

Journal of Higher Education Management

Volume 29, Number 1 (2014)

EMERGING ORGANIZATIONAL ISSUES IN HIGHER EDUCATION

A Collection of Articles Authored by Graduate
Students at Auburn University

PUBLISHED BY

AAUA

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF
UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATORS

Journal of Higher Education Management

Volume 29, Number 1 (2014)

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EDITOR'S INTRODUCTION TO THE SPECIAL ISSUE ON "EMERGING ORGANIZATIONAL ISSUES IN HIGHER EDUCATION"

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Courses that focus on higher education organizational issues have been taught over the last 120 years. During that span of time, postsecondary education has expanded both in the United States of America and internationally. With a variation of institutional types, such as small private liberal arts institutions, community colleges, and large public research universities and institutions serving special populations such as Minority Serving institutions and Women's colleges, there is no shortage of organizational issues that can be researched and reviewed.

This special issue was birthed out of my desire to allow my students to have an opportunity to be introduced, not only to the theoretical and conceptual constructs in the field of higher education, but to be exposed to the rigor of the peer-review writing process early in their graduate programs. I had met many students who entered into their higher education graduate preparation programs that were very uncomfortable with engaging in research. I believe that part of this was due to the fact that they were not exposed to research early in their programs and did not have any adequate opportunities to engage in the research process.

In order to provide this type of experience, I had the students in my spring 2014 course entitled "Organizational Issues in Higher Education" conduct research on a topic of their choice and write a publishable article about what they found. Instead of them having them write the typical final paper and/or taking a multiple-choice exam, I wanted them to engage in a process that would hone their research and writing skills. I believed such an opportunity would be something that they would never forget.

I initiated this special issue with no certainty regarding its outcome. This was my first time teaching this course and it was the first time almost all of the students have written for a peer-reviewed journal. I am proud of each student's progress through this writing experience and I hope that is the first of many times that they engage in the peer-review process. However, we had various individuals that assisted us along the way including, Mr. Todd Shipman, Educational Librarian at Auburn University and Talia Carroll, Editor of *Higher Education in Review*. Their insights regarding the peer-reviewed writing process proved to be invaluable, for which all of us say, "Thank you. "

In the first article, Martin reviews enrollment data and literature on critical race theory to justify the need for more exploration of the social experiences of African American undergraduate students graduating from five predominantly White institutions in the southern United States, including her own institution Auburn University. This study is unique in that it offers insights into the current state of African American undergraduate student enrollment and their experiences at similar institutions. However, the most important contribution that this paper makes to the literature in the field is that it provides recommendations informed and substantiated by concrete data to help Auburn University and other southern institutions move in a direction that not only works to ensure a culturally diverse campus, but also can serve to foster social inclusion.

Henley, in the second article in this special issue, helps the reader to think about one of the most important issues in higher education today, the rising cost of a college education. His paper appropriately reviews how college costs have risen dramatically over recent decades in the United States of America. Henley shares how many in American society have begun to question the value of a college degree. This is all discussed in light of what he describes as a “college bubble,” which provides a relevant lens through which to see how the phenomena of rising college cost is impacting American families, and perhaps the future of America and its higher education institutions.

In the third article, Golden guides the reader through an important, pressing and relevant organizational issue that is affecting higher education executive offices across the country, succession planning. This has become a challenging issue as the majority of college and university presidents in the United States of America are close to retirement age or retirement eligible. Golden strategically utilizes Henri Foyal’s conceptual framework on succession planning to help higher education boards and senior leaders think through ways in which they can develop planning documents that can anticipate leadership change. She believes that mentoring, coaching and leadership development programs can help institutions prepare for institutional change that will occur in the future.

Lightfoot, in the fourth article, discusses one of the most controversial organizational issues in modern higher education, intercollegiate athletics. In particular, he examines how student-athletes balance their academic responsibilities along with pressures to be great in athletics. This paper articulates the stress student-athletes have and provides tangible examples of ways in which institutions of higher learning can provide the support to help them balance their lives throughout their college experience. He provides a powerful contribution to the existing literature by recommending how faculty can assist student-athletes with being successful in both the classrooms and on the fields or floors of play.

The fifth paper is written by Cosby and addresses one of the most important issues in student affairs, academic advising. She explores how the expectations of most of today’s traditional students differ from their predecessors and delves into why some of them seem to be generally unhappy with the advising services that they’re provided with. She also goes on to astutely answer the following questions: What exactly is the role of an advisor? How can advisors’ relationships with students be improved? And what kind of advising practices are most conducive for student learning?

In the sixth article, Conradson discusses the positive and negative role that Outsourcing has played in higher education institutions. The paper posits that outsourcing could continue to impact the higher education environment into the future. He reviews successful and failed outsourcing attempts of many colleges and universities. Because the outsourcing of academic services is still in its infancy, Conradson’s analysis of this resource management approach provides an important contribution to higher education literature in this area.

McGhee, in the seventh paper, uses a mixed methods (qualitative and quantitative) research approach to answer research questions related to student and administration perceptions of “effective” student services spending habits. Some of the results of the study are counterintuitive to the expected trend. He was able to identify the outlying schools and examine the student/administrative perceptions of student services roles at their institution. While the notion of examining student services spending and effectiveness measured by retention/grades is not a new concept, the proposed study utilized a fresh tactic by identifying these outliers to examine them with a deeper qualitative approach.

The eighth article is written by Nelson and explores the challenges Doctor of Philosophy’s (PhD’s) students encounter when they either choose to or are forced to seek employment in the non-academic or non-tenure setting. Nelson focuses on several academic areas as these challenges present themselves to PhD graduates with degrees from liberal arts programs, as well as from science and engineering programs. PhD’s from countries outside the United States are included as they also encounter similar employment challenges

when seeking non-academic or non-tenure careers. Other challenges and motivators, such as the importance of spending time with one's family, work-life balance, and the realization that academic positions may be less desirable than previously thought, are also addressed. Nelson also explains the rationale behind a PhD's exploration of non-academic positions, such as the lack of budgetary support for certain departments within a university or an overabundance of PhD's who seek a limited number of tenure-track positions. This research makes a unique contribution to the existing literature as it outlines successful career pathways within the non-academic environment.

In the last article, McConner examines the past and current gender inequality and racism experienced by Black women in leadership and faculty roles in higher education within the United States. There has been a history of discriminatory practices that have affected women of color, specifically Black women, at various colleges and universities. The three higher education leadership positions that were examined are president, dean, and faculty. The conceptual framework used in this paper gives an analysis of what core issues need to be addressed. The conceptual framework also outlines how to change institutionalized practices that effect the recruitment, hiring, and retention of Black women as administrators and faculty. McConner addresses a critical issue in American higher education and provides steps regarding ways that Black women can successfully advance into academic leadership.

I hope that this special issue of JHEM will stimulate conversations regarding important organizational issues in higher education. Also, it is my hope that the practical information discussed in this series of articles will be useful in solving the issues identified by these papers. We express our deepest appreciation to those who have been helpful in this project, including those mentioned earlier, Mr. Todd Shipman and Talia Carroll. And a special thanks to Dr. Dan L. King, President and CEO of the American Association of University Administrators and his team of reviewers who provided this valuable experience and saw this project through to printing.

FIFTY YEARS AFTER INTEGRATION: HAVE WE OVERCOME?

AMANDA L. MARTIN

Journal of Higher Education Management 29(1) [2014], pp. 4-15.

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In a hotel ballroom on January 21st, 2014, attendees stood, held hands, and sang “We Shall Overcome” during part of Auburn’s tribute to Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. and a yearlong celebration of fifty years of integration at Auburn University. The university welcomed honored guests including some of Auburn’s first African-American students: Harold Franklin, Samuel Pettijohn, Willie Wyatt Jr. and Anthony Lee, as well as retired federal judge U.W. Clemon and civil rights attorney Fred Gray (Franklin, Pettijohn, Wyatt, Lee, Clemon, & Gray, 2014). This group shared personal stories of triumphs and tribulations on campus during the 1960’s and painted a clear picture of what campus was like during the initial period of integration. Other universities like, University of Georgia, held similar celebrations honoring African Americans for their courage in breaking the color barrier. This event brought to light questions regarding the cultural climate at Auburn, fifty years later. Has progress been made in developing a campus climate that celebrates all forms of diversity? Have predominantly White institutions in the southern United States made significant strides in developing a diverse student and faculty body? Have we “overcome”?

Numerous studies have examined the educational experiences of African American students, graduate students, and alumni (D’Augelli & Hershberger, 1993; Ellis, 2001; Engberg, 2004; Feagin, 1992; Gasman, Gerstl-Pepi, Gurin, Dey, Hurtado, & Gurin, 2002; Nettles & Millett, 2006). These studies show the social experiences of African American students on college campuses are very different than those of White students. The majority of these studies focus on undergraduate students currently enrolled in college (D’Augelli & Hershberger, 1993; Feagin, 1992; Nettles & Millett, 2006). Other studies have focused on graduate student experiences (Davidson & Foster-Johnson, 2001; Dowdy, Givens, Murillo, Shenoy, & Villenas, 2000; Ellis, 2001; Steele, 1999), but there is a lack of substantial research regarding undergraduate students who have graduated from predominantly White institutions, specifically in the southern states. Antonio (2003) explained that “students of color have made significant strides in gaining access to higher education over the past twenty years—progress so great that White students are no longer the majority on many campuses”. This is definitely not a reflective statement of southern Land Grant Institutions of higher education, as with Auburn University where over 80% of the undergraduate enrollment is White and similar institutions like University of Georgia and Louisiana State University are close in comparison (Auburn University, Office of Institutional Research and Assessment (OIRA); University of Georgia, Office of Institutional Research; Louisiana State University, Office of Budget and Planning). A separate study by Johnson-Bailey, Valentine, Cervero, and Bowles (2009), is based on a southern institute of higher education, but only takes into consideration alumni of

graduate programs. Although these results are relevant and important, they do not address the experiences of alumni of undergraduate programs.

This review examines related research to make the case that further study is warranted to better understand the cultural climate of a predominantly White southern institution fifty years after integration. Although diversifying enrollment is a priority in the 2013-2018 Auburn University strategic plan, ensuring students find a positive and welcoming climate when they arrive on campus is also important and worthy of more research. Positive student experiences have a significant impact on performance and completion for African American students (Astin, 1982; Tinto, 1975). This fact is extremely important when it comes to recruitment of students. A review of research offers insight into the current state of African American undergraduate student enrollment and their experiences at similar institutions. However, little is known regarding how these studies compare to the current state of affairs at Auburn University. The following sections will address a brief historical background of segregation and integration in the south, enrollment data of undergraduate students at Land Grant Institutions in the south, review of previous related research, a focus on future research, and conclusion. These findings could move the university in a direction that not only works to ensure a culturally diverse campus but also ensures social inclusion.

