been the perception of empathy, of an understanding of shared experience, which allowed the participants to expand on the challenges and barriers perceived despite the absence of a specific inquiry.

The semi-structured interview style was an intentional choice to minimize the influence by the interviewers of a negative biases or stereotyping (reference to specific gender biases, sexual harassment, etc.). The framing of the interview avoided leading questions about the challenges or barriers directly related to gender (Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016). Despite the lack of a specific query, numerous barriers and challenges were outlined within the participants' experiences which lead the authors to support that there are barriers embedded in this historic and traditionally rooted Jesuit institution. The discovery of the prevalence of these unseen or unrecognized barriers is not unique to the study's environment nor to higher education. Within the majority of the descriptions by the participants there was an acknowledgement that barriers were present; these barriers were not overtly recognized by all members of the higher education community but rather accepted as a matter of course (Diehl and Dzubinski, 2016). Ultimately, the lack of explicit acknowledgement of these barriers prohibits agreement on how best to engage, promote and develop faculty as leaders with or without a title. Interestingly, the findings of this study of women faculty members are similar to the findings of Diehl and Dzubinski (2016) who reported on women in administrative positions in higher education and religious organizations. The similarities found provides evidence of the macro factors of the permeation of inherent cultural barriers within higher education.

The question of the definition of a leader, leadership and leadership theory. There is the view that the qualities or characteristics of a modern leader that may viewed as "feminine" include an expressive, empathetic leader who is relationship oriented. (Kezar & Wheaton, 2017; Gerzema & D'Antonio, 2013). Similarly, leadership models that emphasize this type of leader, the transformational leader, are also associated with women. (Chandler, 2011). These two concepts thus laid the foundation to examine the participants responses questions on the definitions of leader, leadership, and a guiding leadership theory or philosophy. (Bowen, 2006; Patton, 2015).

The answers provided by the participants gives insight into the "mental structures" of the participants which are influenced by their experiences (Dinh et al., 2014). The women of this study did not align specifically with those characteristics that may be viewed as more feminine such as illustrated by Gerzema & D'Antonio (2013). Although there was an underpinning of the value of relationships within the participant's responses, the study participants highlighted behaviours of: possessing vision, demonstrating initiative, and entertaining different perspectives. It is plausible that the emphasis on these characteristics are a product of what is desired or needed within an institution undergoing a period of internal restructuring, financial challenges, and significant administration transition at multiple levels across the University. Similarly, one can sense the influence of such

institutional change and the context within the participants overall themes of leadership that included the ability to take charge and coordinate initiatives/actions of individuals to move forward towards a common goal.

The authors were challenged to find previous studies that examined the definitions of a leader or leadership independent from leadership theory. The interview questions for this study were ordered to gain insight into both the definition of the leader and a description of the participants leadership style or guiding theory. There was not an expectation that each participant would have knowledge of any specific leadership theory, rather they were asked to describe their leadership style. The interviewers did not persist in querying the participants regarding the perceived effectiveness of the leadership model discussed. Overwhelmingly, the participants did not explicitly link their definition of a leader or leadership with a specific theory or style. Analysis showed that slightly more than half (52%) of the participants described their leadership style within a transformational model of leadership. While the transformational model of leadership has been more frequently observed in women, current and past research of gender differences in leadership style and/or theory elucidate the challenges when attempting to examine this question without acknowledging the lens of gender expectations and stereotyping (Eagly et al., 1995; Eagly & Chin, 2010; Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Koenig, Eagly, Mitchell, & Ristikari, 2011; Vinkenburg, van Engen, Eagly, & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2011).

As mentioned previously, the interview questions purposefully avoided questions directly regarding gender biases or stereotyping. However; over two thirds of participants organically revealed stories depicting different leadership styles or models that they characterized as being more masculine. Some of these stories included the remarks that the behaviours of these male leaders would be "unacceptable" if the person had been a woman. These remarks support the recent literature that suggests that suitability or effectiveness of a specific leadership model is linked to factors in the external environment or local context or culture (Hallinger, 2003; Keegin, Stuhlmacher, & Cotton, 2017).

Self - reported identity as a leader. Earlier, the data was presented that the faculty participants did not define leader/leadership in alignment with the previously reported "feminine" characteristics or behaviours. Over 90% of the study participants identified themselves as leaders in the absence of a titled position. The absence of a titled position did not inhibit the participants from outlining numerous scenarios where they were able to successfully step in and out of leadership roles. As a result, women tend to serve in more transient or temporary leadership roles. The participants cited less instance where they were formally recognized including "interim" titles and more instances where the participant recognized that "something needed to be done". In these less recognized situations, the woman assumes the acting leader role with its associated responsibilities without any of the benefits that should accompany such a change in workload. For many, this leader identity continues to be recognized by many colleagues even after the temporary leadership title has sunset - without the benefits of a titled role. This may lend itself to this level of experience being "abused" where expectations are in play without corresponding workload adjustment and/or pay adjustment thereby perpetuating the invisible leader cycle (Diehl & Dubinski, 2016).

The comments of the participants align with the theory by Diehl and Dubinski (2016) that support for women may be found at the programmatic levels rather than at the institutional level. Support at the institutional level would demonstrate systemic support of the woman with attainment of the titled positions. Interestingly, for the women of this study, there was a negative correlation found between self-reported identity as a leader and age. To further inform the reason for the 15% of the variance in the participant's answer to the question, "Do you consider yourself a leader?", the author's completed another round examining the transcripts for possible narrative support of this

relationship. This negative correlation is of further interest when the trajectory of faculty members is considered. Mandatory retirement at the age of 70 ended in 1993 and faculty are staying in academia past retirement age (Larson & Diaz, 2012). The age range of the participants was 30 - 67. There were no explicit examples found within the transcripts that indicated a decline in leader identity with advancing age. Nor were there comments regarding less agency within the institution which may indicate a self-selection of decreased activity where these older participants may not identify themselves as a leader. Another option to consider is the possibility that women regardless of age are taking advantage of opportunities of ad hoc or quasi leadership positions thus furthering their self-identity as a leader.

Leader self-efficacy. It may not be surprising that there was a self-report of moderate to high leader self-efficacy in this population who also reported with high frequency that they identified themselves as a leader even in the absence of a titled position. It is relatively widely known that there is a relationship between the belief in self and one's identity and success as a leader (Day, 2011). Studies are conflicting on the role of confidence in women leaders. The myth (Kramer & Harris, 2019) that a woman's supposed lack of confidence may inhibit the attainment of a leadership or administrative position (Bowles & Flynn, 2010; Devillard, Sancier-Sultan, & Werner, 2014; Lafreniere & Longman, 2008) persists despite multiple studies which indicate that confidence is not the issue (Guillen, 2018; Ibarra & Obodaru, 2008). The women of this study believed that they possessed the abilities to perform the behaviours of a leader successfully.

This study focused on faculty members in a higher education environment. It is interesting to consider the impact of the professional development or trajectory on the participant's self-efficacy. The higher education environment allows for opportunities to "lead" in non-traditional roles (ie: without a titled position) whereas in the business environment there is frequently a vertical, recognized pathway for promotion, the corporate ladder. In a 2003 national survey by the American Council on Education, it was recognized that the traditional steps of a faculty members trajectory to formal leadership positions will not be possible for many of the junior faculty due to the age of entry into a higher education career and that many faculty are retiring later in their careers (June, 2008). During the interviews, the participants trended towards reporting vicarious experience as a key dimension of influence towards self-efficacy. Personal accomplishments (home, family, hobby) rather than professional accomplishments were identified more frequently as influencers to the pursuit of alternate opportunities within the higher education environment. The women of this study appeared to see the mobility in and out of pseudo leadership positions and/or the non-traditional ladder as an advantage of the higher education environment similar to the lattice structure (Benko, 2008) that is being discussed in the corporate world.

Leader self-efficacy was assessed via the Leader Efficacy Questionnaire (LEQ). Frequently, the personal or social context of a woman has been implicated as a negative impact on their leadership journey (Catalyst, 2007). This study's participants would not support the negative implication as there was no relationship of their self-perceptions of their abilities as a leader with the degree earned, marital status, presence of children, tenure rank, nor academic rank. An examination of transcripts using the emerging research on the experiences or roles that are outside of the work environment would be informative towards furthering an understanding of the leader self-efficacy perceptions of women higher education faculty.

During development, the authors of the LEQ instrument divided leader self-efficacy into three areas: action, means, and self-regulation efficacy (Hannah et al., 2012). Hannah et al. (2012) defined leader action self-efficacy is the person's perception of their capability to effectively execute various critical leader actions or behaviours. Leader self-regulation efficacy is the perception to think

through situations, interpret context and generate solutions. This includes motivation to lead. Leader means efficacy focuses on the perception of being able to glean resources (people and goods) from their environment and organization. There was a moderate positive correlation found between LEQ Means efficacy and self-reported identity as a leader with almost one fifth of the self-efficacy rating attributed to their self-report as a leader. The higher education institution where this study took place is comparable to other higher education institutions which has instituted recent policies and/or programs that restrict access to resources in the interest of fiscal responsibility. Those study participants which perceived themselves as a leader, even in the absence of a titled position, felt a stronger perception of abilities to garner resources within a resource restricted environment. It would have been interesting to pursue this line of questioning to determine if there was a greater perception of confidence for harnessing the human resource of the university or if there was a stronger confidence in gaining access as needed to equipment, capital goods, etc.

Limitations

The authors agree that the current events of the higher education environment in the United States may have implications on extending the findings of this study to other environments. Additionally, this study's population focused on women faculty members in a traditionally, religious oriented higher education institution that is more than 200 years old. The unique history of this institution may provide a barrier to the generalizability of the findings to other institutions such as women in a public institution, those institutions that are more recently established, or women in higher education institutions which do not have a School of Medicine, or an affiliation with a medical center or physician practice.

The instrument used to assess the participant's leader self-efficacy, the LEQ, was validated for use with the military and with a "diverse" range of occupations (Hannah et al., 2012). To the author's knowledge, this is the first time the LEQ has been utilized in a research study with women faculty members. The common limitation of all self-report instruments includes the ability of the study population to accurately perceive self and/or the defined skill set (Zell & Krizan, 2014). A meta-analysis of self-evaluation research (Zell & Krizan, 2014) noted a moderate relationship between the ability of accurate self-perception and performance measures. The LEQ was not depicted as a performance measure, yet its content captures leadership behaviour in a variety of contexts that may be viewed as interwoven with position performance expectations. This is especially noteworthy with these participants that had a strong view of self-identity as a leader.

Although steps were taken to lessen any negative biases during the interview portion of this study; the possibility of bias by each author during the analysis of the transcripts must be recognized as a possible limitation. Each author may have been impacted by the culture of the study environment, their personal experiences as a female, and their own cultural biases when analyzing the transcripts for descriptions of leadership and apply the leadership theory definitions used for coding. This possible limitation was noted in the adoption of an "empathetic neutrality" during the interview and the analysis. Within the analysis of transcripts, this unique position of the authors was frequently discussed to bring a conscious awareness to the empathy that the authors held for the participants.

Conclusion

Current leadership literature in higher education does not examine definitions of a leader or leadership independent from leadership theory. There was congruency of the women in this study on their definitions of a leader and leadership which highlighted an environment that was undergoing

rapid change. Contrary to the established belief that favours a singular approach to leadership style, approximately half of our participants reported a multi-dimensional approach to leadership situations. This is the first use of the LEQ with women in higher education. The reported LEQ did not have a statistical relationship with the discussion on definitions of leadership and leadership theory. Overwhelmingly, the women identified themselves a leader in the absence of a formalized role as a leader within the organization. Within this higher education environment, women reported taking advantage of opportunities to experience and act as leaders in non-formal roles. These micro factors including the lack of research into the impact of these views by women faculty members may be perceived as perpetuating variables to the lack of women being recognized and/or identified for titled positions.

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Impact of a Distance Learning Coordinator on Faculty Perceptions of Online Teaching

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Online learning is increasing, and educators must adapt to this new environment to ensure high quality student education (Chapman & Henderson, 2010). One way to increase faculty self-efficacy and satisfaction is the addition of a Distance Learning Coordinator (DLC). The focus of this research is faculty satisfaction in distance learning formats and the perceived value of the DLC by faculty. Perceived value of the DLC in this research refers to if the faculty found the DLC to be a valuable resource while undertaking online or blended class teaching.

Background

What is a Distance Learning Coordinator (DLC)? A Distance Learning Coordinator has the responsibility of serving as the point of contact for faculty, staff, and students to create high-quality online courses (Owusu-Mensah, Anyan, & Denkyi, 2015; Chapman & Henderson, 2010). The DLC will ensure the online courses function efficiently for the students and faculty members. It is critical for the DLC to be familiar with and oversee the curriculum and material delivered (Owusu-Mensah, Anyan, & Denkyi, 2015). This would allow faculty members to seek assistance from the DLC, which can increase perceived usefulness of the DLC? (Wingo, Ivankova, & Moss, 2017). The DLC can also train faculty, so they can be comfortable communicating and adapting in an online learning environment (Valentine, 2002). DLC and faculty can work together to ensure there are standards, objectives, and expectations for high quality distance learning (Quality Matters, 2016). In addition, the DLC can serve as an extension to each faculty member in their courses for organization and facilitation (Simonson et al., 2009).

Faculty Satisfaction. Faculty satisfaction is one of the five pillars of quality for the Sloan Consortium Quality Framework (Moore & Moore, 2005). Previous studies have shown faculty that teach online courses have higher overall job satisfaction and are more motivated by the use of technology in comparison to faculty that do not teach online courses (Betts, 1998; Schifter, 2000). By assessing faculty satisfaction, an evaluation of distance learning can be made (Lock Haven University, 2004). When faculty experience challenges, lack proper training, or cannot access ~~to~~ resources, satisfaction can be low (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009). An important consideration in distance learning is quality of teaching and delivery (Green, 2009). Quality of teaching and delivery can be dependent on the acceptance and attitude faculty have towards distance learning (Wingo, Ivankova, & Moss, 2017).

One of the biggest needs and common quality issues in distance learning is effective communication between administration and the DLC (Owusu-Mensah, Anyan, & Denkyi, 2015; Pajibo, Asare, & Dzikunu, 2019). Without effective communication, there are additional challenges.

These include quality of teaching, technological issues, financial implications, and the satisfaction level of faculty, staff, and students (Valentine, 2002). Barriers include financial implications and technological issues. The differentiator between online and traditional settings is the use of technology. The increased usage and lack of support with the technology will affect satisfaction (Simonson et al., 2009; Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009). Lack of experience also plays a role – faculty members with no experience can negatively impact the quality of delivery, have lower satisfaction, and may not see the value of distance learning (Ulmer, Watson, & Derby, 2007). However, faculty with distance learning experience see the benefits and can be another resource for inexperienced faculty. Another factor is the additional time required to conduct distance learning courses, which some see as a barrier. It is a reason for a decline in motivation as it takes more time to create and teach the lecture material (Kebritchi, Lipschuetz, & Santiague, 2017; Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009; Maguire, 2008; Shea, 2007). However, there is evidence that the quality of education is similar between distance and traditional learning despite the difference in the structure and delivery of information (Allen et al., 2006).

Measurement, Models, and Factors for Faculty Satisfaction of Online Courses. To assess quality of online courses and programs, surveys, models, and factors have been applied. For DLC's, the Institute for Higher Education Policy (IHEP) has standards and benchmarks to ensure the highest quality for online programs and courses (Chapman & Henderson, 2010). Although this has only been used for business programs, the standards and benchmarks can be examined in other online programs (Chapman & Henderson, 2010). A part of faculty satisfaction is the attitudes and beliefs towards distance learning, teaching, and the use of technological tools. The technology acceptance model or TAM2 gathers feedback and assists coordinators and administrators on how to build training and self-efficacy of faculty members (Wingo, Ivankova, & Moss, 2017). The model is also a way to showcase the effectiveness of online courses. With experience teaching online courses and the usage of technology, faculty members are receptive to distance learning (Ulmer, Watson, & Derby, 2007). Faculty giving their input can drive institutions to add or expand upon distance learning and impact higher education culture (Ulmer, Watson, & Derby, 2007). The other pillars for quality include student satisfaction, learning effectiveness, access, and cost-effectiveness, can impact faculty satisfaction (Moore & Moore, 2005).

Other measurements for faculty satisfaction and feedback include surveys. The online faculty satisfaction survey (OFSS) pertains to challenges and barriers related to distance learning. The factors that affected faculty satisfaction were student-related, instructor-related, and institution-related (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009). According to the Managing Online Education Survey completed by personnel that manage distance learning, organization is a challenge, but the quality of delivery by faculty members is consistent with traditional classes (Green, 2009). Faculty satisfaction was not stated as it focused mainly on technical support, student support, and quality of the faculty members, but these constructs can impact satisfaction. Other studies with surveys have similar constructs and factors, which have shown to motivate or demotivate faculty members to participate in distance learning (Shea, 2007; Schifter, 2000; Betts, 1998).

Within the models and measurements are factors that affect faculty satisfaction. The positive factors include faculty motivation, opportunities for incentives, opportunities for collaborations, and support from administration (Maguire, 2008). The negative factors include reluctance to taking on changes that comes along with online learning, adjusting to different setting, amount of time, shaping teaching delivery of different learning styles and levels, and lack of support from a technical and/or administrative standpoint (Kebritchi, Lipschuetz, & Santiague, 2017; Maguire, 2008; Shea, 2007; Valentine, 2002).

Methodology

Sample. The sample consisted of the faculty members at Jiann-Ping Hsu College of Public Health (JPHCOPH) at Georgia Southern University (42 individuals). The DLC conducting the survey has been in the position at the college since 2015. Of the 42 eligible individuals, there were 27 respondents (64.3%) regarding experience with distance learning and the coordinator.

Data Collection. All the faculty members at JPHCOPH were emailed to complete the brief survey. They were given the survey to provide feedback on their experiences in teaching online courses and on the assistance of the DLC. The faculty was given a link to a Qualtrics survey, which can take 5 minutes. The responses were anonymous and confidential. Two weeks were given to respond to the survey. A reminder was sent out to non-respondents after the first week. The responses were gathered as descriptive statistics or raw qualitative data as it relates to faculty satisfaction and the usefulness of the DLC.

Instrument. The survey had a total of three questions. Two of the questions required a yes or no response with one of the two asking a follow-up open-ended question requesting thoughts and ideas. The third question is an additional open-ended question to for additional information (see Table 1). The questions were built to receive feedback on distance learning experience and collaboration with the DLC and how that relates to faculty satisfaction.

Table 1. *Survey*

Number	Item
1	*Do you currently teach or have you taught any online or hybrid classes at JPHCOPH in the last 3 years?*
2	*Has the distance learning coordinator been valuable to you in the online/hybrid classes you teach or have taught? If yes, please provide a short description of how the learning coordinator is helpful to you. If no, what ways can the coordinator improve to help serve you better?*
3	*Any other comments?*

Results

It is clear that online and hybrid courses have increased and is a norm alongside traditional courses. For question 1, of the 27 respondents, there were 23 faculty members (85.2%) who are currently or have taught an online or hybrid class in the last 3 years. For question 2, of the 23 faculty members who currently or have taught an online or hybrid class in the last 3 years, only 20 responded to the question (no response from 3 faculty members). 18 out of 20 (90%) found the DLC helpful. The online and hybrid classes serve a large part of JPHCOPH.

