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Journal of Higher Education Management

Volume 34, Number 1 (2019)

CONTENTS

Leading a Grassroots Mentoring Initiative on a Comprehensive University Campus

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A gender gap in leadership positions exists in virtually every sector of the United States economy (Warner, 2014). Despite the fact that for the past 20 years women earn more degrees at every level than men, the field of higher education is not immune to gender discrepancies: women hold only slightly more than a quarter of all full professorships and less than 15 percent of the presidents at doctoral degree granting intuitions (Johnson, 2016; Lennon, Lindeman Spotts, & Mitchell, 2013).

The degree data suggests that the number of qualified women in the leadership pipeline is more than adequate to meet the leadership position demands. However, many believe that the impenetrable glass ceiling holds women in assistant professor or teaching-only positions when compared to their male counterparts. Gendered challenges are discrepancies are not only apparent with rank, but also in pay structures. Women made 83 percent of what male faculty made in 1972 and only 82 percent of what male faculty made in 2009 (Johnson, 2016). More specifically, male faculty at public institutions out earn women by roughly $13,000 (Johnson, 2016).

If women are earning more degrees at every level, why is this not reflected in higher education leadership, tenured faculty representation, and pay structures? Shouldn't higher education be a field where equality is a shared value? The literature identifies several responses to these questions from historical, cultural and sociological perspectives, which are briefly explored. It is important to note that women in higher education are operating within a unique hierarchical culture that is steeped in tradition and hardened in the name of academic rigor.

Within this culture, women face unique barriers in addition to the common barriers that women across all industries face. Women tend to experience role strain, role insufficiency (i.e. reduced sense of control), marginalization, and discrimination throughout their careers that leads to stress (Kersh, 2018). Even outside of the office, women face a complicated landscape. For example, the decision to have a family prior to earning tenure disproportionately impacts women over men. Men who welcome babies early in their career have a 38% greater likelihood of achieving tenure than women who welcome early babies (Mason & Goulden, 2004). This "baby gap is robust and consistent" (p. 24) throughout academe (Mason & Goulden, 2002), although this phenomenon is more significantly noted in the sciences, where the gap between men and women's rate of tenure who chose to start a family while on the tenure clock is greater (Mason & Goulden, 2002). Regardless of disciplines, deciding whether to pause the tenure clock or not has shown to be a significant obstacle for women.

Outside of tenure, women may lack models of female leadership and therefore have greater difficulty imagining themselves in these roles (Ballenger, 2010; Vongalis-Macrow, 2016). Without the presence of women leaders who model various paths to leadership for women, goals, paths, and mentorship is less accessible, thus impacting confidence. With this in mind, it makes sense that women's paths to leadership are often more divergent and less direct (Dunn et al., 2014; Moodly & Toni, 2017). While this does not imply a lack of capability, it may mean that women are falling into leadership roles without training or socialization about the ethos of leadership in the academy. Additionally, female aspirant leaders identify certain types of leadership as most effective (Vongalis-Macrow, 2016); mentorship and coaching along these lines is beneficial. An exclusion from male networks may make the environment more challenging (Domici, Fried, & Zeger, 2009). For instance, Ballenger (2010) explored the paths and challenges that women leaders encounter on their ascension to presidency. Common barriers included the lack of mentors and omission to the 'good old boy' networks. These factors lead to the more languorous career path mentioned (Ballenger 2010).

Female leadership styles may look different than male leadership styles that have historically dominated the story of higher education; it's value may be less obvious (Ballenger, 2010; Dunn, Gerlach, & Hyle, 2014; Vongalis-Macrow, 2016). It is important to note leadership styles as potential challenges, for these styles may be overlooked for their value, especially when adjacent to more traditional forms of leadership. Through in-depth profiles of three women leaders in a reflective case study, Dunn, Gerlach and Hyle (2014) explored how women behave differently than men in leadership roles within the context of higher education. For example, the women profiled were more likely to define success as an *accomplishment of others*, instead of themselves; they saw successful leadership as a form a facilitating others' success. This team-centric focus can make the leader successful in projects, but not in gaining recognition. The result, if not careful, can be that the leader is not recognized as effective.

As research is beginning to identify the types of barriers women leaders in higher education are facing, it is also important to note that some women can make meaning from these challenging experiences which serve as a valuable resource to others. For example, Diehl (2014) conducted a study in which 26 female University presidents, provosts, and vice presidents were interviewed about adversity faced within their positions and how they handled the challenges. Results showed that these female leaders experienced 21 different types of personal and professional adversity, including discrimination, unsupportive leadership, and exclusion from informal networks. Despite the adversity faced, the female leaders in Diehl's study also spoke to the growth opportunities that the challenges provided. This growth was possible if the women were able to redefine and recast their experiences in meaningful and beneficial ways (Diehl, 2014). In other ways, the communication styles, task orientation, and facilitative styles of women leaders may be exactly what is needed in the new era of rapidly changing education (Dunn et al., 2014; Steward, 2009).

While some women can persevere through obstacles, the data around the number of women in leadership positions shows that the obstacles do often hinder success. Numerous studies that examine these obstacles recommend that universities respond with mentorship programs that are deeply embedded into the culture of the institution (Bynum, 2015; Terosky, O'meara & Campbell, 2014; Tran, 2014; Thomas, Bystydzienski & Desai, 2015; Zambrana et al., 2015). A few institutions have begun to pilot such programs with some success. For example, West Chester University's faculty mentoring program, for both men and women, allows faculty to opt into a mentorship program in which they are paired with a tenured faculty member (Bean,

Lucas, Hyers, 2015). During the course of the year, developmental topics related to the mentees professional goals are discussed. The medical school at John Hopkins piloted a cohort-based leadership program for its female faculty (Levine et al., 2015). And, female STEM faculty at a midwestern research university created workshop circles intended to support women to achieve promotion in a male-dominated field (Thomas, Bystydzienski & Desai, 2015). These programs were all developed in response to the low numbers of women in leadership positions and they seek to support women toward career advancement.

Existing research has well-identified the low numbers of women in leadership positions in higher education and the subsequent common obstacles that women face within this industry. In response to this information, a few institutions have piloted programs to address this issue, as mentioned. This is progress. Despite this progress, there is still very little research that considers women's advancement, support, and leadership in a *holistic* way for both faculty and staff. Most leadership and mentorship programs target faculty who have the goal of tenure advancement. However, women who work in higher education have diverse goals that often do not include research or tenure. Women's goals may include personal and professional balance, administration growth, or issues related to confidence. This is a gap in the literature that this study seeks to address in a holistic and inclusive way.

This study explored the best ways to frame personal and professional development opportunities for women faculty, staff, and administrators in various higher education settings. This step was necessary to empower women to achieve their goals and rise into positions of leadership in whatever form that takes.

Methods

Subjects

Participants in this study were employed at Saint Louis University during 2017-2018. Saint Louis University is a private comprehensive, research university with campuses in Saint Louis, Missouri and Madrid, Spain. However, for this study all participants were staff, faculty, and administrators from the Saint Louis campus. This pilot study was a nonrandomized, quasi-experimental sample study of 30 participants who participated in the *Women Leading Women: Strategies and Support for Lifelong Career Development in Higher Education* workshop series. Subjects were recruited via the university-wide daily electronic communication newsletter, a campus human resource newsletter, and the Saint Louis University Women's Commission newsletter. The Women's Commission, founded in 1974, is a sanctioned university group for female faculty and staff that is intended to provide enriching and empowering events and programs for women at the University. Each year, the Women's Commissions offers a variety of programs; this workshop was built into the academic year's programming. While this university group provided a natural structure for the workshop series and this study, this type of formal sponsorship was not required to offer this study.

Women who enrolled in the workshop were invited to participate in the study. Although the workshop enrolled at maximum capacity, 30 participants, nine participants experienced schedule conflicts (work and/or home) and either attended only a portion of the workshop series or dropped out of the workshop and subsequently the study all together. The data set consisted of women between the ages of 28 - 68 (average age of 46.6 years). Two of the participants were non-tenured (NT)/non-tenure track (NTT) faculty: one instructor and one assistant professor, making up 9% of the group. The remaining participants identified as staff.

Participants were employed at Saint Louis University between 1 and 18 years (average 7.6 years) with 74% employed in their current position for less than 10 years (average 5.2 years), and 33% two years or less. IRB approval was obtained through Saint Louis University's Office of Research Development and Services and funded through Saint Louis University's Office of Research Spark Microgrant Program.

In addition to study participants, a group of female leaders (faculty and staff) were recruited to serve as mentors for the mentees (participants) based on positional leadership, campus involvement, and professional relationships. Eighteen women were contacted to serve as mentors, however, four (22%) were unable to serve as a mentor because of work schedule conflicts. However, these four women requested to remain on the mentor participant list for the next campus workshop. Mentors participated in a one-hour training session informed by the objectives and goals of the workshop, supporting literature and material, and mentee feedback from the first two workshop sessions. Mentors participated in the mentor/ mentee pairing activities in the last two of the four workshop sessions.

Data Collection

The data analyzed in this study were retrieved from the *Women Leading Women: Strategies and Support for Lifelong Career Development in Higher Education* pre and post workshop surveys. Workshop participants received a self-report Qualtrics pre-workshop survey one week prior to the workshop start date and a self-report Qualtrics post-workshop survey two days after the completion of the workshop. Additional data were collected from individual workshop activities and overall workshop evaluations. Therefore, this study captured variable change over all four workshop sessions spanning a 6-month period for five participants (24%) who completed both the pre and post-workshop surveys and post-workshop data from 15 (71%) additional mentee participants who completed the post-workshop survey only. Furthermore, workshop evaluation data was retrieved from nine (43%) mentee participants and six (43%) mentors.

The 22 question (qualitative and quantitative) survey was designed to obtain consent to participate in the research study, to establish a baseline knowledge and level of topic familiarity, and to measure developmental progress and areas of change and growth around factors identified in the literature or through workplace experience (e.g., mentorship, sponsorship, workplace barriers). In addition, throughout the workshop mentee participants were engaged in several table and group exercises supporting pre-workshop survey data. Lastly, mentee participants and mentors also received a workshop evaluation during the last session to provide feedback to better understand the participants' experiences with the workshop process. All data were collected by the authors in both autonomous and confidential manners.

<div align="center">Results</div>

Quantitative Results

Of the 26 women enrolled in the 2016-2017 mentoring workshop a total of 21 participated in at least 50% of the four sessions. Five people completed all sessions and both surveys; 15 people completed most sessions and the post-survey; 1 did not complete the survey. The data analysis is divided by full participants (n=5) and partial participants (n=15). Most quantitative data are aggregate; individualized experiences are primarily explored in the qualitative data. Descriptive statistical analysis of the data was performed via the Qualtrics Survey Tool.

One hundred percent of the full participants who attended all workshops sessions and completed both the pre and post surveys established career goals as a result of the workshop. This shows a 40% increase in goal setting behavior from prior workshop behavior. All participants reported that they shared their goals with colleagues, supervisors, mentors, friends, and family. This goal-sharing behavior indicates a 40% increase from pre-workshop habits.

The majority of the data in this study comes from the partial participants who attended most workshops and completed the post survey (n=15). The practice of goal setting was explored in the survey, with an interest in one's behavior related to both setting and sharing goals. Eighty percent developed professional goals as a result of the workshop; a 67% increase from pre-workshop behavior. Additionally, 92% shared their goals with mentors, family, or colleagues. Prior to the workshop, only 44% of the participants practiced goal sharing behavior. Notably, 100% of the participants who set goals, indicated that their new goals were achievable.

The survey also explored the participants' prior experience with formal mentorship as well as their plans for seeking or continuing formal mentorship interactions in their lives moving forward. Seventy-three percent of the participants indicated that they planned to continue to work with a formal mentor post-workshop (17% pre-workshop). The workshop framed mentorship as one strategy toward career advancement: 86% were interested in exploring career advancement opportunities; 14% were satisfied with their current roles and responsibilities.

There were also notable results related to situational confidence levels in the aggregate data. The pre-survey data indicated that 80% of the full participants were somewhat confident (SC) in establishing career goals, making career decisions, and leading workplace initiatives. Twenty percent did not feel confident (NC) in the skills. It is significant that no one felt very confident in their own agency to establish goals and become leaders on initiatives in the workplace. Instead, they felt unsure or hesitant about how to structure or create these opportunities.

Post-workshop surveys indicated that 40% were very confident (VC) and 60% were SC in establishing career goals and leading workplace initiatives. This is a large change from the pre-workshop data. In regard to making career decisions, 40% were SC, 40% were VC, and 20% remained NC. Additionally, 40% of the participants were VC and 60% SC in working within mixed gender groups/committees before the workshop. Post workshop, 60% were VC and 40% SC in this type of work. Table 1 illustrates how participants were more confident in setting career goals, making career decisions, leading initiatives in the workplace, and working with mixed gender groups or committees post-workshop.

Qualitative Results

Meaningful data was collected through qualitative measures as well; the survey and workshop materials allowed time for open comments and reflection. Reported comments were coded and evaluated for common themes through a recursive process. Themes related to networks, empowerment, and confidence emerged in the most significant ways.

Mentees

When asked to describe what was gained from the workshop experiences, women identified concepts related to *networks* most often. The participants were interested in the simple fact that a larger network of support (the other workshop participants and mentors) had been identified for them within the university community. One woman stated, 'to hear other

Table 1 - Confidence Level

Confidence Area	Pre-workshop %	Post-workshop %
Setting Career Goals	20% NC 80% SC	60% SC 40% VC
Making Career Decisions	20% NC 80% SC	20% NC 40% SC 40% VC
Leading Initiatives	20% NC 80% SC	60% SC 40% VC
Working with Mixed Gender Groups/Committees	60% SC 40% VC	40% SC 60% VC

*NC = not confident

**SC = somewhat confident

***VC = very confident

women discuss their own experiences empowered me to realize I am not alone in the feelings I have had.' Yet another woman stated that she 'met a number of women who are like-minded.' And another shared, 'I gained a community of women I can rely on' and then went on to discuss some upcoming challenges that she planned to use her newly formed network as a support mechanism. Other women planned to use the network as a model for success: 'I found someone who has had a similar life path as me and has been successful in overcoming her own setback and obstacles. I know I will continue that relationship even though the workshop is complete.'

During the reflection exercise, many women identified that they felt *empowered* in a number of different ways because of the workshop. 'I no longer feel like a victim of circumstances. I feel in control of my future career.' This woman was not alone in describing how she felt looking to the future. Another shared: 'I reflected on what has held me back and have identified steps for moving forward.' The mention of empowerment often came in the context of two different strategies: feeling empowered to set and achieve goals and feeling empowered to overcome obstacles.

In regards to obstacles, participants indicated that one of the main benefits of the workshop was the introduction of certain terms and concepts that *identified barriers*. Learning about horizontal violence, crab basket phenomenon, goldilocks syndrome, and double bind opened new understanding and led to a feeling of empowerment: women realized that they were not alone in their experiences. Knowing that there was a word for what had previously gone un-named was a turning point for many (Table 2). One said: 'being able to identify concepts and hear how others experienced similar issues made me feel empowered.' Another shared, 'I gained the language needed to describe personal insecurities or inequitable treatment.'

Table 2 – Common Workplace Obstacle Terms

Term	Definition	What participants knew pre	What participants knew post
Horizontal Violence	Harm that some women do to other female peers in the workplace (Funk, 2004).	80% (N=16)	100% (N=20)
Crab Basket Phenomenon	The act of being pulled back from advancement by fellow female colleagues. "If I can't have it, you can't either." (more common with women, who are more attached to equality, rather than competition (Buhrs, 2011).	40% (N=12)	100% (N=20)
Goldilocks Syndrome	The emotional dissonance women experience as they try to meet expectations, hoping to come across as not too aggressive and not too passive, or not emotional or not too cold (Ware, 2013).	10% (N=2)	100% (N=20)
Double Bind	Dichotomous environment that both undervalues feminine characteristics and criticizes masculine characteristics of the woman in the workplace (Turner, 2012).	10% (N=2)	100% (N=20)

Mentees reported they gained confidence in their abilities to seek personal mentorship, set measurable goals, manage workplace dynamics, and develop effective leadership skills. One mentee participant noted that although they were nearing retirement, they wanted to grow within their current position. Thirteen percent of mentee participants reported that they were happy in their current position and enrolled in the workshop to gain professional growth strategies.

Mentors

Feedback and data were collected from the mentors via a post-workshop survey. Five mentors completed the survey, which inquired about outcomes, training, and mentor/mentee interactions.

Mentors consistently reported that they had much to gain from the process of discussion and reflection. All mentors identified value in their own ongoing process of learning. One stated that she is still 'gaining tools to act with agency' and wanted the mentees to know that 'even those of us who were mentors are still learning.' The women serving as mentors felt that they had much to gain from the mentees, and they enjoyed sharing openly that they, despite being in positions of leadership, were constantly growing and learning. For example, one mentor shared:

'Just speaking personally, it is always helpful to me when I realize my "heroes," several of whom were in the room. These are women who have been where I've been,

experienced the same feelings and challenges. Even when leaders seem to have it all together, a lot of life is making it through THIS day and THIS challenge; I think it helps emerging leaders to realize that there isn't a magical moment when somehow you feel "adult" and know all the answers. You just learn to use your network and your past experiences to navigate each situation a little bit better than the last time'.

The feeling that the mentor/ mentee relationship was of mutual benefit was consistently recognized. Mentors found that workshop mentor/ mentee discussions led to their own process of goal and career path reflection.

When asked to provide feedback on what could have been improved, a few mentors mentioned that they would like to be more involved from the beginning of the workshop. As it was structured, the first two sessions were facilitated by the group leaders, and the mentor conversations and pairings occurred during the third and final sessions. A couple mentors stated that involvement from the very beginning would have supported the relationship development even further.

In terms of training and preparedness to serve as mentors, the feedback was also consistent. Mentors felt surprised that they had been identified as leaders, despite their clear leadership roles on campus. Initially they felt unsure of how 'qualified' they were to guide conversations regarding goal-setting for women outside of their own disciplines. Specifically, the mentors would have liked to know more about the content covered in the first two sessions and would have benefited from a conversation about mentorship strategies before they met with their partners. However, after the mentee conversations, all reported that they had more to offer than they originally had thought.

Moving forward, mentors said that they would like to see future versions of this workshop offered at all levels, encompassing more of campus. They submitted specific ideas about how to build the sessions into the infrastructure of the university to ensure the sustainability of the program.

Discussion

It is clear that women are grossly underrepresented in leadership roles across many academic institutions (Johnson, 2016). This study explored a potential step for addressing this challenge in a way that could be adapted within many different institutional cultures and organizational structures. The motivation for this study began as a passion project in a very personal sense. We wondered: why are the gains for women in higher education slower than gains in other areas? This answer has many complex layers but is influenced by the unique tradition of hierarchical culture in the academy. Common environmental and cognitive barriers may serve as an obstacle for growth for some women: these challenges chip away at confidence levels and may keep professional opportunity at bay without intentional effort. Identifying these barriers, considering strategies to overcome these barriers, and connecting with a powerful and supportive network of women on campus was the focus of the workshop experience. The initiative served as a platform for an expanded vocabulary with which to give voice to workplace challenges for common barriers that women in higher education face.

In addition to the study data that was collected, it is important to note that this grass roots initiative demonstrated a commitment to the ideas and strategies introduced in the workshops. The mentor/ mentee interaction developed during this initiative has extended beyond the

timeline of the workshop: this format has shown to hit upon a need and suggests a good level of sustainability for the future

Limitations

We acknowledge that this study had limitations and that future research should consider these in the design of ongoing studies. While the collaborative workshop setting was inclusive for faculty and staff from all levels, only a small number of faculty were able to fully participate. Faculty were underrepresented at the workshop because of issues related to scheduling and time constraints. That said, some of the mentors were faculty, and the faculty perspective on the discussion topics was represented. There is evidence to show that mentoring for TT faculty would assist them in meeting their goals.

The women who participated in the workshop represented many cross sections of identities. Because an individual's experience with intersectionality can greatly influence professional development, mentorship, and goals, we could have gained a more nuanced understanding of our participants' experiences if we had asked more questions about their identities, including but not limited to, race, sexual orientation, and socio-economic status.

Finally, it is worth mentioning that the university at which this study was conducted underwent organizational efficiencies during the academic year of the inaugural workshop. This resulted in a loss of a few participants through efficiency initiatives and others absorbed additional job duties. This created additional role strain and scheduling conflicts for both mentors and mentees, thus contributing to attendance challenges. Therefore, overall workshop and survey participation varied and at times impacted qualitative and quantitative data gathering throughout the study. That said, there were a number of mentee/ mentor pairs that met outside the scope of the workshop, demonstrating a commitment to process and the value that participants saw. We do believe that, despite some low attendance, the goals of the workshop and the mentorship pairs were being met.