History of Integration

On May 17, 1954, a unanimous decision was handed down by the United States Supreme Court, to end legal racial segregation in public schools. The purpose of this decision was to end segregation throughout the entire country but as history recounts, this was not the case. In the south, there was much resistance to *Brown vs. Board of Education*; many school districts did not implement the desegregation policies until many years after 1954 (Culpepper, 2002). At the higher education institutions in the south, universities were also slow in accepting the decision of the United States Supreme Court, in Alabama it was almost ten years after the decision before the first African American student was admitted (Culpepper, 2002). The summer of 1963 was an overwrought time in the United States with racial tensions, especially within the south. This would be the year in which Governor George Wallace in his inaugural address stated: "segregation now, segregation tomorrow, segregation forever" (Culpepper, 2002, p. 122). Later that same year on June 11, 1963 at the University of Alabama campus in Tuscaloosa, two African American students, Vivian Malone and James A. Hood, arrived on campus to attend class. In what is known as the "Stand in the Schoolhouse Door," Governor Wallace stood in the doorway as federal authorities tried to allow the students to enter, nearly ten years after desegregation (Culpepper, 2002). Violence also brewed in other areas of the country and the day after Wallace's standoff, civil rights leader Medgar Evers was assassinated in Jackson, Mississippi. Johnson-Bailey *et al* (2009) describes that with the history of integration, African American people in United States, especially in the southern United States, have a complex view of their state universities:

They know that from the time their flagship state universities were chartered in the late 1700s to the time that these institutions were desegregated in the 1960s, a span of more than 170 years, these schools were bastions of White privilege. Southern Blacks know all too well about the forced desegregation which took place in the early 1960s, involving riots, bloodshed, and martyrs (Culpepper, 2002; Eubanks, 2003). These universities from which Blacks were long excluded were supported by public money, much of which originated from an economic system of capitalism undergirded by slave labor and the exploitation of free Blacks during the Jim Crow Era (Johnson-Bailey, J., Valentine, T., Cervero, R. M., & Bowles, T. A., 2009, p. 178).

It has been fifty years since institutions like Auburn University integrated to promote opportunity for all people, regardless of race. Although the higher education institutions opened their doors, some areas of the south are still slowly moving towards integration. Tienda discusses an example:

For as much progress that has been made towards integration at the societal level, even today there are communities where an integrated high school prom is a new idea. Take Wilcox County, Georgia, where at the initiative of two White and two Black students, the high school this year sponsored its first integrated prom after decades of separate proms (Brown 2013). Since Georgia schools were desegregated in the 1970s, Wilcox County school officials turned blind eyes to the persisting practice of segregated proms because they were private, invitation-only affairs organized by their parents. In 2004, Toombs County Georgia also made national news when it sponsored three proms—one Black, one White, and one Latino (Tienda, 2013, p. 472).

If an example like this is considered the “norm” to students that experience this social sanctioned separation in a high school setting, do the students internalize this permitted segregation and allow it to follow them into a higher education setting? Could the cultural climate of the south still be impacting students’ enrollment choices before they even choose to attend an institution like Auburn University?

The climate of the higher education institutions of the south are not the turbulent and sometimes violent places they were fifty years ago but the history of segregation is something that will always be engrained in the past and sometimes in the present. There has not been a substantial amount of research focused on measuring the student experiences in this specific geographical area of the country to make a sound statement of the experiences of undergraduate African American students at the southern Land Grant Institutions (Johnson-Bailey, J., Valentine, T., Cervero, R. M., & Bowles, T. A., 2009). While progression to make a safe and welcoming campus environment for African American students since the turbulent 1960’s has come a long way, where are we?

Enrollment and Faculty Representation

Despite the past obstacles African Americans faced in higher education, the majority of African American students now attend predominantly White institutions and have done so since the 1970s (Bowen & Bok, 1998; Nettles, 1988). It is important to review the trends of enrollment at universities and examine the ethnic diversity of the student enrollment and faculty over time. For this paper, the focus will be on the African American student and faculty representations at five southern Land Grant Institutions. The enrollment trends can provide empirical data to gauge where southern institutions are currently in terms of diversity in undergraduate enrollment and also in terms of faculty diversity on campus. In the following section, data has been gathered for Land Grant Institutions in the South that are comparable to Auburn University. Data was obtained through utilizing the various universities offices of institutional research data resources and also census data from the United States government. This data includes: undergraduate enrollment from 2001-2013 for each institution (with a focus on African American undergraduate enrollment in comparison to total undergraduate enrollment), recent census data from 2012 for undergraduate enrollment and African American student undergraduate enrollment in each Land Grant institution’s state, and the faculty demographics (African American faculty represented at each institution).

Enrollment Trends of African American Undergraduate Students at Four Year Institutions

Showcasing this data can highlight some important empirical information on enrollment trends of African American students in institutions that are similar to Auburn University. Studying this data may also raise additional questions on what other universities are working towards in terms of diversity initiatives not only in their student body but also at the faculty level, including African American students and faculty. As Dumas-Hines (2001) said, “If universities truly desire to be reflective of a multicultural society, then each university must begin to collect and analyze data regarding its own campus and cultural diversity.”

The enrollment numbers of Land Grant Institutions surrounding Auburn University have been highlighted: Louisiana State University, Mississippi State University, University of Georgia and University of

Florida. These schools were chosen because of their geographical location and the distinction of being the Land Grant University of each of the states. In the graph, undergraduate enrollment data is displayed over thirteen years from 2001-2013 (with the exception of University of Florida's 2013 enrollment as it has not yet been released). The numbers represented in Table 1 provide the percentage of African American students that make up the total undergraduate student body at each institution each year (See Table 1 in Appendix A for enrollment numbers).

The data displayed in Table 1 shows Auburn University and University of Georgia with the lowest undergraduate enrollment of African American students over the thirteen year period. Although the total undergraduate university enrollment of Auburn University has increased by 9.23% from 2001 to 2011, it seems the enrollment of African American students has been almost stagnant. Although the University of Georgia's African American enrollment is comparably low, the enrollment for this group has increased by over 2% in the past thirteen years. Louisiana State University has also experienced an increase over this time period. Mississippi State's undergraduate enrollment is almost double that of Louisiana State University throughout the past thirteen years. When comparing institutions like Auburn University and University of Georgia, this data highlights why it is important to gain a better understanding of why the undergraduate African American student enrollment is low in comparison with other similar Land Grant institutions in the south and even outside of this geographical location.

It is also important to highlight the recent undergraduate enrollment numbers at each of the institutions highlighted from Table 1. In fall 2012, higher education institutions enrolled 18.2 million undergraduate and 2.9 million graduate students. Of the 18.2 million undergraduates, 58 percent were enrolled in 4-year institutions, 40 percent in 2-year institutions, and two percent in less-than-2-year institutions (Ginder, S.A., and Kelly-Reid, J.E., 2013). Of the 18.2 million undergraduates, 7.5% or 1,360,832 were African American students enrolled in 4-year institutions. The data listed in Table 2 provides the African American college student enrollment data within the southern states that are highlighted from Table 1 for 2012 (See Table 2 in Appendix B for African American College Student Enrollment in 2012).

When considering there are over one million African American students in the United States attending 4-year institutions and only 1.72% of those students are represented at these five Land Grant Institutions, the student enrollment disproportion is plainly evident. These students are choosing to enroll in other institutions outside of the realm of the well-established Land Grant Institutions of the south. In addition to the overall data, University of Georgia, University of Florida, and Auburn University show the lowest percentage of African American students choosing to enroll in their institutions based on the African American student population enrolled in 4-year universities in each of their states.

This data shows that African American students are represented in higher education institutions in the south but are not proportionally represented at Land Grant Institutions. Auburn University and the Office of Diversity and Multicultural Affairs at Auburn University have implemented strategic plans to work towards diversifying the student and faculty bodies, including underrepresented ethnic groups (Auburn University: *Strategic Diversity Plan Progress Report July 2012*). In reviewing this report, efforts have been made at the university and college levels in terms of creating awareness of diversity efforts on campus and fostering plans of action on all levels to develop targeted initiatives to promote diversity. Specific scholarships have been implemented for underrepresented students, diversity training for faculty and staff has been encouraged, and more targeted recruitment and retention efforts for both students and faculty of color have been established, but even with these efforts there is still a large gap in the enrollment of African American students and employment of African American faculty. As universities like Auburn try to move forward with plans of diversifying the student and faculty bodies, it is essential that research be conducted to determine the underlying reasons why African American students and faculty are choosing other institutions and what are the factors contributing to this choice.

As the country continues to change in terms of racial population, it is extremely important that institutions of higher education follow suite with these changes. The demographic make-up of the country will continue to shift and the child population is expected to change to have more ethnic minorities than Caucasians by 2050, if not earlier (Frey, 2011). With a university in 2013 that has 85.3% Caucasian enrollment, it is evident that Auburn University is still behind with the demographic trends of the country and even its own state. From the 2012 U.S. Census Bureau Report, the African American population made up 26.5% of the state's population (U.S. Census Bureau 2014).

Faculty Representation

In addition to the undergraduate student demographics, it is important to note the faculty demographics of these institutions. In Table 3, data was gathered to show the African American faculty representation at each of the universities (See Table 3 in Appendix C for data of African American faculty representation at the five institutions referenced in Tables 1 and 2). This information shows total full time faculty at each institution from 2001-2012 (some data was not available depending on how the university reported it) and what percentage of the faculty is made up by African American faculty members. In a study by Anthony Antonio, he discusses possible strategies to diversify the professoriate and retain faculty of color, and the connection between diverse faculty and diverse student bodies. Antonio highlights a book by C.S. Turner and S.L. Meyers Jr. and sites that one of the factors that contributed to the campus climate for faculty of color was having too few minorities on campus (Antonio, 2003). In addition, other studies suggest research on diversity of faculty members points to the role of institutional culture, climate, and mission in both hiring and retention and how this is correlated with the environment that is created for students (Smith, Wolf, L.E. Busenberg, B., & Associates, 1996). It is also important to note reasons that could contribute to underrepresentation of African American faculty members, as this could correlate with diversity of faculty and students on campus. Anthony Antonio (2002) references several factors from previous research that may contribute to slow growth and underrepresentation of minority faculty members, these factors include: a small and decreasing pool of minority PhDs, disproportionate tenure rates and rates of pretenure departure, the persistence of racist perceptions on institutional and individual levels that restrict access and impede the professional progress of faculty of color, the devaluation of the qualifications of minority PhDs not trained in the most elite, prestigious colleges, and the difficulties of surviving in a predominantly white academy due to poor mentoring, disproportionate advising and service loads stemming from frequently being the only faculty of color in a department, an isolating work environment, and the lack of scholarly recognition given to research focusing on ethnic minority populations.

The data for African American faculty members of the southern institutions highlighted in this paper is closely reflective of the undergraduate population in that numbers seem very low with little change or fluctuations throughout the years. It is interesting to note that University of Georgia, which had one of the lowest African American student enrollments over the years sampled, has the highest percentage of African American faculty representation. Mississippi State University on the other hand had the highest percentage of African American undergraduate students and yet did not have an exponentially growing rate of faculty members. In terms of both undergraduate enrollment and faculty employment at an institution like Auburn University, where 26.5% of the population in the state is African American, there is still significant progress to be made in terms of African American racial diversity on campus.