Based on the qualitative data from question 2 on how the DLC has been valuable and what improvements can be made, the DLC has been valuable maintaining quality matters standards, logistics of the classes, and structure/delivery of content. However, faculty have expressed a disconnect when it comes to development and placement of course materials, but there is no

additional information on which courses need more assistance. Overall, the presence of the DLC is valuable and shows the importance of the role to provide high quality online and hybrid courses.

Responses to Survey Question 2. The survey asked participants, "Has the distance learning coordinator been valuable to you in the online/hybrid classes you teach or have taught? If yes, please provide a short description of how the learning coordinator is helpful to you. If no, what ways can the coordinator improve to help serve you better?" Selected responses included:

- Helped me with my course to satisfy the QM requirements. Her evaluation of my course helped me improve certain parts that needed attention.
- Very accommodating to my needs. Very timely in response to issues.
- Always helpful to have a 2nd set of expert eyes to review your online classroom.
- Recording lectures and tech support.
- The DLC reviewed my courses and gave very helpful feedback about how to improve the structure and deliver content.
- Provided guidance with online technologies -- folio, captivate, etc.
- So helpful! Provides resource suggestions and ways to better improve my online courses.
- Helpful in giving constructive feedback for improving the delivery and more importantly made me aware of recent technologies available in folio.

Limitations

Preliminary research indicates that having a DLC is helpful and valuable to the JPHCOPH faculty. Many faculty members teach online and reported positive personal experiences. However, this manuscript is subject to several limitations. The distinction between value of a DLC and value of the perception of distance learning needs further examination. A positive value of distance learning does not necessarily mean faculty satisfaction in delivering online courses.

The overall value of distance learning also needs examination. Positive factors of distance learning relate to benefits a faculty member has from teaching online courses, and negative factors relate to adaption and adjustment to the online format and support required. A better understanding of how these factors relate to perceived overall value of distance learning is needed. Additionally, more information is needed from faculty members to improve the value of distance learning and faculty satisfaction. Finally, this study was limited to faculty in one college on one campus, limiting its generalizability to the wider population of higher education.

Conclusion

The overall indication is that a DLC improves faculty relationship with online education. However, despite "high rate of faculty involvement in online education and a growth in the demand for online courses and online course offerings, faculty and institutional perceptions of the value,

legitimacy, and learning outcomes of online education has not changed significantly in the past decade”" (Lloyd, et al. 2012, p. 2). More research into this growing field should be conducted to improve DLC-faculty relationship and the approach to online learning.

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Use of Library Resources by University Students

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Information seeking behavior of various user groups has preoccupied researchers for a long period of time (Spezi, 2016). Current research on this issue is focused on how the internet, social media and other Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) like mobile phones have impacted on the way students seek for information. Research of this nature is important as it provides an understanding of students' behavior in seeking information. This helps in understanding future students and customizing library services to meet their needs.

According to Spezi (2016), information seeking includes initiating a search, constructing search strategies and locating and evaluating the identified sources. The ability to carry out these activities is also referred to as information literacy (IL). Information literacy is defined as "the ability to recognize when information is needed and the ability to locate, evaluate, and use effectively the needed information" (Learn Higher, 2006).According to the American Library Association (1989), information literate individuals are able to determine the extent of information needed, access the needed information effectively and efficiently, evaluate information and its sources critically, incorporate selected information into one's knowledge base, use information effectively to accomplish a specific purpose, understand the economic, legal, and social issues surrounding the use of information, and access and use information ethically and legally.

From the above definitions, it is apparent that information seeking behavior and information literacy are intertwined. Information literacy skills are a prerequisite of information seeking behavior.

Academic libraries have featured prominently in playing a facilitative role to the information seeking behavior of their user communities to the extent that they have been referred to as the nerve centers of academic communities. In the past libraries were physical entities whose major task was the collection of books and periodicals to satisfy the information needs of their communities. Students and lecturers used to visit the library to borrow books and to find quiet reading space. Libraries in turn used to offer library user education and /or bibliographic instruction, to enable users to make optimum use of their collections. Such instruction was restricted to the resources of a particular library and its form and mode of delivery reflected institutional realities with regards to human and information resources. In some institutions, library user education was the preserve of the library and in others collaboration with academic departments was the order of the day.

This scenario changed with the arrival of Information and Communication Technologies (ICTS). ICTs in general and the internet in particular have fueled the proliferation of information and revolutionized the modus operandi of most organizations, inclusive of academic libraries.

At Chinhoyi University of Technology (CUT), the library has embraced ICTs and integrated them into its services so that there is a blend of the traditional library collection and a multi – media digital collection with seamless access to the internet. The internet has made it possible for the library to provide access to subscription based e-journals and e- books, open access books and journals, the institutional repository, the OPAC, computerized reference services amongst other digital services.

However despite this investment in modern information resources, no known research has been done to ascertain usage patterns of these resources at CUT. The only indicator of the extent of usage is the figures made available by the International Availability of Scientific Publications (INASP). INASP is a UK based non- governmental organization which has been collaborating with the Zimbabwe University Libraries Consortium (ZULC) in the provision of e – resources since 2002. It produces annual figures indicating usage levels of e-resources by ZULC member libraries.

The above scenario prompted this researcher to want to know how various user groups were using the internet based information resources and services on offer at CUT Library. The researcher was particularly interested in the information seeking behavior of the Post Graduate Diploma in Higher Education (PGDHE) students' class of 2016.

The PGDHE was introduced at CUT in January 2016. The first class was comprised of 43 students, the majority of whom were lecturing staff at CUT. There were only five outsiders. The first cohort of students was diverse in terms of academic discipline, qualifications, age and gender.

The Problem

Students of the PGDHE engaged in collaborative learning by participating in group assignments. Collaboration refers to the ability to work on a common task in a team by taking actions that respect the needs and contributions of others, contributing to and accepting the consensus and compromising to achieve the objectives of the team (University of Strathclyde, 2013).Students were given group assignments and they tended to study for examinations in groups. In the course of such engagement, students would individually seek for information and share their findings with the group. During these interactions, none of the members in the researcher's group, including the researcher indicated that they had visited the library to look for information. This was despite the fact that one of the lecturers was always urging students to visit the library. The library was investing a lot of money in the acquisition of electronic and other resources and there was a problem if these resources were not being fully utilised by both lecturers and students. Underutilization of library information resources affects the quality of teaching, learning and research activities within the university. This researcher wondered whether advances in ICTs had enabled PGDHE students to do research in the comfort of their offices, thus obviating the need to visit the library or whether PGDHE students lacked the skills to navigate the library and its resources in the digital era. No known research had been done previously at CUT to address these two issues.

It was against this background that this research was conducted, with the fundamental purpose of this research project being to establish a known base-line regarding the information seeking behavior of the first group of PGDHE students at CUT. The study sought to:

1. Establish the extent of PGDHE students' usage of the resources of the library; and
2. Determine students' perceptions of library services.

Literature Review

The information seeking behavior of various user groups has captivated researchers' interest for decades. Such research has taken a variety of formats. Some researchers (Case, 2012) have adopted a comprehensive and descriptive survey of research in information behavior. Others have taken a, 'more quantitative approach, focusing on predominant variables and methods as well as indicators of scholarly progress such as relative inter-disciplinarity and thematic focus. '(Julien & O'Brien, 2014:240). This has enabled researchers within and outside the field to have an assessment of

longitudinal trends and development. Over the years, information seeking behavior scholarship has been approached from broad and inclusive perspectives, and also in narrower slices, by geographical region or specific theme or as represented in a sub-set of literature (Julien & O'Brien, 2014).

This research will examine literature on the information seeking behavior of students at universities. Kim and Lee (2014) did a study to better understand the complex dynamics of knowledge construction and information seeking in a collaborative learning setting amongst 34 graduate students. The study revealed that students who participated in the collaborative research project began the project with confidence as they developed a shared understanding of the topic in the early phase of the project. However, students became more stressed as the project progressed as they carried out their information-seeking activities in individual ways (Kim&Lee, 2014). These results seem to indicate that information seeking is a very private and individual activity motivated by individual needs rather than group activities. Although there was no deliberate effort to determine collaborative information seeking behavior amongst PGDHE students at CUT, these results shed light on how students seek for information for group tasks.

In a research conducted to determine the information seeking behavior of mathematicians comprised of scientists and students at the Institute of Mathematics of the Jagiellonian University in Poland, Krawkoska and Janiak (2014) discovered differences in the information seeking behavior of students and scientists. Students preferred searching for reference works and multimedia objects and they seldom used journal papers and other information that is not available on the web. Students also made considerable use of networking sites. Scientists on the other hand, used discipline-oriented portals or library websites.

Spezi (2016) corroborates these findings in her review of the literature on the information seeking behavior of doctoral students between 2010 and 2015. The study showed that, 'the information - seeking behaviors of doctoral students follow a steady trend with some subtle changes particularly in the (patchy) use of social media and networking sites. 'It would appear that scientists and doctoral students prefer discipline-oriented portals whilst students prefer the web and social networking sites.

Bitso and Fourie's (2014) study of the information seeking behavior of undergraduate prospective geography teachers at the National University of Lesotho indicated that teachers sought information pertaining to the content they delivered in class, teaching methods, learners' assessment and educational policies. Their preferred source of information was books, personal knowledge and other teachers from their host schools. The teachers also engaged in collaborative information seeking. However the study also found that, "Modern electronic sources such as the internet were hardly used, probably due to unavailability and teachers' limited information literacy skills."(Bitso & Fourie, 2014).

An earlier study by Ajiboye and Tella (2007:40) of University of Botswana undergraduate students yielded different results in that, "first, academic information was rated as the predominant information required by the students, while the Internet was rated the most crucial source of most of the academic information required. It was also found that gender, level of study and course of study significantly influence students' information seeking behavior."

Nwobasi, Uwa and Ossai-Onah (2013) investigated the information seeking needs and behavior of students at two universities in Nigeria. They specifically sought to find out how students were using the library and the purpose for which they were using it in a comparative study. Students studied at both universities indicated that they used the library in updating their knowledge, development of personal competencies and writing assignments. Students used textbooks, journals, reference books and project reports. Inadequate information resources, shortage of qualified librarians and lack of time to access the information resources were some of the reasons cited as

affecting the information needs and seeking behavior of students. The study also revealed that undergraduate students at the Federal University of Technology used both shelves and catalogues in searching for information, unlike their counterparts at Imo State University who preferred to browse through shelves. This would seem to indicate that the libraries at these two universities are not yet computerized, a fact that is corroborated in one of the recommendations which says, "Introduction of computerized or digital catalogues should be provided and made available to enable the students to have access to information resources and librarians should embrace effective management and use of ICT facilities to promote satisfaction of information needs and seeking behavior of the students (Nwobasi, Uwa & Ossai-Onah ,2013:2)"

Strang (2015) did a survey of thousands of college and university students to establish why they choose to use library resources for their research and assignments. According to her findings, students indicated that they preferred to use library resources for seven reasons, namely that ;they can access a vast array of resources at (or through) the library; they can trust the quality of the library's resources; it's easy and convenient for students to find what they need at the library; they want (and need) the assistance of librarians and library staff; the library offers an environment conducive to study and research; resources help students use and cite materials accurately; the library offers computers and Internet service, which make it possible for them to complete their assignments. This research highlighted two significant perspectives which are the quality of library resources in comparison to web resources and the value attached to the mediatory role of librarians in the information seeking behavior of students.

The quality of library resources was also a major determinant in using the library as highlighted by Wu and Chen (2014) in Spezi (2015) who discovered that graduate students use the internet, Google Scholar and library resources but favor the usability of Google Scholar while valuing the quality of materials retrieved from library databases.

The study by Ajiboye and Tella (2007) placed the library in the third place after the internet and instructors' lecture notes as preferred sources of information despite the University of Botswana's library's reputation of being one of the best libraries in Africa in terms of size and volumes. This would seem to indicate that students at this institution are moving with the times and embracing the internet as a major source of information unlike in the previous study by Fidzani (1998) which reported a heavy reliance on library books and journals. However it can be concluded from the study by Ajiboye and Tella (2007) that the library is still a strong contender when it comes to the provision of academic information.

Lacovic (2016) conducted a study in many countries to establish information needs, sources, and types of library use by university students from various disciplinary fields. The results indicated that students considered the internet to be an important source of academic information. However, although students used academic libraries for borrowing books and using reference material and printed periodicals, the academic library was still significant in satisfying university students' information needs.

Methodology

This study utilized the mixed methods research paradigm and the case study design. The PGDHE class of 2016 at Chinhoyi University of Technology constituted the case.

This research surveyed the PGDHE class of 2016. The whole group comprising 15 females and 28 males constituted the population for the study in addition to four (4) library staff members who were interviewed. The majority of them were lecturers in various disciplines at Chinhoyi University of Technology (CUT). Only four (4) were complete outsiders whilst one was a PhD. candidate at

CUT. The majority of the students had a Master's degree and four (4) of them had a doctorate. The group was diverse in terms of age with the majority of them falling within the 30 to 50 age range.

The census method, in which data was collected from potentially every member of the class, was applied in this case. However purposive sampling was used to exclude the five students who were not part of the lecturing staff at CUT from the study population.

Purposive sampling was also used to select the Deputy Librarian, the Acting Sub – Librarian, the Assistant Librarian responsible for Systems and the Assistant Librarian responsible for Periodicals for interviews, based on their interactive roles with students.

The data collection instruments used in this research were a questionnaire and an interview guide. The questionnaire was administered on the PGDHE students and the interview guide was for the library staff.

The target population for the distribution of the questionnaire was 37 students. Four students were unavailable resulting in the questionnaire being given to 33 students. Thirty students completed and returned the questionnaire, giving a response rate of 90%.

Triangulation of data sources was used to complement the data collected through questionnaires. This was achieved by holding semi-structured interviews based on an interview guide with 4 library staff members.

Data Analysis

The researcher used the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for analyzing data. This package generated graphical representations of findings, which accompanied the narrative descriptions, in conformity with the mixed methods design adopted at the onset of the study. Narrative descriptions were predominantly used to analyze data from interviews with library staff.

PGDHE students' usage of the Library. Students were asked to indicate the major source of information for their academic needs from various options such as the library, friends and colleagues, the internet, conferences and workshops, social media and any other source. For the purpose of analyzing this data, each tick against an item was regarded as a yes and an item that was not ticked was regarded as a no. All the yes answers were then computed and calculated as a percentage of the total number of responses to indicate preference for that particular item by the respondents. The same criteria were applied to the no answers. This technique was applied to all the questions that required respondents to pick an option or indicate various options from a list.

So, on this particular question 70% of respondents, comprising 50% males and 20% females indicated that the Library was not a major source of information for their academic needs. These findings are illustrated in the table below.

Table 1. The Library as a Source of Information for Academic Needs.

	Is the library the major source of information for academic needs?	
	Yes	No
Male	N = 5 (25%)	N = 15 (75%)
Female	N = 4 (40%)	N = 6 (60%)
Total	N = 9 (30%)	N = 21 (70%)

In contrast, the internet emerged as a major source of information for the academic needs of most students (97%) as illustrated in the table below.

Table 2. The Internet as a Source of Information for Academic Needs.

	Is the Internet the major source of information for academic needs?	
	Yes	No
Male	N = 19 (95%)	N = 1 (5%)
Female	N = 10 (100%)	N = 0 (0%)
Total	N = 29 (97%)	N = 1 (3%)

Only one person did not regard the internet as a major source of information. It can be surmised that this person is probably one of the two people over 50 in this study who might not be comfortable with using ICTs to access information.

On the question of the information media most preferred, the majority of respondents had no absolute favorite. This is supported by the results of the interviews with library staff. They indicated that "post graduate students are heavy users of online resources that are e-journal articles, e- books and library databases." The interviewees also disclosed that statistics on e-resources usage had gone up. Although library staff expressed challenges in isolating data on PGDHE students, it can be presumed that PGDHE students behaved in the same manner as other post graduate students.

On the question of whether students were registered members of the Library, the majority of students (73.3%) across genders indicated that they were registered with the Library.

This result was contrary to responses to an earlier question where 70% of the students disregarded the Library as a major source of information. The true picture of students' relationship with the Library is probably indicated in the following table illustrating how often students visit the Library.

Table 3. Frequency of Students Visits to the Library

	How often do you visit the Library?			
	Weekly	Fortnightly	Monthly	Other
Male	1 (5%)	2 (10%)	6 (30%)	11 (55%)
Female	0 (0%)	1 (10%)	4 (40%)	5 (50%)
Total	1 (3%)	3 (10%)	10 (33%)	16 (54%)

The table above shows that students seldom visit the Library, with 54% presumed to be irregular users of the facility. These results seem to corroborate earlier findings that the Library is losing its position as the nerve center of the academic community.

Students were asked to indicate the library services or resources they had used on their visit to the Library. The percentages depicted in Table 4 indicate the extent to which students had used the various services.

These results seem to indicate that the most popular service was the borrowing facility. The only item that can be borrowed from CUT Library is the book. So this result appears to be in conflict with an earlier result where the majority of students disregarded the library as a major source of information, but in conformity with an earlier question where students rated their preference for various information

Table 4. Students Use of Various Library Services

Service	Usage
OPAC	33%
Reference Services	30%
Borrowing Services	70%
Institutional Repository	40%
Theses & Dissertations	20%
Past Examination Papers	14%
Periodicals	20%
Internet Services	37%
Henry Stuart Lectures	3%
Library Reading Room	3%
e-Books	47%
e-Journals	44%
Library Databases	23%

media. Seventy nine percent of the respondents recorded their preference for the book. E- books followed in popularity (47%) with Henry Stuart Lectures and the Library Reading Room being the least used services (3.3%)

Students' perceptions of CUT Library Services in the digital era. The last question in the questionnaire sought to establish students' attitudes towards CUT Library's role in meeting their information requirements in the digital era. The results are illustrated in Table 5 below.

Table 5. Respondents' Attitudes on CUT Library's Efforts to Cater to Students' Information Requirements in the Digital Era.

	Do you think CUT library is doing enough to cater for your information requirements in the digital era?	
	Yes	No
Male	N = 9 (45%)	N = 11 (55%)
Female	N = 7 (70%)	N = 3 (30%)
Total	N = 16 (53%)	N = 14 (47%)

Fifty three percent (53.3%) of the respondents indicated that CUT Library was doing enough to cater for their information needs whilst 46.7% were not satisfied with the Library's efforts. Respondents' responses were varied and they offer an insight into their perceptions of CUT Library. Table 6 illustrates the emerging themes from this question.

It can be deduced that students are generally satisfied with CUT Library's efforts to provide electronic resources for staff and students. They also appreciate the library's ILS training activities and the fact that there are consultations with academic staff prior to purchase of information.