Conclusion

Amidst institution hierarchy and generational divisions, a diverse group of mentees and mentors, new and seasoned professionals, demonstrated a commitment to sustainable growth within and beyond current levels of professional and personal achievement in this study. A quote from one mentee participant summarizes the impact of developmental mentoring:

'Understanding obstacles was especially meaningful to me. I was already familiar with many of the terms because I have been thinking about what it means to be a woman in the workplace and academia for many years, but it was so beneficial to have extended discussions with other women who have experienced similar obstacles and personal experiences and how they overcame them and learned from them. Even more importantly, the mentor relationship I have gained from this experience has already started to help me in many ways. This has been a semester of many major changes for me, both personally and professionally, and it has been so incredibly helpful to be able to talk with my mentor about everything that has happened and how I can keep growing and working through these difficult times. She has been kind enough to reach out to me outside of the workshop setting, and I am so thankful that she has become

part of my extended support network. I know this relationship I am building will help me think about and achieve my own goals'.

Ongoing support and development, beyond the time constraints of a four-part workshop series, speaks to the need and hunger for this type of support and relationship development on campus.

The study begins to address the research gap on how to frame developmental opportunities for women in higher education. The literature well-defines the barriers women face in the academy. The literature also provides insight into women's perspectives on leadership that help us to articulate a vision for higher education in the future. This study and workshop series provided participants a platform to identify barriers, strategies, networks, and mentors which led to measurable qualitative outcomes and an energy for future work.

Future studies would benefit from including both undergraduate and graduate students and identifying specialty mentoring tracks based on type of employment at the institution. Lastly, we would recommend not only incorporating these experiences into institutional orientation, but also professional development opportunities for students, faculty and staff.

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Physicians as University Presidents: A New Path for Higher Education Leadership

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Research on issues related to college and university presidency is not new (Birnbaum, 1992; Cohen & March, 1974). The current scholarly, trade, and popular literature is replete with discussion of challenges for higher education and the need for dramatically new leadership approaches, especially those of university presidents (Hempsall, 2014). Recent literature notes the need for more creative approaches to recruiting university presidents with an eye for diversity and changes from trends in past president characteristics that may not meet current needs for higher education leadership (Patton, 2014). Other publications explain why and how fundamental leadership theories and concepts now, more than ever, apply to the increasing demands and challenges of tertiary and secondary education (Rutherford, 2017; Hattke, Fabian, and Blaschke, 2015; Davis, 2014).

A stream of earlier literature has informed what we know about college and university presidents over the past several decades including the work of Birnbaum and his colleagues Bensimon and Neumann (Bensimon,1989; Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989; Birnbaum 1986, 1989a, 1989b, 1989c, 1992; Neumann, 1995; Neumann & Bensimon, 1990). Most of these studies have focused on the self-described roles of college and university presidents including how they think and feel about their presidency, how they strategize and meet challenges, and how leadership theories apply to their success or challenges in their role. While this body of literature is highly informative for a president in position or a person considering the presidency position, more research is needed to explain and help with the transformation of college and university presidency in the current day.

There have been a number of qualitative and quantitative studies of specific educational and professional preparation of leaders at the university department level (Bryman, 2007), but fewer at the university president level. This is surprising given the growing demand for transformation of higher education, including the preparation, composition, and profile of top higher education leadership (American Council on Education, 2017; Cook, 2012).

With respect to diversity and creative approaches to higher education leadership, over the past two decades a number of trends suggest that university leadership is more about leader traits and relationships and experience rather than stereotypes of university presidents according to typical gender, age, and educational preparation characteristics (deJong, 2016). Kenny (2008) for example describes the ongoing debate where the leaders in higher education must be prepared to balance conflicting concerns about increased efficiency and accountability at

individual institutions and broad societal expectations for the value of a university degree. Lawrence (2006) describes the change and uncertainty facing university presidents that call for a new approach to university leadership.

Based on the current literature, we contend that it is worth exploring whether having academic medicine background and experience might be increasingly welcome for leaders in broader venues of higher education and university administration than academic health centers. Many of the demands and challenges facing higher education today mirror those faced and addressed by academic medicine and healthcare leadership over the past three decades including: 1) a greater demand for accountability; 2) an increasing need for outcome measurements and transparency; 3) a higher need for innovation, decreasing reliance on state and/or federal support; and 4) increasing reliance on non-tenured full-time faculty lines (Frenk et al., 2010). Consequently, the experience and traits of leaders in academic medicine in addressing these challenges could be of benefit to the broader higher education world.

University presidents with academic health experience may be beneficial given the changing economics of the US. There is an increasing demand for health professions education, as the US Department of Labor projects that employment in the healthcare occupations will grow 19 percent from 2014 to 2024, much faster than the average for all occupations (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2016). This growth is attributable in part to an aging population and increased access to health insurance through federal action. Consequently, higher education institutions of all types might benefit from leaders with an academic medicine background to better understand and manage a growing health professions education portfolio.

We have explored the unique nature of medical education as preparation for entrepreneurship in its broadest form. The trade publication University Business Magazine has had several articles on the need for entrepreneurial leadership in higher education since 2008 (Hutton, 2008). A blogpost by Arlen Meyers, MD, MBA describes 10 Reasons Why Doctors Make Great Entrepreneurs, including the ability to research and experiment, having a bias toward action, ability to assess risk and spot cost-benefit decisions, as well as other entrepreneurial characteristics.

Considering the challenges and conditions in higher education, we focus our study on the growing diversity in university leadership and where the diversity matters. Rutherford (2017) finds that heterogeneity in top management teams in higher education improves decision-making processes and consequently, organizational performance. Hattke and Blaschke (2015) find that disciplinary and educational diversity among top managers in higher education has the most positive impact on organizational performance.

Given this trade and scholarly literature and what might be considered a natural progression from medical degree to leadership position in higher education, we find that of those university presidents/chancellors responding to the 2012 American Council on Education (ACE) American College President Studies survey, only 1.3 percent reported having a Doctor of Medicine (MD) degree (American Council on Education, 2017). Furthermore, in the 24 years between the 1988 and the 2012 ACE surveys of college and university chief executives, the profile of the American college president changed very little (Ross & Green, 2000).

We find this to be an interesting research opportunity. In an effort to explore the engagement of academic health leaders in broader higher education administration, we used secondary data from a variety of sources to study the prevalence and characteristics of recipients of Medical Doctorate (MDs) as university presidents. We used a compilation of secondary data sources to examine potential barriers and opportunities to engagement as a university by

examining the career paths for all MD presidents of comprehensive non-health-focused universities, comparing them to a randomly selected cohort of presidents holding a Doctor of Philosophy (PhD).

The purpose of this paper is to make both a theoretical and practical case for studying engagement of academic medicine leaders to a greater degree in higher education as a catalyst for needed and expected transformation of the higher education in general. We reiterate here that all higher education institutions are focusing more on transformation and outcome metrics (Morris & Laipple, 2015), an area where academic medicine leaders excel given their fundamental training in constant attention to fiscal, regulatory, operational, and client issues and compliance (Jackson & Carter, 2009).

Study Aims and Methods

This study addressed two main questions: (1) what proportion of university presidents have medical degree as compared to a PhD, the typical preparation for a university president (Hollander, 2013); and 2) do university presidents with medical degrees really differ from those with PhDs? The purpose of the research is to start an important discussion about the characteristics needed for a university leader's effectiveness for expected higher education transformation.

There are approximately 141 accredited medical schools and 30 accredited osteopathy schools in the US today (Association of American Medical Colleges, 2016), with a number of new medical schools in various stages of development. The vast majority of these schools of medicine and osteopathy form part of a broader university. In addition, approximately 110 of these schools also are aligned, partnered or integrated with an academic health center where medical care is provided in hospitals and physician practices. Consequently for those universities with a medical school, and more so with an academic health center, between 20% and 40% of their total budget will be attributable to the medical enterprise, a sizable proportion of university finances, especially with respect to revenues. Consequently, for many and likely a growing number of research and comprehensive universities, effective executive management entails understanding and managing the complexities and the financial burden of a health professions education portfolio and a medical enterprise. This is especially relevant given the growing number of university consolidations that involve disparate university types including medical universities (Slade, Ribando, & Fortner, 2016).

For this study we compiled and analyzed several secondary data sets (Association of American Medical Colleges Faculty Roster, 2015; Cataldi, Bradburn, & Fahimi, 2005; Ginder, Kelly-Reid, & Mann, 2015). We included only those institutions that grant four-year or higher, or professional degrees. We developed the list of institutions and their corresponding presidents for the period of May through November 2014. The study methodology was three-fold. First, we developed a comprehensive list of institutions of higher education in the US. Using codes acquired from the Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education™[1], we cross-referenced degree information on each institution's website to exclude technical and vocational schools that did not grant a four-year degree or higher. Additionally, we excluded faith-based institutions that granted certificates of divination or theological licensures, but did not grant

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[1] The Carnegie Classifications are found at the following website http://carnegieclassifications.iu.edu/.

academic degrees. We then removed duplicate entries by filtering our preliminary data by name and identifying presidents who presided over multiple campuses that operate as a single academic and business entity. For the purposes of this study, institutions were defined as health focused if they only offered professional degrees in the health professions.

Second, we added to the data set by abstracting from each institution's website the information concerning the chief executive's (president or chancellor) degree(s). For schools where such information was not readily available, we used internet searches to gather the data, mostly through announcements of presidential appointments. If this data was still not available we then queried directly the office of the president for the information. To conduct a comparative analysis of career pathways, we sought further information from all presidents with an MD degree who presided over non-health sciences four-year institutions, and a matching randomly selected sample of university chief executives whose terminal degree was a Doctor of Philosophy (PhD), in a 1:2.5 ratio of MD to PhD presidents, respectively. The latter group was selected using a random number generator from among all presidents whose terminal degree was reported as a PhD.

Third, we then requested from each institution the curricula vitae or biographical sketch for their respective presidents. In the rare event the institution opted not to supply the information, previous positions and age were identified via online articles announcing presidential and prior appointments, and/or biographical information on the institution's website. We then verified the information by checking against prior institutions' websites. Of all institutions contacted, only four institutions did not supply us with information requested; of these four, only one did not have full biographical information readily available on the institution's website or in published articles, and consequently we are missing information regarding the undergraduate discipline for one MD president.

When comparing MD prepared and PhD prepared university presidents, statistical analysis was performed using Chi-square for discontinuous variables and by two-sided Fishers least significance test for continuous variables. A $p<0.05$ level was used as the threshold for determining statistical significance.

Findings Concerning Health Professionals as University Presidents

Prevalence of MD University Presidents

Our study cohort from secondary data described above consisted of 2,306 four-year or greater colleges and universities. Among the presidents of these institutions we identified 140 (6.1% of the total) who held a professional degree in a healthcare field including 50 MDs (2.2% of total) and 90 (3.9%) non-MD health professionals. Two of the presidents classified as having an 'MD' had earned a Bachelor's of Medicine/Surgery (MBBS or MBChB), a professional degree awarded upon graduation from medical school in medicine and surgery by universities in various countries that follow the educational tradition of the United Kingdom, and which is similar to the MD degree awarded in the US. The details on the highest health professions degrees held by 90 university chief executives with a non-MD health professions degree is shown in Table 1 below. We did not include individuals with doctorates in kinesiology or public health in the mix of non-MD health professions degrees. There is increasing interest in non-traditional alternative medicine and complementary medical education (Bhattacharya, 2000), but for the purpose of this study we are focused on university presidents with traditional MD degrees.

Table 1. Degrees Among Non-MD Health Professional University Presidents

Degrees	*No.*
Doctor of Chiropractic (D.C.)	14
Doctor of Dental Surgery (D.D.S.)	5
Doctor of Osteopathic Medicine (D.O.)	8
Doctor of Oriental Medicine (D.O.M.)	6
Doctor of Optometry (O.D.)	5
Doctor of Acupuncture and Oriental Medicine (DAOM)	3
Doctor of Podiatric Medicine (D.P.M.)	2
Doctor of Pharmacy (Pharm. D. or D. Pharm.)	2
Ph.D. in nursing	6
Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.), Traditional Chinese Medicine	2
Naturopathic Doctor (ND)	1
Masters of Science in Nursing (M.S.N.) as highest health professions degree*	28
Masters of Science, Orthopedic Physical Therapy	1
Masters, Acupuncture	2
Bachelor of Science in Nursing (B.S.N.) as highest health professions degree**	4
No identifiable degree	1
Total	**90**

* 1 with an MS Nursing Administration; 22 with doctorates not in nursing, incl. 2 with EdD in Nursing Education, as highest degree

** 2 with doctorate not in health sciences and 2 with masters as highest degree

In contrast and as expected given the traditional background of a university president, there were 2,166 university presidents who held a non-health professions degree, with their highest degrees as follows: 1,799 doctorate (83.0% of the total), 280 masters (12.9% of the total), and 82 bachelors (3.8% of the total) degrees. Five presidents had either no discernable degree or we were unable to locate one, even after directly contacting their office.

Type of institutions overseen by university presidents with health professions degrees

Of the 90 university/college chief executives with a non-MD health professions degree, four (4.4%) presided over doctoral granting-research level universities, six (6.7%) over masters level institutions, and one (1%) over a bachelors level school. The remaining 79 (87.8%) were chief executives of health-focused universities or colleges. Of note, of the eight presidents with a D.O. degree, seven oversaw health-focused institutions; only one oversaw a master's level institution.

Of the 50 university chief executives who held an MD degree, 36 (72.0%) were chief executives of health-focused universities or colleges. Only 14 (0.61% of the total number of

presidents) presided over comprehensive non-health-focused institutions, and their career paths were analyzed further below.

Characteristics and career paths of M.D. university presidents of non-health-focused institutions compared to a random cohort of Ph.D. university presidents

To conduct our comparative analysis of characteristics and career paths of MD presidents and non-health science PhD presidents, we studied only the 14 MD presidents who presided over institutions other than those which were health-focused. For comparison we selected a random sample of 37 presidents/chancellors with a PhD as their terminal degree. We initially had identified 15 MD presidents that appeared to preside over comprehensive universities, hence 15 x 2.5 = 37.5. However, the institution of one MD president upon further analysis was found to be misclassified by Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education and be solely a health-focused institution. The characteristics of the 14 M.D. university presidents and the randomly selected cohort of university chief executives with a Ph.D. degree are depicted in Table 2 below.

Table 2. Characteristics of M.D. presidents of non-health-focused universities/colleges compared to a randomly selected subset of Ph.D. university presidents			
	% MD Presidents (n=14) [1]	% PhD Presidents (n=37) [2]	P value
Age (mean±SD), yrs. (range)	61.0±8.2 (43-80)	60.7±8.2 (46-82)	NS
Gender (% female)	0%	27.0%	<0.03
Type of 4-year institution presiding			
Research-level university (%)	71.4%	18.9%	<0.001
Education			
Undergraduate Discipline [3,4]			<0.00001
Social Sciences (%)	0	40.5%	
Humanities (%)	7.1%	40.5%	
STEM (%)	100%	21.6%	
Undergraduate institution			
Private (%)	71.4%	53.3%	NS
Research (%)	64.3%	54.1%	NS
Ivy League (%)	14.3%	5.4%	NS
Doctoral institution			
Private (%)	70.6%	55.3%	NS
Research (%)	100.0%	86.8%	NS
Ivy League (%)	35.3%	10.5%	<0.03

Prior positions			
Position immediately prior[5]			NS
President/chancellor (%)	21.4%	16.2%	
Provost (%)	14.3%	21.6%	
Other university-level executive (%)	21.4%	21.6%	
Dean (%)	21.4%	18.9%	
Other (%)	21.4%	21.6%	
Position two positions prior [5]			NS
President/chancellor (%)	7.1%	8.1%	
Provost (%)	14.3%	8.1%	
Other university-level executive (%)	21.4%	13.5%	
Dean (%)	7.1%	40.5%	
Other (%)	50.0%	29.7%	
At least one of prior two positions:			
Was 'non-traditional' higher education leadership role	24.3%	42.9%	NS
Was outside academe	8.1%	25.0%	<0.03

NS: Not significant (p>0.05)

[1] Includes only MDs presidents who did not preside over a health-specialized four-year institution.

[2] Subgroup of randomly selected PhD presidents.

[3] Categorization of undergraduate degrees disciplines:
  • Humanities: includes art, literature, linguistics, philosophy, religion, ethics, modern foreign languages, music, theater, speech, classical languages (Latin/Greek) etc.
  • Social sciences: includes history, psychology, law, sociology, politics, gender studies, anthropology, economics, geography, business, etc.
  • STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics): including the natural sciences (e.g. astronomy, biology, chemistry, physics, botany, archaeology, zoology, geology, earth sciences, etc.) and formal sciences (e.g. mathematics, logic, statistics, etc.), but not the social sciences or psychology.

[4] One MD president and one PhD president each had double majored in two disciplines in different discipline categories, and each was counted twice.

[5] One PhD president and one MD president had served as Provost in both prior positions, and these were counted twice.

Age and gender: MD and PhD university presidents did not differ in age. Gender however differed significantly. None of the MD presidents were female, while 27% of PhD presidents were women. This is consistent with the research of Patton (2014) and Wehner and colleagues (2015) that describe the challenges of university presidential transition given gender and other demographics. Hattke, Fabian, and Blaschke (2015) have shown that age and gender of top

leaders in universities has little impact on outcomes so this gives us credence to focus more on the topic of this line of research, university president educational preparation.

Type of institution being led: Of the 37 randomly selected PhD presidents, seven were chief executives of research universities (18.9% of the total subgroup). The remaining 30 led other types of four-year institutions, including 14 master's-level colleges, 9 baccalaureate-level colleges, three health-focused institutions not including a medical school, one tribal college, and three other special focus schools. Of the 14 MD presidents, 10 (71.4% of the 14) presided over a doctoral granting-research level university, two (14.2%) over masters level institutions, and another two (14.2%) over a bachelors level school. Overall, MD-presidents were more likely to preside over a research-level university than PhD presidents.

Undergraduate education: Of the 37 randomly selected PhD presidents, 15 (39.5%) received a degree in a humanities discipline, another 15 (39.5% in a social sciences, and 8 (21.1%) in a STEM field (one president double-majored and was counted twice). In contrast, of the 14 MD presidents none had majored in humanities, and only one did so in social sciences, while also double-majoring in a STEM discipline. All had majored in a STEM discipline. Overall, MD presidents were significantly more likely to have completed an undergraduate degree in a STEM discipline (or less likely to have completed an undergraduate degree in a humanities or social sciences) than PhD presidents.

Concerning the type of undergraduate institution attended, while MD presidents appeared to attend private institutions more frequently than PhD presidents, this difference did approach significance. Likewise there was no difference noted when the undergraduate institution attended was classified according to whether it was a research-level university (per Carnegie classification) or an Ivy League institutions.

Graduate education: Thirty PhD presidents (81.1%) had degrees at the masters level in addition to their doctorate, while only four (26.7%) of the 14 MD presidents had a degree at the master's level in addition to their medical doctorate, a significant difference ($p<0.0.001$). Two of the PhD presidents (5.2% of the cohort) held more than one doctorate degree and three of the MD presidents (26.7%) held a PhD in addition to the medical doctorate, not a significant difference. Finally, while there was no significant difference in the likelihood of attending a private or research-level institution for their doctoral degree, MD-presidents were more likely to attend an Ivy League institution than PhD presidents.

Prior two positions held: Regarding the two positions held prior to their current presidency, there did not appear to be an immediate difference in the types of positions held between MD and PhD presidents, whether considering the position immediately prior to the presidency or the position before that, or the combination of both (data not shown). Likewise, if we considered only the position of provost, as three MD presidents (21.4%) had held the position of provost at least once before and nine PhD presidents (24.3%) had done so as well.

Differences become apparent in the career paths of MD presidents versus PhD presidents when considering whether prior positions were either 'non-traditional' steps to the presidency or outside academe altogether. For this analysis we classified prior positions as 'traditional' steps to the presidency if they were prior university presidencies, or appointments as provost, high-level university executive, or dean. Executive and other appointments not in academia (e.g. state or federal government, professional societies, private or public foundation, industry, etc.) were considered to be 'outside' academe.

Taking into account the two prior positions together, only 57.1% of positions held by MD presidents could be considered 'traditional' academic leadership steps to the presidency, while

75.7% of positions previously held by PhD presidents were 'traditional', a difference that approached significance (p=0.066773). More importantly, 25.0% of prior positions held by MD presidents had been outside academe compared to only 8.1% of positions held PhD presidents, a significant difference. Viewed differently, 35.7% of MD presidents had held a position outside academe in one of their prior two roles compared to 8.1% of PhD presidents (p<0.0.02).