Previous Research

It has long been proven that African American college students have very different experiences than that of their White peers. Johnson-Bailey, Valentine, Cervero and Bowles (2009) refer to a study by Allen (1988), in which 60% of the Black students he surveyed had encountered racism (verbal insults and negative

attitudes) during their college years. As explained by Johnson-Bailey et-al, studies show Black students consistently believed that there was bias in grading (Allen, 1988; Engberg, 2004; Nettles, 1988; Swim, J., Hyers, L., Cohen, L., Fitzgerald, D., & Bylsma, W., 2003; Suarez-Balcazar, Orellana-Damacela, Portillo, Rowan, & Andrews-Guillen, 2003) and they felt they were invisible, unseen, or ignored on White campus (Carter, 2001; Feagin, 1992; Nettles, 1988). Other examples of research show African American students in predominantly White institutions often experience a lack of support and an unwelcoming academic climate (Pascarella, Edison, Nora, Hagedorn, & Terenzini, 1996; Schwitzer, Griffin, Ancis, & Thomas, 1999; Stone & Archer, 1990). With the most recent of these research samples being conducted over ten years ago, it is pertinent that continued research be devoted to this topic to measure the progression and any changes in African American student experiences. If research and results continue to show this unwelcoming and unsupportive environment for students still continuing today, university administrations should take action on how to successfully address this immediately.

When determining the role of cultural climate at a predominantly White institution for undergraduate African American students, a theory like critical race theory is often utilized. Critical race theory was used in setting the conceptual framework for the research by Johnson-Bailey, Valentine, Cervero and Bowles (2009). Critical race theory (CRT) was developed through legal studies seeking to analyze the effects of race and racism in the U.S. justice system (Delgado, 1995). In the 1970s, CRT emerged from the early work of Derrick Bell and Alan Freeman, who were unsatisfied with the slow pace of racial reform in the United States (Delgado, 1995; Ladson-Billings, 1998). CRT has expanded beyond its initial application in legal studies to become an effective theory to examine the field of education (Ladson-Billings, 1998). Johnson-Bailey, *et-al* explains that based on previous use “Two primary tenets of critical race theory are that the nature of race and racism are ever changing and that racism is not necessarily the product of biased actions, but can be the artifact of seemingly liberal, neutral or normed rules and actions” (p. 183). By utilizing critical race theory, it is accepted that experiences are legitimate sources for analysis. Hiraldo explains, “CRT can play an important role when higher education institutions work toward becoming more diverse and inclusive. For example, in a predominantly White institution simply working toward increasing the amount of students of color enrolled is an insufficient goal if institutional change is a priority. Examining the campus climate efforts to have culturally competent and diverse staff, faculty, and administrators is a more effective way of becoming more diverse and inclusive” (Hiraldo, 2010, p. 54). In the Johnson-Bailey, *et-al* research (2009), data was gathered from the African American students who graduated with a graduate or professional degree in the years of 1962-2003. The total pool used was 2,216 alumni with a response rate of 31%, resulting in 678 surveys that were properly completed. In addition to the standard Likert-style scale questions, open ended questions were also utilized. The overall result of the study is that the African American graduate students surveyed believed that their social experiences were significantly different from those of White graduate students.

This study provides a strong framework for an updated study to be conducted at another similar institution in the south to see if the results are consistent not only ten years later but also in a similar geographical setting. The study also chose to focus on alumni that were graduate students instead of undergraduate students. By choosing to use alumni of graduate programs, the pool of potential participants was limited to a small number. If alumni of undergraduate programs would be utilized the potential data pool could be larger to provide a broader picture of the campus climate. By using a small selective data pool, the scope of the data was limited to a very specific group’s experiences.

Implications for Policy and Practice

As the demographic make-up of the country continues to shift towards more ethnic minorities and universities like Auburn continue efforts of diversifying the undergraduate student body, it becomes even more relevant and important for the campus climate to be analyzed (Frey, 2011). As Hiraldo explains, “An

institution can aim to increase the diversity of the campus by increasing the number of students of color. However, if the institution does not make the necessary changes to make the campus climate inclusive, the institution will have a difficult time maintaining diversity” (Hiraldo, 2010, p. 54). The measure of campus climate at an institution like Auburn University can help direct the initiatives in place for all diversity focuses. Diversity should be a priority for universities in regards to both the student body and faculty and this in turn can promote many positive benefits as Antonio explains:

A diverse student body contributes to a positive campus climate for diversity, helping to create a more comfortable environment for faculty of color. Such a student body also sends faculty of color the message that their institution cares about diversity, including the diversity they themselves contribute to the community...Diversity in the student body helps to broaden the range of what is taught and how, and to develop opportunities for collaboration and the sharing of new ideas and pedagogies. The two most significant changes in course catalogs and curricular requirements in the past thirty years—the development of ethnic studies and multiculturalism—would not have occurred without student diversity (Antonio, 2003, p. 16).

Universities need to ensure there is a holistic plan in place when diversity initiatives are implemented and analyzed. Specifically when focused on African American students at a southern institution, it is important to gauge how the climate has changed and where more efforts need to be made. The first place to start with this plan would be to conduct a study focused on understanding the current state of the campus climate. From this study, data could be gathered to move forward and create strategic diversity initiatives to address any changes that should be implemented to alter the campus climate. In addition to the focus on campus climate, continued evaluation of the practices currently in place would be essential to determine what efforts are working and what needs to be changed, and universities like Auburn have already established offices focused on measuring the evaluation of these efforts.

Future Research

From previous studies and data, groundwork has been created to move forward in providing additional influential research to understand the current state of the campus climate for undergraduate African American students and faculty. “The university cannot assume that changing words in a mission statement or knowing the number of culturally diverse populations will have any effect on the interactions of individuals on its campus without some attention to its climate...The university climate includes having an atmosphere where all levels of administration personally support the need for diversity not just in words but in attitude. The climate must show that all diverse populations are valued and that standards were not adjusted to admit or eliminate these populations” (Dumas-Hines, F. A., Cochran, L. L., & Williams, E. U., 2001, p. 433). With Auburn University, the first steps have been taken. There are “words” of diversity in the strategic plan and the demographic data on the undergraduate student population and faculty has been gathered to show the consistently low numbers over the past thirteen years, especially in terms of the African American student and faculty populations.

Using the theoretical frameworks like Critical Race Theory as a base for research, a study should be completed to gain a stronger understanding of how institutions like Auburn University have progressed in terms of developing a positive campus climate for African American students. The continued low and stagnant enrollment of African American undergraduates and faculty should raise questions. To determine what the underlying causes may be and if the campus climate is a factor, there are several ways that more conclusions can be drawn. The first step in understanding the campus climate would be to survey African American undergraduates who have successfully graduated from Auburn University since integration. This sample could be surveyed to gain a better insight to their experiences on campus and with other faculty and students. The data obtained would also be informative to show how the university’s campus climate has changed or

progressed in the past fifty years. From this pool of participants, it would also be extremely telling if personal interviews could be conducted to reaffirm what information was provided in the survey data. When using critical race theory as a framework for a study, it is essential to accept the experiences gathered from alumni as a valid source for analysis. This research could also develop and expand to include an understanding of other ethnic representations at Auburn University, like incorporating the emergence of Hispanic students in the undergraduate population or even focusing on difference in experiences based on gender within these groups.

In addition to surveying the alumni, current African American faculty members could also be interviewed to gain additional insight into their experiences at the institution and why they chose Auburn University as a place of employment. In working with current African American faculty members, the university could gain a better understanding of what practices could be implemented to recruit and retain diverse faculty members and students.

Specifically at Auburn University, if alumni and current faculty do not feel that the campus climate is a welcoming and supportive environment for African American students this information would be the piece of the foundation that needs to be addressed first. This information would then provide the university with guidance on how to move forward with continued diversity recruitment efforts. The personal stories that would be collected could also help highlight some of the strong African American men and women that have graduated from Auburn University.

Conclusions

When Harold A. Franklin was asked how it made him feel to return to Auburn to celebrate the university's commemoration of integration and to recall fifty years ago, he said "You do things because they need to be done, and if you can help somebody, then you do it and then move on. That's just the way I am. I don't let anything really bother me too much. I guess it's because of the way Mom and Dad raised us you do what you can and go on. So, when Fred Gray asked me about going to Auburn, I reluctantly agreed. But I'm glad I did because, hopefully, it helped somebody else and made it easier for other African-Americans and other minorities to come to Auburn without having to go through what I went through." (Franklin, 2014).

For a stronger understanding of the progression and change of the campus climate for African American undergraduate students, it is necessary to conduct a study that examines the personal experiences of a larger sample group over the past fifty years. In building upon the foundation work of research that is currently available, more data can be obtained through conducting surveys with undergraduate alumni at a southern institution like Auburn University. From the data that is collected, a bigger picture could be developed of the experiences of African American students to ensure that universities like Auburn are creating a supportive and welcoming campus climate to enrich academic experiences and increase diversity of the undergraduate student body and faculty. Dr. Franklin meant to make it easier; the university should ensure that his experience was not in vain.

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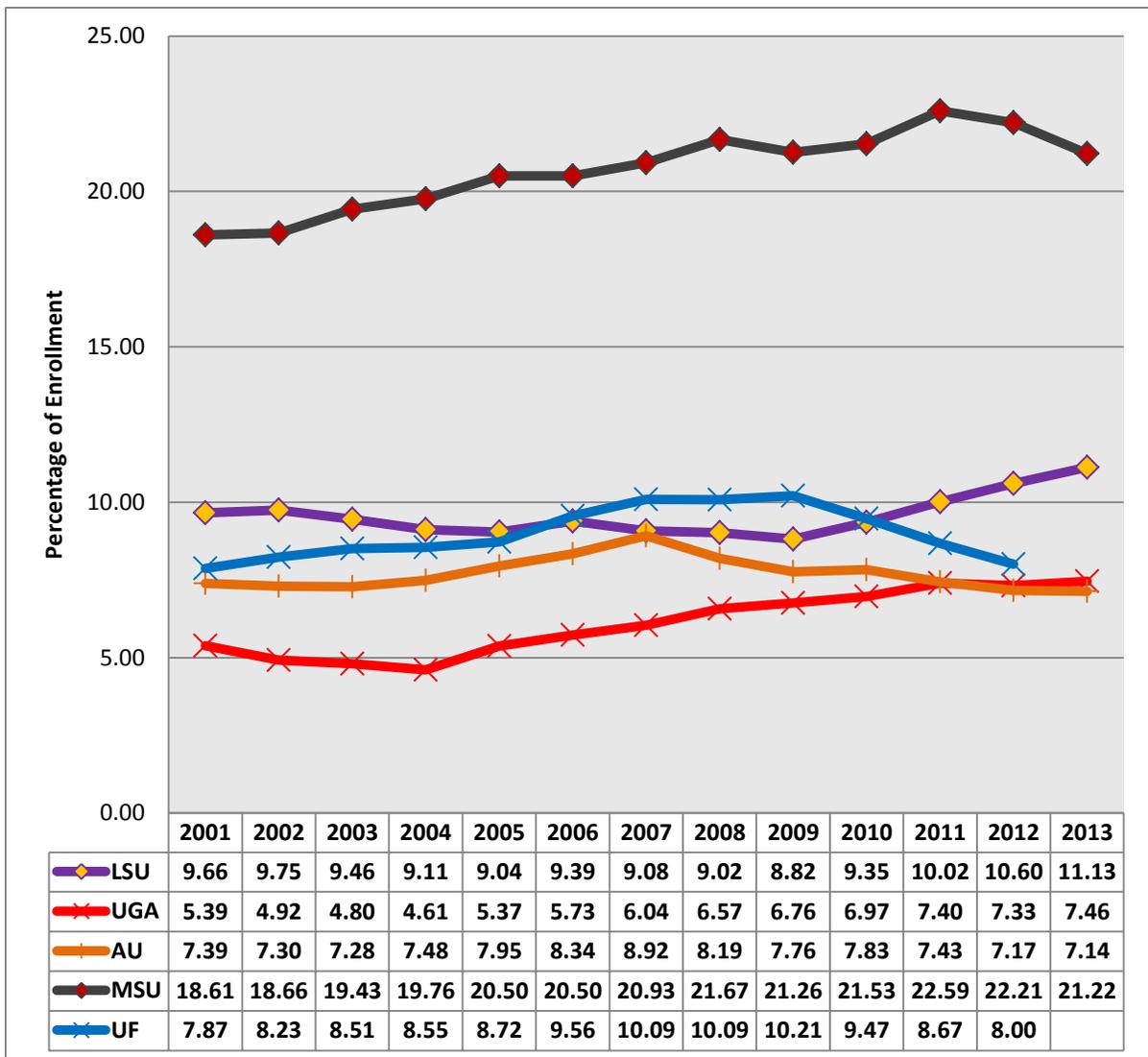
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APPENDIX A

Data was adapted from student demographic data from each university's Office of Institutional Research.