The reasons for dissatisfaction with CUT Library services are mostly to do with limited resources such as books, journals and databases for individual consumption. Users would also like to see the library raise more awareness of electronic resources and 'to re- strategize their training programmers'

Table 6. Emerging Themes on CUT Library's Efforts to Cater for Their Information Requirements in the Digital Age.

CUT Library is doing enough.	N=10 (33%)
CUT Library's efforts are constrained by inadequate infrastructure.	N=7 (24%)
Not doing enough.	N=9 (30%)
Needs to improve ILS standing.	N=4 (13%)

in order to capture everybody. One respondent was aware of the Institutional Repository, which was erroneously referred to as the Internal Repository and the need to capacitate it with locally generated information indicating that lecturers and students were aware of developments in the Library, even though it might not be apparent.

Some students mistakenly attributed connectivity challenges, an issue which should be handled by the ICT Department to the Library. The sentiments expressed in this segment are an indicator of the level of awareness of the Library as an important source of academic information. The activities of the Library have a direct effect on the information seeking behavior of students.

Findings and Conclusions

This study found that PGDHE students were using the resources of the library, especially e-resources from the comfort of their offices. They seldom visit the library and they are generally dissatisfied with the physical collection which does not meet their information requirements. However, they still utilize the borrowing facility of the library even though they predominantly use e-books, e- journals and library databases which they access from their offices. These findings are in congruence with previous studies on this topic. For instance, Tella and Adeyinka (2013) found that University of Botswana students preferred to use the internet instead of the rich library collection of the institution. A careful analysis of the findings of this study leads one to the following conclusions:

- The library is trailing the internet as a major source of academic information;
- PGDHE students still use the library for academic purposes; and

- PGDHE students have a positive perception of library services.

Based on these findings we recommend that (a) the Library should utilize modern information and communication technologies for instance social media platforms to provide customized services for clients and to keep them interested in the Library; and (b) the Library should continue building the physical collection of the library in consultation with lecturers. More significantly, we are compelled to ask whether others believe these observations to be evident at other, similar academic libraries, and whether these portend a trend in use.

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Rethinking the Education Doctorate: How Leaders in Higher Education Are Prepared as Scholar Practitioners

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The Carnegie Project on the Education Doctorate (CPED, 2019) defines the EdD as "the professional doctorate in education prepares for the application of appropriate and specific practices, the generation of new knowledge, and for the stewardship of the profession" (CPED, 2019). A key design feature is the dissertation in practice which serves as "a scholarly endeavor that impacts a complex problem of practice" (CPED, 2019). The manner in which research is perceived, advising of students is carried out, cohorts assembled, and problems of practice in the dissertation is approached varies among institutional programs. However, the goal of demonstrating evidence of preparing scholarly practitioners remains the same.

To better understand the preparation methods of leaders in educational preparation programs, this article explores the different approaches to the dissertation by CPED member institutions. The article is divided up to investigate to examine how issues/topics for dissertations are conceived, identification of research problems, cohort configurations, exposure to research, and the final product.

Reshaping the Education Doctorate. The step of pursuing a doctorate is a major one that requires substantial commitment and endurance. Those who embark on this journey do so in hopes fulfilling career aspirations, research endeavors, or other personal and professional related ambition. The education doctorate, or EdD, has been the subject of a major overall in the recent decade. The Carnegie Project on the Education Doctorate, or CPED, defines the EdD as a degree that "prepares educators for the application of appropriate and specific practices, the generation of new knowledge, and for the stewardship of the profession" (CPED, 2019). In 2007, CPED explored ways in which the EdD could be better distinguished from the PhD (Perry, 2016). Specifically, those associated with this newly created consortium were interested in learning "What knowledge, skills, and dispositions should professionals working in education possess and be able to use?" (Perry, 2016, p. 2). The associated outcome with this revamped advanced degree is a scholarly practitioner who is well versed in the ideology of transformational leadership (Perry, 2016; Golde, 2013).

Key ingredients to shaping this unique doctoral experience consists of (1) problem of practice; (2) signature pedagogy; (3) scholarly practitioner; (4) laboratory of practice; (5) dissertation in practice; (6) inquiry as practice (CPED 2019). The problem of practice concept is rooted in the fact that education leaders routinely deal with issues, while students inherently want to study problems during the course of their doctoral studies (Hoffman & Perry, 2016). The marriage of an education doctoral experience that seeks to connect students with real world problems needing real world solutions was a natural fit for the preparation of leaders in education.

The signature pedagogy concept falls in line with delivering a tailored doctoral program that is deliberate and capable of producing a scholar practitioner who is able to utilize practical data to address pressing needs. Under the laboratories of practice theme, both theory and practice merge to tackle critical areas in education. The culminating experience is the dissertation in practice that

serves as "a scholarly endeavor that impacts a complex problem of practice" (CPED, 2019). As a result of re-envisioning the education doctoral experience, those institutions who have adopted CPEDs model are producing leaders in education steeped in the mold of a scholar practitioner who is equipped to address pressing problems that confront education today and tomorrow.

Making the Culminating Doctoral Experience Practical. At the 2018 June Convening of CPED, a six-person panel featuring faculty from CPED institutions discussed the distinctions of their adopted dissertation in practice format and the implications it has for research, advising, cohorts, and problems of practice in the dissertations in practice. The panelist spoke of and presented information related to their doctoral program in educational leadership and tactics adopted by program faculty for ensuring their graduates are on the cutting edge of leadership delivery in education. A point of emphasis was placed on how programs modified the traditional dissertation to better meet the needs of students and what they were looking to get out of a doctoral experience as leaders.

Arizona State University – EdD Program in Leadership & Innovation. At Arizona State University, the EdD is "designed for practicing educator-leaders who work in a range of settings and want to transform their practice and create better learning opportunities for students of all ages" (ASU, 2020). To ensure graduates are prepared to put innovation to work in addressing educational challenges, the dissertation in practice takes on the following format as described:

> The dissertations-in-practice represent the culminating cycle of action research in which students engage throughout the program. Prior to the DiP, each student conducts 2-3 cycles of action research – beginning with a cycle of reconnaissance – on a self-identified problem of practice which must be situated within the respective workplace, or laboratory of practice. Preliminary cycles of action research are intended to focus and further specify the nature of the problem, and then help to guide the design and pilot test of an intervention/innovation designed to address the problem. The Dip represents the actual implementation and assessment of effectiveness of the intervention/innovation – geared toward the specific problem of practice – within the student's setting. The required product is comprised of a 5-chapter action research report. In addition, each year students share their ongoing action research in our virtual Doctoral Research Conference. Leader-Scholar Communities (LSCs) provide faculty and collegial support throughout the DiP process (CPED, 2018).

With this innovative format, ASU has positioned itself to empower "graduates to develop research-based insights so they can drive innovations that address pressing challenges of practice" (ASU, 2020).

Boston College – Professional School Administrator Program (PSAP) EdD. For Boston College, the dissertation in practice is presented as:

> The Boston College dissertation-in-practice asks students to not only demonstrate their abilities as scholarly practitioner, but to do in a highly collaborative context. The products from this process include both group-level co-authored chapters, as well as individually authored studies. Not unlike research teams in academia, student teams first come together around shared research interests, developing

> shared problem statements, reviews of the literature, and overarching research designs. Although the group shares the responsibilities of data collection, students then subsequently analyze the pool of data in light of their own respective research problems and theoretical frameworks. Finally, students synthesize their various individual-level findings, reporting their recommendations to districts or study sites. As a result of these experiences, students develop insights into various dimensions of scholarly research, experiences in applying scholarly knowledge toward problems of practice, and skills in managing conflict and teams (CPED, 2018).

By adopting a format rooted in collaborative learning and support, Boston College is producing an annual cadre of leaders ready for to serve the field of education (Boston College, 2020).

California State University Fresno – EdD in Educational Leadership. With an emphasis on social justice, Fresno State's program is distinguished by the following:

> The Doctoral Program in Educational Leadership at Fresno State (DPELFS) develops Scholarly Practitioners that blend practical wisdom with professional skills and knowledge to inform, frame and solve problems of practice. Within the framework of Scholarly Practitioner, DPELFS has embraced the practice of embedded fieldwork as the Signature Pedagogy throughout the program to develop transformative leaders with an eye toward Social Justice in the P-16 arena. Dissertation developed are primarily phenomenological and empirical in nature, focus on problems of practice found in the field, and follow the typical 5-chapter format. The students that participate in DPELFS have opportunities to present their research in numerous venues such as conferences, colloquiums and to the organizations in which the research has occurred. Finally, graduates of DPELFS work with university professors to publish their findings in order to forward practical solutions within the educational and research communities (CPED, 2018).

Johns Hopkins University – Doctor of Education (EdD). Already known for its quality medical program, the EdD program at Johns Hopkins University places high standards for students that is grounded in transformational leadership (Johns Hopkins, 2020).

> *The Johns Hopkins University EdD applied dissertation focuses on a solution to a problem of practice (POP) within a student's context. Coursework supports major segments of the dissertation. During the first year of the 3-year program, students establish and examine the POP broadly through a synthesis of literature (Chapter 1). Students then conduct an empirical study to examine one or more components to deepen their understanding of the factors of the POP (Chapter 2). During the second year, students examine literature related to potential interventions (Chapter 3) and plan a mixed methods intervention to address one or more factors examined through their empirical study (Chapter 4). At the end of the second year, students defend their proposal and complete an oral comprehensive examination. During the third year, students implement the intervention and evaluate its effectiveness (Chapter 5). As the end of the third year, students defend their dissertation* (CPED, 2018).

The Johns Hopkins model prides itself on producing students who can "apply evidence-based practices to improve educational outcomes, and meet the vast challenges associated with improving learning outcomes in public and private educational environments" (Johns Hopkins, 2020).

Virginia Commonwealth University – EdD in Educational Leadership. At VCU, students are engaged with authentic learning experiences and a rigorous academic program designed to facilitate the acquisition of appropriate knowledge and skills pertaining to the effective leadership of organizations with educational components (VCU, 2020).

> The EdD offered by the Department of Educational Leadership in the School of Education at Virginia Commonwealth University is a three-year, cohort-based program that culminates in a Capstone in which teams (2-4 students) collaborate to conduct a study of organizations that have an educational component. Organizations develop programs to address problems of practice in their fields. Except in the case of funded programs, the evaluation aspect tends to be overlooked in the daily focus on the myriad of details involved in making the program work. Organizations that have an educational component are invited to submit a request for assistance (RFA) for study. Each organization's RFA designates a program administrator who will be the client for the program if the RFA attracts sufficient EdD participant interest. Capstone teams are led by a faculty member, the Capstone Chair. They are assisted by two other faculty who make up the Capstone Committee (CPED, 2018).

This VCU experience allows for students to align and refine their leadership in accord with the democratic imperative for ethical leaders who value equity and hold themselves accountable.

Western Carolina University – EdD in Educational Leadership. At WCU, the program is tailored to address the needs of educational leaders by applying skills and knowledge to identified problems of practice (WCU, 2020).

> To be recommended for conferral of the EdD degree, scholar practitioners in the Executive EdD program in Educational Leadership at WCU must successfully complete a disquisition. Representing the dissertation-in-practice, the disquisition is a formal, problem based discourse or treatise in which a problem of practice is identified, described, analyzed and addressed in depth, including methods and strategies used to bring about change and to assess whether the change is an improvement. The disquisition process employs the use of improvement science to identify and address a significant organizational problem. Member of the educational leadership faculty serve as committee chairs, based upon the topic being addressed and the individual expertise of the faculty members. Additional disquisition committee members include faculty from outside of the program and practitioners from PreK-12 schools, 4-year colleges and universities and/or community colleges. There are opportunities for scholar practitioners with similar interests to pursue their disquisitions collaboratively, if appropriate, and complete a group-based disquisition (CPED, 2018).

Points of Emphasis for an Education Doctorate. CPED member institutions are committed to what is known as the core principles of the professional doctorate in education:

- Is framed around questions of equity, ethics, and social justice to solve complex problems of practice.
- Prepares leaders who can construct and apply knowledge to make a positive difference in the lives of individuals, families, organizations, and communities.
- Provides opportunities for candidates to develop and demonstrate collaboration and communication skills to work with diverse communities and to build partnerships.
- Provides field-based opportunities to analyze problems of practice and use multiple frames to develop meaningful solutions.
- Is grounded in and develops a professional knowledge base that integrates both practical and research knowledge, that links theory with systemic and systematic inquiry.
- Emphasizes the generation, transformation, and use of professional knowledge and practice (CPED, 2019).

The institutions presented each have their own niche for producing a dissertation in practice. For ASU, Johns Hopkins, and Fresno State, the dissertation are done individually, however, Boston College, VCU, and WCU group students together for a more collaborative effort in addressing a problem of practice. They share a common purpose in that conventional academic expectations is steeped in tradition where the final product is the five-chapter dissertation that demonstrates high level of research that is rigorous. Each method is distinct with their needs and challenges. For example, for individual dissertations, there may be emphasis placed on social support for students during the dissertation phase, while with group dissertation students there may be group dynamic issues. However, they present unique opportunities for students to engage in research that is deemed useful to the field of practice.

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Sustainability of Internationalization in Higher Education

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Th
e State of International Education

The internationalization of higher education is a multi-billion dollar industry that is currently going through an evolution. Enrollment on average is steadily declining and international exchanges of students is under increased pressure in both the EU and US.

In Finland, mainly due to the COVID-19 pandemic, the number of outgoing (from Finland) higher education students 2020 was about 53% compared to 2019. The Finnish higher education institutions have also had to cancel the majority of the exchanges planned for the spring term 2021. The amount of incoming (to Finland) students remained higher than the number of outgoing students yet also many of these exchanges have been canceled, and some universities stopped receiving exchange students altogether. In addition, the overseas mobility has come down to a minimum. (EDUFI, 2021a; EDUFI, 2021b)

In US, college enrollments declined 2.5 percent this fall. This is twice the rate of decline reported in fall 2019. Higher education lost about 400,000 students this fall. Public colleges over all lost 4 percent of their enrollment, a concerning fact given public institutions enroll seven out of 10 students. (St. Amour, 2020) In addition, student mobility is not occurring and the new norm appears to be virtual or distant learning. Therefore, the impact of antiquated higher education internationalization models has changed forever, due in part, to COVID-19.

Can Sustainability of Higher Education Survive?

Higher education is in serious trouble in the global environment. With the estimated value to US schools of $2.5 billion and an estimated value to job creation of $41billion this is a very serious business ("Economic Impact of International Students," 2020). To capture this market, academic institutions have various models to deal with the international aspect of higher education. These models can be similar or different depending on the country that is in question. -

There are generally three variations:

1. A strategic alliance where two countries form an academic institution in one of the countries;

2. Academic institutions that have US accreditation outside of the US; and

3. Academic institutions that allows study abroad programs in another country.

Each of these models has advantages as well as disadvantages since the overall "student experience" will vary depending on the model. Thus, the school needs to understand their objective and tie it into their overall strategy. This requires an in-depth review of schools ability to market their

programs, ability to adjust to the compliance and regulations of their host nation as well as satisfying regulations and academic compliance within their home country.

In short, the review must take into consideration the ARC model—Agility, Resilience and Creativity.

Due to the current state of COVID-19, academic institutions have moved toward a more "virtual" model which now created the need for a fourth model. This new model will allow the internationalization experience outside of the country teaching the courses. The lack of antidotal research on this is relevant since the overall impact to students and bottom line to universities is critical – less cultural knowledge gained by students and less revenue both direct and indirect for the academic institutions and surrounding towns.

According to ASEE (2020), even concerns about mental health–feelings of emotional strain and loneliness–have increased. Mutual collaboration and networking both in curricular and extra-curricular settings are of major importance concerning the students' international competence development and professional growth. If we are not able to create novel ways to facilitate this, there is a risk for significant and long-term impacts.

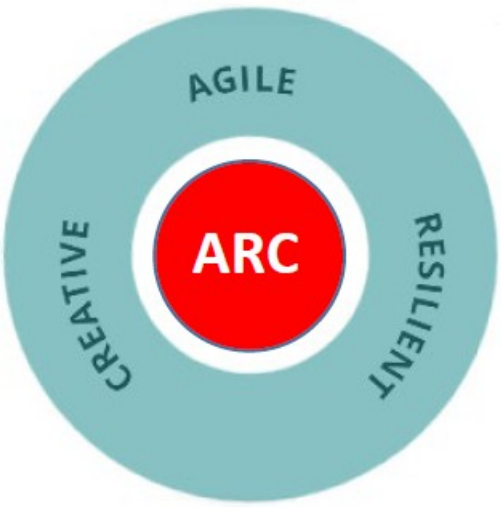
ARC – The Need for a New Approach

Research on the impact of the COVID-19 global pandemic crisis continues to unfold but one thing is certain: the very fabric of higher education has changed forever. A common misconception is to consider internationalization as a goal in itself instead of as a means to an end: enhancing the quality of education, research, and service to society(de Wit & Altbach, 2021). Therefore, new and innovative approaches are needed to fix the problem such as the ARC Model.

Across the globe, many institutions of higher learning have already closed due to the pandemic, dozens have announced furloughs and layoffs, while hundreds more stand on the precipice of financial ruin. Many schools have interrupted their international activities, at least for now.

Research has identified the duality of balancing short- and long-term business pressures in this chaotic environment marked by seismic disruption as a strategic imperative for higher education faculty and administrators. Thus, both faculty and senior administrators should leverage both their own and their institution's agility, resilience, and creativity (ARC) to remain relevant and achieve sustainability. The impact of virtual education to students and institutions can be severe to the student experience and institutions bottom line.

The ARC model was recently introduced during the Turku University of Applied Science keynote address "Agile, Resilient and Creative – Readiness for jobs that do not yet exist". It was also highlighted on a recent Academic Minute (Donnellan, 2020). This model consists of four research-based core values.



The first core value of ARC requires faculty and administrators to engage in what researchers call "deep, sustained, and prolonged" reflection. Such reflection would then contribute to the second core value researchers have identified as the ability to leverage nuanced practices instead of best practices.

Nuanced practices are necessary as the third core value because any strategy undertaken by the faculty to focus on curriculum internationalization and institution needs to focus on its mission.

Finally, researchers continue to emphasize since "few strategies have a real impact on the trajectory of the college or Academic institutions," institutions should focus on implementing tactics critical to the institutions short-term success, also known as strategic imperatives. These strategies need to place the student experience at the forefront to ensure that the student experience is positive.

Although the full impact of COVID-19 has yet to materialize, the latest research suggests higher education institutions need to rethink antiquated internationalization and management strategies, redesign the role cooperative programs and launch a more agile financial model in this virtual environment.

Internationalization in Higher Education is Sustainable

Internationalization of higher education is going through an evolution and its future existence depends on the outcome. Antiquated models are no longer feasible in today's virtual environment and new models are in order. There is still hope of a turnaround. Utilizing the ARC model, academic institutions must be agile enough to survive in today's environment, resilient enough to implement change and creative enough to think of new ways to encourage internationalization in today's new paradigm.