Discussion

We previously suggested that academic medicine is often insulated from the larger university, and that this segregation or soloing represents a lost opportunity for both the academic medical center (AMC) and the university at large (Azziz, 2014). We also suggested that leaders with an academic medicine background can provide important value to higher education administration in general given the growing interest in health professions training nationally, the fact that many of the challenges facing higher education have been previously addressed successfully by academic medicine leaders, and the entrepreneurship tendencies of physicians. We also argued that strategies should be proactively developed both to increase all faculty understanding of and experience with the value and unique challenges of academic medicine; and likewise, to enhance academic medicine leaders' engagement with, exposure to, and education regarding the operations and challenges of higher education and the broader university. One obvious mode of engagement for leaders of academic medicine is to participate in university-level administration, possibly including serving as chief executive.

The comprehensive data set of all 2,306 four-year universities and colleges in the United States today was used to gain a better understanding of the prevalence of health professionals, and in particular MDs, as university presidents, and to begin to understand the path to the presidency for MD presidents. Our data indicates that 6.1% of chief executives of colleges and university that grant four-year or higher degrees hold a professional degree in a healthcare field, and that 2.2% of the total were MD presidents. Of the 90 presidents with a non-MD health professions degree 87.8% were chief executives of health-focused universities or colleges, and only 4.4% presided over doctoral granting-research level universities. Similarly, of the 50 university chief executives who held an MD degree, 72.0% were presidents of health-focused universities or colleges, while 20% presided over a doctoral granting-research level institution.

What is the probability that a clinical MD faculty will become university president? There are approximately 140,000 clinical faculty in medical schools today (Association of American Medical Colleges Faculty Roster, 2015), suggesting that the probability of a clinical faculty serving as university president is approximately 1 in 2800. This estimate assumes that most MD faculty in academe will be in medical schools, and most/all medical schools will be part of a Carnegie-listed university or college. And it also assumes that an MD that becomes a university president will likely come from the ranks of academe, which as our data has indicated is not necessarily always the case.

Is the probability higher or lower than expected, relative to other faculty ranks? This is a harder question to answer as there are no good estimates concerning the terminal degrees earned by faculty in US universities. Data obtained by 2004 National Study of Postsecondary Faculty by the National Center for Education Statistics (Cataldi, Bradurn, & Fahimi, 2005) reported that 78.9% of faculty in all program areas at 4 year institutions had earned a doctorate or first-professional degree. In 2014, there was approximately 504,416 full-time instructional staff at 4 year US universities, excluding medical schools (Ginder, Kelly-Reid, & Mann, 2015).

Consequently, we can then estimate that approximately 397,984 full time faculty will have earned a doctorate (i.e. 504,416 x 78.9%; while assuming for the purposes of this analysis that the number of university faculty with a first professional degree that is not a doctorate is negligible). Considering that in our survey there were 1799 university presidents of 4-year institutions with non-health professions doctorates and another 54 who held non-MD health-professions doctorates, we can estimate the probability of a full-time non-MD faculty with a doctorate in a 4-year institution serving as university president to be 1:214. This probability is more than 10-fold higher than the likelihood that an MD faculty will become a university president.

Only 14 of the MD presidents served as chief executives of comprehensive non-health focused universities. Clearly the probability of serving as president of a comprehensive university for an MD faculty is quite small (closer to 1 in 10,000). Overall, these data do not support our hypothesis that the proportion of physicians and health professionals serving as university presidents/chancellors constitute an important fraction of all university chief executives.

In our comparisons study of MD vs. PhD presidents, 80% of MD presidents of comprehensive institutions presided over research universities compared to only 20% of institutions overseen by the PhDs presidents in our randomly selected cohort. MD and PhD presidents were of similar ages, generally in the sixth decade, but varied in gender. While almost one-third of PhD presidents were women, none of the MD presidents were female, likely reflecting the persistent challenges of women in academic medicine leadership (Wehner et al., 2015). Of note, the average age of our study subjects and the gender composition of the PhD president cohort are very similar to that reported in the ACE 2012 survey report of university presidents, denoting the validity of our sampling (American Council on Education, 2017).

There appeared to be little difference in the undergraduate experience between MD and PhD presidents in regards to the type of institution attended. However, every single one of the physician presidents had completed a STEM-oriented undergraduate degree, and only one had double majored in a social sciences discipline. We know that STEM education is important for current and future economic development (Gonzalez & Kuenzi, 2012). This contrasts to the undergraduate education of PhD presidents, 80% of whom had completed a humanities or social sciences degree. This finding is not simply a matter of professional preference, but it also suggests the fact that education of academic medicine physicians may not be as diverse as it should be, nor as broad as university faculty at comprehensive institutions expect of their leaders.

PhD Presidents were much more likely to have earned a master's degree during their education, compared to MD presidents, although they had similar rates of having earned a second doctorate. The institutions they earned their doctorates at were similar (private vs. public, research vs. not research), although MD presidents were three times as likely to have attended an Ivy League institution as a PhD president.

Concerning their prior experience, MD presidents were twice as likely to have come to the presidency through a less traditional path (not involving the accepted dean/provost or higher education executive to president route), and three times as likely to have had at least one of their prior two positions outside academe, than PhD presidents. This highlights an important potential barrier for many MD presidential candidates if search committees were to prefer individuals who have followed the accepted 'traditional' path to the presidency.

Our secondary data analysis (Association of American Medical Colleges Faculty Roster, 2015; Cataldi, Bradburn, & Fahimi, 2005; Ginder, Kelly-Reid, & Mann, 2014) suggests a number of conclusions. First, MD degree holders are significantly under-represented among chief executives of 4-year comprehensive universities. Whether this is by choice, lack of awareness, want of necessary skills, absence of opportunity, or a combination of factors, remains to be determined. Preliminary assessment of the career paths of MD presidents suggests that even these successful leaders have less exposure to the humanities and social sciences, the disciplines of a large proportion of faculty at comprehensive universities. In addition, these presidents seem to have spent less time obtaining their degrees in typical higher education venues, including masters and PhD programs. Finally, about a quarter of the positions that MD presidents had previously occupied were outside regular academe which may be a concern for those faculty search committees interested in working with traditionally prepared university presidents.

We propose that higher education and academic medicine would mutually benefit by enhancing the engagement and education of academic medicine leaders around those issues and challenges facing higher education today, and vice-versa (Azziz, 2014). Universities could also benefit by engaging academic medicine leaders to the same extent they engage academic leaders of other disciplines in the working of the greater university, including serving as a chief executive. However, for this to happen more frequently than 1 in 10,000, the academic medicine community needs to begin to proactively engage with the administration of the broader university, educating established and emerging leaders concerning the many challenges facing higher education today. Interested leaders in higher education need to also understand that the selection of university executives is often initiated if not completed by faculty who often are not familiar with the potential academic role of physicians, considering the long-standing history of isolation academic medicine has had within universities (Brieger, 1999).

Conclusion

In this study we suggest that greater engagement of the academic medicine community with higher education will ultimately be mutually beneficial to all parties. Informing the broader higher education community and leadership regarding the potential value of engaging academic medicine leadership in more tangible manners should be considered and studied in greater detail. We intend to pursue this in future research. Given the small numbers of university presidents with MDs, the next stream of research is likely to be qualitative with semi-structured interviews designed to explore differing approaches to university leadership and management challenges in higher education.

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50 Years and Counting: The Higher Education Act of 1965

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The Higher Education Act of 1965 ("HEA") radically shapes access and affordability for millions of students seeking post secondary education in the United States each year. This paper assesses the extent to which HEA has fulfilled its original intent as HEA enters its sixth decade by reviewing the social and political history that spawned enactment; addressing the broad and narrow problems targeted by the Act; evaluating outcomes in the context of significant external influences; and, considering unmet objectives and implementation opportunities that remain.

The Higher Education Act was first enacted in 1965 with comprehensive reauthorizations in 1968, 1972, 1976, 1980, 1986, 1992, 1998 and 2008. (Hegji, 2014). "The intent of the legislation and the composition of its constituency are reflected in HEA's eight titles" (Parsons, 2011)[2]. Title II - Teacher Quality Enhancement; Title V-Developing Institutions; Title VI-International Education Programs; Title VII-Graduate and Post-Secondary Improvement Programs; and, Title VIII-Additional Programs, accurately reflect five goals of HEA's original provisions. Title III-Institutional Aid similarly reflects its purpose although Title III "was designed to aid historically black colleges and universities but was drafted in terms that veiled the basic intent" (Parsons 2011). Significant intent also is reflected within subdivisions of each title, most particularly in Title I-General Provisions, Part B wherein discrimination on the basis or race, religion, sex or national origin is expressly prohibited and student speech and association rights are protected (Hegji, 2014). Title IV-Student Assistance is "the heart of HEA" (Parsons, 2011). Broken into nine parts, Title IV was designed to "assist students and families in gaining access to and financing a postsecondary education" (Hegji, 2014). Through programs such as the Federal Pell Grant, Federal Work Study programs and direct institutional support, approximately $164.2 billion of federal financial assistance was provided in 2015 (Department of Education, 2016).

"The transformation of the U.S. system into an academic hierarchy has been so complete and so little disputed that virtually all Americans, rich and poor, now take it for granted" (Stevens, 2007). Indelibly part of the system; HEA's deep acculturation warrants caution: "What we study depends first on what we see. We do not often examine what we take for granted a priori…" (Gumport, 2012). An intentional review of the social and political forces that contributed to HEA's enactment is advisable for "schools everywhere reflect to some extent the culture of which they are a part and respond to forces within that culture" (Callahan, 1962). The philosophical origins and practical evolution of American higher education's blends Harvard's blue print of liberal studies (Harvard, 2012); utilitarian models independently advanced by Eliot, White, Gilman, Hall, Jordan and Harper from 1869 to 1890 (Geiger, 2011); and, a research orientation borne of federal government interests (Mumper, Gladieux, King & Corrigan, 2011). Throughout the twentieth century as societal preferences, cultural influences and government engagement shifted, America's unique multiversities (Kerr referenced by

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[2] Titles IX, X and XI were not part of the original HEA. For example, Title IX was enacted in 1972, partially in response to "student rebellion of the 1960's" which "in effect, staked the claim for a greater presence in higher education for minorities and women" (Geiger, 2011).

Douglas, 2008) evolved reflecting higher education's role as both mirror and mediator of society. In time, HEA would come to embody this same duality.

As early as World War I and the Army Alpha Intelligence Test, the state's interest in the psychology and intellect of soldiering shaped college access. "Education leaders also looked to the measurement of native intelligence as a solution to the related problems of student selection and placement" (Loss, 2012). As Callahan (1964) chronicles, the era of scientific management gave rise to the cult of efficiency. This reliance on numbers molded the priorities and character of colleges and universities. "As the twentieth century progressed, a truly national inter-organizational status system took shape that we might call status by numbers: the use of admissions statistics as indicators of organizational prestige" (Stevens, 2007). High among these status generators was the SAT, an outgrowth of the Army Alpha-derived Scholastic Aptitude test designed by Carl Birmingham after World War I. (Loss, 2012). Despite an absence of predictive value, "when combined with other subjective factors of student performance – such as grades, class rank, letters of recommendation, and subject examinations – mental exams achieve acceptable correlations" (Loss, 2012). Meritocracy as a pillar of access was firmly implanted in the formula of higher education.

Following the First World War, higher education expanded government administrative capacity, provided an avenue for the redistribution of opportunity, and cultivated a relationship between local education and federal funding that undergirds colleges today. "The university's placement between citizens and state made it an ideal parastate for the federal government to connect with its citizens and, in turn, for citizens to connect with their government" (Loss, 2012). Following World War II, the GI Bill of 1944 reformulated military service as an extension of civilian life, elevated higher education as a right of democratic citizenship independent of military service, and helped redefine and expand the obligations of that citizenship (Loss, 2012). This concept of higher education as a right proved formulative to HEA with an important caveat: the GI Bill viewed education as a right earned through service; HEA viewed higher education as a birthright of citizenship.

The politics of the Cold War further influenced the rise and role of higher education as evidenced in 1958 by the National Defense of Education Act (NDEA). "The research tiers at the top of the system grew under the cold-war mandate to out-produce the Soviets in scientific progress" (Stevens, 2007). Beyond the growth in STEM disciplines, higher education served the state's goal "to mold public opinion in order the help the United States win the Cold War" (Loss, 2012). The need for internationally astute citizens reached prominence in this environment, but it also exposed the ignorance and apathy of the American public's battles with racial prejudice (Loss, 2012), thus setting the stage for The Age of Diversity.

Beginning in the 1960's and continuing into the 1970's, two dominant movements shaped public discourse, state policy and campus practice: black power and the women's rights. Yet, as both blacks and women soon discovered, in the pursuit of diversity, a more fundamental consideration had been neglected: diversity is not the same as inclusion. While *Brown v. Education* (1954) sought to overturn the "separate but equal" orientation of *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896), the chasm between legal doctrine and schoolhouse reality remained vast. After a year in which George Wallace stood in the school house door, Martin Luther King penned his Letter from Birmingham Jail; Bull Connor turned fire hoses and police dogs on black demonstrators; Medgar Evers was murdered outside his home in Mississippi; and, four young girls were killed the bombing of Birmingham's 16th Street Baptist Church, President Lyndon Johnson signed the Civil Rights Act of 1964 ("CRA") into law. A year later, congress passed the Higher Education Act of 1965.

The Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the Higher Education Act of 1965 are deeply and philosophically connected. "Johnson truly believed in the power of education to change people's lives" (Loss, 2012). This belief was manifest in Johnson's War on Poverty. Like Jefferson who believed that "the diffusion of knowledge among people is to be the instrument of vast progress" (Tyack, 1966), Johnson's focus was on opportunity, not dependency. His 1964 initiative "veered away from income transfer programs, focusing instead on service transfers and training" (Loss, 2012). HEA was a natural extension of this concept. President Johnson's dream was for "every child in these borders to receive all the education that he can take" (Mettler, 2014). Specifically, the act sought to address the issue of access. However, HEA did not limit access to a social phenomenon. Rather, building on concepts chronicled in the Truman Report of 1947[3], HEA sought to address financial constraints and lack of facilities as fundamental limitations of access.

In the years immediately following enactment of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and HEA in 1965, as college graduation rates climbed and student bodies became more diverse, it appeared Johnson would realize his vision (Mettler, 2012). In this regard, HEA can be viewed as a success: in both absolute and relative terms, significantly more women and minorities are attending college; the number of institutions has grown sharply; and available financing through federal grants and loans has increased sharply and steadily since enactment (Loss, 2012 – Appendix; College Board, 2015). At the same time, Bolman & Deal's principle of reframing – "the ability to think about situations in more than one way" (Bolman & Deal, 2013) – casts a qualifying light on the success of HEA[4]. "(P)olicy makers often don't understand the problem well enough to get the solution right, and a sizable body of research records a continuing saga of perverse ways in which the implementation process undermines even good solutions" (Bolman & Deal, 2013)[5]. HEA presents such a case; broader framing is warranted.

Goals carry corollary consequences. If the philosophical basis of HEA was access and affordability, equity suggests achievement and accountability deserve like consideration. Unsurprisingly, the constraints of Immerwahr's (2008) Iron Triangle – access, cost, and quality – dominate policy discussions. "Today one senses that the major public agenda in the United States has become one of the Four A's: Access, Attrition, Affordability and Accountability" (Berdahl, Altbach & Gumport, 2011). Coloring the lens of debate is the socio-political dichotomy of education as either a public or private good (Barber, 1997; Bok, 1982; Kerr, 1997; Putnam, 1995; Wolfe, 2001). In other words, HEA is judged against a chronically shifting landscape of political preferences, current culture, and the perceived transfer of benefits to larger society.

Passage of HEA arguably was the zenith of higher education as public good in the 20th century. Since then, a combination of generous federal funding, anti-tax sentiment and reduced state allocations have altered the landscape of affordability, particularly at "the public institutions that provide educational opportunities for many economically disadvantaged students" (Brown, Kurzweil & Tobin, 2005 citing Hoxby, 1996). At the same time, external economic forces work against the student populations targeted by HEA as stagnant income growth is most prevalent among middle- and lower-income households (Bok, 2013). The net fiscal result is that as "aid has shifted from a predominance of grants to a predominance of loans…more and more students have had to take on heavy debt loads or work increasing

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[3] Higher Education for Democracy: A Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education, Vol. I, Establishing the Goals (New York: Harper Collins, 1947).

[4] Bolman & Deal identify four specific frames: structural, human resource, political and symbolic. Although not employed here, analysis and suggestions could be framed explicitly through each of these lenses.

[5] Citing Bardach (1997); Elmore (1978); Freudenburg and Grambling (1994); Peters (1999); Pressman and Wildavsky (1973).

numbers of hours to continue in school" (Bok, 2013)[6]. Access without sustained affordability is access denied[7].

HEA exacerbates affordability in two ways. First, states increasingly use federal funds to reduce state funding (Urahn & Conroy, 2015)[8]. Second, Bowen's Law (Massey, 1996) and agency theory (Lane, 2012) suggest the availability of federal funding may accelerate college spending and, thereby tuition increases.   HEA is reasonably challenged on the grounds of net efficiency, opportunity costs, and unintended incentives.   This raises two related questions: a) are some students predisposed to failure regardless of HEA investment; and, b) for the level of direct and indirect HEA funding allocated by Congress, are college and university students receiving an appropriate quality education?

Higher education is a derivative of academic preparedness, social- and cultural-capital (Bergerson, 2007; Bordeau, 1977; Braxton, Doyle, Hartley, Hirschy, Jones & McClendon, 2014; Coleman, 1988; Goddard, 2003; McDonough, 1997; Perna, 2006a, 2006b, Tinto, 1986, 1993). The summation of literature is clear: student preparedness for college is of considerable concern; these issues are heavily influenced by background socio-economics; and, benefits are regressive (Charles, Fischer, Mooney, & Massey, 2009; Massey, Charles, Lundy, & Fischer, 2006; Rothstein, 2004; Bowen & Bok, 1998)[9]. "Higher education has not been the great equalizer…With only a few exceptions, the overall distribution of educational attainment remains stubbornly correlated with socioeconomic background" (Stevens, 2007). Especially in light of the philosophical relationship among HEA, CRA and President's Johnson's War on Poverty, underlying achievement gaps cannot be ignored when considering implementation elements of HEA. Turner (2004) emphatically responds to the consequences of predisposition: "It is naïve – and wasteful – to posit that opportunities for study in college are likely to lead to BA completion among students who have been unsuccessfully or poorly served by institutions at the primary levels." Failure to address root causes renders some portion of HEA's funding ineffective.

The extraordinary reach of HEA, both in number and type of institutions touched, renders educational quality assessments an illusive, often contradictory exercise. As exhaustingly chronicled over three decades by Pascarella & Terenzini (2005), definitions of learning in the college environment are broad, ill-defined, extend beyond the classroom, and often have little research to validate claims. Similarly, students have a variety of motivations in attending college (Pryor, DeAngelo, Blake, Hurtado & Tran, 2011; Hossler, Schmit & Vesper, 1999) rendering success outcomes unique to each student. Works by Braxton, Doyle, et al. (2014), Braxton (2006), Braxton, Hisrchy & McClendon (2004) Braxton, Sullivan and Johnson (1997)

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[6] Of the 61% of students who earned bachelor's degrees in 2013-14 from the public and private nonprofit four-year institutions at which they began their studies, borrowing averaged $26,900, an increase of 17% over a decade, after adjusting for inflation (The College Board, 2015).

[7] The access/affordability nexus is further complicated among minorities by reduced use of educational loans and greater price sensitivity (Bergerson, 2009; Bloom, 2007; Callendar & Jackson, 2008; Gladieux, 2004; Kaltenbaugh, St. John, and Starkey, 1999; Keane, 2002; St. John, 1991; St. John & Noell, 1989).

[8] "Historically, states have provided a far greater amount of assistance to postsecondary institutions and students; 65 percent more than the federal government on average from 1987 to 2012. But this difference narrowed dramatically in recent years, particularly since the Great Recession following the market crash in 2008, as state spending declined and federal investments grew sharply, largely driven by increases in the Pell Grant program, a need-based financial aid program that is the biggest component of federal higher education spending."

[9] For example, graduation rates between students from the lowest and highest income quartiles is significant, and there also is "a large (roughly 15-percentage-point) gap in degree attainment between blacks and whites – and this gap has not closed at all over the last 50 years" (Bowen, Kurzweil & Tobin, 2005).

and others begin to shine the light of empirical research on persistence, attainment and the underlying causes. Nonetheless, depending on institution type attended, six-year average graduation rates of 69.1% to 30.8% (NSC, 2015) call justifiable attention to questionable returns on HEA's sizable investments. Even beyond current practice, institutional returns will be weighed against graduation rates as a key measure of performance.