Table 1: Percent of African American Undergraduate Enrollment in Southern Land Grant Institutions from 2001-2013



APPENDIX B

Data was adapted from student demographic data from each university's Office of Institutional Research and United States Census data.

Table 2: African American Undergraduate College Enrollment in 2012 for Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Mississippi, and Louisiana

State	African American Students enrolled in undergraduate studies within the state	African Americans enrolled at the Land Grant Institution of the state	Percentage of African American Students represented from the state at Land Grant Institution
Alabama	88020	1446	1.64%
Florida	235193	2702	1.15%
Georgia	229973	1911	0.83%
Mississippi	78438	3640	4.64%
Louisiana	83991	2612	3.11%
TOTAL	715615	12311	1.72%

APPENDIX C

Data was adapted from faculty demographic data from each university's Office of Institutional Research.

Table 3: African American Faculty Representation From 2001-2012 at Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Mississippi, and Louisiana

FACULTY	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
LSU												
Total Faculty	1583		1615		1558	1515	1517	1560	1502	1471	1416	1436
AA Faculty	48		51		59	53	51	54	51	55	52	55
	3.03		3.16		3.79	3.50	3.36	3.46	3.40	3.74	3.67	3.83
UGA												
Total Faculty	1780	1760	1684	1703	1849	1848	1822	1848				
AA Fac	89	94	90	86	98	98	99	104				
	5.00	5.34	5.34	5.05	5.30	5.30	5.43	5.63				
AU												
Total Faculty	1115	1091	1115	1165	1134	1113	1132	1176	1184	1196	1177	1192
AA Fac	45	46	54	54	48	46	46	50	52	49	50	49
	4.04	4.22	4.84	4.64	4.23	4.13	4.06	4.25	4.39	4.10	4.25	4.11
MSU												
Total Faculty				1046		1071	1078	1112	1164	1112	1132	1151
AA Faculty				34		41	41	43	48	44	46	51
				3.25		3.83	3.80	3.87	4.12	3.96	4.06	4.43
UF												
Total Faculty	2955	2955	2865	3033	3151	3183	3197	3087	2981	2863	2887	2815
AA Faculty	89	82	85	92	96	96	104	104	102	95	89	86
	3.01	2.77	2.97	3.03	3.05	3.02	3.25	3.37	3.42	3.32	3.08	3.06

STICKER SHOCK: THE RISING COST OF COLLEGE

ETHAN HENLEY

Journal of Higher Education Management 29(1) [2014], pp. 16-21.

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Purpose

Obtaining an advanced education is something many individuals spend several years of their lives working towards. This price tag associated such an education has become increasing substantial. So much so that college costs has become a timely issue of study in higher education. Considerations of how this impacts individual degree valuation and the consequences in the higher education marketplace are all part of this significant issue. In recent years concerns over these rising costs have even led some to believe an economic bubble is forming in the higher education market. This paper will briefly take a look into all of these factors and hopefully offer a better understanding of how they interact and what the potential outcomes may be. Additionally, recommendations in light of these potential outcomes will be provided.

Literature Review

The price tag of a college education has become substantial over the past few decades (US Department of Education, 2012). Many students entering college are literally shocked to see their bill after the tuition and all the numerous fees have been tallied up. There are numerous reasons for these increases ranging from reduced government aid to rising enrollments and this paper will review these reasons. Also, directly related to these increased costs has been the perception of the value of a college degree. In some aspects it appears the value of a degree has decreased in recent years and this essay discusses how these perceptions have developed. Additionally, and most importantly, this paper will consider how the above factors, especially the rising costs, have led to the idea of the college bubble. This essay will also discuss the idea of the college bubble deflating as opposed to bursting in the years to come.

It comes as no surprise that college costs have been consistently rising over the past few decades and they continue to rise. According to the US Department of Education National Center for Education Statistics (US Department of Education, 2012), college tuition rates increased an impressive 42% from the year 2000 to 2011 for public non-profit institutions. A similar story is true for private and for-profit institutions. These are astonishing increases that in many cases are out pacing the rates of inflation. To put this into perspective, a report released by The National Association of Individual Colleges and Universities stated that its members raised fees an average of 3.9% for the academic year 2012-13, almost double the 2% increase of the Consumer Price Index. Public colleges were not far off with an average increase of about 3% (DiSalvio, 2012). Looking at this gap and knowing this situation is not specific to this year it would seem logical that such increases cannot be sustainable long term. In any case, for a growing number of students entering college these costs are

becoming increasingly burdensome and it is becoming a huge financial undertaking to simply earn a bachelor's degree.

In some cases, a college degree is beginning to become out of reach for some students. This does not seem to largely be the case currently, but if costs continue to soar and outpace the rate of inflation then we may very well see more intellectually capable students unable to afford a college education. An early indicator of this potentiality is the increasing number of students utilizing student loans and the amount of those loans. The average student debt for a four-year degree is more than \$20,000. This is a significant financial burden for most to bear and a fair number of students are taking on more than the average. For some top tier institutions the annual price tag has topped \$50,000 (Kelly, 2010).

The potential reasons for these increases vary and have differing levels of overall impact. There are four reasons that offer the greatest explanation including the reduction of government aid, primarily state appropriations, increased financial aid and scholarships being offered, expansive and expensive building projects and overall enrollment increases (Foster, 2013; Wang, 2008). Each of these reasons function as puzzle pieces that combine to offer a perspective into why institutions are jacking up their prices.

In the past five to seven years in particular a significant reason for increasing tuition and fees, at least for public institutions, has been the large reduction of government aid to these institutions. In the last twenty years state appropriations have reduced some 12% (Wang, 2008). The economic recession that began in late 2007 only exacerbated this issue with states struggling to combat dwindling budgets and high unemployment. Many state institutions suffered as states looked to save money by contributing less to college budgets. To counter this reduction in available government aid, colleges and universities did cut back on their budgets but ultimately passed on a significant portion of the costs to the students. This was very noticeable to me since my undergraduate years took place during the post-recession era where I saw my tuition rates increase year after year. The total cost for my four-year degree ended up being around \$30,000.

The increasing amounts of meritorious financial aid may also be a reason for the increases in college costs. Institutions have been increasingly awarding scholarships and other financial aid based off merit to students who do not financially need the assistance. This is driving up the institutions overall costs in which they account for in raising tuition and fees. For some institutions providing these discounts to students that do not necessarily need them can cost them as much as half their operating budgets (Foster, 2013). However, this reason for increasing costs may not be as significant as others and I do not see this as something that will change in the near term. Generally, both meritorious and need-based types of aid are perceived as something quite positive that helps draw in students. However, regardless of how positive this seems to be, these types of financial aid come at a significant cost.

Large-scale capital projects on college campuses offer another potential reason for the increasing costs. Luxurious residence halls, state-of-the-art fitness centers, and top-notch dining halls are becoming commonplace on campuses across the country (Wang, 2008). These are all multi-million dollar projects that institutions are undertaking. Many students today are making their college decisions based off these factors more than the academic program offered, which is the ultimate reason for attending college. In some aspects students now expect such lavish facilities. This expectation has led many institutions to begin massive renovation, construction, and expansion projects. These costs have to be accounted for in some way and increased costs for students are one way to help offset them.

Another contributing factor to the rise of college costs is the increasing enrollments of colleges and universities. In the past decade undergraduate enrollments have increased around 20% (Wang, 2008). This increase has placed upward pressure on the costs for the simple fact that an increasing number of students cost institutions more money. This reason by itself makes the most economic sense in terms of supply and demand, however, in combination with the reasons already mentioned it only adds more insult to injury.

It is apparent that the reasons behind such increases in the cost of obtaining a college education are numerous and not necessarily simple. Any one of the reasons discussed would offer a significant amount of impact on tuition and other fees but when each of them are present at the same time the impact becomes substantial. I feel it is also important to mention that these are not the sole reasons for rising costs. Numerous other factors play a role, many of which vary depending on each individual institution. In any case, regardless of reason, these rising costs have brought into consideration whether a college degree is worth the price.

It seems astonishing that such a question of value would actually occur, but it has become a reality. A report in 2011 by The Chronicle of Higher Education and the Pew Research Center stated that 80% of the general population think that getting an education at some colleges is not worth the price (DiSalvio, 2012). There are two fairly significant indicators of such questioning of value including the increasing average student loan debt and the number of college graduates working in a job that does not require a degree. As mentioned earlier, the average student loan debt is around \$20,000 (Kelly, 2010) and overall student loan debt has increased 15% since 2007 (DiSalvio, 2012). The idea that college is an investment in oneself does have some validity to it but in some cases that investment does not pay off as planned. For many students, student loan debt is more of a burden that is looming over them than something that has provided them exceptional gain, or at least that could be the perception. Add on interest and significant monthly payments and this situation is compounded. In fact, the Federal Reserve has reported that 27% of the 37 million student loan borrowers have defaulted on their payments (DiSalvio, 2012). From this financial perspective it could easily be argued that the value of a degree is relatively low.

Another aspect that would indicate that college might not be worth the price is the number of students with college degrees who are in jobs that do not require degrees. In 2008, 17.4 million college graduates were working in jobs that did not even require them to hold a college degree (Vedder & Gillen, 2011). If nothing else that has to be a discouraging feeling when you work so hard and spend so much money to get a degree so that you can better your job opportunities then you end up with a job that you did not even have to go to college to be qualified for. This would almost seem like a waste of resources, especially if the non-degree requiring job paid more than degree requiring jobs. Similar to high student loan debt, this perspective seems like a plausible reason why a college degree may not have that much value.