Continued partnerships between countries is essential to ensure that new models for virtual internationalization are implemented. These partnerships "take place at the faculty, unit, and/or institutional levels, and may originate 'top down' or 'bottom up.'"(ACE, 2020) Thus, it is essential that countries continue to encourage cross collaboration of students, faculty and ideas in a distance learning mode.

Therefore, additional data is needed on the benefits and barriers of a fully implemented virtual model. Questions relating to student experience, cost benefits and academic regulatory compliance should be addressed.

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Crime at U.S. Higher Education Institutions: An Examination of Student, Organizational, and Community Characteristics

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Campus crime has become a national concern for institutions of higher education across the United States (U.S.). The worst mass shooting ever on a U.S. college campus that took the lives of 33 students and faculty members at Virginia Polytechnic and State University on April 16 of 2007, the atrocious gunfire at Umpqua Community College on October 1, 2015 that resulted in death of 10 people, and the most recent University of North Carolina at Charlotte shooting on April 30, 2019 sent waves of horror to every corner of the country, causing the public and different university constituents to question the idyllic-like image of higher education campuses.

Campus crime and violence have been a topic of investigation throughout the years but did not gain traction in the higher education literature until McPheters' (1978) econometric analysis of factors influencing campus crime. With the exception of Fox and Hellman (1985), no additional research was conducted on this complex issue till the early and mid-1990s. During the late 1990s and early 2000s, an expansion in research on campus crime began. However, studies since the 1990s have for the most part taken a very narrow view of campus crime by looking at single issues, such as hate crimes (e.g., Garibay, Herrera, Johnston-Guerrero & Garcia, 2019; Stotzer & Hossellman, 2012) and sexual violence (e.g., Wiersma-Mosley, Jozkowski & Martinez, 2017; Stotzer & MacCartney, 2016). Furthermore, a majority of the literature has been descriptive in nature (e.g., Bromley, 1995; Jennings, Gover & Pudrzynska, 2007).

Generally, much of the research on college crime is limited by a focus on smaller samples and 4-year institutions, mainly employing descriptive analysis, and using voluntary secondary datasets and surveys. There is clearly a need for a more comprehensive inquiry into campus crime that will test a broad range of variables that correlate with crime on campuses. To addresses these gaps in the literature, this study presents an exploration of the profile of campus crime at U.S. higher education institutions by their demographic characteristics (i.e., institutional type, sector, and location). More importantly, this study provides an examination of the relationship between campus crime and student, organizational and community characteristics to identify whether campus crime is influenced by the characteristics of the student body, campus or the characteristics of the communities surrounding college campuses. Specifically, the following research questions were addressed:

1. What is the nature and extent of campus crime in U.S. colleges and universities?

2. What student, organizational and community characteristics correlate with campus crime?

This study fills the gaps in the current campus crime literature by: 1) using the U.S. Department of Education's crime database that provides a more comprehensive representation of offenses committed in U.S. higher education institutions compared to alternative crime datasets; 2) including a

comprehensive sample of institutions across sector and control; and, 3) examining a wider array of possible correlates of college crime. As campus environments change over time, it becomes important to determine which factors, found as correlates of campus crime in previous research, are still prominent in explaining college crime and continue to be important regardless of the crime dataset used.

Studying campus crime is of paramount importance to the higher education enterprise. Many individual and organizational level outcomes have been hypothesized to be the result of violence, including behavioral, educational, psychological, physical, social (Waits & Lundberg-Love, 2008), and legal (Sokolow, Lewis, Keller & Daly, 2008). Unsafe campuses have a negative effect on student recruitment, enrollment, academic success, institutional commitment, and persistence (Banyard et al., 2017; Mengo & Black, 2016; Barton, Jensen & Kaufman, 2010; Fisher & Nasar, 1992). Thus, college and university administrators need to become more aware of the consequencesof campus violence and gain a better understanding of the factors related to college crime in order to create safer campuses.

An Overview of Research on Campus Crime

Profile of Campus Crime at U.S. Higher Education Institutions. Studies of campus crime and violence have addressed the incidence, prevalence, and patterns of crime on campus, as well as attempted to identify internal and external background factors associated with different types of campus crime. Researchers have looked at whether campuses were dominated by violent or property crimes, if crime on campuses resembled the patterns of crime existing in the society, and whether or not differences existed in types of campus crime across different intuitional sectors.

Research has established that the majority of the crimes committed on U.S. college campuses are not violent in nature (Han, 2013; Sloan, 1992, 1994; Volkwein et al., 1995). Moreover, literature has revealed lower overall rates of campus crime compared to crime rates in the general community (Bromley, 1992; Fox & Hellman, 1985; Morris, 1993; Volkwein et al., 1995). Research has also shown that crime rates vary at different types of institutions; 2-year colleges report lower crime rates than their 4-year counterparts (Crouse, 2014; Han, 2013; Volkwein et al., 1995).

Correlates of Campus Crime. To date, only a handful of exploratory studies have attempted to identify student, institutional and community characteristics predicting campus crime. These studies have adopted multiple theoretical and methodological perspectives to examine the phenomenon of crime in higher education and made some interesting empirical discoveries. Several studies have found that the proportion of students living in residence halls significantly and positively predicted campus crime (McPheters, 1978; Morris, 1993; Sloan, 1992). Some have ascertained the relationship between college crime and deterrents such as cost and a scale of admission's difficulty (Sloan, 1992), a scale of safety (Sloan, 1994), increased security measures (Jacobsen, 2017), policing level (Crouse, 2014), police department budget per campus population (Morris, 1993), and security expenditures per capita (McPheters, 1978). Others have linked campus crime to institutional control, sector, and size (Crouse, 2014; Fox & Helman, 1985; Han, 2013; Sloan, 1992, 1994; Volkwein et al., 1995). A number of papers have shown that students receiving financial aid (Han, 2013; Ravalin & Tevis, 2016; Volkwein et al., 1995), male students (Jacobsen, 2017; Volkwein et al., 1995), and international enrollees (Volkwein et al., 1995) bore a significant relation to the amount and types of college crime. A couple of articles have reported an association between different categories of campus crime, unemployment rates in the surrounding community (McPheters, 1978), and the location of the college campus (Sloan, 1994).

Theoretical Framework

Several theoretical perspectives have attempted to explain crime, however most of the higher education literature on campus crime is grounded in Cohen and Felson's (1979) Routine Activity Theory (e.g., Fisher, Sloan, Cullen, & Lu, 1998; Siegel & Raymond, 1992; Sloan, 1992; 1994; Volkwein et al., 1995). The current study took a similar theoretical approach. The main assumption of the Routine Activity Theory (RAT) is that criminal acts require convergence in time and space of three elements: motivated offenders, suitable targets, and the absence of capable guardians. The RAT is somewhat unique compared to other criminological approaches in that it assembles several different criminological analyses and perspectives on crime into a single substantive framework and links illegal and legal activities together (Cohen & Felson, 1979).

Application of theory to the campus domain. One can argue that potentially, every campus possesses targets suitable for victimization. Suitable targets can include the students, faculty, staff, and visitors, as well as various property items and facilities on campus. These individuals and items might provide suitable targets to likely offenders because of their value or ease of access (Cohen & Felson, 1979). In a campus context, guardianship can include employees, peers, safety and security officials, access control, as well as environmental design, surveillance (Sloan, 1994) and other technology to monitor the campus environment. Organizational characteristics such as expenditures, dormitory capacity, student/faculty ratios can also provide guardianship. Prospective offenders can be found in the surrounding communities and the student body itself. The suitable target and guardianship components of RAT are closely intertwined. Attractive targets are accessible, visible, and vulnerable. A target becomes suitable when there is a lack of protection and guardianship (Cohen & Felson, 1979). Not many institutions can afford large investments in security, therefore, in the absence of capable guardians, the likelihood of a crime occurring becomes higher (Volkwein et al., 1995).

Overall, RAT offers an alternative way of looking at crime by focusing on the act of crime itself, rather than on the criminal tendencies of the perpetrator. The theory has been utilized to explain crime rate trends, property and personal crimes, and victimization, and tested and applied to several specific domains. RAT has been used in combination with other theoretical perspectives to provide a better understanding of both victims and offenders.

Student, organizational and community characteristics further discussed in the study fit well into the RAT: community characteristics, as well as the characteristics of the campus and student body can provide motivated offenders; students, faculty, and staff can be considered as attractive targets; and certain student and organizational characteristics can serve as capable guardians.

Research Design

This study was framed through a quantitative, correlational, cross-sectional research design and utilized data collected from several existing large-scale national datasets. The dependent variables in the study represented a snapshot of reported violent and property crimes at U.S. public and nonprofit private 4-year, and public 2-year colleges in the year 2010 as that corresponded with the most recent U.S. census.

Data Sources. We utilized three national databases to establish the independent and dependent variables for the study. We used the U.S. Department of Education's Office of Postsecondary

Education (OPE) Campus Safety and Security dataset to collect data on crime statistics for all U.S. higher education institutions in 2010. We employed the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS) to collect data on student and organizational characteristics. We collected the data on community demographic and economic characteristics using the U.S. Census Bureau's database. The 2010 decennial census did not gather social and economic characteristics but basic population counts only. For that reason, we collected indicators such as income, poverty level, and other economic characteristics from the Census Bureau's 2010 American Community Survey (ACS). We used the 2010 data because it reflected the most recent U.S. census.

Sample. We set the unit of analysis in the current study at the higher education organizational level and created a sample of 2,527 public 4-year or above, private not-for-profit 4-year or above, and public 2-year colleges and universities in the 50 U.S. states and the District of Columbia for the 2010 reporting year. Many institutions in the study consisted of multiple branches, some of which were in different cities/counties. We included the branch campuses in the study separately and used different community-level variables when branch campuses were located in different cities/counties.

The overall sample of the study consisted of 1,537 (61%) public and 990 (39%) private institutions. Of this total sample of 2,527 colleges and universities, 620 (25%) were public 4- year or above, and another 990 (39%) were private not-for-profit 4-year or above. There were 917 (36%) public 2-year institutions in the sample.

Variables. We examined the following constructs and variables in the current study: total crime, violent crime, property crime, student characteristics, organizational characteristics, and community characteristics. The detailed list of constructs and variables used in the study is provided in Appendix A.

Dependent variables. Similar to previous research (e.g., Fox & Hellman, 1985; Volkwein et al., 1995), we established the following dependent variables in the current study: total crime, violent crime, and property crime. We assigned the offenses to the categories of violent or property crimes following the U.S. Department of Justice, Federal Bureau of Investigation's definitions of what constituted these crimes (U.S. Department of Justice, 2019). Specifically, the variable violent crime was created by summing following crime classifications: murder or non-negligent manslaughter; forcible sex offenses; robbery; and aggravated assault. The property crime variable was created by summing the following crime categories: burglary; motor vehicle theft, and arson. Total crime is the combination of the numbers of total violent crime and total property crime. We calculated crime rates by dividing total, violent, and property crimes by full time equivalent student (FTE) enrollment and multiplying those numbers by 1,000.

Independent variables. Consistent with previous research (e.g., Fox & Hellman, 1985; Han, 2013; Sloan, 1994; Volkwein et al., 1995), we included the following measures of organizational characteristics: percent white, percent male, percent nonresident alien, and percent of undergraduates with financial aid. These variables fit well with the RAT: motivated offenders are often found not only in the surrounding communities, but also in the student body itself. In addition, college students are generally considered as poor guardians of their property, especially within residence halls, where visitors come and go, rooms are often unlocked, and drinking takes place.

Building on prior literature (e.g., Fisher et al., 1998; Fox & Hellman, 1985; McPheters, 1978; Morris, 1993; Sloan, 1992, 1994; Vokwein et al., 1995), we also included the following dimensions to measure organizational characteristics: student-to-faculty ratio, dormitory capacity per full-time

equivalent student (FTE), tuition and fees, instruction expenses per FTE, research expenses per FTE, public service expenses per FTE, academic support expenses per FTE, student service expenses per FTE, and institutional support expenses per FTE. Inclusion of these variables in the model was also consistent with the RAT: not only do college campuses provide possible targets by the virtue of their nature, but organizational size, wealth, technology, and resources can also act as a proxy for capable guardians.

Congruent with earlier studies (e.g., McPheters, 1978; Volkwein et al., 1995), we measured community characteristics in terms of following: urban, percent white in the community, percent male in the community, percent foreign born in the community, percent below poverty in the community, percent unemployed in the community, percent owner-occupied households in the community, per capita income in the community, and percent with Bachelor's degree in the community. Use of these variables was supported by the RAT: certain communities, especially impoverished neighborhoods, can provide potential criminals, who may find campuses more suitable for their purposes than targets in their own localities.

Data Analysis. Before addressing each research question, we employed several procedures, including log transformations for independent variables. Taking a natural logarithm of predictors deemed appropriate to bring the explanatory variables to similar scales to avoid very small regression coefficients and make data more interpretable. The log transformation was conducted for all explanatory variables except for the ones measured as percentages.

Next, we assessed the strength of the relationship between independent variables using Spearman correlation coefficients. We also ran tests of multicollinearity to identify which predictors in the regression model were highly correlated and calculated variance inflation factors (VIF). All values for the VIF were under 5 therefore no multicollinearity between independent variables was observed (see O'Brien, 2007). We then explored Poisson, negative binomial, and zero-inflated regression models to decide on the best method of analysis. Zero-inflated regression models were not theoretically plausible because of the absence of illegitimate zeros from the crime data. Thus, we looked at goodness of fit plots and Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) values to determine between Poisson and negative binomial regressions. For all dependent variables, negative binomial regression handled the over-dispersed count data better, providing a closer fit over Poisson regression. We created three regression models, one for each dependent variable: total crime per 1,000 students, violent crime per 1,000 students, and property crime per 1,000 students.

Limitations. The present study has several limitations recognizing and acknowledging of which helps us interpret and think about findings with more caution. One of the caveats of the current study is that it uses the ACS to collect social and economic indicators, which the 2010 decennial census did not provide. An issue with the ACS is that the data come from a population sample and not the entire population, meaning that the data will almost always have sampling issues, especially sample size (Hayslett & Kellam, 2009). Hence, data should be viewed as an estimate and not as an actual count. A further limitation of the ACS is that the local data are often missing for the city or municipality within which colleges are located. If a campus is not based in a city, or if the local data are missing, we used the corresponding data for the county. Thus, the data might not always provide an accurate picture of the communities in which colleges are situated.

In addition, the study analyzes 2010 cross-sectional data for relationships between campus crime and organizational and community characteristics, therefore the findings of the study are limited to the 2010 year. Given the changing face of higher education, the findings from the study might not be salient in defining some of the factors contributing to campus crime over time.

Results

Descriptive Statistics. Table 1 provides descriptive statistics for each dependent and independent variable used in the analysis. The table shows notable differences between violent and property crime rates on U.S. college campuses. American higher education institutions in the study had higher property (M=2.12) than violent crime rates (M=0.76) per 1,000 students. The average total crime rate per 1,000 students was reported at 2.90.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics on Dependent and Independent Variables

Variable	N	M	SD	Min	MD	Max
Dependent Variables						
Total Crime per 1,000 Students	2,527	2.90	4.561	0	1.00	36
Violent Crime per 1,000 Students	2,527	0.76	1.692	0	0.00	18
Property Crime per 1,000 Students	2,527	2.12	3.746	0	1.00	34
Independent Variables						
% White	2,527	61.50	23.058	0	66.00	98
% Male	2,527	41.92	10.621	0	42.00	100
% Nonresident Alien	2,527	2.77	5.173	0	1.00	90
% of Undergraduates with Financial Aid	2,526	64.46	21.449	0	64.00	100
Student-to-Faculty Ratio	2,526	17.50	6.276	1	17.00	71
Dormitory Capacity per FTE	2,527	0.21	0.411	0	0.00	2
Tuition and Fees	2,500	11,816.19	11,280.799	0	6,198.50	42,335
Instruction Expenses per FTE	2,527	7,451.88	6,394.258	0	6,012.00	102,039
Research Expenses per FTE	2,527	1,071.97	5,352.265	0	0.00	131,428
Public Service Expenses per FTE	2,527	412.16	1,021.085	0	53.00	18,120
Academic Support Expenses per FTE	2,527	1,838.81	2,485.698	0	1,312.00	61,044
Student Service Expenses per FTE	2,527	2,257.53	1,981.063	0	1,639.00	33,266
Institutional Support Expenses per FTE	2,527	3,284.25	3,131.370	0	2,420.00	42,374
% White in the Community	2,527	71.36	20.726	0	76.00	100
% Male in the Community	2,527	48.61	3.331	18	49.00	91
% Foreign Born in the Community	2,527	10.49	9.955	0	7.00	58
% Below Poverty in the Community	2,527	18.66	8.610	0	18.00	100
% Unemployed in the Community	2,527	8.89	3.809	0	8.00	44
% Owner Occupied Households in the Community	2,527	57.37	12.595	0	58.00	100
Per Capita Income in the Community	2,527	24,521.42	9,294.642	0	22,972.00	118,779
% with Bachelor's Degree in the Community	2,527	17.66	7.195	0	17.00	60

White students made up 61.5% and male students comprised 41.9% of the student body at colleges in the sample. About 2.8% of the student population identified themselves as nonresident alien, and 64.7% of the undergraduate students received some form of financial aid. An average student-to-faculty ratio per FTE was reported at 17.50, while dormitory capacity per FTE averaged 0.21. U.S. postsecondary institutions in the study charged an average of $11,816 in tuition and fees in 2010. These schools spent an average of $7,452 on instruction per FTE, $1,072 on research per FTE,

and $412 on public services per FTE. Average spending on academic support expenses per FTE was reported at $1,839 while average student support expenses per FTE comprised $2,258 and institutional support spending per FTE averaged $3,284.

In terms of race, gender, and citizenship composition of the communities surrounding these 2,527 campuses, about 71.4% of individuals identified themselves as white, 48.6% as male and 10.5% as foreign born. Around 18.7% of the individuals reported being below poverty, and 8.9% as unemployed. Approximately 57.4% of the households in the community were owner occupied, and the average per capita income in the community was disclosed at $24,521. Nearly 17.7% of the population in the community had a Bachelor's degree.

Nature and Extent of Campus Crime in U.S. Colleges and Universities. Since institutions of higher education in the U.S. differ immensely from each other on many characteristics, it is important to look at crime rates based on these distinctive features. Therefore, several tables are presented to put crime rates into context. Tables 2, 3, and 4 display the means comparison of crime rates by type of control of the institutions (public and private), by institutional sector (public 4-year, private not-for-profit 4-year, and public 2-year), and by degree of urbanization (city, rural, suburb, town).

Table 2 shows notable differences in crime rates by institutional control. Private institutions demonstrated higher violent crime rates per 1,000 students (M=1.23) than public institutions (M=0.45). Property crime rates per 1,000 students were also higher at private schools (M=3.53) as compared to public schools (M=1.21). Accordingly, private college campuses had higher total crime rates per 1,000 students (M=4.76) than public college campuses (M=1.70).