By virtue of its size, reach and import, HEA invites suggestions for improvement with proposals frequently targeting one or a combination of the four A's: access, affordability, attainment (including speed to graduation) and accountability (Clinton, 2015; Bush, 2016; Obama, 2013). However, even with agreement on broad objectives, the number and divergence of interests suggest incremental policy initiatives will gain more immediate and greater traction (Lindblom, 1959). "Objectives themselves have no ultimate validity other than they are agreed upon…Non-incremental policy proposals are therefore typically not only politically irrelevant but also unpredictable in their consequences" (Lindblom, 1959). In other words, the first way in which HEA can be improved is through a more realistic policy process. Thereafter, utility may be gained by arraying proposals across dimensions of underlying cause and attacking issues where resources are most leveraged: 1) admitting better informed and sufficiently prepared students to the higher education system; 2) retaining a higher percentage of students admitted to the system; and, 3) aligning the interests of students, schools and state. Most important, funded initiatives should target HEA's intended audience specifically: those who *most* lack access, affordability, and requisite social and cultural capital.

Applying this scaffolding to findings from extant literature provides the following examples. (1) Information asymmetry for first generation, low SES and minority high school students inhibits the ability to make informed decisions about college choice and affordability (Lane, 2012; Bergerson, 2009; Bowen & Bok, 1998; McDonough, 1997, Amatea, et. al., 2012). Federal matching funds at the district level in low SES and high minority high schools can target construction and staffing of multi-lingual college guidance centers distinctly independent of disciplinary counselors. Dedicated staffing would support higher levels of on-task attention and allow counselors to develop the social networks necessary for guided placement (Stevens, 2007). (2) Based on Braxton, Doyle, et al.'s (2014) findings, social integration and its requisite antecedents suggest funding faculty inter-cultural awareness and socialization development; a robust online platform of *pre-matriculation* remediation coursework under a universal articulation agreement; and/or match funding for early-intervention counseling. (3) States are incented to reduce funding while steering students toward Pell eligible opportunities (Urahn & Conroy, 2015); institutions have little incentive to control costs (Massey, 1996, Lane, 2012); and, students may not perceive the immediate benefit, understand the long-term consequence of debt, and/or lack initial commitment to a major or subsequent focus on completion (Arum & Roksa, 2011). A system of federally reimbursed debt forgiveness may align all interests. Running concurrent with graduation, based on household income during attendance, and funded inversely to employment and salary, the interests of each stakeholder toward matriculation, retention and completion become mutually reinforcing.

McLendon, Hearn and Mokher (2009) foretell the HEA's current challenge: "the empirical record seems to be accumulating in support of the claim that politics may "matter" in helping shape public choice for higher education." In a divided political environment, debate risks straying from the foundation HEA sought to provide and abandons the students that need HEA most. Vestiges of the inequities that spawned the Higher Education Act of 1965 persist to this day. As long as multi-generational racism, low social and cultural capital, stagnant income growth, and conflicting agency compromise the realization of HEA's intent, much work remains.

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Is There a *Glass Ceiling* for University Leaders?

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Journal of Higher Education Management, **34**(1), 35-41 (ISSN 2640-7515).   © Copyright 2019 by AAUA—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.

Introduction

The roles of university presidents/chancellors are extremely taxing. (When university leaders are mentioned in the remainder of this manuscript it will refer to both presidents and chancellors.) Besides being the university leader, she/he oversees academic programs, student affairs, fundraising, athletics, building construction and maintenance, and the budget of the institution. The university leader is expected to articulate the mission, vision, goals and objectives of the university to diverse stakeholders including faculty, students, alumni, and the public as well as to a board of directors or trustees and in some cases to state legislatures. (Alden, 1965). University leaders need to possess superb communication and interpersonal skills: they must build and work with a team of university officers that will meet the expectations of these different constituencies. University leaders are expected at university functions that may occur seven days a week and encompass as much as sixteen hours a day. The position of university leader in the United States and many other countries could be considered one of the most demanding jobs in the world.

Hiring a university leader is challenging. Universities often hire consultants to assist them in this difficult process. Obviously, it is unlikely that a university leader will be appointed before they have had significant leadership experience. Therefore, we would expect university presidents to be ages 40 and above. Since leadership experience is a key requisite for this position, there should not be an age ceiling. However, age discrimination is prevalent in many aspects of our society (Solem, 2016; Baert, 2016) and could potentially play a factor in the decision to hire a university leader. In this study, we examined the ages of university leaders when they ascended to their positions.

Methods

Identification of University Presidents/Chancellors
The list of universities to be studied from the years 1985, 1990, 1995, 2000, and 2005 were obtained from U.S. News Rankings Through the Years (The Chronicle of Higher Education, 2007). They were compared with U.S. News Best Colleges Rankings for accuracy (Catlin, 2012). For the years 2010 and 2015, the rankings were obtained from U.S. News and World Report (USNWR) either directly (USNWR, 2015) or indirectly (Mathias, 2010).

The USNWR rankings have been roundly criticized as not being accurate by Malcom Gladwell (Gladwell, 2011) and others. We do not endorse the USNWR ranking of universities, but it is the most widely quoted ranking and serves the purposes of this study. At each year assessed, we examined the presidents/chancellors of each university ranked 1 through 100, sometimes yielding as many as 102 leaders due to ties in university rankings. Of the 100 to 102 university leaders, usually one or two were identified as "Interims," as they were appointed to serve as the university leader on a temporary basis. Inclusion or exclusion of interims did not significantly affect our analyses. For each university leader, information about their age at ascension, time in office since ascension, gender, and whether the university was public or private were also collected from each university's official website. If a university president and/or chancellor was still in office at the time of the study, the number of years they had been in office up until that point was recorded and used.

Analysis

Data from each survey period 1985-2015 were combined and cleaned for uniformity of institution name and a unique ID field for each leader. The data analyzed included one observation for each leader, at each institution they served. The final data included 284 unique records in the analysis. Average age at ascension was normally distributed and compared by year of ascension, university ranking, private/public university, and gender using general linear models. Year of ascension was categorized into 5-year categories, with beginning and end periods collapsed based on sample size: 1968-79, 1980-84, 1985-89, 1990-94, 1995-99, 2000-04 2005-09, and 2010-15. University rankings were categorized as 1-10, 11-20, …, to 91-100. A multivariable linear regression model, with age at ascension as the dependent variable, was used to estimate and test independent correlates of age at ascension. Independent variables included those significantly associated with age at ascension in univariate analyses and included year of hire (as a continuous variable), university ranking (as a continuous variable), and private vs public university.

Results

Age of Ascension of University Leaders

The distribution of ages for the ascension of university leaders in 2015 is bell-shaped with its peak between ages 55 and 60 (mean (SD) = 55.1 (6.2) years, range = 37-78 years). As many leaders were appointed above age 60 as were appointed below age 55 (Figure 1).

Has the age of university leaders changed over time?

In an attempt to determine whether the age at ascension has changed over time, we examined data on leaders age at ascension from 1968 to 2015. In Table 1, a highly significant increase in the age of ascension of university leaders is observed over time from a mean of 44.4 years in the earliest 1968-79 period, to a mean of 58.6 years in the last 2000-15 period (Spearman correlation = 0.48, p<0.0001). In a multivariable linear regression model (with age as the dependent variable and adjusting for university rank and private vs. public university), year of hire remained highly significantly associated with age at hire (regression beta (SE) = 0.32 (0.03), p<0.0001).

Private vs. Public Universities

When we compared university leader age at ascension between public and private universities we found that the mean age at ascension for public universities (mean (SD) 56.9 (6.5)) was significantly higher that of private universities (53.1 (5.5)) (p=0.0001).

Figure 1. Ages of Ascension for University Leaders.
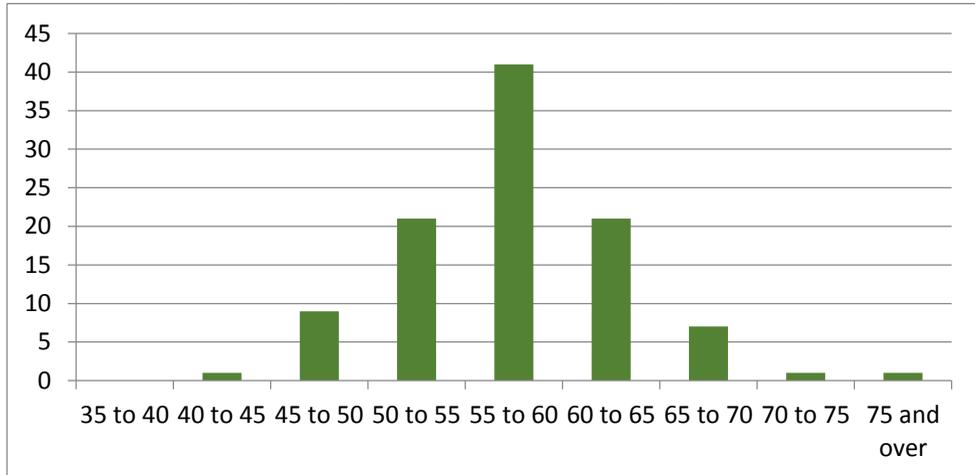

Table 1. Age at ascension and year of hire.

Year of hire	Mean (SE) age
1968-1979	44.4 (1.7)
1980-1984	48.7 (1.9)
1985-1989	50.2 (1.4)
1990-1994	52.4 (1.0)
1995-1999	55.1 (0.9)
2000-2004	54.9 (0.7)
2005-2009	56.5 (0.7)
2010-2016	58.6 (0.7)

In Figure 2, it is clear that private universities hired significantly more university leaders in the 45 to 55-year age range than public universities while public universities hired significantly more leaders after age 60. There were few university leaders who were hired over age 60 at private universities while substantial numbers of university leaders were hired after age 60 in public universities. In a multivariable linear regression model (with age as the dependent variable and adjusting for year of hire and university rank), the lower age at ascension in private compared to public universities remained highly significant (regression beta (SE) = -2.8 (0.7) years lower age at ascension in private compared to public universities, p<0.0001).

Age of ascension by university rankings

In Table 2, it can be seen that the mean age of ascension of the university leaders at the top ranked universities is lower than that of the lower ranked universities. In a multivariable linear regression model (with age as the dependent variable and adjusting for year of hire and private vs. public university), university rank was not associated with age at ascension (beta (SE) = -0.02 (0.01), p=0.08).

Figure 2. University Leaders, Interims Included, Public vs. Private, Age at Ascension, Percentage of Total, Grouped (Total N=103) in 2015

p <.0001 between Public and Private Universities
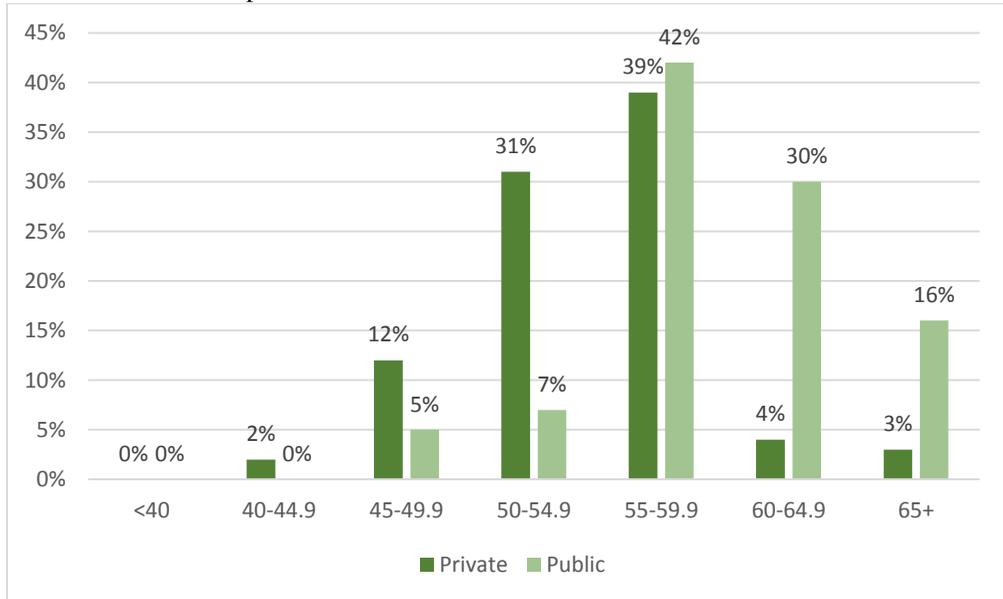
Table 2. Age of Ascension by university rankings

University Ranking	Mean (SE) Age
1-10	51.2 (1.0)
11-20	54.5 (1.0)
21-30	55.1 (1.1)
31-40	56.8 (1.2)
41-50	56.7 (1.1)
51-60	55.0 (1.3)
61-70	55.0 (1.3)
71-80	57.3 (1.2)
81-90	54.2 (1.2)
91-100	57.2 (1.3)

Time in office

As would be expected, the younger the age at ascension, the longer the University leader served in office (Table 3, p<0.0001).

The Effect of Gender

There was a small, but not significant increase in the number of female university leaders from 1968 to 2016, from 10% (1/10) in the 1968-79 period to 15.4% (16/102) (exact p-value=0.10). The mean age of ascension was not significantly different between men and women (mean (SD) age at ascension 55.0 (6.5) in males, 55.5 (5.3) in females).

Table 3. Leadership tenure (years in leadership position) by age of ascension

Age at ascension	Mean (SE) Tenure (years)
35-35.9	15.7 (2.9)
40-44.9	10.0 (1.7)
45-49.9	12.9 (0.8)
50-54.9	9.8 (0.6)
55-59.9	6.9 (0.5)
60-64.9	5.9 (0.7)
65-69.9	2.8 (1.5)
70-74.9	4.5 (3.5)
75-79.9	2.5 (3.5)

Discussion

As we had anticipated only 2% of university leaders were appointed before age 45. Given the complexities of the position of university leader, a certain amount of experience is needed before taking office. Most university leaders are appointed to their positions during the sixth decade of life, with 70% and 49% of private and public leaders entering office between ages 50 and 59.

There was an increase observed in the mean age of ascension for university leaders over time, from 1968 to 2015. However, a "glass ceiling" does appear to descend at age 60 in private universities with only 7% of private university leaders being appointed at age 60 or above. This is in contrast to 46% of public university leaders reaching their pinnacle of academic success after age 60 or above. At age 65 and above, this number drops to 4% at private universities and 16% at public universities.

Universities appear to be increasingly valuing age in their hiring of university leaders as evidenced by the increased mean age of ascension over the last several decades. But, why is there a reluctance by private universities to hire leaders past age 60? Universities might be concerned that the appointment of an older leader might result in a shorter tenure in this position. This is a real concern since our data does support that tenure in office does inversely correlate with the age of the university leader at ascension to their positions. However, many universities hire academic leaders with the intent of them serving a ten-year period.

There is a greater risk of health problems past age 60. The risk of many cognitive disabling conditions such as Alzheimer disease or Parkinson disease increase with age but do not reach serious levels until the eighth and ninth decades of life. In my personal experience (author ELS) none of the six executive search committees that author ELS chaired for Deanships and Presidencies ever considered health.

In our opinion, the failure to appoint university leaders at higher ages in private universities probably does reflect the ageism that is pervasive in our society. Having chaired several searches, author ELS was painfully aware of the bias that exists for these executive positions. While there are age related changes in the human brain that result in reduced eye-hand speed, diminished multiprocessing of information and short-term memory (American Psychological Association, 2006), the increased academic experience and wisdom acquired with aging should more than offset these physiological changes.

Chancellor Bismarck of Germany in 1889 introduced the first mandatory retirement at age 70. Before the introduction of the Age Discrimination in Employment Act (Age Discrimination in Employment Act, 1968), there was mandatory retirement in most professions, usually at ages 60 or 65. One of the last professions to be affected by this act was university professors (Age Discrimination in Employment Act, 1968). Today, certain professions still have age related mandatory retirement including airline pilots, air traffic controllers, national park rangers, and Catholic priests. The rationale for these mandatory retirement ages varies from the risk of sudden incapacitation with age for pilots to completely arbitrary decisions.

Despite the advances in hiring female leaders in other fields, there does not appear to be a significant change in the number of female university leaders over the last 15 years. The present study indicates that age had little effect on gender in the appointment of university leaders. However, the small number of female university leaders, (only 14% of leaders were women) limited our analyses of temporal trends in hiring of females into these positions.

In conclusion, our results indicate that while the age of ascension of university leaders has increased over the last few decades, there remains an age "glass ceiling" in the hiring of private university leaders. We urge private universities to be "age blind" in their consideration of candidates for this critical position.

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The Psychology of Student Wellness: Relationships, Detractors and Exam Anxiety

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Recent reports on university student wellness expose a disturbing trend. Students indicate heightened depression and anxiety, with a decrease in healthy lifestyle behaviors. The most significant inhibitors to wellness were related to university activities, in conjunction with low levels of motivation. Melnyk, Hoying, Slevin, and McGovern (2015) conducted baseline studies among health science students in graduate school: one quarter (25.6%) reported symptoms of depression, 4.3% had suicidal ideation, and 22.6% perceived elevated anxiety.

Students suffer through a confluence of stressors such as full-time jobs, rigorous college courses, family issues, lack of academic preparedness, and financial issues (Barefoot, 2004). Each stressor can affect overall quality of life, academic performance, student retention, quality of relationships, and health. An increasing proportion of the student population reach out for counseling, many reporting an increasing number of issues and higher severity of mental and emotional repercussions. Understanding the underlying perception of wellness has influenced the delivery of services in university communities (Prince, 2015).

Exploring the affective and cognitive predictors of wellness provides a deeper understanding of psychological, physical, sexual, and socio-cultural factors. Bingham (2015) suggested that to assure well-being, contemporary university counseling must incorporate foundational theories and underlying principles, a protracted educational process, ethical standards and a culture of service. To be successful in embracing student wellness, it is necessary to assess the socio-psycho state of the student population. University counselors, housing administrators, building directors, and residential curriculum developers can benefit from a greater understanding of the complexities within the student wellness construct.

To better understand the psychological dimensions that predict student perception of wellness, this study contributes to wellness study literature with a new measure, the Student Wellness Motivation Scale. In-depth focus groups leading to survey development and quantitative data is a useful approach for understanding the complexities and intricacies of student health decisions (Boyce & Neale, 2006). A deeper understanding of the student wellness experience will support higher education administrators in building a positive culture. Supporting wellness results in an environment where students perform better, have fulfilling lives, reduce anxiety, lessen stress, thereby creating a higher overall satisfaction.

Literature Review

Perception of wellness has been defined through a variety of measures and models. Wellness was initially scrutinized through successful behavioral attributes, such as interpersonal relationships. The psychological dimensions were labeled perception of

belonging and purpose, satisfaction of existence, and control over fate (Cowen, 1994). Benjamin and Looby (1998) later proposed six dimensions of wellness, that of the social, occupational, spiritual, mental, emotional and physical. The researchers concluded that a balance of personal and spiritual connection within each of the dimensions was necessary of peak wellness.

Diener, Suh, Lucas, and Smith (1999) examined early theory related to the psychological factors of wellness and found it related to life satisfaction, pleasant affect, and unpleasant affect. Compton (2001) suggested that a wellness model can be comprised of measures for personal growth, subjective wellness and style of religiosity tied to centeredness. There is also an indication that wellness was comprised of perception of positive outcomes to circumstances of life events, sometimes referred to as dispositional optimism. Positive perception of wellness was identified through six dimensions in a study conducted by Snyder et al. (2002). The scale was comprised for measures of personal growth, life purpose, autonomy, control of environment, self-acceptance and positive relationships.

One area of research developed a psychological construct related to wellness. Myers and Sweeney (2005) formulated a wellness measure to represent the "Indivisible Self." The authors factored the 17 dimensions of the Wellness Evaluation of Lifestyle scale, then identified five second-order factors described as Creative, Coping, Physical, Essential and Social. The scale was representative of strength-based wellness in that healthy behaviors reflect specific choice in lifestyle decisions. Gropp, Geldenhuys and Visser (2007) suggested that wellness was identified through the domains in life—such as spirituality, satisfaction and happiness—and perception of self. Psychology remained an important dimension in wellness while life circumstance related to the earlier measure of life satisfaction.

Magano (2016) continued the explication of wellness in a study with juvenile offenders. He suggested the attainment of wellness is associated with interdependence and harmony in society. Well-being was initially measured to incorporate modest aspirations associated with happiness. Another study focused on adolescents indicated wellness was perceived through lack of illness, healthy living, nutritious foods, exercise, and self-care (Ahanonu & Jooste, 2016). An affective component in this model was related to spirituality.