Implications for Policy and Practice

Even with such evidence that the value of a college degree is decreasing, in totality college graduates earn more than do non college graduates in their lifetimes (Kelly, 2010). To further that, the salaries for those with professional and doctorate degrees have steadily increased in recent years (Wang, 2008). The question of whether college is worth it may have to be replaced with questions of what major or field of study is best or what particular college is best. We are in an era where one truly needs to evaluate what they want to do so they can maximize their college investment. This may very well spill over into more students entering graduate and other professional programs. Regardless, the simple answer to the question of whether college is still worth it still seems to be yes.

It is clear that rising costs and questions of value has become significant issues in higher education in the last several years and are clearly impacting students. It would appear that changes and improvements in these areas are not going to occur in the near term. This concern has prompted many in higher education and elsewhere to consider these issues more deeply and what may be coming of them (Woods, 2011). This has given rise to the idea of the college bubble. This paper will take a look into what this is and how it may be an accurate representation of the current state of higher education.

The first question we should consider is what exactly is a bubble? The very basis definition of an economic bubble is unsustainable growth that is eventually reversed, usually in a relatively dramatic way. A little more specifically it is an occurrence where the price of a good is driven up when people assume that

despite the high price the purchase is defensible because of higher returns on the investment later. A bubble will eventually “burst” or be counteracted when buyers in the market begin to doubt that prices will continue to rise or their later returns on their investments will not warrant the up front cost and they leave the market. When buyers start leaving the market the price of the good will generally fall (Woods, 2011). The idea of the college bubble is built upon these same principles of unrestrained and unsustainable growth. Specifically for this paper we view the bubble as being unrestricted and unsustainable rises in the price of a college education. Based off the economics of a bubble this could lead to a counteraction in the higher education market that could have profound and lasting effects.

The models behind the development of this idea of the college bubble are both the technology and housing bubbles that occurred in the late 1990s and mid-2000s, respectively. In both cases there was what appeared to be unrestricted growth in those market areas, which turned out to be vastly unsustainable. The housing bubble that burst in 2007 and helped usher the US into a recession shows just how impactful such an event can be. However, it is important to note that the college bubble will not be as dramatic.

Rising costs and rising enrollments are two areas that have been looked at as causes of this bubble. Looking at enrollment increases, I mentioned earlier how enrollment numbers have heavily increased over the years. In some cases this could be seen as unrestricted and even unsustainable depending on how rapid the increases are. Many colleges and universities are letting in more and more students and growing their campuses. For example, the undergraduate institution I attended grew from around 28,000 students in 2009 to nearly 35,000 by 2013 (The University of Alabama, 2014). The perception is that higher enrollments mean higher institutional quality. However, the 57.3% six-year graduate rate of college students indicates colleges and universities may be bringing in students that are not necessarily ready for college (Vedder & Gillen, 2011). Institutions are bringing in more and more students but are seemingly struggling to see a good number of them through to degree completion.

In terms of the college bubble, the enrollment argument is focused around how there is unsustainable growth in numbers which is turning out higher numbers of dropouts, many of which with large amounts of debt. This would eventually further dilute the value of a college education and ultimately people may start feeling like going to college is not worth it. This would be where the “burst” or reversal of the bubble would occur. Enrollments and even applications would go down and college costs would have to decrease. However, in consideration of other factors, enrollment increases do not appear to be the sole cause of the college bubble. If anything it is only a contributing factor to the real cause of cost.

I believe that the cause of the college bubble resides in the drastically increasing costs. If we revisit the concept of a bubble, price and consumer behavior are the primary aspects used to indicate a potential bubble. Evaluating the price of a college education it is very clear that it is growing rapidly and consumers - incoming students - are not shying away from these prices. I believe the biggest argument in favor of this is how college costs are consistently out pacing inflation and this has been noted in numerous pieces of literature addressing the topic (DiSalvio, 2012). To add even more perspective to this the average annual instructional cost per student is \$1,456. However, public institutions charge an average of \$7,000 per student then receive even more in state appropriations (Vedder & Gillen, 2011). This simply does not seem very reasonable.

These prices seem very much unsustainable in the long term. It also does not appear that prices will be coming down any time soon or that large numbers of students will start deciding not to pay. The reason students are paying such enormous prices is that they feel their investment in college will allow them a larger return over the course of their lives. This lines up pretty well with some aspects of a bubble.

The question of the long-term value of a college degree will have to be more fully answered in order for large-scale fluctuations in the bubble to occur. It is unlikely that we will see large numbers of students deciding a college degree is not worth the price and foregoing college. Alternatively, we will likely slowly see

students making more thought out decisions about college so that they spend their money more wisely. Enrollment numbers then will begin a slow moderation. The likelihood of a dramatic bubble burst, such as those with the technology and housing bubbles is exceptionally low. Alternatively, the bubble should slowly deflate over time with very slow moderations in cost and enrollments. It just seems logical that the prices will have to moderate because if prices continue on their current track colleges and universities will slowly make an education at their institution unreachable for a larger percentage of students and essentially price themselves out of the higher education market.

Unrestrained rises in cost is exactly how a traditional bubble would inflate to the point of rupture (Woods, 2011). Just looking at the cost aspect alone it would seem quite reasonable that the college bubble could rupture in such a way. In fact, some would see such an event as beneficial since it would force institutions to make large scale adjustments in their cost structures, enrollments, and how they offer an education to their students. This almost seems like a good thing if it would reduce costs. However, education needs to be considered a bit differently.

One flaw in considering the potential burst of the college bubble is to view higher education as an economic good that is directly tied to fluctuating market conditions. Yes, there is a market for education and we pay to receive such. However, education is more than a simple good. It has an intrinsic value that you cannot quantify. It affords a person a personal and intellectual achievement that is carried with them throughout their lives and cannot be taken away. It is for this reason that an education is way more than some good we go out and buy. It is not subject to the same market conditions such as technology or housing. In most cases people will make decisions on getting an education based off more than the up front cost. Considering this, the college bubble will more than likely not suffer a dramatic burst. Consumers, the students, will not drastically leave the education market like consumers did during the housing bubble. They will simply be more cautious in planning and paying for their education.

Future Research

Instead of such a dramatic reversal we will see a slow modification of higher education costs. Institutions will have to find ways to moderate prices and even enrollments. This could include curbing student financial aid, strengthening entrance requirements, and looking for new, cheaper ways to offering classes. These new ways already are taking hold. Online and distance education are becoming more popular and cost institutions less money than traditional classroom instruction. All of these avenues of improvement will simply take time to cultivate.

Conclusion

Higher education has definitely found itself in a unique position. Higher costs and some shaky value perceptions offer distinct challenges and even threats. A developing college bubble has the power to influence higher education to make meaningful improvements in how it offers an education to its students. Institutions must first work to curb tuition increases to a pace that at least falls in line with inflation. Considerations on how to budget more wisely and effectively should be evaluated in order to shore up spending. Additionally, institutions should provide more academic support and career preparation to both see students through to graduation and better prepare them for the job market. Essentially this will work to reinforce and increase the value of a student's degree. Time will show just how exactly this comes to be but hopefully we will see a strengthened education system that provides unique benefits to its students and society as a whole.

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INCREASING THE DIVERSITY PIPELINE IN HIGHER EDUCATION LEADERSHIP THROUGH SUCCESSION PLANNING

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Journal of Higher Education Management 29(1) [2014], pp. 22-29.

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The wave of retirements of college presidents expected within the next decade has put higher education at an important cross road for future leadership. With this challenge comes great opportunity to change the university leadership landscape and to mentor, develop and guide a new and more diverse generation of presidential leadership. However, colleges and universities have been slow to embrace corporate America's approach to formal succession planning for their leadership (Witt/Kieffer, 2008).

Based upon the conceptual framework of Henri Fayol (1841-1925), one of the first to study succession planning, highlights the need for succession planning in stabilizing the workforce (Collins & Collins, 2007). This paper adopts Fayol's concepts regarding the importance of succession planning within today's higher education landscape as it relates to college presidency impending retirements. It addresses as part of this framework, building a diverse pipeline of leadership to create management redundancy and stability and discusses leadership preparation for this segment by means of mentoring, coaching and leadership development.

In addition, this paper examines various glaring disparities within the college presidential landscape, and highlights the necessity on the part of administrators and governing boards to develop institutionalized succession plans. While examining disparities is an important aspect of this issue, it is necessary to examine ways in which potential leadership can develop themselves professionally. I also provide information on why and how mentorship and leadership development programs are beginning to take root across the country with the nation's community colleges taking the lead and their ability to professionally develop minority and nontraditional candidates and in turn, raise their opportunity to assume the university's highest post. Lastly the paper provides recommendations for future research that will undergird and ensure the success of these recommended programs.

Statement of the Problem

It has been widely predicted that universities are to expect an unprecedented number of retirements from Baby Boomer presidents within the next decade, yet, generally, universities are not mentoring and developing candidates to fill these vacancies (Basham, Stader & Bishop, 2009).

One might ask, "Why is it necessary for universities to implement succession plans when there hasn't been a problem hiring presidents thus far?" The fact is that, the hiring practices at colleges are not based on true meritocracy wherein the best candidate is the one who is offered the position (Simplicio, 2007). What

occurs instead is a delicate balancing of several factors that result in a process that favors some candidates, is biased against others, but in the end provides a viable method for candidacy selection. This process works to perpetuate and reinforce the culture of the college and the beliefs of those who work there (Simplicio, 2007). It also results in candidates who are outside the societal and traditional norms of higher education not being considered for these posts.

Further, as the process customarily goes, universities hire a search firm or appoint a search committee, post positions in a popular higher education publication; alumni, friends and faculty of the university lobby the governing boards and others affiliated with the search for themselves or their friends who they believe would be the perfect candidate (Simplicio, 2007). In an almost cookie-cutter fashion, the college president is found. However, there is a problem with this scenario. The president hired looks, sounds and is identical in many ways to another president, 50 miles down the interstate, in the next state, or across the country.

The Current Presidential Landscape

Over the last 27 years, the American Council for Education (ACE), has reported seven times on the university presidency. In its inaugural study on university presidents conducted in 1986, 42 percent of the presidents were age 50 or younger and 14 percent were 61 or older, see Table 1.

Table 1

	1986	2006	2011
Age 31 to 50	41.6%	8.1%	10.1%
Age 51 to 60	44.4%	42.6%	31.8%
Age 61+	13.9%	49.3%	58%

Source: American Council on Education 2012 President Report – Aging Presidents

The paradigm has shifted significantly in the 21st century. In 2006, these proportions were almost reversed with only 8 percent being 50 or younger and 49 percent being 61 or older. In the latest study conducted in 2011 the share of presidents who were 50 or younger increased slightly from 2006 to 10 percent, but the percentage of those who were 61 or older increased to 58 percent. Further, Romero (2004) asserts in her examination of the decline in leadership for community colleges that senior administrators, the most likely pool of candidates for presidencies, are approximately the same age as the presidents and also are preparing to retire.

According to Bryan Cook, Director of ACE’s Center for Policy Analysis, “the anticipated wave of retirements among college presidents is of great concern and may present challenges or even a temporary leadership shortage (2012). Further he states it also presents a unique opportunity to diversity leadership of American higher education.