Private nonprofit 4-year colleges and universities unveiled higher violent crime rates (M=1.23) than their public 4-year (M=0.70) and 2-year (M=0.29) counterparts (Table 3). Private nonprofit 4-year institutions demonstrated even higher property crime rates (M=3.53) than public 4-year (M=1.95) and 2-year (M=0.72) institutional sectors. Respectively, total crime rates were higher at private nonprofit 4-year schools (M=4.76) than at public 4-year (M=2.70) and 2-year (M=1.03) colleges.

Table 2. Total, Violent, and Property Crime Rates by Institutional Control

Crime	M	SD	Min	MD	Max
Total Crime					
Public	1.70	2.978	0	1.00	29
Private	4.76	5.802	0	3.00	36
Violent Crime					
Public	0.45	1.184	0	0.00	18
Private	1.23	2.183	0	1.00	18
Property Crime					
Public	1.21	2.363	0	0.00	23
Private	3.53	4.887	0	2.00	34

Institutions located in cities (M=0.91) and towns (M=0.80) had the highest violent crime rates, with rural colleges having the lowest violent crime (M=0.49) (see Table 4). Towns (M=2.83) and suburbs (M=2.14) revealed higher property crime rates than cities (M=1.88) and rural colleges (M=1.77). Towns were on top of the list when it came to total crime rates (M=3.64), followed by suburban colleges (M=2.82) and colleges located in the cities (M=2.81). Campuses in rural areas had the lowest mix of violent and property crime (M=2.28).

Student, Organizational and Community Correlates of Campus Crime. Table 5 presents the results of the negative binomial regression for total crime per 1,000 students, violent crime per 1,000 students, and property crime per 1,000 students for a full sample of 2,527 U.S. higher education institutions. The data from the analysis reflect many of the similar results across different types of crimes.

Student variables. The findings revealed that percent male and percent of undergraduates with financial aid were significantly and positively related to total, violent, and property crimes. For a one percent increase in male, the difference in the logs of expected counts of total, violent, and property crime per 1,000 students is expected to go up by .017, .008, and .020 respectively, given the other predictor variables in the model are held constant. Similarly, for a one percent increase in students on financial aid, the difference in the logs of expected counts of total, violent, and property crime per 1,000 students would be expected to increase by .012, .009, and .013 units, while holding the other variables in the model constant. Percent white was also found to have a significant but negative relationship with the three categories of crime. For every percent increase in white students, the difference in the logs of expected counts of total, violent, and property crime per 1,000 students is expected to decrease by .011, .007 and .014. An organizational variable, percent of nonresident aliens was significantly and negatively related to total and property crimes.

Table 3. Total, Violent, and Property Crime Rates by Institutional Sector

Crime	M	SD	Min	MD	Max
Total Crime					
Public, 4-year or above	2.70	3.298	0	0.00	27
Private nonprofit, 4-year or above	4.76	5.804	0	3.00	36
Public, 2-year	1.03	2.526	0	0.00	29
Violent Crime					
Public, 4-year or above	0.70	1.003	0	0.00	9
Private nonprofit, 4-year or above	1.23	2.184	0	1.00	18
Public, 2-year	0.29	1.266	0	0.00	18
Property Crime					
Public, 4-year or above	1.95	2.787	0	1.00	23
Private nonprofit, 4-year or above	3.53	4.888	0	2.00	34

Public, 2-year	0.72	1.870	0	0.00	17

Table 4. Total, Violent, and Property Crime Rates by Degree of Urbanization

Crime	M	SD	Min	MD	Max
Total Crime					
City	2.81	4.233	0	1.00	34
Rural	2.28	4.144	0	1.00	27
Suburb	2.82	4.606	0	1.00	36
Town	3.64	5.277	0	2.00	34
Violent Crime					
City	0.91	1.908	0	0.00	18
Rural	0.49	1.421	0	0.00	18
Suburb	0.65	1.339	0	0.00	10
Town	0.80	1.734	0	0.00	18
Property Crime					
City	1.88	3.275	0	1.00	30
Rural	1.77	3.405	0	0.00	24
Suburb	2.14	3.960	0	1.00	34
Town	2.83	4.460	0	1.00	33

Table 5. Results of Negative Binomial Regression for Total, Violent, and Property Crime per 1,000 Students for Public 4-Year, Private Nonprofit 4-Year, and Public 2-Year Institutions

Variable	Total Crime per 1,000 Students	Violent Crime per 1,000 Students	Property Crime per 1,000 Students
Organizational Variables	B(Std. Error)	B (Std. Error)	B (Std. Error)
% White	-.011(.0015)***	-.007(.0019)***	-.014(.0017)***
% Male	.017(.0026)***	.008(.0033)*	.020(.0027)***
% Nonresident Alien	-.017(.0062)**	-.008(.0071)	-.032(.0072)***
% of Undergraduates with Financial Aid	.012(.0016)***	.009(.0021)***	.013(.0017)***
Log Student-to-Faculty Ratio	-.421(.0965)***	-.725(.1248)***	-.234(.1075)*
Log Dormitory Capacity per FTE	.763(.1011)***	1.000(.1274)***	.700(.1067)***
Log Tuition and Fees	.192(.0346)***	.071(.0415)	.298(.0441)***
Log Instruction Expenses per FTE	-.149(.0628)***	-.212(.0840)***	-.083(.0691)
Log Research Expenses per FTE	.048(.0105)***	.044(.0133)**	.048(.0114)***
Log Public Service Expenses per FTE	.025(.0100)*	.021(.0131)	.030(.0106)**
Log Academic	-.048(.0344)	.014(.0455)	-.078(.0370)*

Variable	Total Crime per 1,000 Students	Violent Crime per 1,000 Students	Property Crime per 1,000 Students
Support Expenses per FTE			
Log Student Service Expenses per FTE	.248(.0491)***	.211(.0663)***	.247(.0538)***
Log Institutional Support Expenses per FTE	.051(.0498)	.044(.0676)	.041(.0548)
Community Variables			
Urban	.071(.0582)	-.194(.0772)*	.174(.0620)**
% White in the Community	.003(.0019)	-.002(.0025)	.006(.0020)**
% Male in the Community	-.004(.0081)	-.001(.0108)	-.001(.0084)
% Foreign Born in the Community	-.008(.0036)*	.004(.0046)	-.014(.0039)***
% Below Poverty in the Community	.001(.0051)	.006(.0069)	.004(.0053)
% Unemployed in the Community	-.013(.0087)	.003(.0121)	-.021(.0090)**
Log Per Capita Income in the Community	-.011(.0660)	.084(.0971)	-.040(.0729)
% Owner Occupied Households in the Community	-.005(.0031)	-.008(.0040)*	-.002(.0032)
% with Bachelor's Degree in the Community	-.003(.0042)	.007(.0058)	-.007(.0043)

Note. *P<.05, **P<.01**, ***P<.001

Organizational variables. Organizational characteristics such as dormitory capacity per FTE, research expenses per FTE, and student service expenses per FTE were found to be significantly and positively related to total, violent, and property crimes. For each percentage change in dormitory capacity per FTE, the difference in the logs of expected counts of total, violent, and property crime per 1,000 students goes up by .008, .01 and .007, correspondingly. Tuition and fees and public service expenses per FTE had a statistically significant positive relationship with total and property crimes. Student-to-faculty ratio significantly but negatively correlated with all three types of crime, while instruction expenses per FTE was significantly and negatively associated with total and violent crimes. For a percentage increase in student-to-faculty ratio, the difference in the logs of expected counts of total, violent, and property crime per 1,000 students decreases by .004, .007, and .002. Academic support expenses per FTE was found to have a significant but negative relationship with property crime rates.

Community variables. Results of the negative binomial regression showed that a more urban concentration of colleges and universities corresponded with higher property but lower violent crime rates. Percent white in the community, significantly and positively related to property crimes, while percent foreign-born in the community was found to have a statistically significant negative

relationship with both total and property crimes. Percent unemployed in the community displayed a negative significant relationship with property crime rates; for every unit increase in percent unemployed in the community the difference in the logs of expected counts of violent crime goes down by 0.021, everything else held constant. Percent of owner-occupied households was found to be significantly and negatively related to violent crime.

Discussion

Several interesting findings emerged from the current study. Similar to previous research, the descriptive analysis indicated that the majority of the crimes committed at U.S. postsecondary institutions were property related. The results suggested that private nonprofit 4-year institutions had higher total, violent and property crime rates than their public 4- and 2-year counterparts, and public 2-year colleges reported the lowest rates in all three crime categories. These findings are at least partially consistent with Crouse (2014) and Volkwein et al. (1995) studies and suggest that campus administrators need to focus on implementing better property crime prevention measures and make more efforts to identify crimes that are specific to private 4-year institutions to create policies, initiatives, and programs that will aim at deterring motivated offenders, reducing the target attractiveness, and improving the proactive guardianship at these schools.

The results of the study revealed that colleges with larger proportions of white students showed less crime. Institutions with higher percentage of males and undergraduates with financial aid had greater numbers of crimes. These findings were similar to Volkwein et al. (1995) and Jacobsen (2017), and somewhat reinforced Han (2013), Ravalin & Tevis (2016) and Sloan's (1994) studies that also discovered the positive association between crime rates and percent male, percent black or minorities, and undergraduates with financial aid. The results are particularly important, especially in light of today's increased measures on diversity and access on U.S. college campuses and call for a need for customized crime prevention efforts and special campus security programming with identified target groups for institutions where the contrast in student racial/ethnic, gender, and economic backgrounds is particularly apparent.

The significant positive association of dorm capacity per FTE with the three types of crime to some extent resembled the results from previous research (McPheters, 1978; Volkwein et al., 1995) that found a significant positive relationship between percent in dormitories and crime, and may have implications for how residential halls are designed on campuses. Individuals involved in planning of building new dormitory housing might want to consider constructing residential halls with fewer units and beds that will accommodate smaller numbers of students. Departments of Student Life at schools with larger dormitory capacity might also want to allocate police and security officers as extra eyes of caution to boost guardianship in these buildings. Special crime prevention classes can also be incorporated in co-curricular programming by residential life at schools with large dorms.

The positive relationship between student services expenditures and the three categories of crimes could plausibly be explained by reverse causality (see Fox & Hellman, 1985): schools that spend more on student services might have more and better crime prevention and reporting training programs for students, which can increase the likelihood of crime reporting. On the other hand, the more programs and events Student Services runs at these schools, the more students and non-students these events will attract, increasing the probability that motivated offenders will converge in space and time with suitable targets, thus enhancing the chances of victimization. More crime can lead to adopting more violence prevention and reporting programs, requiring more student services expenditures.

The positive association of research expenditures with the three types of crimes can be attributed to the wealth factor of these schools and aligns well with theRAT. Schools that spend high on research are mostly affluent 4-year institutions attended by selective well-off students. These schools oftentimes have more fraternal organizations, which might be a contributing factor to sexual assaults, alcohol and drug related offenses, property and other types of crimes and can provide for a place where motivated offenders and suitable targets converge in time and space. These colleges can be advised to tighten their security measures to control access to academic, administrative, residence, social and sports facilities. Since these institutions also have larger than average proportions of new students, college transition and adjustment programs should be initiated to build strong networks on campus which then can contribute to creating and maintaining a safe and sound campus culture.

While none of the studies, except for Volkwein et al., (1995), who had to drop the variable because of multicollinearity issues, had looked at the association between student-to-faculty ratio and campus crime, the current study found that higher student-to-faculty ratio corresponded with lower levels of crime rates. This finding provides an interesting ground for interpretation and can be linked to the RAT. One can argue that higher ratio of students can provide more likely offenders or suitable targets on college campuses. However, not only do students serve as motivated offenders or attractive targets, but also they can perform a detection function and act as capable guardians for other students, faculty, and staff as well. Therefore, higher student-to-faculty ratio could be viewed as a crime deterrent factor and colleges and universities would be advised to monitor these ratios closely.

The location finding was vis-a-vis Sloan's (1992, 1994) studies that discovered that location was significantly related to crime. However, this result contradicted Mcpheters (1978) and Fox and Helmann (1985) research that detected no significant relationship between campus crime and the location of the campuses. This difference in findings could probably be explained by how location has been measured in the three studies. The measures of location in the current research might have caught some intrinsic aspects of the location that Mcpheters (1978) and Fox and Helmann (1985) studies did not account for and vice versa. Given the findings of this research, campuses in urban areas might need to increase spending on safety and security and invest in better financed, larger and well equipped campus police that can improve guardianship on campus. A variety of strategies, including 'target hardening' crime prevention educational programs and 'crime watch programs' (Sloan, 1992), or controlling crime through environmental design can be developed (Sloan, 1994). Additionally, urban campuses might need to engage in systematic analysis of data to discover crime trends specific to their campus and implement more evidence-based crime reduction strategies.

Percent unemployed in the community was found to positively contribute to crime in the previous literature (e.g., McPheters, 1978), however corresponded with lower property crime rates in the current study. One possible explanation for this finding that is supported by the RAT could be that as unemployment rates in the area grow higher, people spend more time at home becoming better guardians of their property, thus creating less chances for potential offenders to commit felonies. Or it might be that as more people become unemployed they cannot afford buying different items, therefore reducing target attractiveness for the possible offenders and the likelihood of victimization.

The current study analyzed the U.S. Department of Education's crime dataset and therefore has a better representation of crimes committed on U.S. college campuses. While earlier studies have mostly examined crime at either a single or a smaller sample of institutions, the current study includes a more representative sample of U.S. colleges and universities, capturing a better picture of crime at various types of institutions. Lastly, the current study employs variables that have not been tested as possible correlates of campus crime before. Adding more measures to the analysis adds to our knowledge of factors that contribute to crime on campus.

Findings from the study can aid policymakers and practitioners on college and university campuses in determining strategies to create safer environments in which all campus constituents can pursue their goals more efficiently, and utilize their labor to benefit academia. Therefore, a better understanding of and insight into factors related to campus crime, as well as recognition of the potential impact of these perceived factors on the campus environment will be crucial for research, theory building, and practice.

Future research on the topic could examine the relationship of campus crime with organizational and community characteristics longitudinally. It would also be interesting to replicate the current study on different college campuses abroad and conduct a comparative study of campus crime. Comparing the profile of campus crime across different countries, or even continents, can provide some valuable insight into whether variables found as correlates of crime on U.S. college campuses are predictors of campus crime at higher education institutions worldwide as well.

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Appendix A. Dependent and Independent Variables in the Study

VARIABLES	MEASURE	SOURCE
Dependent Variables		
Violent Crime	*Murder or Non-Negligent Manslaughter - On Campus*	*OPE*
	Murder or Non-Negligent Manslaughter - Noncampus	*OPE*
	Murder or Non-Negligent Manslaughter - Public Property	*OPE*
	Murder or Non-Negligent Manslaughter - Reported by Local & State Police	*OPE*
	Forcible Sex Offenses - On Campus	*OPE*
	Forcible Sex Offense - Noncampus	*OPE*
	Forcible Sex Offenses - Public Property	*OPE*
	Forcible Sex Offenses - Reported by Local & State Police	*OPE*
	Robbery - On Campus	*OPE*
	Robbery - Noncampus	*OPE*
	Robbery - Public Property	*OPE*
	Robbery - Reported by Local & State Police	*OPE*
	Aggravated Assault - On Campus	*OPE*
	Aggravated Assault - Noncampus	*OPE*
	Aggravated Assault - Public Property	*OPE*
	Aggravated Assault - Reported by Local & State Police	*OPE*
Property Crime	*Burglary - On Campus*	*OPE*
	Burglary - Noncampus	*OPE*
	Burglary - Public Property	*OPE*
	Burglary - Reported by Local & State Police	*OPE*
	Motor Vehicle Theft - On Campus	*OPE*
	Motor Vehicle Theft - Noncampus	*OPE*
	Motor Vehicle Theft - Public Property	*OPE*
	Motor Vehicle Theft - Reported by Local & State Police	*OPE*
	Arson - On Campus	*OPE*
	Arson - Noncampus	*OPE*
	Arson - Public Property	*OPE*
	Arson - Reported by Local & State Police	*OPE*
Total Crime	*Violent Crime; Property Crime*	*OPE*
Independent Variables		
Student Characteristics	*Percent White*	*IPEDS*
	Percent Male	*IPEDS*
	Percent Nonresident Alien	*IPEDS*
	Percent of Undergraduates with Financial Aid	*IPEDS*
Organizational Characteristics	*Student to Faculty Ratio*	*IPEDS*
	Dormitory Capacity per FTE	*IPEDS*
	Tuition and Fees	*IPEDS*
	Instruction Expenses per FTE	*IPEDS*
	Research Expenses per FTE	*IPEDS*
	Public Service Expenses per FTE	*IPEDS*
	Academic Support Expenses per FTE	*IPEDS*
	Student Service Expenses per FTE	*IPEDS*
	Institutional Support Expenses per FTE	*IPEDS*
Community Characteristics	*Urban*	*IPEDS*
	Percent White in the Community	*CENCUS*
	Percent Male in the Community	*CENCUS*
	Percent Foreign Born in the Community	*CENCUS*
	Percent Below Poverty in the Community	*ACS*
	Percent Unemployed in the Community	*ACS*
	Percent Owner Occupied Households in the Community	*ACS*
	Per Capita Income in the Community	*ACS*
	Percent with Bachelor's Degree in the Community	*ACS*

Graduate Admissions Disruption and Diplomacy: The Graduate Admissions—Graduate School Partnership in the Age of Digital Funnel Management

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The case study of Spalding University, a small private doctoral teaching institution in downtown Louisville, Kentucky, classified as a "Doctoral/Professional University" (D/PU) institution by the Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education, helps us understand how an institution with 1850 students (which includes over 850 graduate students) transitioned from a primarily day, undergraduate-centered enrollment model to a more "blended" model of admissions and enrollment management due to the intentional transformation of the graduate education and graduate admissions areas from 2018-20. The evolving model moved funnel management more deeply into a more centralized system in digital space away from the previous decentralized paper/hard copy graduate funnel administrative approach. This article will discuss this transformation and suggest that although the immediate graduate student yield was not large, the creation of intentional blended admissions processes began to assist in moving graduate and online education (and its admissions process) in the right direction with increased enrollments, a new digital and data-driven culture, and greater acceptance of the new graduate admissions system (ipso facto) among staff, faculty, and students on campus.

Background

Spalding University, a historical Roman Catholic university founded in 1814 as an all-girls grammar school by the Sisters of Charity of Nazareth in rural north-central Kentucky and later having opened a senior college campus for women in Louisville, Kentucky in 1920, has 27 academic programs (17 of those are graduate degree programs). Spalding sits in the historical heart of urban Louisville about a mile from the Ohio River (to its north) and about three miles from Churchill Downs (the world-famous racetrack and home of the "Kentucky Derby" on the south edge of the urban core of Louisville). Louisville is the fifteenth fastest growing and the twenty-ninth largest metro area (1.2m people) in the United States. Spalding, which started graduate programs in 1983, is the most diverse private institution in the Commonwealth of Kentucky. Twenty-two percent of both its undergraduate and graduate students are minority students. In December 2017, the institution hired a Dean of Graduate Education, Kurt W. Jefferson, to begin to administer graduate education from a more holistic perspective and to give graduate programs more of a voice in the various areas of the university. This was part of a strategy carried out by the President (Tori Murden McClure) to "flatten" the organization as deans of colleges were done away with and only two academic deans (in graduate and undergraduate education) were left alongside the Provost to oversee, at the senior administrative level, the academic area of the university. In doing so, the Office of Graduate Education (OGE), called "the Graduate School" at most institutions, was created in order to make intentional linkages with graduate academic programs in various schools of the university (still run

by associate deans and in 2019 the associate dean posts were dropped for "school chairs") and liaise with various staff leaders such as graduate financial aid officials, the director of graduate admissions, and other staff leadership positions that are important for managing and carrying out a robust set of services for graduate students on campus .