Earlier research studies have been conducted specific to student wellness. Adams, Bezner and Steinhardt (1997) found that the affective nature of wellness was unidimensional and inter-related throughout the scale, linking positive emotions and perceived wellness. This indicated a psychological well-being, quality of life, and a holistic sense of wellness. The Perceived Wellness Survey (PWS)—the precursor to the Perceived Wellness Model—was tested and validated using a mixed respondent group that included undergraduate students (Adams et al., 1997). The PWS was the precursor to the Perceived Wellness Model. The PWS scale factored into the physical, spiritual, intellectual, psychological, social, and emotional. Subscale measures indicated a high alpha for internal consistency (α = .88 to .93). Harari, Waehler and Rogers (2005) determined that the PWS was psychometrically sound and that it produced results like other psychometric mental health measures. A revised 33-item scale explained enough variance in depression and anxiety, as related to other scales that were standardized for comparison. The researchers collected two university samples to explore the psychometrics of the Perceived Wellness Survey (PWS) to explore student balance of multiple life activities as part of well-being.

However, the researchers found that the PWS did not require subscales. This refuted earlier analysis by Adams, Bezner, and Steinhardt (1997), where the scale remained multidimensional.

Dolan and Anderson (2015) suggested PWS collected the factor of spiritual wellness. The authors conducted an experiment with 29 graduate students. Fifteen students were assigned to an eight-week mindfulness stress reduction program, while 14 were assigned to a control group. The meditation group showed increased spiritual coping skills and a decrease in self-blaming as a coping mechanism. Regression analysis from 155 undergraduate students indicated a relationship between long- and short-term psychological well-being (Hermon & Hazler, 1999). The dimensions most pertinent were work identity, friendships, and the discipline to self-regulate. External factors and group relationships complete that wellness model. Granello (1999) reported a significant relationship between the size of social networks and perceived social support. Once again, the factor of happiness was identified as essential to perceived wellness.

Hermon and Davis (2004) explored perceptions among traditional and non-traditional university students. The two groups, most differentiated by age, indicated a significant difference in measures of self-care, sense of control, levels of exercise and realism of beliefs. The research indicated traditional students search for identity through random exploration, in turn finding their preferences. Non-traditional students exercised less but engaged in a higher level of self-care. Non-traditional students were found to be in a process of re-evaluation, finding personal fulfillment in higher education, satisfaction in the workplace and through family relationships. Across gender, non-traditional females were more highly engaged in self-care, than were traditional aged males. Milroy, Orsini, D'Abundo, and Sidman (2013) concluded that perceived wellness was higher for non-traditional students enrolled in online and hybrid courses, rather than in face-to-face classroom learning.

Undergraduate college students often face stressors specific to their extracurricular activities. For example, student athletes often feel that the "dual nature of being both a student and an athlete" are in conflict (Lightfoot, 2014, p. 34). They also often feel like they are combating stereotypes associated with being athletes that they are "dumb jocks" and "over their head in an academic setting" (p. 35). Lightfoot suggests a "Ten Commandments" for college students that includes a focus on class attendance, proper nutrition, adequate sleep, time management and making use of "to-do" lists (p. 32).

Howell and Buro (2015) surveyed 478 undergraduate students and factored ten measures of human values to represent flourishing, positive feelings and negative feelings. This study documented the distinction between eudemonic (happiness and personal welfare) and hedonic (pleasant or unpleasant sensation). Self-transcendence and conservation values were predictors wellness behavior as related to psychometric properties of the scale.

An emerging dimension of student wellness includes perception of sexuality and related behaviors. Daugherty et al. (2017) incorporated the dimension of sexual awareness in a recent study utilizing 216 college students. Healthy sexual engagement was valued, memorable, and a significant contributor to mental health and the psychosocial interaction within overall wellness. The practice of mindfulness was also tested as a precursor to elevated wellness perceptions.

Today's university life requires a balance between work, school and life activities. Various models, definitions, and sample groups indicate wellness is in most cases multi-dimensional, a complex system of cross function and balance. When imbalance occurs, student retention can be affected. Students who achieve a higher state of wellness are most likely to continue academics, earn higher grades, and produce better career results (Botha, 2012).

With this in mind, the present study seeks to address the following questions:

RQ1: What are the psychological predictors of university student wellness?
RQ2: Which variables predict perception of wellness during exam periods?

Methodology

In order to address these questions, the methodology followed the approach of Soh, Reid and King (2009), who used qualitative responses to build a quantitative model representing the construct "trust." For this study, a focus group was assembled, comprised of 24 students in a general education health science class. Scripting was designed to prompt a targeted discussion related to the student's opinions on their current state of wellness. Predominant themes in the wellness experience were recorded as insights and later operationalized into ten distinct statements.

The ten themed statements comprised the Student Wellness Motivation Scale. Statements were measured through a 7-point Likert scale response set to 1 as "strongly disagree" and to 7 as "strongly agree." Descriptive survey items included age, gender, source of university funding, GPA, classification (i.e. freshman, sophomore), urban or rural home setting, ethnic heritage, and number of hours per week engaged in non-academic activities. Data was collected through an electronic survey questionnaire, which included informed consent language that met requirements for Institutional Review Board (IRB) accreditation. Respondents were predominantly former campus housing residents, now living off campus at a southeastern state university. After removing incomplete cases, 208 useable responses were generated.

Both exploratory (EFA) and confirmatory (CFA) factor analysis were used to develop the student wellness dimensional model, using the methodology developed by Gerbing and Anderson (1988). The proposed model was confirmed through a split-half method. One half of the randomized data was used to perform EFA while the other half of the data was used for CFA. After acceptable reliability was confirmed, Student Wellness Scale items were collapsed to serve as a dependent variable for ANOVA testing among categorical demographic variables. Correlation analysis tested the ten scale variables for significant relationships.

University exams present a crucial period. Exams play a "key role in assessing the learning of college students" (Thomas & Thomas, 2017, p. 7). Instructors consider exams necessary as preparation for the kinds of routine assessments employees can expect in work-based settings (Deanley et al., 2013). In those settings, employers may need to differentiate between employees who will "succeed and those who might struggle in a particular job" (Thomas & Thomas, 2017, p. 22). Furthermore, exams affect what Weiner and Potepan (1970) refer to as an "achievement orientation" in that two motives are at stake: the opportunity for success and the "motive to avoid the threat of failure" (p.144). Weiner and Potepan (1970) note that as the date of an exam crawls closer student fears increase, fears that at times can make the difference between "excelling and failing students" (p. 150). To better understand exam fatigue, the exam variable was tested as dependent variable in linear regression analysis, with the nine remaining measures in the wellness scale used as independent predictor variables.

Results

Wellness survey data was skewed regarding gender (83% female, 17% male). Predominant ages were 20 (24%), 21 (23%) and those over 24 (20%). Most were either junior (39%) or senior (41%) classification at university. Regarding financial status, 37% indicated that their

tuition was family funded. Most (81%) resided in off-campus housing. Forty-four (44) percent originated from an urban background, while 56% came from a rural background.

Fifty-nine (59) percent of students matriculated at four-year university, while 41% transferred from another institution. There was an inverse pattern in out-of-classroom activities. The more hours committed, the fewer students who participated. The largest group participated in less than one hour per week (24%) followed by 21% at 1-2 hours, 18% at 3-4 hours, 10% of 5-6 hours, and 11% at more than six hours. The survey group was 92% Non-Hispanic White or Euro-American.

The 10 statement Student Wellness Motivation Scale (Table 1) was tested for associations using correlation analysis. Results of the Pearson correlation indicated that increased stress held a significant positive association with status of relationships (r =.26, p <.001), financial issues (r = .30, p <.001) and exams (r = .28, p <.001).

Table 1. Student Wellness Motivation Scale

	Mean
When I am in a good state of wellness it makes me feel appealing.	6.10
When stress increases, wellness suffers.	5.72
Working outside of school negatively affects my wellness.	3.35
In order to achieve wellness, I must have relaxation and rest.	6.10
My wellness has suffered when peer pressure affected my decisions.	4.00
When my relationships are going well, it enhances my overall wellness.	6.33
When I have positive emotions, my wellness increases.	6.41
My financial situation affects overall wellness.	5.64
If I don't listen to my body my wellness will suffer.	6.02
Midterm exams and final exams decrease my overall feeling of wellness.	5.35

Note: Scale anchored on 7-point measure strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). The variable "listen to my body" was confounded in factoring and was not included in the structural model.

Exploratory factor analysis with Varimax rotation indicated three clusters within the 10-item scale, using the first split half dataset, with a cut off with Eigen values greater than one (Table 2). The three-factor solution explained 50.32% of the variance. The KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin) measure for sampling adequacy tested at .68, above the acceptable limit of .6. The Barlett's test of sphericity held statistical significance. The clusters were named to indicate latent themes and were identified as "Recharge" (3 items, Eigen value 2.01) "Academic Detractors" (4 items, Eigen value 1.77) and "Tough Tests" (2 items, Eigen value 1.26).

Table 2. Factor analysis for Student Motivation of Wellness

	Recharge	*Academic Detractors*	*Tough Tests*
Relaxation	0.73		
Relationships	0.74		
Emotions	0.77		
Stress		0.53	
Work effect		0.58	
Peer pressure		0.66	
Financial		0.49	
Appeal			0.83
Exams			0.62

The second split half dataset was utilized to test Confirmatory Factor Analysis based on the 3-factor EFA solution (Figure 1). Sufficient reliability existed within the clusters while discriminant validity was evident among the clusters. Results indicated a marginal but acceptable fit $\chi^2 = 332.26$, df = 117, $p < .001$. CMIN/DF = 2.86, CFI = .80, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = .10.

Results of the multiple linear regression indicated that there was a collective significant effect from stress (t = 2.04, p = .04), effects of working (t = 2.47, p = .01), peer pressure (t = 3.16, p = .002) and financial issues (t = 2.09, p = .04) on the student exam experience (F(9, 199) = 4.87, p < .001, R2 = .18).

The wellness scale was collapsed into a grand mean variable, which served as the dependent variable for differentiation of means testing among categorical groups. One-way ANOVA indicated age, source of university funding, GPA, classification, urban or rural home setting, and number of hours per week engaged in non-academic activities were not significant. There was a statistically significant difference among gender [F (1,204) = 8.44, p = .004].

Discussion

Mental health is essential if students are to function in a challenging environment (Winterrowd, Priniski, Achter, & Abhold, 2016). Positive shifts in mental health and social function are key indicators of success. Student satisfaction is best understood through ongoing measurement. This study presents new tools and assessment that colleges and universities can utilize to assess student motivations related to holistic wellness.

Wellness measures and a satisfaction-based approach to counseling builds on wellness model theory. The "Indivisible Self" model proposed by Myers and Sweeney (2005) captured Creative, Coping, Physical, Essential and Social. The physical dimension in "Recharge" and the social implications of wellness within the "Academic Detractors" factor. The Benjamin and Looby (1998) model captured mental and emotional items, aspects that are distributed within this model through positive attitude, peer pressure, stress and the need to feel appealing. When

Figure 1. 3-factor psychological model for student wellness
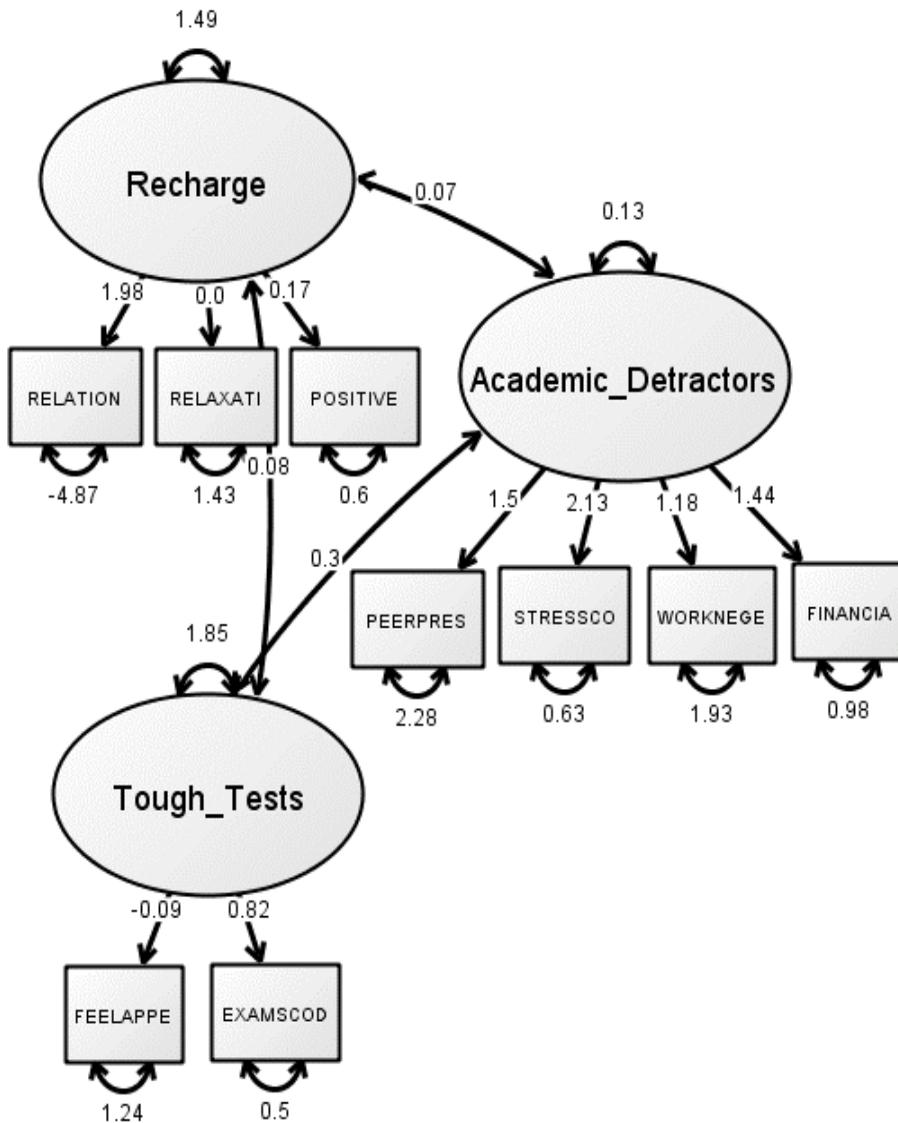
Adams et al. (1997) examined the Perceived Wellness Survey, dimensions identified were physical, intellectual, psychological, social, and emotional. The Student Wellness Motivation Scale indicates similar results in the cluster of physical attributes in "Recharge" and the cluster capturing the psycho-socio-emotion component within both Detractors and Exam factors. However, Harari et al. (2005) suggested the PWS did not require subscales. This study indicates the items factor and subscales test as significant.

There is a direct association between the Ahanonu and Jooste (2016) study and this study's proposed model. Ahanonu and Joost presented a factor that collected a physical component through lack of illness and items reflecting healthy living, nutritious foods, exercise, and self-

care, which directly relate to this model's "Recharge." Several early scales captured happiness, pleasant or non-pleasant perceptions (Gropp et al., 2007), (Magano, 2016). The progression of research indicates these constructs are now identified within more complicated affective and cognitive processing.

In regards to RQ 1, this study was addressed through identifying factors within the psychological process in self-perception of wellness. The authors found that relationships and positive emotions are most strongly associated with each other in student wellness—in other words, negative or positive relationships will have a direct effect on state of emotion. Wellness, for the students in this case, is a state of well-being, where there is a perceived component of external appeal; self-awareness is necessary to prompt rest, relaxation and positive emotions; when emotions are positive, relationships improve, which enhances overall wellness.

RQ 2 was addressed through associations among variables in correlation testing and linear regression modeling. The authors found that, in this model, exam anxiety loaded into the least powerful factor. Nevertheless, university examinations are preceded by increased stress, complicated through external work commitments and influenced by peer pressure, perhaps related to study time vs. social activities. Exams hold a significant relationship to financial issues and state of relationships.

This study reveals the complex existence of students approaching and engaging midterm and final exams. Higher education administrators might consider how to best support students in the critical exam process, where external jobs needed to quell financial issues compete for time, and peer pressure prompts stress and cognitive dissonance. Per this study, students who are judicious in allocating time for physical care, proper eating and moderate exercise will hold the highest motivation to achieve wellness. It is the fragile balance of performing well, while retaining resilience so that self-appeal does not transition to self-loathing. The amount of proper sleep and rest can either positively or negatively affect stress and illness.

University administrators, counselors and housing managers can employ the Student Wellness Motivation Scale to test and analyze unique and heterogenous populations. Rest and relaxation, human perception of issues, and self-care during exam periods should be scrutinized through scale responses and statistical testing. Organizational results will raise awareness of issues and prompt discussions on the progression of physical health, to emotional stability, to state of relationships, to holistic wellness. Personal wellness is self-defined, but it serves the student well when university officials demonstrate care and concern for self-actualized wellness.

In conclusion, all of this together indicates the degree to which out-of-class activities have repercussions for in-class activities. Students' out-of-class experience in relationships, sleep, physical activity and personal happiness are material to their class performance and their self-perception. Often instructors strive to streamline class materials, update examples and the like, yet what might be more important to improving exam performance might be talking a student through financial issues or instances of bullying. This study builds on prior research by indicating the wellness impact from factors like family issues, college courses, or work outside of the university (Barefoot, 2004). Furthermore, the study demonstrates how university counseling would do well to integrate an understanding of psychological, sexual, physical, and socio-cultural factors into their work with students (Bingham, 2015).

This study indicates physical attributes of wellness, directly affect the psychological state of being. The external is operationalized through relationships and social interaction. The quality of the external prompts the internal, which is cognitive through a mental state of self-

esteem and confidence. Universities can refer to the results of this research is helping students comprehend how lifestyle issues are tied, possibly subliminally, to adaptation in attitude.

The progression of serving students, using the weighted factors of this scale in a step-by-step analysis, has the potential to increase student satisfaction and positive word of mouth. Student affairs leaders are encouraged to use the methodology, model and scale to collect data for their own proprietary measures. Many universities collect data that assist in early intervention measures. The ten item Student Wellness Motivation Scale will provide administrators with current data. A custom model can be designed for that specific university and student population.

A future opportunity for university wellness is through smart phone applications. Ng, Dunstone, and Reid (2016) reported more than 97,000 health related apps are on the market, but download rates remain low at 10%, with a high dropout rate of approximately 74%. The authors suggest more study is necessary to better understand app effectiveness if they are to prompt positive health decisions. In this case, a wellness app might be branded as both an input tool and feedback mechanism for motivation and wellness studies. Such research also would also be reflexive of college student experience where smartphone use is nearly ubiquitous.

Limitations

The responses for this study came from students who predominantly resided in off-campus university housing. Future testing of the Student Wellness Motivation Scale would benefit a university population if the survey were targeted specific to students living on-campus in residence halls. It would also be useful to include students who are enrolled in distance education Internet mediated learning. Future research using this methodology might assemble a diverse student audience, representative of social and ethnic status. The survey sample set in this study is racially biased. A representative student sample will be more authentic as part of the wellness measure. Gender was not differentiated to reflect alternate identities. It is recommended future student wellness studies collect data across a diverse array of gender communities.

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The Elephant in the Room: My Semester Teaching FYE 105[10]

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Introduction

I am an associate professor of criminal justice in the Department of Criminal Justice, Anthropology, and Forensic Studies at Edinboro University. In July 2016, I was contacted by my department chair; he asked if I would be willing to teach FYE 105: Race, Gender, and the Law during the Fall 2016 term. A faculty member had resigned, and my chair was scrambling to cover scheduled courses. I was reticent to do so as the Fall 2016 semester was to begin in less than a month. FYE 105 was a relatively new course in our curricula and I had not taught it before. However, I agreed to the assignment and began to develop the course.

I treat the first day of any class as an introduction to the subject matter and review the syllabus with the students. For the past few years, I have used Microsoft PowerPoint presentations to emphasize particular portions of the syllabus I want students to keep in mind. I displayed the slides that morning. Information included the course catalog description, learning objectives, textbook, and required assignments. In all my syllabi, I include the University's policies on ethics and emphasize these with examples of misconduct and warnings of possible penalties if one is breached. This segment of the syllabus discussion turned out to be of importance as it contributed to the lecture and subsequent discussion on police ethics later.

The last slide was one the students did not expect and initially did not come close to understanding. I purposely planned it that way. It was a picture of an elephant sitting on a living room sofa. It was a visual description of the well-known adage of the "Elephant in the Room."

The Elephant in the Room is a conceptual device used to describe situations when the blatantly obvious goes unaddressed. Noticed by all, the reason it is avoided is that its mention causes discomfort to those present. When the picture appeared on the screen, I asked the class if anyone could determine what this represented.