Minorities and the Presidency

Studies document that “women are underrepresented in senior positions within higher education (Walton and McDade 2001) from Turner’s Pathway to the Presidency. Although women have increased their representation among university presidents (26 percent in 2011, up from 23 percent in 2006). Yet despite this small advance, comparatively, there is a dearth of representation when it comes to minorities at higher education’s highest post.

The proportion of presidents who are racial and ethnic minorities declined slightly, from 14 percent in 2006 to 13 percent in 2011 (Cook, 2012). The underrepresentation of administrators of color in higher

education is one of the most important ethical dilemmas facing college and universities today (Wolfe & Freeman, 2013).

Table 2

Source: American Council on Education 2012 President Report - Minority Presidents

	1986	2006	2011
Total Minority	8%	14%	13%
African American	5%	6%	6%
American Indian	1%	1%	1%
Asian American	0%	1%	2%
Hispanic	2%	5%	4%

In fact, non-traditionals, those candidates who come from outside the academy are trending higher than minorities at 20 percent, according to the ACE report, which is a dramatic increase from the 2006 report which reflected 13 percent, see Table 2.

Succession Planning - Preparing for the Next Generation of University Leadership

In the conceptual framework of Fayol’s model of succession, two areas are most significant as it relates to higher education: preparation for executive level changes in universities and the development of internal candidates.

Despite the prediction of a crisis of supply and demand of university presidents, widely, universities have been slow to develop programs that prepare leaders; however, the nation’s community colleges and other professional organizations appear to be leading the way. Succession planning as defined by Wallin, Cameron and Sharples (2005) is a process by which an organization assures necessary and appropriate leadership for the future through a talent pipeline with the capabilities of sustaining an institution’s long term goals. They state that succession planning isn’t a “business as usual” network, but rather should be merged with intentional and targeted leadership development; it seeks out diverse candidates and casts a wider net within the organization.

Without an institutionalized effort towards succession planning it is easy to overlook “diamonds in the rough” (Wallin, Cameron & Sharples, 2005), those leaders who have potential but are under-developed and mentored to reach their full potential. A growing number of colleges and boards of trustees are looking to the future by embracing succession planning as the key to assuring college sustainability in an environment that requires global thinking, strategic planning and political savvy (Wallin, Cameron & Sharples, 2005). Once confined to the corporate world or to family business and limited to the CEO, succession planning has assumed a prominent role in progressive and innovative community colleges concerned about leadership at all levels. These colleges, their leadership teams and their governing boards view succession planning as targeted leadership development that promotes a culture of learning, growing and collaboration within the institution (Wallin, Cameron & Sharples, 2005).

Succession planning provides opportunities, while clearly recognizing that not every participant in succession planning activities will move into leadership role. Further succession planning does not preclude brining in talent from outside the organization. In order for universities to seize this opportunity, they must begin to invest and prepare for future leadership through succession planning. Simply put, succession planning is not just preparing for a successor, but also developing successors from within. There are numerous examples of universities who are investing in leadership from within for future university leaders, however,

research shows that two areas are key to developing a pipeline of leadership: mentoring and leadership programs.

Mentoring and Coaching

Mentoring helps people develop a non-vertical career path, sometimes with unconventional moves. It allows a reflective space for conversations that may have been suppressed by the work environment (McMurray, Henly, Chaboyer, Clapton, Lizzo & Teml, 2012). K.F. Jonson author of *Being an Effective Mentor* (2002), expands the mentoring relationship further, explaining that the relationship benefits both the mentee, who learns needed skills and gains experience to be successful and the mentor, who has the satisfaction of passing on his or her wisdom and experience and of developing new talent.

Recent studies support the critical importance of mentoring for women and minorities. In the 2009 report from the Association of Higher Education (ASHE, 2009) mentoring is noted as being a key function in supporting and promoting administrators of color and women.

Additionally, in Terri Brown's study of female presidents, she contends that the college presidency is numerically dominated by men and as a result, men have more opportunity to know the right people and have more access to sponsorship and promotions, whereas women might be excluded from these types of exposure intentionally or unintentionally. Brown further found that mentoring is an invaluable resource for the recruitment and preparation of women for the college presidency. Therefore, mentors can have a critical effect on the career paths of women who aspire to advance in higher education administration (Brown, 2005). Brown also attests that mentors can help women by planting seeds that would empower them to seek college president appointments. Preparation for higher education administrative positions usually does not happen serendipitously. There is limited outreach to a growing pool of female faculty member's with the potential to serve as college presidents but who may not have considered seeking the CEO position of a higher education institution (Brown, 2005).

However it is important to note disparities to this viewpoint. Dunbar and Kinnersley (2011) note that the mentoring relationships as it relates to women achieving success in administrative positions is more successful when the mentor and mentee are from the same generation and ethnicity, and share similar values.

Coaching is also an important strategy in developing university leaders. It has been estimated that up to 45 percent of an organization's performance is linked to the quality of its executive leadership, so it's clear that effective leaders are key to gaining a competitive edge (Weller & Weller, 2004). One increasingly popular way in which organizations are working to develop better leaders is executive coaching (Weller & Weller, 2004) Executive coaching can take on a myriad of forms, from helping executives transition into a new role to providing them with individual support through the development of specific skills or behaviors (Granko, Morton & Schaafsma, 2013). When examining potential benefits of executive coaching for pharmaceutical care practitioners, executive coaching at the highest level provides the trainee with feedback using instruments that capture both real and perceived behaviors in a confidential, yet objective manner (Granko, Morton & Schaafsma, 2013).

Heartily embraced by corporate America for a variety of reasons, coaching provides benefits that other change and growth modalities do not offer. Primarily the content of coaching sessions is tailored to the specific developmental needs of the executive. Simply put this means that what the executive needs in terms of professional growth and development the executive gets. Because coaching aims at specific targets, it increases the likelihood for success in a way that classroom training and education cannot match (Savage, 2001).

Coaching, long associated with sports, has moved from the locker room to the board room. Evolving over the years with a variety of labels, executive coaching has been an integral, albeit transparent part of the

corporate landscape. Since the 1990s executive coaching has solidified its image and focus, gaining a greater acceptance in corporate America for a variety of reasons (Savage, 2001).

Leadership Development

Leadership development as defined by Cloud (2010) is a formal and informal process that is intended to maximize institutional and individual effectiveness. In their examination of the importance and components necessary for student leadership at Rutgers University Connaughton, Lawrence and Ruben (2003) note that leadership development is a fundamental responsibility of colleges and universities. They state “The unmistakable conclusion is that when it comes to leadership development in higher education, ‘business as usual’ is insufficient.”

Over the last two decades, professional organizations and community colleges have taken the lead when it comes to preparing its next leaders through various leadership development programs.

Results from existing research noted in ASHE’s report demonstrate that most people of color who have successfully risen to leadership positions have participated in leadership development programs at some point during their careers (ASHE Report, 2009).

There are numerous programs sponsored partly by higher education institutions as well as nonprofit leadership organizations that cater to leadership development for minorities and women. Three such examples are The Executive Leadership Summit offered by Hampton University, The Center for Studies in Higher Education at the University of California at Berkley, Berkley Executive Leadership Academy, The Leadership and Mentoring Institute, sponsored by the American Association of Blacks in Higher Education and The Annual Latino Higher Education Institute, sponsored by The Hispanic Association of College and Universities (Wolfe & Freeman, 2013).

The Executive Leadership Summit, offered by Hampton University is one of the oldest of its kind and is credited for 15 alumni currently serving in the role of university president. Based on the Harvey Leadership Model as developed by Hampton President Dr. William R. Harvey, The Summit focuses on learning best practices; strategy development as well as networking and mentoring opportunities.

The Berkley Executive Leadership Academy provides targeted training and professional development to senior level higher education administrators. The curriculum includes intensive training and is also highly interactive.

The Leadership and Mentoring Institute is specifically designed to assist African Americans who are interested in developing skills that will enable them to assume senior leadership positions in higher education. A key objective of the Institute is to link program participants with mentors that will work with participants individually and assist them in enhancing their leadership abilities and professional development.

The Annual Latino Higher Education Institute has been in existence for 13 years. This institute focuses on a 3 prong approach for the development of early, mid-level and executive level administrators.

In response to the ACE report predicting that half of current community college presidents will retire within the next 10 years, many colleges are no longer waiting for a position to become vacant. They are developing programs that enable them to grow leaders of their own. Wallin, Cameron & Sharples, 2005 provide the examples of leadership development models championed by the presidents of Daytona and Collin Community College. These colleges are not sitting idly by “hoping” to attract the talent they need but are working proactively to develop and implement a process that will ensure the probability that internal applicants will be ready to assume these posts. At Daytona Community College, the processes they have developed for leadership development and succession planning have been fully integrated into the colleges’ ongoing professional development activities (Wallin, Cameron & Sharples, 2005).

Like so many other universities, Collin Community College in Dallas Ft. Worth, a campus which serves approximately 34,000, was facing a gap of leadership when its presidency became vacant. At the time, there

was no process in place to transition into this new position or build capacity from within to grow leaders from the ranks. In 2004, Collin created the Academy for Collegiate Excellence specifically to address institutional leadership capacity building (El-Ashmawy & Weasenforth, 2010).

While it is important to address leadership development at the executive level it is important also to pay attention to those at mid-level positions in the university who aspire to assume positions of leadership.

A typical career pathway to a senior-level or executive-level position begins with aspiring leaders in the middle (Ebbers, Conover & Samuels, 2010). To fill the growing vacancies, Grow Your Own Leaders (GYOL) programs as well as statewide and national leadership development programs, present an opportunity for middle managers to begin planning for their future.

One such organization operating on a national level is the Future Leaders Institute, which is organized and promoted by The American Association of Community Colleges (AACCC). This program provides seminars designed for midlevel community college administrators that are ready to move to a higher level of leadership (Ebbers, Conovers & Samuels, 2010). A more advanced seminar is offered for those who seek a presidency. A program design such as this would provide a promising opportunity for mentorship and coaching from sitting as well as former university presidents.

In order to sustain a talented and diverse pool of future leaders a two-prong effort is essential, preparing for not only senior level administrators but also for current mid-level administrators who will one day replace retiring senior level administrators.

Benefits of Implementation of Succession Programs on Higher Education

While, Lorenzo and DeMarte (2002) point out that each institution must form its own strategies that respond to and reflect its unique context, Cook in ACE's Spring 2012 supplement finds that "the imperative of rapid change, including an increasing racially and socioeconomically diverse student body, suggests a need for adaptability and diversity in higher education institutions and their leaders. While a succession plan in and of itself helps to address and meet the short term needs of the turnover crises, development of these plans benefits higher education long term in professionally developing and encouraging the increased diversity its leaders."

Implications for Policy and Practice

Beyond the typical national advertisements and consultant hiring for the college presidency, this paper outlines several meaningful examples of avenues in which the diversity pipeline for the college presidency can increase through multi-pronged and comprehensive leadership succession planning. This is not to suggest that these measures alone will entirely reverse the dearth that exists with minority and women leaders in the college presidency; however, these measures are much needed to begin to improve the likelihood of candidacy. In order for the avenues presented to yield success with these populations, it is imperative existing senior leadership establishes a priority for doing so by implementing these programs and shepherding their progress.