Changes in Graduate Admissions

Spalding created a Graduate Admissions Director (GAD) position in 2016. That position took on prominence in early 2019 as it added a Graduate Admissions Recruiter under the Graduate Admissions Director. In January 2019, the Dean of Graduate Education, working with the then-Dean of Enrollment Management, moved the DGA into the OGE to work closer together. At many smaller universities, the DGA is often found in the graduate school under the graduate dean. The DGA (Paul Bolton) still had a dotted line report to the Dean of Enrollment Management; but, centralizing the DGA's work in the OGE/graduate school brought the Graduate Dean and the DGA closer together to plan, strategize, and review empirical outcomes as a digital funnel management system was built. The creation of an office for the DGA in the OGE helped on many fronts: a) it allowed for more autonomy for the DGA and his team in building its own identity as a "graduate admissions" area apart from the historically undergraduate-centered Office of Admissions at Spalding; b) it allowed for a new, more aggressive "sales model" to be employed by the DGA thereby allowing for more data-driven methods to drive decision-making in admissions decisions and enrollment management of the graduate programs at Spalding; c) it helped both the Dean of Graduate Education and the DGA to begin to build upon the data-driven culture that was in its inchoate stages at SU (e.g. several data councils and committees were started related to data infrastructure, retention, enrollment, accreditation standards, finances, credit-hours, and policy-making); and, d) started allowing for the targeting of programs for growth and conversion to some programs from in-seat to hybrid/fully online which had been a priority of the incoming Dean of Graduate Education and the then-Provost.

Positives of Moving Toward a New System of Graduate Admissions at Spalding University

Moving the DGA's office into the graduate education space was important. First, it jump-started the graduate admissions process by immediately signaling that both academics and admissions were linked. Not all graduate admissions professionals or offices are found within the graduate school. Around the United States, some are in the graduate school and some are not. This allowed Spalding to grow graduate admissions and begin to centralize some operations related to digital funnel management including much processing around messaging from each program. Second, it allowed for Spalding to align the right jobs with the right talent. It tried to change somewhat the fuzziness of having some admissions personnel and leaders do both undergraduate admissions (working with prospective full-time, day undergraduate students while simultaneously working with a graduate program or two in recruitment). The old system was viable, but had some blurred elements and clarity was achieved in intentionally building a graduate space for enrollment management and recruitment. Third, it allowed the DGA and his team to answer graduate program directors (GPDs) questions better and focus on their unique needs. Fourth, it built a new leadership culture where a "director-level" leader becomes equally important as deans and others in the decision-making chain as decisions made, oftentimes, at the margins of the enrollment services area become more central to overall unit outcomes as futurist Bob Johansen suggests in *The New Leadership Literacies* (2017) that decisions will be distributed in organizations as some leaders seek "clarity" not "certainty" as they allow some important decisions and activities to operate on the edges of "shape-shifting"

organizations (see Johansen, 2017). This is a break from the traditional hierarchical, CEO-centered organization. Fifth, it took the focus off individuals and back on the "team" in leveraging brain power, ideas, and wisdom. More people were now in the process as it flattened out and more ideas percolated up and out. Also, last, it put the focus more on building "process" and not just centered on numbers and outcomes. Although outcomes are important and targeted goals for cohort sizes and numbers per program are important, the graduate dean purposely put the focus on being patient and letting the process play out to not only see if it worked, but to see how it would work. Thus, process over outcome was not a bad thing as things became clearer, lanes were realized, and empirical roles and expectations were established.

Negatives of the New Process in Graduate Admissions and Graduate Education

As in any organization, politics and egos were part of this experiment. Fortunately, the then-Dean of Enrollment Management worked closely with the Dean of Graduate Education in pushing more decisions down to the individual office-level such as Graduate Admissions Director and his team and to the graduate academic program level as well. The most important outcome was the then-Provost's support of creating both an academic system and an admissions system that saw graduate education as equal to the undergraduate admissions and undergraduate academic systems. In fairness to Spalding and its history, its graduate area was relatively young (early 1980s), and it had begun to see growth in its graduate programs in the early 2000s and it was starting to see a greater number of its graduate students (45%) as a total of the university's population. Another issue was that the university, as a traditionally small liberal arts institution with many professional programs, had to find resources to pay staff more in the admissions areas. This is a challenge at a frugal, small institution. Another concern is that decisions of this nature (to put the DGA and his office into the OGE) require collaboration and affect multiple parties (from admissions to human resources to the business office). Thus, in a naturally siloed institution (which most universities are—even small ones), this was a challenge. And, last, this transition took place in the middle of shifting landscapes in higher education in general. As the new Dean of Graduate Education (Dr. Jefferson) was busy building and transitioning into his new role (after December 1, 2017), the transition of moving the GAD into the graduate dean's office came within just over a year; thus, transitions related to new leadership in several areas, moving to more digital funnel management, a new data-centric culture on campus, and moving some programs to hybrid and fully online were not easy. In many cases, the transitions were still ongoing into early 2020 and even into the Covid-19 era that bedeviled higher education after March 2020. What is more, from December 2018 to summer 2020, the graduate area saw a 35% growth in graduate degree programs (see data below). So, a lot was happening in a relatively short timeframe. The new DGA (Bolton) also had some online and post-traditional (undergraduate) student responsibilities in recruitment on his plate as well. This exemplified the "new normal" in higher education where transitions on top of transitions are part of the work landscape and blurring of operational and strategic lines are part of life. Attempting to do what entrepreneur Elon Musk does well, find clarity and focus, in disruption, confusion, and chaos is now mandatory for leaders in graduate education and admissions spaces in higher education (Vance, 2015, 211).

A New "Blended" Graduate Admissions Model

By mid-2018, Spalding began to move intentionally toward a kind of "blended" model of graduate admissions which moved much of the communication and funnel management away from each graduate program (as their own autonomous domain) to a shared model where the academic

units participated in the recruitment and messaging to prospective students as the graduate admissions team began to intentionally manage the funnel via digital funnel tools utilizing the customer relationship management (CRM) software and funnel messaging (via emails to prospective students) and crunching data that came from inquiries, applications, and matriculations. Although this process took well-over a year to move all of Spalding's programs this direction and was still ongoing in the graduate admissions area as of early 2021, it appeared to be paying off. By mid-to-late 2019, the operationalization of the digital funnel management in nearly all graduate programs (with some exceptions that were still paper-driven), coordination of nearly all messaging from graduate programs, and improvement in tracking inquiries, applications, and messaging in the funnel were cultivating a changing graduate admissions culture. Although a slow build, within 12-13 months (by winter 2019), on aggregate, some 50 more graduate students had matriculated with numbers moving from 750-800 or so graduate students for 14 graduate degree programs and 24 total graduate programs and certificates (by summer 2020, Spalding had 17 graduate degree programs and 10 certificate programs totaling 27 graduate academic programs up from 12 graduate degree programs and 20 programs total in January 2018). The process was evolving. There were fits and starts. It was incremental as the OGE was building additional capacity with new programs (both certificates and graduate degree programs coming into being). Thus, the process was built within a transitioning system where additional fully online programs were added, new technology platforms—such as learning management systems—were used, and new tracks within graduate programs were being added to stay relevant and competitive in the marketplace.

Within days of giving this article (in paper form) at the 49th Conference of Southern Graduate Schools, the Covid-19 virus had begun to take its toll on the United States (as it had in China, Italy, and other global hotspots), and the importance of online graduate programs and the ability to provide multiple options for students in new and growing areas of academic study became even more important. The importance of the process of digital funnel management for the management of admissions for graduate programs would soon become the new normal for nearly every university around the world. Despite Covid-19 and some decline in graduate program demand at Spalding in 2020, the July 2019 to July 2020 timeframe saw a seven percent increase in graduate students (year to year). Thus, the process of graduate admissions as well as the undergraduate dean's office working closely with graduate dean's office and the schools at Spalding on retention of current students in summer 2020, good outcomes occurred.

Graduate Enrollment Management Today: Digital Funnel Expansion

It is important that graduate admissions and the work that has been done in this subfield of enrollment management continue to be studied and analyzed. The Council of Graduate Schools, the major academic association for deans of graduate schools, have studied and written on the topic in recent years (Diminnie, 2012) and the Association for Graduate Enrollment Management (NAGAP) has provided leadership and communication for graduate admissions professionals on graduate admissions and its evolution, growth, and development (see the NAGAP website at http://www.nagap.org). Historically, at most institutions, graduate programs and faculty were on their own to find students as enrollment funnel management and admissions processes were undergraduate-centric. This has been changing in recent years with the focus on cohort-based management and the savvy use of marketing to attract new students (e.g. increased use of social media, more search engine optimization, etc.) At Spalding, three data councils were created to begin to track graduate admissions, model funnel management in the digital space, and to assess the ability to predict based on increasing amounts of data on prospective and new students entering the graduate

funnel. The new DGA worked on building predictive systems of understanding that would help build objectives and key results that would yield useful metrics that would help track students in the funnel and build algorithms and predictive capabilities and improve capacities in admissions for better understanding of the inquiry to matriculation process (Doerr, 2018, 7). The DGA was able to begin implementing certain metrics based on what he was observing in the funnel and in the literature related to graduate admissions to help GPDs understand that one to one ratios of applications to matriculations were not a good way to predict success in graduate program admissions. If anything, the new data culture that began to evolve at Spalding helped both admissions staff and academic units understand that greater scrutiny of resources spent on funnel growth and marketing search engine optimization were going to lead to a more realistic view of what resources were needed to maximize student yield in each program.

Marketing was increasingly linked more deeply to enrollment management and the DGA's projections in terms of the aggregate number of inquiries as correlated with eventual applications and eventual "move to student" data (matriculations) was triangulated with national market data (from various organizations like EAB, formerly called Education Advisory Board out of Washington, DC), our own local market data, and our own in-house study of the ratio of inquiries to applications to admits to matriculations as this allowed us to get a better understanding on the number of applications it takes to guarantee a matriculation in each graduate program.

Negatives of Digital Funnel Management

Moving to a digital funnel management model was not easy and provided challenges for the university and the graduate admissions area. First, it took 12-13 months to sustain levels of consistent application growth in a minority of areas that eventually led to an aggregate 50 student increase in all our graduate programs at Spalding in early 2019. Although, this is a small "N," it did tell us that building the process was going to take a while and that every matriculated student was important irrespective of the program, tuition per credit hour, and type of program at the graduate level. Second, the transformation, which again, was taking place in a fluid context of attempting to create a data-driven culture in both admissions and academics and putting higher priorities on online learning in the graduate space, was slow, arduous, and not enough human resources were being put toward problem areas. One DGA and one graduate admissions counselor were barely enough to address the issues that were created by transforming a somewhat autonomous graduate admissions area. Third, finances are always an issue at small to medium-sized institutions. Fourth, technology is normally a blessing (and at times, a curse) at these types of institutions. In this case, new technologies and platforms were being used to build the sales-type context at both the graduate and undergraduate-levels in the enrollment management area at Spalding which was important. Indeed, the tools were evolving and attempting to get all units on the same page, both inside and outside of the management area by summer 2018, was proving a bit of challenge. With this said, the new normal of higher education appears to be the quickening of admissions, financial, technological, and information cycles. What one could wait on for a year (even five years ago) is now half of that time or less (e.g. recruitment cycles are year-round in many graduate programs with multiple entry points every 6-8 weeks at Spalding). In the VUCA (volatility, uncertainty, complexity, and ambiguity) world, that both Johansen and Matt Kutz discuss in their intriguing works, this rapid change and increased expectations of prospective students must be met in increasingly expeditious and time-sensitive information and response cycles (Johansen, 2017; Kutz, 2017).

It is All about the "Process"

The transformation of the graduate admissions process at Spalding University into one of a blended recruitment model for graduate programs and one that focused on digital funnel management put "first things first." First, it trained all eyes (i.e. the provost, dean of admissions, graduate dean, CFO, graduate program directors, etc.) onto the admissions funnel process, messaging to prospective students, and then onto marketing. Second, the process for focusing on digital funnel management and connecting the academic side (i.e. Office of Graduate Education or "graduate school") with the admissions units was carried out with some fundamental successes that ultimately came full circle when in July 2019 (about six months after the Graduate Admissions Office was placed in the OGE) the Graduate Admissions Office was returned to the Office of Enrollment Management under a new Dean of Enrollment Management. Ultimately, this was done to connect all parts of admissions back to each other and to keep improving communication with faculty and other staff units, such as marketing. By early 2021 this process has gotten much stronger due to the leadership of the Dean of Enrollment Management and her teamwork with the Dean of Graduate Education. Third, once the new processes were built, improved student numbers in many, not all, graduate programs were seen. Finally, continued focus on simplifying processes to avoid complexity was one of Dean Jefferson's goals (Clearfield & Tilcsik, 2018). On a related note, Kutz (2017) talks about embracing "complexity, [reframing] expertise, and [leveraging] learning" in understanding how areas of the university learn from each other and work together to develop these types of processes, systems, and models in the VUCA context (Johansen 2017). Director of Graduate Admissions Bolton ushered in an historical era with the creation of a digital funnel management process linked to a sales-oriented team focus in both graduate admissions and digital funnel management. Although his leadership was intentional, focused, and connected several areas to graduate admissions (as has been seen in this case study; areas such as graduate academics, marketing, financial aid, and others), DGA Bolton helped bring Spalding forward from an era of decentralized graduate admissions with more focus on managing paper-based systems and admissions focused on program directors (who were faculty members). His approach combined data management and analysis, digital funnel (point-in-time) analysis, constant and timely email and funnel messaging, and expansion of the funnel to begin to predict more accurately how much marketing and time would be required to recruit students into Spalding's graduate programs. Now over 30+ months on, DGA Bolton has built a process, a culture, and linked it to the goals of both the new Dean of Enrollment Management and the Dean of Graduate Education. It is too early to speculate what effects the Covid-19 outbreak will have on higher education and the attending move of many programs and systems fully online, but certainly these realities will impact digital funnel management going forward in the next five years and beyond (Hechinger and Lori, "Ready or not, colleges go online," *Bloomberg Businessweek*, March 23, 2020, 12-14).

Going forward, as higher education changes and moves from focusing on content to more meta-cognitive skills in an era where artificial intelligence and increased data analysis and linking higher order thinking skills to the classical liberal arts approach in academic studies, the processes that will be developed in graduate admissions digital funnel management will need to continue to be refined (Aoun, 2017, 45-75). At Spalding the DGA continues to work on: a) refining the funnel management system and linking it to the CRM; b) connecting online admissions counselors to the work of the graduate admissions counselor in order to use the processes that will provide improved funnel management and communication with prospective students; and c) refining the data culture so that leaders in both enrollment management and academic administration can make sense of the data and changes in metrics as data systems evolve (Marr, 2017). Despite the limitations that affect his operation, DGA Bolton has succeeded in building a process that has begun to serve as a model

internally and externally as graduate admissions systems evolve and meet the challenges of the times and the technological change that continues to affect all aspects of higher education.

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This article is based on a presentation given at the 49th annual meeting of the Conference of Southern Graduate Schools in Birmingham, Alabama on March 7, 2020.

Antipathy in Academia is Subverting Shared Governance

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Th

e Attitude of Antipathy

Attitudes. An attitude is "a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor" (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993, p.1). The 'concept of evaluation is central to the definition of attitude' (Banaji & Heiphetz, 2010, p. 352).

Attitudes may be learned directly through reinforced behavior or indirectly through modeling from observing parents, relatives, friends, caregivers, the media, etc. (Banaji & Heiphetz, 2010). While attitudes are generally viewed as being stable and enduring, they may also be acquired quickly. Therefore, "It is more parsimonious to think of attitudes as evaluative judgments, formed when needed, rather than enduring personal dispositions" (Schwarz, 2007, p. 639). Most importantly, attitudes are malleable (Banaji & Heiphetz, 2010).

Current research has taken 'a focus on beliefs (cognitions) as the building blocks of attitudes' and of attitude change (Banaji & Heiphetz, 2010, p. 350). An example of such a model is the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM). In the ELM (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986), elaboration (the cognitive element of an attitude, i.e., the 'belief') is affected by two factors: the motivation of an individual and the individual's cognitive ability. When a recipient of a message aimed at changing an attitude has little or no interest in the message (low motivation) and their cognitive processing is minimal (low ability), they do not examine a message thoroughly. They are more likely to rely on their general impressions and take their cues from the context in which the message is presented. In this case, little attitudinal persuasion occurs that will be enduring. On the other hand, if a message recipient exercises cognitive ability regarding the message content and is motivated to receive the message, they arrive at a reasoned attitude that endures and is predicative of future behavior.

As an example of how the ELM model works, consider the "Got Milk?" advertisement in the 1990s designed to encourage drinking milk. Various celebrities were pictured with a 'milk mustache.' Someone who has a low level of elaboration (less cognitive analysis and little motivation) might be persuaded by peripheral factors such as a picture of a celebrity. Any attitude change in this case (i.e., increasing their milk consumption) would probably be short lived and not predictive of future behavior (drinking milk). On the other hand, a person who analyzes messages and their logic and who would be more motivated by an advertisement touting the health benefits of drinking milk than by the presence of celebrity would be less persuaded by the advertisement. For this person, there is little chance for attitudinal/behavioral change as a result of this advertisement (Hooper, 2019).

Finally, attitudes are significantly and substantially good predictors of future behavior (Kraus, 1995). There is a consistency between attitudes and behavior so that under certain circumstances, attitudes are strong predictors of behavior (Olson & Maio, 2003).

Antipathy. Antipathy is an attitude (Alexander, 1946). Antipathy is defined as follows: "(A)ntipathy refers to a relationship based on dislike between two companions, either unilateral or mutual. As such, antipathies form a social relationship that endures over time on the basis of aversion and animosity" (Chang, 2015, p.408). There are various definitions of antipathy, but "there is one point of agreement among them that is, it indicates a 'feeling against' an object" (Alexander, 1946, p. 288). Antipathy is an attitude with a negative connotation, i.e., it is an evaluation with the element of disfavor (Banaji & Heiphetz, 2010).

Antipathy is difficult for an individual to define, because people "have never thought much about their antipathies, never had tried to analyze them or to discuss them with other people" (Alexander, 1946, p. 289). Many individuals are "not disturbed by the fact that they did not know the origin of their antipathies" (Alexander, 1946, p. 289).