As I expected, there was silence. Then the silence became more palpable as the 24 students present furtively glanced around the lecture hall hoping someone would answer. Finally, one student spoke up and asked, "Professor, doesn't that mean the Elephant in the Room?" I smiled, nodded yes, and then asked her, "What is the elephant in this room?" Without hesitation, she replied, "You are."

It was exactly the response I wanted.

Rationale Underlying the Incorporation of Diversity Issues in Collegiate Curricula

Traditionally, those students who sat in the classrooms of American academe were largely taught by white Anglo-Saxon protestant males otherwise known in the vernacular as WASPs.

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[10] FYE is the academic offering designated as First-Year Experience

The faces of those taught mirrored that of their professors and, with rare exceptions, colleges were homogenous enclaves of the similar. However, this has changed as the composition of American society has shifted to include other ethnicities, races, and genders.

Among the criticisms surrounding academe I routinely hear is that campuses are islands of isolation and that professors "… don't work in the real world." While I do not like to hear it, I will admit this is not entirely without some merit. So much of what we do as academicians is theoretical and the classrooms in which we teach are antiseptic environments. It becomes easy to distance ourselves and our involvement from those, especially the marginalized, who live in our communities.

In my youth, I worked at menial jobs for minimum wages. As a professor, I still work, but can no longer say I toil. Yet, I understand someone working for low wages and struggling to provide for a family would have a difficult time seeing how I could know what that kind of life is like without knowing me. If a liberal-arts education is to be meaningful, to create thinkers and not technicians, pedagogical processes must address these issues.

In the wake of the Civil War, Reconstruction policies emphasized the education of former slaves and their children as necessary to achieve some degree of equality of opportunity. Post-secondary schools now recognized under the rubric of Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs), such as Bowie State University (1865), Howard University (1867), and Morehouse College (1867), were founded to give African-American students these opportunities. Yet, as mentioned earlier, collegiate education was still tailored to the needs of the majority.

This has changed as the attitudes of American society have shifted to be more cognizant of the plight of minority citizens. To address this evolution in thought, an increasing number of offices and programs have been developed to promote diversity issues on campus (Williams & Wade-Golden, 2013). Consequentially, the professoriate is being encouraged to incorporate these initiatives into their classrooms (Chen, 2017; Fayne, 1996; Hicks, Ricks, & Oates, 2016; Ko, 2015; Stewart, Crary, & Humberd, 2008).

It is not enough to accept at face value what someone says needs changing or should be changed. All decisions that have consequences on the lives and futures of others need to be frequently assessed and questioned, if not outright challenged. When policies emerge and effect change, regardless of the institution or organization involved, the asking of these questions should become the responsibility of stakeholders within the decision-making process, those who implement these policies, and those most affected to address why.

To address why diversity and social equity initiatives should be included in curricula, we need to look at the historical record. Historical figures, because of the intimacy of their involvement, victimization, and witness, provided a depth of immediacy of insight and eloquence present-day arguments and justifications often. For this example, one need look no farther than Frederick Douglass.

In his autobiography (1845), Douglass, former slave and advocate for emancipation, emphasized how learning to read helped him to articulate his innate desire for freedom and how unjust the practice of slavery was. Using Douglass' words, one can infer that critical thinking, which should work in tandem with intellectual pursuit, coupled with cogent, considered, and thoughtful instruction, can change both attitudes and actions through enabling those educated to articulate the necessity for change. This change need not be only applied to those who strive for equity, but also those who are found in the upper strata of society's power structure that cannot appreciate what it means to be a minority and cope with challenges which minorities,

historically and contemporarily, have contended and must contend with. Education should serve as a vehicle for this.

In *The Good Society: The Humane Agenda,* Galbraith (1996) addressed the problem of equity in educational opportunity. Galbraith maintained education can provide those in the worst of conditions a means for escaping these conditions. Although his work was primarily an examination of economic conditions preventing equity, Galbraith effectively articulated how an increasing appreciation of the necessity of addressing diversity and social justice issues on campuses in particular and society as a whole may alleviate these conditions.

Criminal Justice Courses as Vehicles of Diversity Instruction

In my nearly 25 years of experience teaching in criminal justice departments, one of the themes I have emphasized is the treatment of minorities by the criminal justice system, particularly by the police. The historical record in the United States is replete with examples of police abuse of power. However, the traditional actions of those marginalized when abused by agents of government, characterized by a timidity to confront power, changed abruptly in the 1960s.

The 1960s served as a seachange for America and how Americans viewed communities and groups outside of their kinship arrangements. Along with these changing views came demands for equity of treatment vocalized through protests which were no longer limited to vocal dissents alone. Riots in the Watts section of Los Angeles, California (1964), Cleveland, Ohio (1966), Newark, New Jersey (1967), and Detroit, Michigan (1967) served to rouse white Americans from what some might consider a self-imposed slumber shrouded in the density of prejudice and denial. It is important to note each of these riots were triggered by interactions between police and African-American residents of those communities.

These same resentments still linger and lurk within minority communities. 2014 was a critical year demonstrating the deterioration of relations between police and minority citizens. Well-publicized coverage of the shooting of Michael Brown in Ferguson, Missouri, the shooting of Tamir Rice in Cleveland, Ohio, the death of Eric Garner in Staten Island, New York, and the shooting of Akai Gurley further served to aggravate the relationship of law enforcement to African-American neighborhoods.

Police deal with matters of race daily. These issues are usually limited to responding to calls made by members of minority communities or investigating minority suspects. Routinely, calls for service are generally from lower-socio economic communities where minorities comprise most of the population. Thus, a stereotypical assumption is made that street crime is not generated by lack of opportunity, but by criminal elements who can be identified by the color of their skin or perceived ethnicity. Bayley, Davis, & Davis (2015) noted this attitude also ignores minorities are more likely to be victims of crime than whites.

To combat this attitude, Rahr & Rice (2015) advocated for a philosophical change in police purpose by changing its mission from the "Warrior" to that of the "Guardian." They used *The Republic* to illustrate the guardian in society. Socrates recommended that in an ideal setting, a class known as the Guardians were to rule society. However, Socrates recognized that along with this power could come a natural disposition towards tyrannical abuses of that authority. To curb this, Socrates advocated Guardians be educated in such a manner that would both protect members of society from those who wished to harm them and treat those members of society they are charged to protect with consideration and equitably. Rahr & Rice (2015) stated

"This view of guardian education is humanistic. It takes shape through criminal justice education that is not only vocational, but also stresses ethics, theory, and the nature of virtue."

In contrast, we have a criminal justice system perceived by some as viewing citizens as enemies and, consequentially, at war against them.

FYE 105: Race, Gender, and The Law

In an effort to help freshman learn to negotiate the university environment, Edinboro University developed the First Year Experience. In addition to required common hours in which students are instructed on how to make the transition to college, First-Year Experience courses have been designed around various subjects to incorporate critical thinking, writing, group work, and information literacy (First Year Experience, n.d.). Professors assigned to these classes have the freedom to design the related course content and assessments. The course description for FYE 105 found in the 2018 – 2020 Edinboro University undergraduate catalog is:

> This course will provide an overview of the complex interconnections between race, gender, and the law in the United States. The course will also focus on the role the law plays in causing and remedying gender based and racial inequity, and include identifying contemporary issues related to gender, race, and the law in areas like affirmative action in the 21st century, workplace discrimination, language rights, racial profiling, and racial disparities in criminal sentencing. Approved for Core 5 (Core 5 is the Cultural Diversity & Social Pluralism component of Edinboro University's General Education requirements).

I required two textbooks for FYE 105. The primary textbook was Walker, Spohn, and DeLone's *The Color of Justice: Race, Ethnicity, and Crime in America* (2012) published by Cengage Learning. I found there were not many textbooks focusing on race and criminal justice with the depth that the Walker, et al. book has. The cogency and organization of the table of contents also helped me with developing the course order of study.

The supporting textbook was Michelle Alexander's *The New Jim Crow: Mass Incarceration in the Age of Colorblindness* (2012). A *New York Times* bestseller, Alexander's thesis is the issues influencing the disproportionate incarceration of African-American males are also evident among other minority groups. As a result, these policies have created a New Jim Crow system. Although the Walker, et al. text addressed issues of incarceration, Alexander's work further emphasized this disparity.

Issues pertaining to gender were addressed through lecture and selected readings posted on the course management system. The treatment of women by the criminal justice system and employment opportunities within the system for females were addressed. Three members of the class openly shared they had female relatives who had been incarcerated. This served to foment one of the livelier discussions of the term.

The objectives that I developed to guide student learning were created to organize instruction to illustrate the relationship and treatment, both historically and contemporarily, of minority groups by the criminal justice system. As I perceive it, a student who successfully completed FYE 105 should be able to:

- Understand how race and ethnicity are central to understanding crime and criminal justice in America.
- Discuss recent trends in criminal justice, the current crime situation in America, emerging problems, and how all of these factors affect race, ethnicity, and justice.
- Sort their way through basic data on crimes and victims and be able to spot occasions when the news media present a distorted picture of crime in America.
- Be knowledgeable about police-community relations programs, and which work and do not work in terms of improving relations between the police and communities of color.
- Identify issues of discrimination and marginalization in regard to gender disparity.
- Identify other groups that have suffered political, social, and economic marginalization.

Mastery of these objectives was assessed through four examinations, a group presentation, and a research project.

Examinations consisted of 50 multiple choice questions, each weighted at two points, and two essay questions, weighted at 25 points each, for a total possible score of 100. Each examination incorporated material from the textbook and the lectures. The fourth examination, the final, consisted of 100 multiple choice questions. Twenty-five of these questions came from the last quarter of the course. Seventy-five were selected from the previous tests. Students had two hours to complete each examination. These were administered on Desire2Learn™ (D2L), Edinboro University's course management system.

I selected an annotated bibliography as the research project for several reasons. First, they had to select a narrow topic pertaining to a historically marginalized group. The group did not have to be restricted to the United States. One of the issues I have found in undergraduate research projects is that the subjects students select are too broad. This type of assignment forced them to tighten their focus Second, I wanted them to get acquainted with how to select literature from multiple sources. I made it clear they were to gather sources from refereed journals, popular literature, and legitimate websites. They were provided a list of refereed journals dealing with criminal justice, race, and diversity on the class website.

Third, I wanted them to learn early in their academic career how to summarize readings and to quickly identify the author/s thesis. I discussed with the class on the second day of the term my expectations for this and paid a substantial amount of time addressing what constituted a legitimate website. I have regularly found students lack sufficient knowledge as to how to critically assess a web-based source and judge its legitimacy. Fourth, I wanted them to know how to write references and citations using the current style guide of the American Psychological Association (APA) which is the most common style guide used in criminal justice programs.

I never liked group projects either as a student or an instructor. I have, with few exceptions, found them to enable "free riders" in obtaining a grade they did not earn off the efforts of a few. However, I designed the assignment differently in FYE 105 than I had in the past and found a much better result.

I divided the class into groups of four. Each group was to develop a MS PowerPoint presentation of approximately 24 slides for a presentation of approximately 30 minutes. Instead of assigning each student a grade based on the overall performance of the group, I required each student to submit six slides. . Material referenced on each slide was to be cited in that slide's

notes section. Each group was to meet to discuss how the presentation should be constructed, divide the topics, and develop a concluding slide. I also met with each group separately two weeks before they presented to determine how they were progressing and to offer advice and encouragement.

On the third day of class, I discussed the group project with my expectations of how to present with an emphasis on how to write MS PowerPoint slides. They were to use blurbs and nouns. Direct quotes were to be kept to a minimum. Photographs and art were to be used only if they contributed to the subject discussed, not as filler. I wanted them to discuss the subject, not simply read it to their classmates. The group project grade was divided equally between 1) cogency of delivery (25 percent), 2) the quality of their overall PowerPoint presentation (25 percent), and 3) quality of individual slide contributions (50 percent).

Most of the groups and members did well with an average grade in the class of 84 percent. I found holding individuals more accountable for their contributions helped with earning higher scores and greater overall satisfaction with the assignment. As a result, I have frequently used group projects since.

Of 26 students who initially enrolled in the course, two dropped shortly after the semester began. At the end of the term, the class average for FYE 105 was 77.21 percent, nearly a C+.

While I addressed issues of gender, disability, economic, and social standing, I focused on race as it afforded me a wealth of illustrative "teachable moments" through the use of mass media. Of all the classes in which I have lectured, the students in FYE 105 were the most vocal. As a result, the discussions were among the richest and most rewarding of my career.

I tell students early in my courses that I do not care to hear their opinions. After two decades of instruction, I have found opinions are malleable, conceptual expressions that are seldom constructed of anything more substantive than simple feeling and raw emotion. What I require is that students share their conclusions. I define these as being derived from fact, critical thought, and eloquence of expression. For the most part, those 24 freshmen not only met my expectations in this regard, but exceeded them.

When a semester is over, I assess how I may improve my instruction. I was taught by my mentor that professors should constantly refine their instructional process. It is something I have tried to do throughout my career. I also assess the quality of a course and my experience by what I have learned. As a result, I have been able to incorporate aspects of FYE 105 in other courses I teach.

I learned a great deal from this class of students. The conclusions at which they arrived, often based on personal experience, were valuable tools that showed me a reality classroom isolation had denied me. I was able to re-discover the importance of being involved in the greater community.

Conclusion

All police officers who enter service are required to go through academy training where they receive instruction in the practical aspects of law enforcement. Firearms training, criminal law, and physical fitness are emphasized along with other necessary technical training to effect order maintenance once they are on the street. The ethics of the profession is also addressed at the academy level.

Minority communities who have suffered mistreatment at the hands of law enforcement often perceive police to be the enemy. What I have repeatedly read and have been told by

minorities is what they want is equity before the law, no more and no less. At its core, this is an ethical issue and one that needs to be emphasized before a cadet reaches the academy, while they are there, and after they leave. I have addressed the importance of ethical conduct to students throughout my career. Because of my experience in FYE 105, I have come to emphasize this more frequently.

For democracy to work, citizens must trust it and those that implement its policies. When one of these agents betrays this trust, the process of investigation requires transparency. Criminal justice degree programs routinely require courses in ethics be part of their undergraduate curriculum. While this can only have a positive impact on values and mores of those considering a career in policing, corrections, or service in the courts, continual discussion of ethics helps to reinforce these concepts.

I have taught for over twenty-five years now and have written many letters of recommendation or have served as a reference for students applying for jobs as police officers. For various reasons, there are times when I let students know that my opinion of their performance in the classroom may not garner them the recommendation they need or require. However, when I have agreed to write these letters, I have done so with a confidence they would be a credit to their desired profession. I have seldom been disappointed in their professional conduct. However, it is not enough to merely appreciate the necessity of ethical behavior, but how questionable, unethical conduct can distance police from their mission of service. The best of candidates who enter police academies with noble and altruistic notions of service can be jaded over time. Thus, the importance of these values needs constant reinforcement.

I am a 54-year old Caucasian male. I was raised in a rural Southern town and imbued with the values and prejudices endemic of that time and place. I credit higher education for helping to challenge and change those attitudes. For that I am grateful. I still struggle with these prejudices at times. I will not deny that. Yet, the Elephant in the Room that the young lady on the first day of FYE 105 identified is more confident after that experience that diversity education has a pronounced and necessary place in criminal justice curricula.

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Managing a Decentralized Student Recruitment Initiative in a Higher Education Institution: The Experience of Using a Double-Adoptive Approach

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Background

In 2017 the Higher Education and Research Bill was introduced in the UK to 'deliver greater competition and choice' for HE students 'while safeguarding institutional autonomy and academic freedom' (Dept. for Business Innovation & Skills, 2016: 2). At an institutional level[11] this meant an increased pressure to maintain and increase the number of undergraduate students recruited for the 2017-18 academic year. Post clearing (a period prior to the start of the academic year whereby students can be accepted on courses that have under-recruited, thus enabling students to change institutions) it became apparent that the institution in question had significant recruitment issues. Lower than expected 2017/18 student admission rates had arrived following: 1) a decrease in student application numbers across the sector; 2) an inconsistent institutional commitment to student recruitment and retention; and 3) a broadly ineffective clearing strategy that could not respond in time to aggressive competitor institution recruitment tactics. Thus, with the encumbrance of unrealistic institutional growth projections of 5% each year (based more on historical growth data rather than a realistic understanding of current environmental pressures), the virility of current strategic recruitment plans became a prioritized staff focus.

The initiative

In the absence of a fit-for-purpose recruitment plan that mapped 'the route between the perceived present situation and the desired future situation' (West-Burnham, 1994: 82), the initiation and implementation stages of a new student recruitment plan were enacted (Fullan, 2007). From a decision-making perspective this change in recruitment plan was a top-down initiative devised by the Head of School (HoS) in response to an institutional directive to act based on a decrease in market and market share of new students recruited by the institution. Historically at the institution, when a recruitment response was needed, a centralized recruitment team would coordinate/enact a response in collaboration with the marketing and widening participation teams. Each response would typically see school staff invited to participate at opportune times in a manner more akin to an adaptive approach to improvement e.g. when decision making would fall to the school themselves (Hopkins, 2002). An example

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Important Note: The institution being discussed in this article is not the institution with which the author is affiliated.

of this might be the design of a workshop for visiting school students or the marketing of a unique research event that may have recruitment orientated benefit. However, on this occasion schools were made aware that the central recruitment team had limited capacity/capability to coordinate and resource a response, thus leaving it to each HoS to devise and pursue their own recruitment agenda.

Typically, as mentioned previously, any decentralization of ownership to schools to devise their own recruitment strategy would signify a more adaptive approach to change which advocates for the inclusion of staff within the decision making process as they are supposedly more attuned to the context surrounding the need for improvement (Hopkins, 2002). Such an organically-orientated approach to improvement has the potential to promote a greater likelihood of staff willingness to be involved as well as outcome success (Harris, 2001; Hopkins, 2002). Yet, when the opportunity came about to plan the recruitment initiative during the first post-clearing team meeting, a second top-down directive was offered, this time from the HoS, with little-to-no opportunity for wider staff involvement in decision making. To help explain this new two-step, decidedly 'linear approach to educational change' (Hoban, 2002: 13), the term double-adoptive approach was conceived. This term is an adaptation of Hopkins' (2002) use of the term 'adoptive approach' which he uses to describe a top down process of decision making as a function of educational change management. Thus, in this article, the term double-adoptive approach is used to explain and explore the two distinct top-down stages of instruction used to manage a student recruitment initiative.

Methodology

Researcher-as-participant

The experiential account of the implementation phase of this decentralisation initiative was completed via a researcher-as-participant approach. As Probst (2015: 149) discusses it is unusual for researchers to inhabit both the participant and researcher roles simultaneously as they are in essence 'providing data that they are also analysing'. That said, being part of the response team directed to action the initiative offered a unique perspective as to the everyday decision making, communications and management processes that drove the response. It enabled oneself to be 'affected by the encounter' and then be better positioned to 'continuously refine one's way of observing' the implementation of the initiative and the impact of management decision making (Bastos, Rabinovich & Almeida, 2010: 243).

Use of a professional diary

The use of diary entries to record personal experiences also provides a 'chronology of emotions linked to events' (Snowden, 2015: 36). Such an undertaking throughout any phase of project implementation offers a writer (and researcher) 'a rich source of data about day-to-day activities' (Jacelon & Imperio, 2005: 991) as each diary entry 'is sedimented into a particular moment in time' (Plummer, 2001: 48). A professional diary, as opposed to a private personal diary, links personal experiences to a professional endeavour with an outcome focused intention; that being the communication of the product of diary entries (e.g. outcomes resulting from the reflection on personal experience). Typically, there is also the acceptance that entries into a professional diary will in some way be accessed by other professionals (e.g. the sharing of thoughts with colleagues to inform professional practice).

Meth (2003: 196) suggests that use of a professional diary can be problematic in certain circumstances as the written text may reflect 'an awareness of what the researcher wants to read'. For this study, however, the researcher-as-participant methodology helps to negate such an issue. Kenton (2010: 4) discusses the challenges of keeping a diary, specifically the required time commitment and 'a willingness to regularly complete the diary', although in this case the keeping of a professional diary was paramount to the management of actions within the recruitment initiative and recording of progress.

Procedure

The planning phase for the recruitment initiative was scheduled post-clearing at the beginning of the academic year and began and concluded in the same meeting. Key elements of this planned approach to recruitment, seen as a double-adoptive approach, began to be actioned immediately (e.g. contact known feeder schools to offer on and off-campus school visits, production of a generic presentation of course offerings to deliver to feeder schools). In essence, this double-adoptive approach meant implementing the same recruitment initiative as adhered to in previous years, but with with a second stage directive from the HoS that meant fewer resources and support were available. The implementation phase was planned for three months and its completion coincided with the deadline for university application submissions. Throughout this three month period, dated written entries into a blank notebook were completed sporadically (e.g. not every day) and ranged from one sentence responses to event experiences to paragraph long, change-orientated suggestions for future practice. Diary entries were used to inform dialogue (i.e. update progress and garner opinion) with other implementers involved with the initiative.