Suggested Future Research

Since this study primarily examined the turnover, disparity, mentorship and development programs, it would be relevant to first examine the hiring practices for these and other senior level administrators. ACE reported that search consultants were used to recruit nearly 60 percent of recently hired presidents, up from 49 percent in 2006. Narcisa Polinio Vice President for research, education and board services for the Association of community College Trustees and who specializes in presidential and chancellor searches admits that search firms have not kept up with diversity in the presidency. While women have made significant gains, the same cannot be said for African-Americans and Latinos. Further, she states within the search firm industry

focusing primarily on higher education recruitment there are rarely minorities search professionals represented (P. 50).

Secondly, it is important to study the generational impact on leadership preparation. Future research is warranted on trends of presidents 50 and younger. This population appears to be trending downward significantly since 2006 and non-traditionals that are currently trending higher than minorities but slightly higher than women according the ACE report. A Baby Boomer vs. Generation X vs. Millennial president analysis could yield relevant data and insights.

Third, we need to understand further the knowledge competencies and skills needed for the modern presidency. These key competencies once identified would be beneficial as part of institutional succession planning as well as mentorship and leadership development programs and academies. To varying degrees the following were noted by ACE, as areas that were important in presidential success: fundraising, budgeting, strategic planning, assessment and faculty, community, governing board and alumni relations (2012). Additionally, an analysis of “soft skills” such as interpersonal communications, conflict management and other areas should also be included.

Lastly, it is evident from this research that executive coaching and mentoring can play a strong role in the development of executive leadership. In most cases, executive coaching will require significant financial resources from universities but has the potential to yield results in developing women and minority leaders. However, research regarding the impact of coaching on women and minorities in higher education was limited. Additionally capitalizing on the valuable institutional memory and insight of sitting college presidents could serve universities well as they develop succession plans. An examination of college president mentors and their mentee relationships would be relevant to explore.

Conclusion

In conclusion, it is clear that universities have opportunities for growth in the diversity pipeline in higher education leadership. This position paper recommends three components of the leadership succession model addressing the projected turnover; mentorship, coaching and leadership development programs which can and are being employed to meet the need of the shortage in higher education leadership.

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INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETICS: STUDENT-ATHLETE STRESS AND SUPPORT

DALE LIGHTFOOT

Journal of Higher Education Management 29(1) [2014], pp. 30-38.

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Intercollegiate athletics is said to offer a means of educational advancement and professional opportunities for student-athletes; however, it comes with a great deal of stress and mature decision making by student-athletes as young as 17 and as “aged” as the mid-20’s. Mitten (2000) stated, “The original purpose of intercollegiate athletics was to provide an extracurricular activity for talented students who attended college primarily to earn an academic degree that would enable them to pursue a career outside of professional athletics” (p. 1). In this paper, I will reference my personal experiences at Auburn University from 2008-2014 and provide published and my thoughts on what professors and administrators can do to provide more support to our student-athletes.

Typical undergraduates attend classes and participate in numerous social activities within the university setting. Although student-athletes are a part of the general student populace, these particular students have dissimilar responsibilities of their counterparts. Student-athletes are a representation of a special population on various college campuses. These particular students are obligated to obey regulations and policies by the NCAA. Unlike the standard undergraduate, the student-athlete participates in countless practice sessions, travels within the athletic season, and sustains physical injuries (Watt & Moore, 2001).

Student-athletes arrive on college campuses from small and large communities across all 50 states and the U.S. Territories. They’ve attended high schools, junior colleges, preparatory schools, and possibly already served in the United States armed forces. Despite what many non-athletes think they “know” about student-athletes, not all student-athletes are on scholarship. In fact, less than 2% of high school athletes are awarded scholarships to compete in college (ncaa.org). An unknown number of student-athletes are walk-ons across men’s and women’s sports and must pay for their own college education while trying to go from anonymity to the playing fields. Others are on partial scholarships where a portion of their education is paid for by the university and either the student-athlete, mom and dad or, a loan will have to cover the remaining costs of pursuing their dreams at college campuses. The skyrocketing costs of higher education continue and some scholars are researching this phenomenon. The bottom line is, ages and experiences of these student-athletes vary; therefore, the NCAA requires them to receive academic support services in order to improve the probability of academic success (Gerdy, 1997).

Purpose

The purpose of this paper is twofold: to review specific stressors and expectations placed on student-athletes and provide examples of ways faculty and professors can minimize some of the stressors by being flexible and respecting the student-athlete's schedule and time demands.

Literature Review

Gerdy (2000) describes a student-athlete as a student enrolled in an academic institution and participates in a varsity sport full-time. According to the NCAA Division I Manual, "a student-athlete is an individual whose enrollment was solicited by a member of the athletics staff or other representative of athletics interests with a view toward the student's ultimate participation in the intercollegiate athletics program. Any other student becomes a student-athlete only when the student reports for an intercollegiate squad that is under the jurisdiction of the athletics department" (P.80). Walk-on student athletes do not receive scholarship monies but are required to abide by NCAA rules and regulations.

Student-athletes have authoritarian rules and regulations they must comply with so long as they are in the above formally outlined category of student-athletes. Failure to comply with any of the rules and regulations results in sanctions such as institutional suspension or release from their respective athletic team (NCAA Division I Manual, 2012). In addition to NCAA regulations, student-athletes must also abide by their individual academic institutional rules and regulations. The NCAA is the governing body over intercollegiate athletics. Procedure and protocol manuals are created annually by the NCAA to ensure order for its' multi-institutional members. Eligibility requirements established and published annually by the NCAA are as follows:

Student-athletes must be enrolled in at least 12 semester hours per term, passing no less than nine semester hours per term, and no less than 18 semester hours per academic year, earn a grade point average (GPA) of 2.0 or higher, and complete percentages of degree applicable hours (ncaa.org).

According to the 2011-2012 NCAA Division I Manual, "By-Law 1.3.1 Basic Purpose: The competitive athletics programs of member institutions are designed to be a vital part of the educational system. A basic purpose of this Association is to maintain intercollegiate athletics as an integral part of the educational program and the athlete as an integral part of the student body and, by so doing, retain a clear line of demarcation between intercollegiate athletics and professional sports."(p.1) Although the NCAA claims to keep clear lines between intercollegiate and professional athletics, college football and men's college basketball produce professional sport level revenue. Each fall, there are massive crowds entering and leaving campuses on a home football weekend and there are a traveling band of friends offering us tickets for major basketball games such as the Kentucky, Duke or North Carolina basketball games on our campuses in the spring.

Student-athletes are confronted with role conflict when one of their dual role demands outweighs (at least in their minds) one of their others (Kissinger & Miller, 2009). According to Kissinger and Miller (2009), when student-athletes participate in intercollegiate athletics as a means to become a professional athlete, the role of student in their role system is deemed less important. The demands of athletics cause problems for the growth and mature development of student-athletes; moreover, the problems these students have are time management and study skills problems, inadequate career and social development prospects, and a limited self-evaluation (Lanning, 1982). Developing student-athletes holistically should be the goal of institutions and the NCAA, not just making professional sport level returns at their expense. This semester I'm taking a Higher Education Special Topics course in which we've studied and discussed at great length the "Nine Dimensions of Wellness" and how developing all of our students is complex and not merely defined by getting good grades, scoring a touchdown on the football field or managing a wide range of emotions throughout their years with us here on The Plains. If we believe in our Auburn Creed and understand it takes hard work

for the average student to participate and we desire all of our students to be successful and be prepared for the workforce or a future in athletics, we must ensure we give them the tools and skills to ensure each of the areas of their lives are growing and maturing.

Stress is by no means new to student-athletes when they arrive at our doorsteps each year. Some stress is actually very beneficial to an athlete and is credited with increasing focus and performance. But too much stress, or at least the inordinate volume of the wrong kinds of stress, can be too much for a young man/woman to deal with and may result in physical and/or psychological trauma. This could mean exactly what the student-athletes fear most—lower levels of development and performance. (Etzel et al., 2006)

Although development should be a primary concern of academic institutions, having winning records is also crucially important—both to the deep-pocketed alums as well as the coaches and athletes that participate in the events. An example of this is seen through Auburn Athletic Director, Jay Jacobs who publicly stated (as well as lists on the Auburn website) his priorities and goals for the athletic department he has led since 2004. In his own words, in a note dated September 21, 2012, Jacobs said, “Winning and graduating our student-athletes are the top two goals for the Auburn athletics department.” (Jacobs, 2012) Interesting the choice or where “winning” and “graduating” fell in that sentence structure. Winning can be a plethora of defining moments though. Most may only look at winning as how their team does against their biggest rival or how they rank in the collegiate polls compared to the powerhouses nationally. Winning too can be when a student-athlete makes it to the professional level of their respective sport. And, it can also be considered “winning” when you meet a student-athlete that is not as prepared as others in their academic background and they are able to learn to create and send e-mails, sign up for their classes (after meeting with an academic advisor) and maturing to the point where they can manage their time wisely and pass all of their classes.

Student-athletes are not merely asked to pass their classes, they are asked to win and represent their respective universities whether they are here or home on a university sanctioned trip or home for the holidays. The pressure associated with performing at a high athletic level is one of the primary stressors student-athletes have during their time at universities.

During my research, I found a listing of “Ten Commandments for College Student-Athletes” (Parish et al., 2007). After all, isn’t this their education and opportunity to better themselves in the classroom and on the fields of play to be ready for where they want to be in the future? Although this list was posted in 2007 it seems like some simple advice for the student-athletes.

The Ten Commandments for College Student-Athletes

1. Class attendance is a must, unless you want everything to go “bust.”
2. Proper nutrition is a key, for without it, you’ll likely lack energy.
3. An adequate night’s sleep is often essential, especially if you want to reach your full potential.
4. A “to-do” list can put you on top of your game, and also help you achieve great fame.
5. Be smart from the start, and always strive to do your part.
6. Be prompt all the time, for to do otherwise, could be a real crime.
7. Time management is important too, for greatness only comes to those that follow through.
8. Commitment and dedication are both super great, but if you don’t have them, the coach will probably be irate.
9. Possessing confidence can be great too, as it could keep you from feeling really blue.
10. Always work hard and never give in, for in doing so, you’ll most likely win.

Although it may seem like education is a distraction to some student-athletes; education is important! According to the information on the NCAA.org website, there are more than 400,000 NCAA student-athletes, and most of them go pro in something other than sports. Going pro varies from sport to sport. For example, in baseball, going pro means you sign a contract and are affiliated with a professional

sports team at one of the lower levels (Rookie, Low A, High A, Single A, Double AA and Triple AAA). In basketball, you may go pro by playing overseas.