Antipathy can harm human interaction. For example, a meta-analytic study (Rayner et al., 2019) of emergency room nurses who treated those who had self-harmed "demonstrated continuing high levels of negative staff attitudes in ED (emergency department) staff when working with people who self-harm" (p. 51). Antipathy is "a negative individual attitude towards people who self-harm, develop through previous negative experiences with people from this patient group" (p .42). The formation of negative attitudes towards patients is important because of "the obvious impact that negative attitudes can have on effectiveness and quality of care" (p. 41). Antipathy towards a therapy client can be problematic for a psychotherapist. If a therapist persists in therapy despite negative feelings about his or her client, continuing therapy may prove harmful rather than beneficial (Baker, 2009). Physicians who care for patients and teach medicine face the public's antipathy towards both the medical and the teaching professions. The result of this antipathy is the erosion of public confidence in both professions (Stoddard & Brownfield, 2016).

Antipathy in Academia

Antipathy emanates from all three institutional constituent groups- faculty, administrators, and trustees- to create its deleterious effects on the management of shared governance. Critically, antipathy between individuals may be mutual (Abecassis et al., 2002).

Antipathy Within Faculty Members.

Towards Trustees. Faculty members show antipathy towards trustees. In one survey faculty members responded saying:

> (B)oard members often have very little-if any-understanding of the nature of faculty work, of the nature of academic culture, of the real meaning of academic freedom, and of the history and importance of faculty self-governance and the faculty role in shared governance. (Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges, 2017b. p. 7)

In the same interview, faculty felt that boards "do not understand the institution" (Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges, 2017b, p 8).

According to Bahls (2011, para. 1), faculty members see trustees as "suits who engage in drive-by management" and who are "more concerned about the picture selected for the cover of the college catalog than about the content found inside the catalog." Trustees are "bean counters who want to run a college like a business."

Towards Administrators. Administrators are also the target of faculty antipathy. A former faculty member now a dean reports that she is now "viewed with suspicion" and seen as "out for personal glory" by her former colleagues (Bean, 2015, para. 4-5). She is seen as "driven by greed" (Bean, 2015, para. 13).

Faculty members assume that administrators are "self-centered mismanagers or, worse, bloodless careerists" (Bean, 2015, para. 11) and "enemies of academic freedom" (Speck, 2011, p. 223). Faculty members label administrators as mere bureaucrats who prefer meetings and regulations (Hubbell, 2012). Administrators are "the malevolent lords of the university or, less fancifully, as the oppressive enemy" (Lachs, 2011, para. 10).

Faculty occasionally view academic administrators as failed academics, who being largely bereft of ideas, are incapable of being adequate researchers or thoughtful teachers (Hubbell, 2012). Administrators allegedly are never available (Walmsley, 2016).

Faculty members perceive administrators as micromanagers who do not respect and tread upon the faculty expertise:

> Faculty members interpret micromanagement as lack of trust. We assume that it means our leaders simply don't have enough faith in our ability or enough of a commitment to allow us to do our work as we see fit. Few things are more insulting than that to academics. (Jenkins, 2016, Trust Issues section, para. 1)

In a Carnegie International Survey of the Academic Profession, it was found that a "nearly universal lack of regard by faculty for administrators is one of the most significant findings" (Lewis & Attbach, 1996, p. 256). In a discussion of survey results showed:

> Academics are happy with their jobs and with their careers, but they are extremely unhappy with their institutions. The root of this, they say, is poor leadership. Academic institutions are not succeeding in large part because administrators are squandering too much of their resources on themselves and ill-conceived misadventures. (Lewis & Attbach, 1996, p. 256)

Antipathy Within Administrators

Towards Faculty

Faculty have been described "behind closed doors, by deans and other administrators in academic affairs as narcissists, who have little appreciation for their institution beyond how it affects them" (Hubbell, 2012, para. 4). Administrators view faculty as "disinterested, uninvolved, and recalcitrant when it comes to collaborative institutional activity" (Del Favero, 2002, p. 1). According one college president, popular complaints administrators have of faculty include: Managing professors is like herding cats; when it comes to making tough decisions, faculty members want merely to be asked to be include in the process, but have no desire to actually participate; the only one way to work with the faculty is to find the path of least resistance and proceed accordingly; faculty members are professional contrarians, and the academy rewards them for it by giving them tenure; and, when you finally give in to the contrarians, they can't take "yes" for an answer (Bahls, 2010, para. 1).

In another survey, less than one-quarter of college and university presidents believed that faculty members understood the responsibilities and the authority of their governing board (Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges, 2017a, p. 2). According to Lachs (2011, para. 8), administrators believe that:

> Faculty members have no special competence in running organizations; many of them lack the practical sense required for making savvy and timely decisions concerning the complexities of institutional life. Moreover, they have little or no interest in the details of administration. They may want tenure, promotion, higher salaries, and convenient parking, but only so that they may attend to their research and teaching. In this view, faculty members are neither capable of nor interested in managing the university.

Antipathy Within Trustees

Towards Faculty

In a survey (Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges, 2017b), board members were of the opinion that "Faculty members appear to have little knowledge of a board's roles and responsibilities and about how and why board members are chosen to serve" (p.7). In that same survey, board members and presidents felt that faculty decision making was "too slow" and the faculty wanted "authority without accountability'' (p.8).

> Faculty are not viewed by trustees as intermediaries to society: Trustees may see themselves rather than the faculty as the most important intermediary between the institution and society: Trustees, who come from a variety of professions and present a variety of viewpoints, can provide a broad perspective on preparation for citizenship, career, and lifelong learning that a tenured professor, properly focused on his own department and an expert in his own discipline, cannot so easily offer. (Schmidt, 2014, p. 2)

Trustees may believe themselves to be the only appropriate institutional strategists, again at the expense of the faculty:

> Change in institutional strategy can only come from trustees. The faculty cannot be given responsibility for strategy. The faulty is too compartmentalized, too divided, and too distracted to control strategic planning. Any change of significance will affect the interest of some faculty, and very small numbers of faculty can block and faculty action that threatens them. Strategy must be the purview of the trustees. Reviewing an institution's academic strategy and deciding whether change is called for is a trustee's most important responsibility. (Schmidt, 2010, p. 3)

Trustee antipathy is not without consequences:

> (M)any presidents (and their boards) are in fact now minimizing and even ignoring the notions of shared governance in unprecedented ways. For example, increasing numbers of presidents whose institutions are facing significant financial pressures have—without the involvement of the faculty—eliminated, added or reorganized academic programs and altered how funds for departmental budgets and faculty lines are allocated. (Pierce, 2014, para. 3)

It even has been claimed that a new breed of activist trustees is displaying ill-will towards faculty aiming to purify the campus of "faculty sloth, fiscal bloat, and racial preferences*"* (Stimpson,

1998, para. 13). Also, "some activist trustees apparently have no qualms about substituting their judgments–no matter how rash, limited, or rooted in mere opinion–for those of an institution and its faculty members" (Stimpson, 1998, para 22).

These "gaps in knowledge" lead to the 'unsubstantiated assumptions' that fuel antipathy.

How Does Antipathy in Academia Develop?

According to the Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges (2017b, p. 7):

> Participants in all three categories in our listening sessions (board members, presidents, and faculty) acknowledged—and indeed emphasized—that there is a huge information gap between boards and faculty. They noted that board members often have very little— if any—understanding of the nature of faculty work, of the nature of academic culture, of the real meaning of academic freedom, and of the history and importance of faculty self-governance and the faculty role in shared governance. At the same time, faculty members appear to have little knowledge of a board's roles and responsibilities and about how and why board members are chosen to serve.

Also, according to the Association of Governing Boards (2017b, p. 7), "It is not surprising that these gaps in knowledge are often filled by unsubstantiated assumptions about the 'other' that are significant obstacles to the kinds of mutual respect and trust essential to effective shared governance." Out of this lack of mutual respect and trust, antipathy is promulgated.

It has also been suggested that the "somewhat skeptical, occasionally adversarial relationship" between trustees and faculty members, is "due in large part to the fact that they come from different worlds and have distinctly different perspectives on higher education" (Baldwin, 2012, para. 3). According to Baldwin (2012), trustees and faculty come to shared governance with long-standing inculcations. For example, faculty members have spent their lives as students, researchers, and teachers; by contrast most trustees come from work environments outside education. The academic's world is one of ideas, contemplation and analysis; trustees come from business and the professions where rapid responding and problem solving are the rule. Faculty members have a circumscribed view of the institution; trustees are responsible for the institution on the whole.

Over time in these disparate milieus, modeling and direct learning (Banaji & Heiphetz, 2010) play a role in the adoption of antipathy. For example, a young professor emulates the antipathy for trustees he or she observes in other faculty members (indirect learning or modeling). When the young professor overtly espouses or acts out that same antipathy towards trustees, his or her behavior is reinforced by other faculty members (direct learning) with praise, recognition, and benefits. Also, recall that attitudes may be "formed when needed", i.e., quickly acquired (Schwartz, 2007, p. 639).

Shared Governance and Its Difficulties

The Nature of Shared Governance. The nature of shared governance was addressed by the American Association of University Professors in 1966:

> (A)t least two general conclusions regarding joint effort seem clearly warranted:
> (1) important areas of action involve at one time or another the initiating

> capacity and decision-making participation of all the institutional components, and (2) differences in the weight of each voice, from one point to the next, should be determined by reference to the responsibility of each component for the particular matter at hand, as developed hereinafter. (The Academic Institution: Joint Effort, Preliminary Considerations section, para. 2)

In short, higher education shared governance 'is a traditional social system of self-government where decision making is treated as a participatory process' (Smith, 2009, Introduction section, para. 1). Ideally, all college or university constituents play a role in managing their institution. However, not everyone gets to participate in all stages of decision making. At the same time no one group exercises complete control over the decision-making process (Olson, 2009).

There are a variety of models of shared governance from the corporate model (e.g., Ben-Ruwin, 2010) to the bureaucratic, collegial, and political models (Baldridge, 1971). Regardless of the model chosen, shared governance can be conceptualized as a natural interdependence among institutional constituents:

> The variety and complexity of the tasks performed by institutions of higher education produce an inescapable interdependence among governing board, administration, faculty, students, and others. The relationship calls for adequate communication among these components, and full opportunity for appropriate joint planning and effort. (American Association of University Professors, 1966, The Academic Institution: Joint Effort, Preliminary Consideration section, para. 1)

Understanding roles and a willingness to communicate are critical in sharing governance:

> College and university governance works best when each constituency within the institution clearly understands its role and relationship to the other constituents and when communication among the governing board, the administration, and the faculty is regular, open, and unmediated. (American Association of University Professors, 2014, p.3)

Collegiality among all the constituents is critical in sharing governance:

> An ideal shared governance model is collegial in nature, recognizing the contributions and requirements of all members of the college in a group consensus process. This process fosters a sense of empowerment, equal partnership, and a vested interest in successful outcomes of institutional policy and implementation decisions. (Smith, 2009, Introduction section, para. 3)

Shared governance is encouraged or demanded in faculty contracts (e.g., University of Florida, 2018**)**, faculty handbooks (e.g., Kent State University, 2016), trustee policies (e.g., Clemson University, 2010), and regent policies (e.g., University of Colorado, 2014).

Successful shared governance is essential for an institution's survival. According to the Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges (2017b, p.3), "the fundamental

principles and practice of shared government in higher education are essential to the health, vitality, and future of American colleges and universities."

The demise of shared governance would have dire consequences:

> The erosion of shared governance imperils the elements that produce quality education and scholarship. Shared governance is like the system of checks and balances in state and federal government. Excessive power and control concentrated in any one level of the institution virtually guarantees that there will be a distorted perspective on crucial aspects of the academic enterprise. (American Federation of Teachers, 2006, pp. 5-6)

Difficulties With Sharing Governance. Shared governance is 'a function of organizational structure and how people act within that structure' (Smith, 2009, Introduction section, para. 2). Accordingly, problems that arise in sharing government must be the result of the inherent complexity of the "organizational structure" and of "how people act" in conceiving and in managing shared governance.

Organizational Structural Issues. First of all, problems arise in sharing governance merely because the task is inherently complex.

> Many presidents, governing boards, and faculty members believe that institutional governance is so cumbersome that timely and effective decision making is imperiled; factionalism, distrust and miscommunication, and lack of engagement among the parties can impede the decision-making process. (Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges, 2010, Effectiveness of Institutional Governance section, para. 1)

The complexity of sharing governance has been a persistent and longstanding problem. According to Rosenberg (2014, para. 2), "It has never been easy to maintain equilibrium within such a complex system of institutional decision-making, but today the stakes seem higher and the cost of missteps or inaction much greater."

The complexity of shared governance is demonstrated by the fact that the concept is not always clearly understood by the constituents. According to the Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges (2017b, p. 1), "Shared governance is one of the basic tenets of higher education, and yet there is considerable evidence that it is not generally well understood by its primary participants—faculty members, presidents, and members of boards of trustees."

Deciding which faculty members and which administrators are to be included and at which level of decision making adds to the complexity of the endeavor (Simplico, 2006).

Secondly, the validity of the concept of "shared governance" has proved to be enigmatic. Some argue that:

> The phrase shared governance is so hackneyed that it is becoming what some linguists call an "empty" or "floating" signifier, a term devoid of determinate meaning that it takes on whatever significance a particular speaker gives it at the moment. Once a term arrives at that point, it is essentially useless. (Olson, 2009, para. 5)

According to Speck (2011, p.210), the "myth of shared governance assumes too much" creating errors and a false dichotomy between faculty and administration in which the faculty status is ignored. With respect to faculty members, "It takes years of rank and the bittersweet experience of extensive committee service to realize that faculty influence on the operation of the university is an illusion, and that shared governance is a myth" (Lachs, 2011, para. 2).

Thirdly, there are many practical stumbling blocks in sharing governance. For example, there is a sharp line between management and labor in colleges and universities making faculty members feel more like employees. The decreasing power of faculties is accelerating as a result of boards distancing themselves from campus processes. Faculty senates' rights are limited to making recommendations to administrations and boards who have no obligation to accept the recommendations (Lachs, 2011).

The changing overall institutional structure and function creates issues. As a result of a hierarchical and corporate decision making process that can typify institutions of higher learning, faculty members can become inattentive and less participatory in the process (Scott, 1997). According to Crellin (2010, p. 72):

> Confusion may exist over how the constituents construe shared governance: Some faculty members believe . . .that shared governance imbues faculty to delegate governance of the university to administrators keeping academics at the heart of the university while administrators are left to perform the "more distasteful managerial labor" (citing Olson, 2009). Trustees and administration may view shared governance in the opposite manner, choosing to view faculty as important contributors to the conversation, but nevertheless believing that administrative decisions should be the purview of the administration. Trustees "have recently begun to focus their energies on the curriculum one of the most inappropriate topics for them to take up" (Stimpson, 1998, para 8).

Another practical issue within shared governance is the level of communication between and among constituents. Today, "Communication between faculties and governing boards has worsened on many campuses in recent years" (American Association of University Professors, 2014, p. 1).

Finally, as a result of financial issues, there have been efforts to minimize shared governance.

> For example, increasing numbers of presidents whose institutions are facing significant financial pressures have without the involvement of the faculty eliminated, added or reorganized academic programs and altered how funds for departmental budgets and faculty lines are allocated. (Pierce, 2014, para. 3)

Personal Interaction Issues. Problems with shared governance may also arise due to "how people act" in sharing governance. Specifically, the attitudes of institutional constituents towards one another significantly contribute to the difficulties with shared governance above and beyond those difficulties inherent in organizational structure. According to Kezar (2004, pp. 44-45), regarding shared governance:

> The evidence from the case studies I conducted is that leadership, trust, and relationships supersede structures and processes in effective decision making. A governance system can operate with imperfect structures and processes, but if leadership is missing and relationships and trust damaged, the governance system will likely fail for lack of direction,

motivation, meaning, integrity, a sense of common purpose, ways to integrate multiple perspectives, open communication, people willing to listen, and legitimacy.

Thus, because 'relationships supersede structures and processes' in sharing governance, "how people act" and believe is more important an issue than structural or procedural issues. When colleagues' actions are rooted in antipathy, leadership, trust, and relations suffer, and shared governance is doomed.

Developing a model of shared governance should be a collegial enterprise. According to Smith (2009, Introduction section, para. 3), at its best, "An ideal shared governance model is collegial in nature, recognizing the contributions and requirements of all members of the college in a group consensus process." However, negative interpersonal factors do exist among the constituents. Today, "Academe has become known for its internecine warring, a place fraught and gossipy and deeply bifurcated" (Bean, 2015, para. 13). At least part of that constituent. If the constituents hold negative attitudes towards one another, they foster "unsubstantiated assumptions about the 'other' that are significant obstacles to the kinds of mutual respect and trust essential to effective shared governance' (Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges, 2017b, p. 7).

It has been stated that "Since 1995, there has been a slow inexorable erosion of shared governance in higher education" (Smith, 2009, Introduction section, para. 5). Ultimately, "The interesting question is not whether the shared governance model is irrevocably broken, but whether it can be improved" (Rosenberg, 2014, para.3). Erosion can be halted and improvement can occur but only when antipathy is ameliorated and collegiality reigns.

How Could Antipathy Harm Shared Governance?

Antipathy can have a harmful effect on human interaction (Rayner et al., 2019; Baker, 2009; Stoddard & Brownfield, 2016), and that includes sharing governance.

Successful shared governance depends upon open communication, a willingness to share responsibilities, a commitment to accountability, aligning institutional priorities, and cogent understanding of the nature and aims of shared governance (Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges, 2017 a). Collegiality must exist which is based on the contractual relationship the faculty and the administration have with the board/institution (Bahls, 2014). Constituents must have respect and mutual trust for one another, and they must participate in programs designed to nurture their relationships (Kezar, 2004). Each constituent must have a clear understanding of "the appropriate roles and areas of responsibility" of one another (De Cesare, 2017, Continuing Relevance section, para. 1). Constituents must participate in critical decision making without "losing the thoughtfulness, deliberation, and consideration of multiple viewpoints", and make a "commitment to trust, collaboration, communication, transparency, inclusiveness, honesty, and integrity" (Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges, 2017b, p. 9). Finally, constituents must "recognize limitations of (their) experience and expertise" (Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges, 2017 b, p. 9).

How can a constituent openly communicate, share responsibility, show mutual respect and trust, nurture relationships, and collaborate when their relationships are based on dislike, aversion, and animosity? How can a constituent appreciate shared governance, consider multiple viewpoints, embrace accountability, recognize their own limitations, be clear on the concept of "shared governance", and be collegial when their predetermined evaluation of other constituents is one of disfavor? Antipathy is antithetical to each of these building blocks of shared governance. The erosion of these building blocks presages the demise of shared governance.

Resolution

What can be done about antipathy on campus? With respect to shared governance, "Attitudes can change and be changed. A culture that values shared governance should be nurtured" (Buck & Anagnoson, 2002, p. 11).