Analysis

Post-implementation phase, an issues-focused lens was applied to the analysis of diary entries. Diary entries were read through in their entirety and key management-related issues (e.g. issues perceived to be significantly impactful on the implementation of the recruitment initiative) were identified. In the context of this study, issues perceived to be 'significantly impactful' related to the level of ambiguity associated with an aspect of initiative management.

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The Issues

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Based on the analysis of diary entries, six issues were perceived to be significantly impactful on the implementation of the recruitment initiative. Issues selected were derived from multiple dairy entries. The articulation of each issue below is preceeded by a relevant diary entry from which the issue was identified.

The one and only meeting had at the beginning/launch of the initiative offered little clarification or insight into an overriding institutional recruitment strategy. Furthermore, the meeting itself offered limited specificity as to the purpose or benefit that initiative implementation might offer. And although such a recruitment initiative could be likened to a more retroactive response to a change in situation as detailed by Levacic et al. (1999), its narrow and short-term focus did not take into account 'a view of the whole organisation, its key purpose, its direction and its place in the environment' (Middlewood & Lumby, 1998: X). Thus, it quickly became apparent that a detailed recruitment strategy able to be used to respond to

changes in the number and mobility of new students entering higher education (a trend quite prominent over the past five years in higher education in the UK), was in fact non-existent. As

Issue 1 – Lack of recruitment strategy

Diary entry 1:
Many of the agenda items were not discussed at the meeting and if they were little to no information/understanding was offered. These items included:

- *Institution's recruitment & retention strategy*
- *Budget availability*
- *Specific outcomes/targets for the initiative*
- *Successes/challenges - What have we learnt up till now?*
- *Understand current program of events*

such, with the threat of redundancy hovering over all school staff acting as the ultimate performance sanction, it could be argued that a power-coercive model of change was evoked to drive this school-led recruitment agenda (Chin & Benne, 1969).

Issues 2 – Approach to decision making

Diary entry 2:
Post meeting I feel quite isolated in terms of being able to action what has been requested of me. I have planned to meet up with [name withheld] *to discuss how we move forward with developing the* [in-college and on-site 'course promotion'] *presentation, but our initial exchange detailed how limited time and expertise we have in matters of student recruitment and making an impact.*

Another issue to immediately arise related to decision making coordination. The communication of an institutional directive supports a hierarchal chain of authority 'by which superiors pass on orders to subordinates and grant subordinates the resources to implement the orders' (Levacic, 2002: 193). Yet no additional resources (e.g. time allocation, administrators) were offered to each school to drive required change. Thus, there is sole reliance on networking and informal information exchanges to gain any momentum as opposed to (what outwardly appeared to be the more beneficial coordination mechanism in this instance) market-based decision making. As Joyce (1991) discusses, the collegiality of staff can be a pivotal factor in the promotion of school improvement, yet with only one initial meeting planned and limited engagement with the School's social network, the HoS's reluctance to engage staff and remain in close contact made the process of effective decision making even more challenging. Similarly, when taking into account Hallinger and Kantamara's (2008) research into the role that school leaders play in developing collegiality and making use of social networks when driving successful improvement initiatives, the HoS's approach to decision making is questionable.

> Diary entry 5:
> *How recruitment can be viewed in isolation from retention is baffling.*
> *Having been informed that another student has left the course today I am*
> *told our attrition rates are the worst in the University, but still we are tasked*
> *with pumping time and effort into attracting more students.*

Two months into the initiative, resource allocation (with respect to coordination and knowledge sharing) was already an issue. Treating the issue of recruitment in isolation from the issue of retention is also problematic and relates to Lockheed and Verspoor's (1991: 1) view that 'it is meaningless to improve enrolment and attendance without considering the organizational structure of the school and teaching and learning processes'. Failure to look at the bigger picture of recruitment, retention, education development practices and institutional decision making and structure through the same lens appeared to be jeopardizing the desired/required improvement of the institution. Yet, it appeared on the surface that the idea of improvement, described by Hopkins (1994: 75) as an 'approach to educational change that is concerned with process as well as outcomes' was not front-and-center of institutional thinking in the lead up to initiative implementation as evidenced by the dramatic nature of intervention prescribed to schools and the reluctance to let change initiatives develop organically.

Issue 4 – Staff reluctance

> Diary entry 7:
> *'Student recruitment isn't in my job spec' I was told by a colleague today.*

The introduction of cross-institutional redundancies offered to staff mid-way through initiative implementation only served to heighten staff anxiety levels and the level of micro-politicking that accompanies such a conflict laden work environment (Bush, 2003). The initial presentation to staff of said redundancy proposals led to a series of staff meetings and consequently a greater staff awareness of the lack of a university-wide recruitment vision. As such there developed a growing reluctance from school staff to adapt their understanding of academia to devote more time to developing and implementing school-focused student recruitment strategies.

Issue 5 – Loss of recruitment expertise

> Diary entry 8:
> *Being relatively new to the institution, the exercising of authority and*
> *influence (at the school level) in response to this institutional directive has*
> *been interesting. But why? Where is our team of recruitment specialists? I*
> *went to see someone in recruitment and their response to my questions about*
> *accessing the University's recruitment strategy was 'I'm new here too and I*
> *don't think we have one'.*

With the passing of recruitment responsibilities to schools, sources of power relating to recruitment expertise have been lost (Hoyle, 1986). Instead, sources of power are very much structural (e.g. HoS) with the exercise of power at a school level very much reflecting a more formal, bureaucratic approach (Bush, 2003). Thinking longer term, with each school becoming more and more responsible for their own student recruitment the rise in conflict between schools competing for the same resource (e.g. students) may exacerbate any micro-political tensions both formally and informally (Bush, 2003).

Issue 6 – Capacity and resource

Diary entry 10:
Today I asked about knowledge legacy and getting access to information learned from previous recruitment drives. I was told 'don't contact the central recruitment team now. He is frantically trying to write the [recruitment] strategy'.

With reference to the Improving the Quality for Education for All (IQEA), a school improvement model that promotes 'building confidence and capacity within the school, rather than relying on externally produced packages' (Ainscow & Hopkins, 1992: 79), it is important to recognize the limited emphasis at any stage of initiative implementation on the development of organization capacity. This was particularly concerning when taking into account the number of change process issues apparent within the initiation and implementation stages of the initiative. Utilizing what Stoll and Fink (1996) suggest as to what may constitute a change process issue, the following two concerns were apparent: 1) there was not one version of what the recruitment response should be; and 2) that without access to an overriding recruitment strategy or an understanding of previous recruitment lessons learned, the credibility and validity of the initiative was called into question from the start. Furthermore, with a specific focus on student recruitment the initiative offered little emphasis on educational effectiveness and the achievement of educative goals. Conversely, effectiveness for this initiative relates more to the non-educative goal of an increase in student population. As Dempster (2000: 56) states aspects of school management related to planning and communication 'shape some of the conditions which indirectly influence classroom practice'. This statement highlights the potential for concern surrounding this initiative based on the allocation of resources away from teaching and learning.

Impact and recommendations

From an action perspective, the decrease in market share (e.g. a decrease in student numbers) incentivized some school staff to volunteer their time to help with the delivery of specific aspects of the school improvement initiative (e.g. to be involved in targeted high school recruitment visits). Yet, a meaningful understanding of the impact of their involvement and the impact of the improvement initiative as a whole in the months post-implementation was difficult to ascertain due to issues with initiative evaluation. Robson (1993: 185) suggests that 'a thorough knowledge of the programme being evaluated' as well as rigorous and 'systematic data collection' are important when completing an effective evaluation. Based on the under-resourced and time-pressured nature of the improvement initiative implemented (i.e. the limited

level of detail included in the initial planning phase and the lack of definition as to what constituted intervention success), a reliable and valid evaluation of the impact of the intervention was unattainable. There are, however, a number of recommendations that can be made to inform the future design and management of a student recruitment initiative:

1. A better university-wide and individual school recruitment vision, which includes improved definition and monitoring of recruitment figures and a more collegial management style (Harris et al. 1995).
2. The development of an improvement strategy that has at its core specific links to improved educational effectiveness e.g. that an initiative details how students' academic achievement and other areas of development such as citizenship, social utility and employability will be developed. Fidler (1997) offers a range of ideas concerning strategic change and development planning that could be used as a framework for improvement with an emphasis on whole school, long term, sustainable development that recognizes current and future environmental pressures.
3. The application of Hopkins' (2002) school improvement framework could help to define a more detailed and contextual development plan and take advantage of school improvement groups formed from a cross section of staff. This also support Earley's (1998: 150) view that 'it has become increasingly apparent that for organizations to survive in an increasingly turbulent and changing environment, issues of strategy can no longer simply be seen as the exclusive preserve of senior staff.'
4. To help avoid a double-adoptive approach to student recruitment the availability of appropriate resources (e.g. time allocation, administrators, and funds) should be prioritized to help drive required change.

With staff members being directly affected by the overall effectiveness of student recruitment initiatives, the final point raised above is the most important of all concerning the initiative discussed in this article. With the institutional directive given to empower schools to make their own decisions about recruitment, it is important that stages following this involve staff in an ongoing manner so as to support the collaborative nature/requirement of the intervention. In this example, it could be argued that the lack of staff involvement appeared detrimental to the achievement of desired recruitment goals (e.g. 5% growth in student numbers).

Conclusion

The focus of discussion throughout this article related to the ongoing process of change surrounding the implementation of a recruitment initiative. A double-adoptive approach, an adaptation taken from Hopkin's (2002) discussion of 'adoptive' and 'adaptive' approaches to change and school improvement, was used to frame the analysis of a student recruitment initiative that was perceived to have a number of limitations. Issues relating to the implementation of the initiative were presented with discussion focusing on the lack of collegial engagement in the design of the initiative. Overall, the implementation of a double-adoptive student recruitment initiative appeared to contribute to the perpetuation of the same student recruitment challenges experienced prior to initiative implementation.

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Strategic Access of Intertemporal Need Changes for Successful College Merging

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U.S higher education has increased their social responsibility and size over time. They have broadened their gateway to access the educational opportunities to the public and the open access enables to contribute the country's equality. However, the institution should ultimately survive under the competitive higher education market condition and the individual are trying to reform their internal structure in order to meet social needs. The increasing number of institutions facing on complex environmental changes over time and some of them requires to merge each other through the different purpose. From 1970s, about 200 mergers became higher education partners (Polytechnics and Colleges Funding Council, 1990; Higher Education Funding Council for England, 1994). There are many institutions with merging experiences over time, and their college merging behavior is still ongoing. Recent rising college costs and shrinking enrollment allows local institutions to consider alternative ways for their survival in the higher education market. While colleges are doing significant increase of tuition to resolve tight budget constraint, the behavior sometimes are harmful to distract their pure educational mission and purposes.

There are diverse opinions around college merging behaviors. The merging is related to various factors, such as the national policy, organizational changes, and student experiences (Bathmaker et al, 2008). Accelerating the privatization of public education allows us to buy the education services as a market value, rather than the concept of public goods (Lynch, 2006). Bonnie et al (2011) point out that the higher education market has mixed-form markets, which co-exist with the public and private providers in the market. Both providers are competing within a specific industry. With the current reduction of public budgets for higher education, the demands for greater efficiency and higher quality make institutions reconsider their internal structure more deeply, and the potential needs often cause extensive reforms (Skodvin, 1999). The organizational changes effect internal employment structures (Harvey, 2000), and when the institutional members meet the local needs, problems, and opportunities, they actively respond to the components (Kondakci & Broeck, 2009). Many postsecondary institutions attempt to adjust to the external environments, and college merging is one of the effective ways. Recently, the merging trend is common in the public and non-profit sectors (Lang, 2002). Newly hired institutional leaders have shown new policies including program reform, and these new leadership policy reforms reflect the institutional mission and purpose in response to the flexible market condition (Paul, 2005). With the transformation of top-level leaderships in the institutions, employee involvements are based on the management of human aspects attribute to accomplish the good results of institutional merging (Cartwright et al, 2007).

This paper provides the derived interactions between the stakeholders when each entity face on the college merging and create the strategy to merge successfully. Based on the investigation of different merging theories, this paper explains the important components in the

merging process and generates useful standards for ideal college structure. In addition, this paper show how each stakeholders that face on college merging respond through proposed conceptual model and investigates the relationship between the merging behaviors and college education. Strategic merging is a combination of higher education institutions for mutual growths (Harman & Harman, 2008) and the cooperation between better functions of the internal structures can help them improve their efficiency and effectiveness in the market. Through the investigation of collaboration between relevant factors and stakeholders around college merging, this paper reinforce how successful college merging can be executed.

Theoretical frameworks

Merging in higher education requires to make an agreement of each needs. Verhoeven (2003) explains the general result of merging such as clear delivery of varied educational materials, growth of facilities, collaborating among departments. Additionally, he describes that the merging is benefits from economics of scale, efficient resource allocation, and professionalization of central administration. The conclusion show that the successful merging between the institutions needs more understanding of each other and proper trade-off based on give and take action. The reason to merge comes from different causes. One of the reason that the institution considers is to narrow the academic or administrative gaps that that they deficit. In order to meet the institutional needs, it requires to create or borrow the necessities. The college merging is one of the effective ways to improve internal needs from outside and it includes centralization of disciplinary specialization within institution as well as cooperation with partners (Skodvin & Stensaker, 1998). Through the networking with other stakeholders, the institution balance the internal structure and make the innovative strategic planning for better organization. The other important reasoning can come from the survival behavior of each institution in the market. The strategy based on economic perspective considers the managerial improvement of institution. The management knowledge is essential to understand the organizational functioning for merging and it is sometimes connected with behavioral science to explain each stakeholder's action on the negotiable process (House & Miner, 1969). The merging institutions should figure out their positioning which means the potential customer's perceived values to their product and the price level on the process (Shaw, 1992). In the higher education system, the positioning is related to the willing to pay for their college education or return of the educational investment in terms of economic perspectives. Potential students who have asymmetric information react differently toward varied institutional recruitment strategies and choose their potential education. According to their perceived the pricing boundary to invest for the attendance is decided and in this aspect, the positioning of each institution is the starting line of estimating their main educational revenues based on enrolled students. While the institutional pricing plays a role to guide each action more rationally in the higher education market, each institution gain a different outputs from their own strategies. Surely, the institution execute various activities in order to accomplish their educational mission with other components such as their infrastructure, organized curriculum, and other institutional components. The strategic level decision based on the price is further connected with managing their costs-side decision making of institution and external environment such as economic fluctuation also affects the engagement of relevant stakeholders (Zeithaml, 1988). Last motivation to merge is to decrease institutional uncertainty. Prior studies demonstrate the institutional behaviors which are facing on the merging through the game theories. Sorin (1999)

emphasize the importance of credibility between participants and show that each expectation about partners play a critical role to decide their strategies. The college merging process is complex and requires several meetings to make an agreement for better outcomes. As a kind of repeated game, the process of collaboration between each institution refers to resolve their incomplete resource allocation based on complete market condition. Through the cooperation to meet each needs, the institutions have an ability to cope with unexpected change and accomplish the proper resource allocations for better performance. The collaborative works contribute to decrease the expected risks under bad external change and sometimes create positive effects for common institutional advancement under technological progress is anticipated (Huisman, Kort, Pawlina, & Thijssen, 2003).

The complex interest groups around college merging are engage in the entire process. The stakeholders directly or indirectly are participated in the decision making of merging process. The merging derives extensive change of organizational culture and from top to individual, the adjustment of transparent communication is essential to avoid information distortion for better outcome (Kavanagh & Ashkanasy, 2006). In this process, institutional leader play a key role to make the process properly (Jung, 2001). As a representative of the negotiation with opposite partner, the institutional leader has a responsibility to buffer their core values against expected organizational turmoil. The institutional leader should manage the right direction of communication to gather comprehensive internal voice for successful merging process (Schein, 1992; Ashkanasy & Holmes, 1995). The change of organizational structure by institutional leaders' decision affect individuals on campus and it also shifts their specific academic climates (Cartwright and Cooper, 1996). At the point, the role of top management team who participate the merging negotiation is crucial to settle down causal conflicts among campus members and any improperly framed implementation of merging process by top decision makers often distort common merging goals (Pondy and Huff, 1983). In addition, the perceptions of staff who are engaged in the process empower top decision makers and identifies for possible merging with other institution (Hay & Fourje, 2002). In many case, the view of institutional leader and subordinate staff perspective toward organizational merging tend to have a certain cognitive gaps and it causes one of reason to fail for successful outcome after merging. The careful consideration of staff fears is important to ensure the effective merging (Hay & Fourje, 2002).While the college merging is related to high costs in economic, curriculum and human resource components, there are little systematic planning and evaluation under the strict financial constraint (Stewart, 2003). College and universities do not have may experience to merge each other rather than the private sector and they can learn different merging strategies from the outside. In this aspect, the role of external stakeholders are important. Such as government and external interest groups have participated the different feature of organizational merging case over time. The external groups contribute to create effective managerial strategies for resource allocation for consistent merging outcome (Stensaker, Persson, & Pinheiro, 2016). In sum, the alignment among key internal campus members including institutional leader and external stakeholders are important to create better merging outcomes (Christensen & Laegreid, 1998; Laegreid, Opedal, & Stigen, 2005). It is a kind of collaboration between private-centered strategies and the protection of public values such as educational mission for both partners of college merging. The groups should clarification of specific organizational conditions and support for flexible merging environments.

Merging between higher education institutions are collaboration of each stakeholder on both side and it requires to share the unified common values under the decision making process.

Each knowledge and academic climate that have accumulated at independent institution is complex and should be careful to manage it on the merging process. If the required knowledge for institutional merging is complicated, the strong connection between campus members provide a possibility to spend much time and resources rather than weak ties among them (Hansen, 1999). When each institution consider to merge, the unnecessary information to share has harmful impact for the process. In this aspect, the level of interconnection between campus members does not guarantee the positive effect for the merging process and it makes institution to manage the internal cohesion difficult. Xu (1999) mathematically shows that if the distinct groups share specific values together, it creates a normality of entire mechanism. The finding supports the shared values between institutions provide the background to merge at some point and the negotiable institutional clues for better output. While the institutions consider to share each knowledge and skills for the common goals, the cultural barriers hamper them from accepting opposite characteristics In order to make common values on the merging process, McDermott and O'Dell (2001) argue that institutions that consider to merge should know diverse information, such as each organizational styles, networking, and the human resource characteristics. They suggest that those practices help institution develop their merging strategies to create innovative cooperation between them based on shared values. The shared values contribute to manage each resources more effectively and to make the better performance in the long run. Harman (2002) emphasize that the leaders of merging institutions consider their internal structures under the view of sociocultural dimension. The merging system needs more tighter cultural integration to share each core value and diverse external interventions to resolve potential cultural conflicts are essential for the newly created institution. The shared values include the broadly accepted attitude, condition, and welfare as well as trust, rewards, communication (Al-Alawi, Al-Marzoogi, & Mohammed, 2007). The cognitive understanding each other is the first step to create new values for merging institution and to have accurately assess their own abilities. The personal cohesion under common goal allow the organizational members to make a belief for better performance. Based on the cognitive cooperation with members, the perceived notion and image by members' capabilities for observing the institutional negotiation interact with each other for proper merging framework (Behthem, Gerbrandy, Hoshi, & Pacuit (2009). In addition, institutional leaders have a responsibility to manage the inherent stresses and tensions under the merging process and create new institutional values with campus members. They manage the campus member's relation to promote positive, empowering and transparent organizational culture and facilitate the effective structure of future institution (Schultz, 2009). The managed human resources share each experience, value, and accumulated knowledge together and the power of management buffer the expected organizational turmoil through the merging process.