According to Kezar (2004), with respect to issues in sharing governance, focusing on interpersonal issues (antipathy) may be more important than emphasizing structural or organizational issues. Focusing on interpersonal issues should be undertaken as "conflict management" rather than "conflict resolution":

> What we need for contemporary organizations is conflict management and not conflict resolution. Conflict management does not necessarily imply avoidance, reduction, or termination of conflict. It involves designing effective macro-level strategies to minimize the dysfunctions of conflict and enhancing the constructive functions of conflict in order to enhance learning and effectiveness in an organization. (Rahim, 2002, p. 208)

Therefore, attitude change does not necessarily equate to attitude resolution. In fact, it may prove extremely difficult to resolve feelings of antipathy. Recall that individuals "have never thought much about their antipathies, never had tried to analyze them or to discuss them with other people" (Alexander, 1946, p. 289). Many individuals are "not disturbed by the fact that they did not know the origin of their antipathies" (Alexander, 1946, p. 289). Management involving attitude change, therefore, is preferable to attempts at attitude resolution.

So how can attitudes be "managed"? Attitudes are persistent, but attitudes can be changed resulting in a concomitant change in behavior (Petty & Cacioppo, (1986); Banaji & Heiphetz, 2010; Eagley & Chaiken, 1993). Recall the process of attitude change in the ELM (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). Since the constituents of a college or a university certainly are highly motivated to perpetuate their institution and have sufficient cognitive ability to entertain the message of diminishing antipathy, a program designed to persuade each constituent to at least try to appreciate the value of the other constituents might prove beneficial. Through such training the constituents may at least come to a compromise about their perceptions- attitudinal management without ever having to resolve their attitude.

Whatever method of attitude adjustment is chosen, it must focus on fostering meaningful communication:

> College and university governance works best when each constituency within the institution clearly understands its role and relationship to the other constituents and when communication among the governing board, the administration, and the faculty is regular, open, and unmediated. (American Association of University Professors, 2014, p. 3)

It has been stated that ultimately, "(t)he interesting question is not whether the shared governance model is irrevocably broken, but whether it can be improved" (Rosenberg, 2014, para. 3). It can be improved, and in doing so, benefits will befall the fiduciary relationships on campus since shared governance and fiduciary relationships are inextricably bound. A good place to start is

acknowledging and managing the antipathy that exists among boards, administrators and faculty members. Otherwise, according to DeCesare (2017):

> If we fail to do the work required under principles of shared governance, then it will slowly but surely disappear. If we allow shared governance to be redefined—whether as consultation or as priority alignment—then it will slowly but surely disappear. And if we watch quietly as boards overreach and administrators encroach into areas of faculty primacy, then shared governance will slowly but surely disappear. And then we will have lost everything: due process; what remains of tenure; our academic freedom; and, ultimately, our special, professional, and central place within this country's institutions of higher education. (The Work Ahead section, para.4)

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College Students' COVID-19 Vaccine Hesitancy

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The coronavirus is presently in its second wave. The U.S. surpassed 11million infections on November 15, 2020 (Rabin, 2020). As of November 20, 2020, a total in excess of 250,000 people have died in the United States. That was an increase of 1,962 deaths in one day. Also, 80,000 plus people were hospitalized representing the highest number since the pandemic began (Santora & Nagourney, 2020).

Korn and Abbott (2020) reporting on studies not peer-reviewed yet conducted at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro, Indiana University, the University of Washington, and Davidson College. Findings included the following: (a) in-person classes beginning in September possibly caused thousands of positive coronavirus tests per day; and (b) an estimated 3,200 cases per day occurred in recent weeks.

The New York Times reported that 321,000 college students in the United States tested positive for the coronavirus since the beginning of the pandemic based on a survey of 1,900 colleges and universities. This past month 68,000 more cases were added. Since the beginning of the pandemic, more than 65 colleges reported 1,000 cases and 540 colleges had approximately 100 cases. (Smith, 2020).

The New York Times (2020) reported that as of November 19 more than 80 most employees, not students died since the pandemic began. However, a minimum of four students died from the virus in recent weeks.

Blanco (2020) reported the University of Connecticut's Storrs entire campus was quarantined on November 13, 2020. A total of 62 confirmed or suspected positive cases were in isolation on the campus. This semester 288 students living on campus and 181 students living off campus tested positive for the virus. Yankowski reported that University of Connecticut's Dean Eleanor Daugherty suggested that the surge in cases was due to gatherings off campus when the weather turned decent (2020).

Belkin (2020) stated teens and individuals in their twenties are likely carriers of the virus. However, they do not have symptoms, so they are unaware they have the virus without being tested. This poses a serious problem as college students return home for Thanksgiving. He also noted that many thousands would not be tested before leaving for home.

Trimble (2019) stated, " WHO named vaccine hesitancy, the reluctance or refusal to vaccinate despite available vaccines." She also noted, "The organization added that vaccination is 'one of the most cost-effective ways of avoiding disease,' noting that it prevents between 2 million and 3 million deaths a year. Some 1.5 million more deaths could be avoided if the rate of vaccinations increased around the world." This reluctance is based on many variables. For example, some people fear vaccinations because of fear. The Internet, especially social media play an important role in spreading fear regarding vaccinations.

Yang (2012) surveyed 371 college students to determine why they were hesitant to be vaccinated for the H1N1 influenza. College students had one of the highest frequency rates for infection, however 8% received the H1N1 vaccine. Yang found that most students were not knowledgeable

regarding the basic facts about H1N1 and the H1N1 vaccine. They misjudged what they knew about the vaccine. When they sought information regarding the actual risks associated with being vaccinated, they were influenced to get the vaccine. Yang concluded that communications with college students must clarify the difference between what they think they know and the actual facts.

Barello et al. (2020) surveyed 735 college students to determine if they would decide to be vaccinated for the COVID-19 coronavirus vaccination. They found that 633 (86.1%) students stated that they would be vaccinated and 102 (13.9%) indicated hat they would not or were not sure.

Santibanez et al. (2020) found parents' hesitancy regarding vaccinating children was 25.8% in 2018 and 19.5% in 2019. T Johnson et al. (2019) found that students who hesitated taking vaccines for preventable diseases changed their attitude when they interviewed people who had preventable diseases. Information changed perceptions and encouraged positive behavioral change. Their main idea was that students are future parents.

Synnott (2015) conducted a study regarding college students' perceptions concerning administrators' efforts as regards the prevention of alcohol abuse. A random sample (n= 1,441) of students from a mid-size public university in New England participated. A major finding was that administrators' efforts does influence students to drink less alcohol. The information provided changed perceptions.

Synnott (2001) conducted a study using a posttest-only control-group experimental design to investigate the efficacy of clarifying students' misperceptions. A random sample (n= 373) of students from a mid-size public university in New England participated. The 173 students in the experimental group were provided with information gleaned from the literature regarding students' misperceptions associated with their peers' consumption of alcohol and feelings of comfort in drinking situations. The 199 students in the control did not have this information. Participants were administered a questionnaire developed for this study. A major finding was that information influenced females' perceptions regarding their misperceptions of their peers' feelings of comfort in drinking situations. The study showed that information can influence perceptions.

Pfizer and its German partner BioNTech applied to the Food and Drug Administration to authorize its coronavirus vaccine for emergency use on November 20, 2020 (Weiland & Thomas 2020). The company estimates it is 95% effective. They plan on making 50 million does available by the end of December. The United States will receive 25 million then, 30 million in January, and 35 million in February and March. Neergard (2020) reported that Moderna will apply for emergency use of its vaccine that is as effective s Pfizer's within weeks.

A great deal of information regarding the coronavirus has come to light in the past few months. For example, young people are carriers of the virus, but do not know it because they are asymptomatic and have not been tested. Although the new vaccines will be available for certain groups by the end of December 2020, they will not be available for all people for several months. The importance of young people being vaccinated when vaccines are available cannot be overstated. The question is whether young people, including college students, will take advantage of the vaccines.

Information does change perceptions. Steps need to be taken now to determine if college students will get the vaccine in order to design information campaigns geared towards them.

Method

Site Selection. The study was conducted at a mid-sized public university in New England. The total enrollment includes 5,016 full-time and part-time undergraduate students. The majority of the full-time undergraduate students live on campus. The University is representative of a medium sized

university in New England. This makes it possible to generalize the findings to similar schools in the region.

Sample. A representative random sample was drawn from the list of students' email addresses provided by the University. The systematic sampling technique described by Baum, et al. (1987, p. 54) were followed. Hinkle et al. (1988) noted that, "In systematic sampling from a list, the investigator chooses every kth member of the list for the sample. As a result, systematic sampling provides sampling throughout the population by spacing the selection over the entire population list" (pp. 165-166).

The first step is to determine the sample size (Hinkle et al., 1988). The selected sample size for this study was one-third of the population of undergraduate students at the University. The University has 5016 undergraduate students. Nine students were listed as confidential and were removed from the list. One-third of the useable population (i.e., 5007), was1669 students.

The next step was to select a number randomly that was smaller than three. The number two was selected. The second email address on the list was the first name selected from the list (Borg & Gall, 1989). Next, every third email address on the list was selected until the list was exhausted. There was no possibility of periodicity in this list "that is, every nth person on the list shares a characteristic that is not shared by the entire population" (Borg & Gall 1989, p. 224).

Instrument. An instrument was developed to measure college students' hesitancy regarding their intentions to be vaccinated for the coronavirus when vaccines where available to them. The instrument consisted of one question: Will you be vaccinated for the coronavirus when vaccines are available to you? Available responses were: Yes, No, or Not Sure.

Students were also asked to provide demographic information regarding their year in school, gender, and G.P.A. (see Appendix)

Data Collection. The selected students were sent emails with the questionnaire using Microsoft Office Forms. This secure program protected students' privacy. Responses were kept on the University's OneDrive server.

Data Analysis. SPSS Version 26.0 was used to analyze the data. Response frequencies were computed for all subjects. The .05 level of significance was used. Percentages were used to analyze nominal data. Differences between male and female students were analyzed using t tests.

Results

Response Rate. A total of 1,632 students were selected to participate. Questionnaires were returned by 591 students and were used for analyses representing a response rate of 36.2%.

Demographics. The sample consisted of 378 (64.0%) female students and 206 (34.90%) male students.

The respondents were segmented by year in school as follows: (a) 144 (24.4%) students were freshmen; (b) 116 (19.6%) students were sophomores; (c)154 (26.1%) students were juniors; and (d) 154 (26.1%) students were seniors.

The sample was segmented by G.P.A. as follows: (a) 104 (17.6%) students reported having a 4.00 G.P.A.; (b) 220 (37.2%) students reported having a 3.5 G.P.A.; (c) 167 (28.3%) students reported having a 3.00 G.P.A.; (d) 43 (7.3%) students reported having a 2.5 G.P.A.; (e) 11 (1.9%)

students reported having a 2.00 G.P.A.; and (f) 13 (2.2%) students reported having a G.P.A. under 2.00.

Survey Question Responses. Responses to the survey question (i.e., Will you be vaccinated for the coronavirus when vaccines are available to you?) included the following responses: 299 (50.6%) responded yes; 176 (29.8%) responded no; and 114 (19.3%) responded not sure. (See Figure 1.)

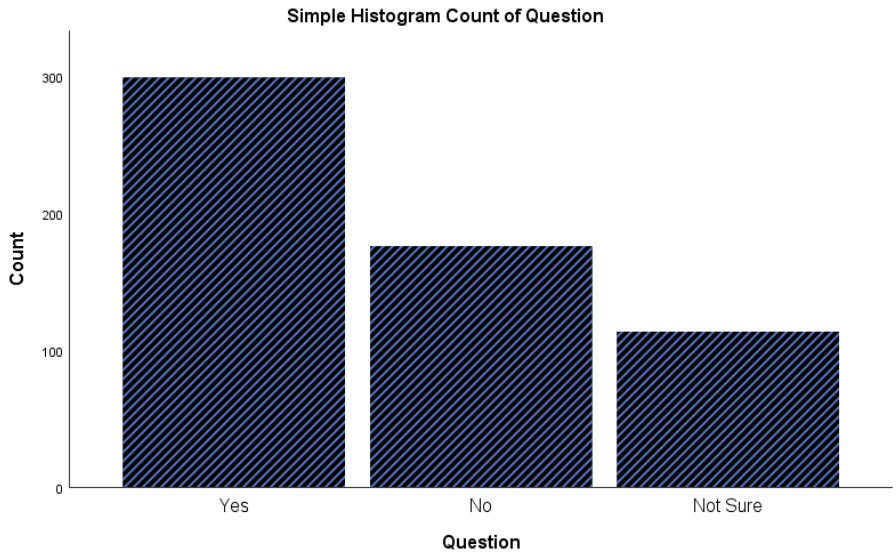

Figure 1. Responses to Survey Question

Responses for males and females regarding the survey question differed regarding yes, no, and not sure. Females responded yes they would be vaccinated more than males. Females were not sure if they would be vaccinated more than males. Also, females responded they would not be vaccinated more than males (Figure 2).

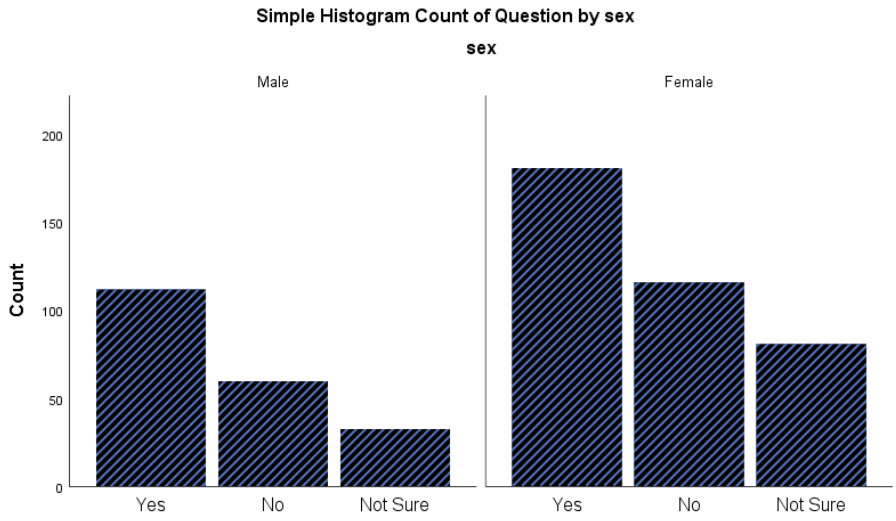

Figure 2. Responses to Survey Question, by Sex

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the answers to the questions for males and females. The assumption of equal variances was met using Levene's test.

There was no significant difference in scores for males (M = 1..61, SD = .74) and females (M = 1.73, SD = .79; $t(581)$ = -1.79, p = .07, two-tail). The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = .12, 95% CI [-.25, -01]) was very small.

Students' Comments. Students' comments regarding whether they would be vaccinated or were not sure if they would be vaccinated paralleled other researchers' findings. Some responded yes, but with caution. For example, a male student wrote, " Yes (should it be safe to do so)." A female wrote, "Yes, but only after seeing initial reactions to it to deem its safety." Another female noted, " My answer is yes, but not the first round. I believe that I should get vaccinated for myself and my fellow peers but there's that uncertainty of later problems that might be in this vaccine since it's so new. Fertility questions etc., is my concern with having to take it."

Some students explained why they said no. For example, one female student stated that she would not be vaccinated because, "That vaccine is harmful." A male student stated that he would not be vaccinated because, "No... I have severe allergies to eggs...sorry. I don't do any vaccines since my childhood." A female student wrote, "no, it has not been studied enough, they have no idea how people with underlying health conditions like rare neurological conditions will react." Another female stated, " No, Not until there is more research on the vaccine as I do not want to put my future health at risk without knowing all the possibilities."

Fear of the unknown contributed to students saying that they were not sure if they would get the vaccine. For example, a male student wrote, "not sure – depends on side effects and allergic reactions." A female stated, "Not Sure, will need to see more data and evidence before getting one."

Discussion

The large number of students who said that they would not be vaccinated 176 (29.8%) or were not sure 114 (19.3%) if they would be vaccinated when vaccines were available to them must be addressed. It is clear from the students' comments that their main concern is fear of the unknown. They do not have enough information to decide whether to be vaccinated.

The literature reviewed showed that information can change perceptions and thus change behavior. Many high-profile people locally, statewide, and nationally are being vaccinated publicly on television, in the newspapers and social media. This is important for large parts of the population. Unfortunately, college students get their news online.

Social media is an excellent way to reach millions of people of all ages. Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, Snapchat, YouTube, and so forth are platforms that can be used to disseminate information.

One of the most powerful methods would be to engage celebrities and other opinion leaders who have millions of followers. Their influence can change perceptions and reduce fear. Their followers have faith in what they say to be true. A campaign using social media that involves individuals with millions of followers can provide the information students who said no or were not sure if they would be vaccinated with the necessary information they are seeking.

All campaigns designed to disseminate information regarding the importance of being vaccinated for the coronavirus should include a word-of-mouth component. It is well known that word-of-

mouth sells products, services, and ideas. For example, advertisements on all media platforms might encourage people who are vaccinated to encourage five of their friends to get the vaccination.

Colleges and universities have many proven ways to publicize information. Students like to read. Written cards with updated information regarding vaccines can be placed on tables in food courts and other Dining Service locations. Changing cards regularly ensure that students will read the new ones and not ignore them. Information on different paper forms or chalk on walkways also draw students' attention. Flyers can be posted around campus in classrooms, bus stop enclosed areas, and so forth.

Games are popular with students. Clubs on campus have many ways to raise funds. They have tables in different locations throughout the campus when fundraising. Involving different clubs is a good way to distribute facts about the vaccines. For example, students can be asked prepared questions regarding vaccine safety and if they are correct they can win items with the school's name on them such as key chains, pens, notebooks, and so forth. They can also win donuts and other food items.

Administrators in Student Affairs might offer students with proof that they have been vaccinated upscale items with the school name on them such as hoodies, T-shirts, backpacks, and the like.

Limitations of the Study

There are potential limitations to this study. First, self-reports were used to answer the questions. Reporting bias may be a limitation, that is, subjects may present themselves in a favorable light. However, the assurance of anonymity makes this seem unlikely (Prentice & Miller, 1993), and research showed that self-reports are valid (Babor et al. 1987).

Second, the study was conducted at a University in New England. Therefore, caution is advised regarding generalizations of the results of the findings of the study beyond the Northeast region of the U.S.

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Appendix

Coronavirus Vaccine and College Students' Intentions

A survey

You have been randomly selected to participate in this very important study consisting of one

yes or no question. I know how valuable your time is and designed this survey to take less than a minute of your time to respond. This study is being conducted to determine whether you plan on taking advantage of coronavirus vaccines when they become available. Your participation is very important. All responses are anonymous. Responses are not tied to emails. Thank you very much for your time.

Students were asked to please click on the link below. This led them to the survey in Microsoft

Forms.

1. Year in school: Freshman Sophomore Junior Senior

2. Gender: Male Female

3. Grade Point Average (4.0 ="A", 3.0="B", etc.): 1. 4.0 2. 3.5 3. 3.0 4. 2.5 5. 2.0 6. under 2.0
4. Will you be vaccinated for the coronavirus when vaccines are available to you?
   Yes No Not sure

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