Analysis of the Merger's Behavior for Successful Institutional Integration

While institutions that consider to merge each other want to make successful output from the merging process, prior research shows that it is not easy to accomplish. Different factors around the merging process affect each status of negotiation and sometimes distort the intended agreement for better performance. Klagge (1995) mentions that the organizational integration chases two goals: unity and diversity. The balance between two goals are not easy to have and it requires comprehensive structural formulation and shared purposes (Follett, 1987). In order to make the successful institutional integration, the behavior of the mergers should be

considered for two aspects; internal integration and partnership. While the internal integration focus on the management of human resources or structure within organization, the partnership is connected with the partners who make a negotiation for merging process. With external components that have effect to the merging process, those factors should be considered by the main mergers for better output. From the pre-merger identification to post-merger identification is closely aligned with the background of dominated organization (Knippenberg, Knippenberg, Monden, & Lima, 2002) and each merger takes an action to take better benefit through the merging process. The pre-merger stage begins the decision to merge with other institution, but the public announcement to internal members are not opened. In this stage, the institutional leader and human resource manager need to map out the detailed plans of action to meet collaborative cultural background for accepting the merging process to internal members (Allelbaum, Gandell, Yortis, Proper, & Jobin, 2000). The management of internal members within organization start from the understanding of each identity and it follows the structural assimilation of two cultures (Berry, 1983). Through the proper intervention of main merger to manage internal members, the culture, image and identity is imbued for cultural integration as a preparatory step of merging process. After the internal cohesion by the merger, each institution can exchange their own values or share common goals based on productive merging climate. In order to avoid any confusion or distortion between institutions, it takes a time to assimilate internal members in the merged entity (Covin, Kolenko, Sightler, & Tudor, 1997). In this aspect, each needs more detailed timelines and corporate works for better output. They sometimes experience opinion gaps or conflict to take more portions of potential benefits from the merging. For example, the more big institutions try to absorb the specialty of smaller school only without any sharing resources. On the other hand, the small school choose the merging with big school to avoid any institutional bankruptcy in the competitive market and still exist ineffectiveness of internal structure. The merging between similar schools remain more complicated process to negotiate which part can be survived between similar functional groups. In this aspect, each institutional leader play a key role to derive better merging outcomes based on internal and external collaboration.

The internal discussion between campus members

Internal members with in merging institution experience change of their attitude on the merging process. According to Kubler-Ross (1969), they express their stress and concern through the four stages in chronical order. The first stage is to deny the current situation. The members may consider that the merging will not come out to their institution or stop the negotiation with their partner. They tend to continue their current work without any change and want to avoid any kind of interruption from external factors. After then, they feel anger when the merging is not avoidable. They start to express their unpleasant mind to their institution or partner and sometimes they grouped voice to affect the merging process. Based on the concern of the internal members create some bargaining for unrealistic expectation to protect their core power or values. Final stage is acceptance of the current merging situation. When they realize the merging will take place, they start to prepare the upcoming changes. Institutional leader has a responsibility to manage the entire stage of internal member's change. Higher education institution has a special characteristics rather than the ordinary organization. While the detailed mission is different from their institutional type, they tend to reveal their organizational goals based on different kind of public values such as improving equality, educating social justice, training future workers for better society through educational service. In this aspect, the internal

members should share those values together and reflect it to their working place. But the institutional policy direction and personal interests are easily conflicted with each other because the individual values to pursuit often do not match the direction of institutional value. In the merging process, the situation is remarkable. Even though their personal values match the institutional mission, the merging process sometimes allows them to change their attitude in order to meet the newly created mission of merged institution. In this situation, they experience some frustration or anger to the change and gathered collective voice against the institutional merging direction. The collective voice makes internal pressure for institutional leader on the merging process and the leaders should keep in mind their complaint to resolve the internal turmoil. On the other hand, some of them think that the merging derives to take many positive result for their institution. They tend to support the institutional direction toward the change. Instead, they are interested in the change of specific merging structures when the institution negotiates with the partner. If they feel that the merging invades their own working climate or roles, they tend to change their attitude against the merging process. The differences between the attitudes of two groups for institutional merging come from the expectation of future outcomes after the change. The first group wants to continue their own institutional values and focus on their traditional academic climates. They also can consider that their current status is enough to maintain current institutional position in the higher education system, without any different change or external interruption. They concern the merging derives to make institutional conflicts between internal members and lose the direction of educational mission. The latter acknowledges that the merging is essential to revitalize their current status at some point. But they expect that the change should not change their existing boundary to work. Sometimes they differentiate their personal value with entire direction of institutional change. While it is necessary to manage the internal conflicts around merging, the finding of balance between two groups are tricky for institutional leader.

The internal engagement on the decision making process of merging negotiation is important for better institutional outcomes after the merging process. Bárcena-Ruiz and Garzón (2000) shows that the corporate merger requires the shared form of organizational structure which guarantees productive institutional output after the merging. This findings support that the comprehensive management of internal members in institution to create internal culture is essential for the merging process. Active intervention to the decision making process of the negotiation make an opportunity to listen different voices in the organization and the cohesion of decentralized mechanism create collective voice to the institutional leader who mainly execute the merging negotiation. When they participate the process for merging, the organizational identification for future structure generate their initial attitude on the process. Internal members recognize their organization based on their own experience or specific views. The accumulated perspectives within organization identify their organization at some point and the specialty causes to make a difference against their partner in term of internal structure. To be more specific, Bartel, Douwes, Jong, and Pruyn (2006) conduct which determinant is used to be explained their organizational identification. Those components include the identification of pre-merger organization, sense of continuity, expected utility, and communication climates. This reveals how the internal members accept their organizational images and provide some clues that how the right merging direction is going. According to the portion of continued workers from both institution, the dominant internal voice is determined and start to create the new internal voices. In this aspect, the cognitive merging of campus members is other important issue with structural, financial merging. The post-merger identification differ for involved

campus employees (Bartels et al, 2006) and the balance between quantitative agreement and empowerment of involvement on the merging process is one of the main roles of institutional leader for the merging negotiation. The hired individuals gradually adopt the norms and practice of organization (Turner, 1986; Hogg and Abrams, 1988). In this aspect, institutional leader should have the adjustment of potential conflicts from the gap between the institutional adoption and cognitive understanding of organizational image. The leader can buffer the potential shocks under the high organizational uncertainty based on more psychological support for internal members (Sousa & Dierendonck, 2014) or provide sufficient commitment to the members (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). In sum, the complex stream of conflicts between staffs within institutions during the merging should be managed for the better institutional change. The collaborative efforts to resolve the cognitive gaps between members contribute to induce the greater performance and entire well-being of the internal members (Sousa & Dierendonck, 2014).

The collaboration with partner

Based on the management of internal conflicts within the institution, the institutional leaders consider the collaboration with partner for better institutional merging. When they negotiate with partner, the mission unification and agreement for common educational goal is dealt as an important issue. Terry, Carey and Callan (2001) discuss the internal member adjustment during the merging process in terms of their organizational status at pre-merger time. They show that the employees of the each merging organization tends to respond differently toward the merging process because they perceive the institutional identity differently and interact with each other by their legitimacy way for in-group relation. Taifel (1975) supports that the cognitive difference between internal members about their status to be legitimate is likely to react to the potential threat of merging process more negatively than their counterpart. The dominant group members who consider their position is concrete after merging react in negative manner for the future that the power relationship between internal members may change (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). In this aspect, the institutional leaders stay on the stage that they should manage the mediating the potential conflicts between cognitive protection of existing internal members against upcoming change and different perspectives from the external merging partner (Mottola et al, 1997; Terry & Callan, 1998). The corporate management of institutional leader for internal members cover different institutional values, such as organizational justice, behavioral ethnics, and social responsibilities (Rupp, Wright, Aryee, & Luo, 2015). The structural pattern of merging process and management of relevant members by the main institutional leaders intertwined with each other. For unified institutional mission and educational purpose, the institutional leaders participates in the merging process and they negotiate it with the partner based on the collective voice from inside toward the change. Those process of cognitive integration reflect the expectation of the employees' potential benefits or threat (Schoennauer, 1967; Nayahandi & Malekzadey, 1988; Napier, 1989). Through the mechanism, the institutional leaders make a progress to create this strategic planning for merging in order to protect their own values or to persuade their institutional effectiveness toward partner.

In the merging process, the participants negotiate several issues to meet their own needs in diverse ways. They have a responsibility to redistribute the available resources within institutions and decide which part have a certain role to do in the newly merged institution. They overview the similarity or differences about individual structure of each institution and

the result of investigation make the reallocation of resources. In this aspect, the leader and member exchange each needs through the comprehensive meetings and the accumulated treatment for internal members by organizational support affect the relationship between leader and member at institution (Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). The interdependence between members expand the communication opportunity of merging process and allow the leaders to manage the organizational environment more effectively (Pfeffer, 1972). The available resources such as human capital, finances shares one merger with the others through sub-section meeting of entire merging process and the specialty of postsecondary institutions has a possibility to make well-organized hierarchy of institution in terms of academic specialty. Dauber and Fink (2008) emphasize the hybridization of the merging process for corporate cultures. Through diverse collaboration such as task forces, team matching, and negotiated knowledge migration, the institutions synthesize internal power with their partner. The leader's decision making style also play an important role to manage the available resources for the merged institutions and it should be matched with the partner's value orientation in the nonprofit institution (Golensky & DeRuiter, 2002). These factors affect the shaping of initial decision to merge as well as the formulation of entire process and have a function to evaluate the merging outcomes as a predictor of merger success.

Even though the institutions negotiate with each other for the shared values, the basic difference of attitude toward potential merging risks drive the mergers to make an agreement more difficult. The internal member's attitude toward the future merged structure of institution is conservative, they are likely to avoid potential hardship from the result of merging. They concern the interruptions from the structural change because it distracts the current working environment that they want to maintain. While the change has a possibility to improve the entire effectiveness of institution, there are some possibilities to affect their well-being level to stay current position negatively (Sidle, 2006). From the perspective of behavioral measures for internal members, the main player try to merge with others when the merging provide efficient and inexpensive way to operate their role in the society rather than their own play (Haspeslagh and Jamison, 1991). The risk-averse attitude of internal staff within institution reveal their negative attitude toward the merging process and carry out the collective voices why the merging is not beneficial in terms of comparison between current institutional advantages and vague returns from the merged institution. The cognitive differences from the different view derives more serious structural conflicts on the merging process rather than the technical gaps between institutions (Marks & Mirvis, 2010). The employees' expectation for equitable distribution of fruits from the merging process is one of the critical reason to agree the institutional merging. When the belief about future breaks down, the entire morale and productivity of merging process is drastically shaken (Singer & Yankey, 1991) and the voice of risk-averse members gain the practical power. The organizational changes inevitably derive to make the expectation about possible outcomes. However, the perfect forecasting toward future returns is almost impossible and proper interventions to resolve the cognitive gaps for following results between internal members is necessary. In this aspect, the sharing information about partners and support to individual whose careers are affect by the merging process become more important (Signer & Yankey, 1991). The response of internal members for the merging process come from the complex intergroup perspectives and the bias among employees affect an anticipated organizational merging output in different ways (Terry & Callan, 1998). The difference of social status between institutions based on reputation, ranking, and other indicators interact with individual group memberships and those diverse stage of combination

about two levels hamper the mergers from the entire agreement of merging process (Terry & O'Brien, 2001).

The external environments of the merging process

College and university are spaces for mixing various policy formation or organization changes (Bathmaker et al, 2008). Organizational changes are related to the external pressures as well as the internal dynamics. The stakeholders on campus face various mismanagement case as well (Cartwright et al, 2007). Those changes are not only the traditional perspectives of economic efficiency, but also come from the institutional adaptation and innovation (Dill, 1997). Curri (2002) also point out that there is a relationship between institutional leadership, organizational development, external pressure for changes, restructuring, and organizational change. Successful college merging is to enhance competitive advantages or mutual growth (Harman and Harman, 2008) and to offer greater student diversity and increase student quality (Harman and Meek, 2002). The college merging trends are sometimes viewed as socio-cultural issues. Institutional leaders adopt diverse strategies and try to create integrated campus cultures in the merging period (Harman, 2002), and the newly merged campus has an important role in resolving various cultural conflicts within higher education institutions.

When the institution considers the merging with others, diverse environmental factors including social, economic, and political effects play a significant role to the direction of merging behavior. Under the competitive higher education system, institutional leader who want to merge with others get their own market status based on their price. The price is related to diverse indicators, such as tuition, financial aids, and other living expenses for the education. When the participants experience the merging process with their partner, how they decide their merged price in terms of economic perspectives are essential to optimize their resource allocation under the unified structure. The market-oriented price often reflects the institutional effectiveness or competency in the higher education system and generate a certain financial signal for potential students. Through the price setting of institution, the merged institution can create another market based on broaden boundary of educational service. On the other hand, the decision of internal price is another important issue within the institution. The internal members on campus have experienced the change of their income under their own institutional climates. The different policy and salary cap make a difference between the worker's attitudes on the merging process. In order to avoid unnecessary conflicts of the internal members, institutional leaders should provide the unified direction of their payment for their work. Those internal and external view of price matching support the merging process more practically. Meanwhile, the diverse political environments affect the merging process, as well. McLendon et al (2009) indicate that state political systems and institutions affect government spending for higher education. Higher education is still restricted by the government (Kim and Lee, 2006), and diverse interest groups in state affect the state fiscal policy for higher education systems (Tandberg, 2010). The range of governance structure is connected with the bureaucratic autonomy (Jicholson-Crotty and Meier, 2003). From the political perspective, the merger handles different political interaction with the partners by unified standards and the institutions form their internal structure and educational mission in response to the external needs who affect significantly. While the reason to consider the state needs are related to the financial support for public institution, the private school may lock in the private sector or individual supporters who support the institutional budget.

**The Merger's Approaches for Successful Merging Strategy**

There are different components that affect institutional changes. As one of the significant factors, institutional financing can cause reformation of their structures. Johns (2003) mentions state spending for higher education have to increase quicker than the state spending for other sources, in order to maintain current service level. This mechanism gets institutions to consider their budget changes. The increasing of tuition level at institution is to respond to the shrinking state supports (Kane et al, 2003; Koshal and Koshal, 2000). In order to achieve a stronger financing structure, Weerts and Ronca (2006) emphasize the importance of partnerships between institutions and private industry.

Recent studies reveal the mixed-form of higher education institutions. In order to survive in the higher education market, the institutions avoid prior passive conversion strategies and show the cooperation of external forces. Non-profit and public institutions attempt to change their functions and range of control in competitive market conditions, and some division of the organizations are interdependent with external company (Bonnie et al, 2011). According to Bleikille (1998), the U.S higher education system experienced the periods of predominant idealism that emphasizes academic freedom. He argues that current higher education system is described by functionalism and rationalism as time goes on. Functionalism is that postsecondary education institutions are a part of society's cultural system (Parsons and Platt, 1973; Ben-David, 1991). Rationalism is defined as "necessary tension between routine-which usually characterizes applied and problem-oriented research-and spontaneity, an innate quality of all genuine research, becomes problematic within an individualist capitalist system but may be solved given adequate socio-political conditions" (Bleikille, 1998). College merging behaviors based on those perspectives with environmental factors and the institutional changes follow the complicated decision making process within the organization. Bolta (2001) points out that the merging for higher education needs to consider two concepts: structural model and process model. While structural models are divided into several concepts based on level of decentralized power, the range of administrative responsibility, and functions, process models are based on a short list of merging steps between mergers in higher education. The structural model decides the location of individual function within each institution, according to organizational mission. On the other hand, the process model emphasizes the agreement between the mergers. In the structural model, there are three concepts: confederal structure, federal structure, and unitary structure. The classification mainly depends on how the institutional role is divided into two institutions. While the confederal structure is a formalized figure and focuses on baseline of mutual consent to collaborate, unitary structures make a single institution with one centralized administration. In the middle of the reforms, the federal structure mandate their powers and functions. In sum, the characteristics of college merging depend on how the institutional function reorganizes within the merged organization. Gornizka (1999) emphasizes that the resource-dependency and neo-institutionalism are important roles to evaluate the merged institution's specialty. The internal dynamics of organization and governmental policies intertwine with each other, and the policy effects have changed over time.

From the above theoretical frameworks and considered strategies for successful merging, this paper suggests three practices to execute. First of all, internal cohesion between members within institution is important to make unified merging direction. The understanding of individual cognitive attitude toward the merging process and detailed negotiation with them for

practical change such as succession of employment, salary, and reallocation of their position in the merged institution is necessary. Institutional leader should consider the interactions and relationships with their employees to manage potential conflicts from inside. Many scholars already have emphasize the importance of communication through the merging process (Levinson, 1976; Knippenberg et al., 2002; Al-Alawi et al., 2007) and the clear delivery of information on the negotiation help the mergers avoid any confusion of decision making process. Second, the institutional leader need to create credible partnership for successful merging process. During the merging negotiation, two institution experiences diverse interest conflicts and exchange both opinion from their own position. When they make an agreement for unified organization, the credible relationship between them guarantee the cooperation for continuous negotiations (Sorin,1999; Martin & Samels, 2002). The credible strategy in the repeated game like the merging negotiation contribute to build each optimal choice and it drives to improve entire social welfare. The one of the social responsibility for higher education system is to respond the external needs and in this aspect, the socially optimal agreement between two mergers create reasonable structures of merged institution in the society. With the mediating internal and external cooperation, the institutional leader should buffer the potential pressure to protect the common values. Unlike normal private firms, the postsecondary institutions should respond more public values such as equality to the public even though private institutions have more freedoms to execute their policy. The institutions still have a responsibility to provide diverse educational services and administration to meet urgent educational needs or important national agenda. But, the leaders also consider to maintain their institutional uniqueness to differentiate their reputation or images with others because the differentiation is one of the best way to survive under recent shrinking state appropriations. In this aspect, institutional leaders who consider to merge with others play a key role on the merging process as a mediator. Figure 1 shows the proposed conceptual model for successful institutional merging.

Figure 1. Conceptual model for successful institutional merging
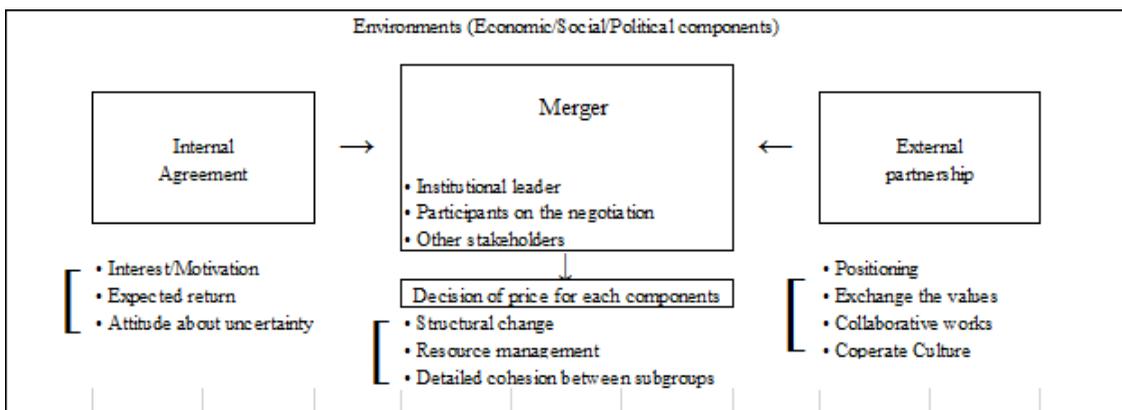
In sum, the mergers should execute diverse roles on the merging process. Their engagement on the process is connected with different contexts such as policy, economics, psychology, and

other social needs. They can use the concept of price when they negotiate with the partner for institutional agreement about detailed parts and mediate the difference of practical needs.

Discussion

When the institution merges with another organization, the internal structure of organization may experience different demands and conflicts from outside, and the close investigation for institutional system is required. In response to the characteristics of the college merging figure, scholars in the organization research area uses different terminologies. Chambers and Lacey (1994) defined merger as "the combination of two firms into a single," and Gitman (1991) explains it as "the combination of two or more firms, in which the resulting firm maintains the identity of one of the firms, usually the larger one." He also defined the consolidation as "the combination of two or more firms to form a completely new corporation" (Gitman, 1991). According to Bolta (2001), collaboration/co-operation is "working together on a specific project over a limited period of time." The combination between institutions are defined as "the notion of combination ... to include a variety of arrangements, including not only mergers but also program and infrastructural collaboration" (NPHE, 2001). As an emerging notion for college merging behavior, affiliation is regarded as a "financial arrangement within a merger" (Martin and Samels, 1994). This paper describes how the merger cope with the upcoming issues on the merging process for successful outcome. As prior studies defined, the merging is complex process which have different voices around institutional negotiation between stakeholders. From the management of internal conflicts to external negotiation with partners, the main decision maker on the merging process has diverse roles for successful collaboration.

Current higher education institutions are facing various external challenges such as pressures for effective student outcomes, complicated institutional requirements from the government, and demographic changes. It is difficult to define and give an example of a successful college merging. College merging behaviors focus on changing organizational structures at some point, and there are some advantages and disadvantages for each organizational structure. Those characteristics of merging behavior relate to the speed of decision making process, resource allocation, and curriculum issues (Verhoeven, 2014). Mcbain (2009) mentioned that "based on the range of merging coverages, each merging institution has different roles and responsibilities by sectors; research, service, administration, support." The effective merging plan is helpful in creating long-term strategic planning for institutional leaders. The balance between internal decision making and external components is important, in order for each institution to survive in current competitive market conditions. Those various college merging behaviors are still useful for higher education stakeholders who consider institutional effectiveness and efficiency and give some implications which components should be dealt in the negotiation.

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