The following are the percentages of NCAA student-athletes who become professional in specific sports:

- Baseball – 11.6%
- Men’s Ice Hockey – 1.3%
- Football – 1.7%
- Men’s Soccer – 1.0%
- Men’s Basketball – 1.2%
- Women’s Basketball - .9%

So, now imagine being a freshman student-athlete with a set of “commandments” you’re trying to live by and facing the frighteningly low possibility of playing professionally in a sport you have played since you were a little boy or girl. You are enrolled in a chemistry class faced with all the common difficulties other freshman students have in the course—attending class, taking notes, taking a lab with a foreign-born instructor you may have a difficult time understanding, attending group study sessions, printing the professors notes, walking in to a surprise pop quiz, studying all night for a mid-term or final that may determine your overall grade which will determine if you remain academically qualified according to the NCAA. Then imagine throwing a completely different source of stress into the equation entirely. A stress many of your friends and family have never experienced first-hand themselves, but they are the ones asking you the tough questions about your being on the field or making a grade, etc. Being a student-athlete requires an immense amount of time and focus be placed on areas outside the classroom, in addition to standard, routine coursework the rest of the student body faces on a daily basis. In a recent study performed by sports psychologists, the sources of stress for student-athletes and regular students were compared. Some of the findings offer insight into possible difficulties encountered by student-athletes along the way. According to the authors, almost half of the male athletes and slightly more than half of the female athletes surveyed indicated stresses associated with sport participation included pressure to win, excessive anxiety, frustration conflict and irritation or fear. (Humphrey et al., 2000).

In addition to outside challenges from their sports, such as traveling by bus, air (many times both) and missed class or assignments, student-athletes are also faced with great difficulty in conflict resolution and often times internalize issues that arise instead of seeking the proper pathways to help as a result of performance pressure. In the mind of an athlete, looking for help draws attention to the problem or its lack of resolution and ultimately will be seen as a red flag to a coach or counselor (Murray, 1997). And that is just one student-athlete. Imagine if you are talking about a team of these young men and women all working out, training, competing and many times living with each other. Now you have a lot of internalized stress with oftentimes, no viable release for many of them. There is only so much pressure a balloon can take before it either starts to leak out pressure or, it explodes at a time and place in which no one intended and the consequences could be anything from mild depression and not attending classes or completing assignments on an individual level to affected team chemistry and performance on the fields of play. In addition to internalizing problems and pressure to win, athletes are also confronted with another huge constraint: lack of time. Many of us are pretty tapped for spare or down or “me” time, but student-athletes would probably laugh at us if they knew how much flexible time we have on our calendars each day...week...month...year.

So just how much time does an athletes sport require of them while they are wearing these hats and balancing their lives around campus and in athletics? To gain a satisfactory answer to the question, the two main takers of student-athletes time must be looked at independently. Under NCAA rules, a student-athlete cannot practice more than twenty hours a week by mandate. However, as a clever way around the rule, teams will often classify some workouts as “voluntary” in order to comply with the rules. Anyone who believes

the practices are actually “voluntary” is misguided. By NCAA guidelines, the following activities are not to be counted towards the twenty-hour rule: “Travel, recruiting, *voluntary workouts*, compliance meetings, study hall, training room requirements and public appearances.” So what does this really mean for the student-athletes? Teams will maximize their twenty hours of mandated practice and will then hold “voluntary” functions for all other activities that would be in excess of twenty hours. Please note, the student-athletes are fully expected to document and provide signed acknowledgement of their practice logs and submit them for a central body to collect and ensure the university is in complete compliance with the NCAA. Those voluntary workouts listed above—something tells me the coaching staff knows exactly who is attending, how long they are staying and reward their efforts either with additional playing time or public acknowledgement at a sanctioned training or team event or meeting.

Now, I’ll address the student part of being a student-athlete on a campus. At many universities, faculty perceive student-athletes as primarily concerned with athletics and lacking academic skills needed to succeed in their classrooms (Hobneck et al, 2003). I asked the young men student-athletes I work with if they experience this type of paradigm from professors and teaching assistants. Of the seven young men I work with, four attended junior colleges in three different states prior to enrolling here. They often feel singled-out due to their university-provided clothing and unique travel and high-visibility game schedules. Four of my student-athletes stated they’ve experienced very positive encouragement and support from professors while two stated they felt like a professor made an example out of them in front of the class due to their being a student-athlete.

At Auburn University, freshmen student-athletes are required to attend an average of eight to ten hours weekly in a supervised study-hall environment located in the Student-Athlete Development Center. They are always welcome to attend any class or group study sessions in the library or in apartments, but those do not count towards their mandated study hall hours. The study hall hours are modified from semester to semester, student-athlete to student-athlete. I work with seven student-athletes under the guidance of a learning specialist with a PhD in Education from Auburn who sets their hours based on term and cumulative grade point averages as well as she takes their course load for the semester into account. In addition, students are required to go to class, and must succumb to the same university absence requirements as normal students (excluding excused travel absences.) So, if a student-athlete were to get sick or have a family emergency, the impact of the event is nearly doubly impactful since their athletic lives are bound to revolve around a condensed workout, travel and competition schedule.

Student-athletes are stressed and understand they are in a select crowd. Ultimately, the dual nature of being both a student and an athlete is in conflict. These young adults must choose what to focus on – often times either their studies or their athletics will suffer as a result. In the aforementioned study, most of the respondents felt there was just not enough time to honestly combine academia with athletics and excel in both areas. (Humphrey et al., 2000).

The NCAA clearly identifies student-athletes as a special population of learners in need of customized academic assistance. In 1991, the NCAA mandated that Division I universities provide academic counseling and tutoring services to all student-athletes (NCAA Division I Manual, 2012, p. 226). While the scope of the support programs vary by school, the NCAA lists the following as services that should be provided: “Academic counseling/advising resources and services, tutoring, academic progress monitoring and reporting, assistance for student-athletes with special academic needs, assistance for at-risk student-athletes, academic support facilities, academic evaluation of prospective student-athletes, and student-athlete degree selection” (NCAA Academic Support Services Evaluation Guide, 2009). In accordance with the NCAA rule, Carodine, Almond, and Grotto (2001) suggest a holistic model that provides sufficient support services to aid the student-athlete in academic, sport and career goals (p. 21).

Academic counselors are assigned to athletic teams to guide them through their collegiate career by

offering advising services, assisting with scheduling and registering for classes, and ensuring that the student-athletes maintain academic eligibility based on NCAA and university standards. Learning Specialists like the one I mentioned above work more specifically with student-athletes who have been diagnosed with learning disabilities. They work in conjunction with university disability departments, such as Auburn University's Office of Accessibility, and assist the students with diagnosis process and with the use of academic accommodations. The Learning Specialist position follows Earl's model of intrusive advising (1988) consisting of "deliberate and structured student intervention at the first indication of academic difficulty in order to motivate students to seek help" (p. 28). The Learning Specialist (LS) is the objective person in the middle ground trying to decipher and balance the academic aptitude, course-load and classroom maturity and development by the student-athletes under their purview. The LS meets with the student-athletes weekly as well as with their assigned mentor to see if any situations need to be addressed with a professor, elevated up the Student-Athlete Support Services chain of command or discussed with student-athlete's parents, depending on the student's desires. In working closely with a LS for athletes I am fortunate enough to guide and mentor, I've participated in many conversations with both individuals to better understand what issue they have and what possibilities are available to help remedy the situation. The LS is keenly aware of the individual's learning disabilities (if any) and encourages him to fully utilize accommodations granted by the Office of Accessibility from time to time—especially fellow student written note-takers and additional time on quizzes and exams. She also meets with the coaching staffs weekly to ensure they are kept in the loop on pertinent information she receives from professors and classroom attendance and performance which may impact their team's player availability and scholarships. In team sports, the performance (or failure to perform) and fulfill ones academic responsibilities directly affects the rest of the team. If a teammate fails to attend class or attain passing grades, their teammates may have to run a lap for them. Or, worse yet, not have their skill set on the field when they are in an upcoming sporting competition.

On the personable side, I've seen first-hand how a caring, compassionate Learning Specialist can make a horrible situation be met with a friendly ear and a "it's going to be okay" moment. I've sat in on a conversation where a young man had just been informed over the weekend his father has cancer. The Learning Specialist has also been a soft ear when a student-athlete's father unexpectedly passed away from a heart attack. She spearheaded the coordination with university student affairs. His professors received timely information as to the circumstances and ultimately, he was able to remain in classes during what he told me were the darkest days of his young life. This singular person is the one I believe mitigates my student-athletes stress by being an honest, compassionate leader. She operates with a firm hand, yet is completely loyal to her position as a learning specialist. I believe she is pulling for her student-athletes to succeed in the classroom just as hard as the coaches and teammates are pulling for them to succeed in the athletic fields.

Tutoring services provide student-athletes with specific content assistance and, per the 2012 NCAA Division I Manual, is a support service that is "necessary for the academic success of its student-athletes" (p. 226). In addition to providing required tutoring services, some support programs, as is the case with Auburn's, have an academic mentoring program for freshmen and high-risk student-athletes. High risk status is determined by the Learning Specialist designated to oversee each of the university sporting teams via a review of standardized testing and recent academic performance. The daily mentoring sessions are used to assist the student-athletes in developing time-management, study and test taking skills in addition to general academic support and assisting in and ensuring preparation for exams and completion of assignments.

In addition to the assistance provided for student-athletes by support services personnel, the NCAA created the Challenging Athletes' Minds for Personal Success (CHAMPS)/Life Skills Program in 1994 to support student-athletes' development and success during their collegiate career and beyond. According to the NCAA CHAMPS/Life Skills brochure, "the NCAA provides institutions participating in the program with instructional materials and resources that support student-athletes' development in academics, athletics, personal life,

career, and community service” (CHAMPS/Life Skills Handbook, 2009). Together, all of these support services are integral and necessary components to the success of the special population of student-athletes.

Implications for Policy and Practice

On a much lower level, what can professors and administrators do to provide more support for student-athletes? Having programs and specialists in place within the guidance of the NCAA is not just a good start, but also mandatory. There are two key areas where I see and found research supporting flexibility by professors and a stereotype continued adjustment.

First of all, professors need to understand the rigors of a student-athlete’s schedule, especially when they are “in season.” Although I’ve found professors to be fairly accommodating when one of my student-athletes initiates a conversation regarding an upcoming conflict with their sport and an academic suspense, there are still professors who tell the student-athletes that the schedule is the schedule. And, if they were to make accommodations for one student, they would have to hear and accommodate all students to remain fair and unbiased. Universities do send class excusal requests to show the student is in fact an athlete and away from the classroom traveling to or in a competition. But, that excuse does not mean a professor must reschedule an exam or presentations. A little flexibility on their calendars and empathy regarding the circumstances by a professor can alleviate a good deal of stress for the student-athletes.

The other area administrators and professors can make a difference is by breaking down the stereotypes against student-athletes. The primary one is that student-athletes are “dumb jocks” and over their heads in an academic setting. In a survey of 538 Division I athletes cited by Samantha Monda (2008), 62.1% of respondents reported that professors had made negative comments about athletes in the classrooms and 61.5% were given a hard time by a professor when seeking alternative arrangements for course work due to university scheduled athletic events. The direct result of this type of action by an administrator or professor could leave the student-athlete feeling unmotivated or feel like they may not even be able to earn a college degree at a place they are spending their time, sweat and energy to represent. A positive mind-set and a positive outlook are not only important in sporting events, they can make all the difference in the classrooms as well.

Future Research

This paper offers insight into the belief that student-athletes are under an extremely high, unconventional level of stress compared to their non-athlete peers at colleges and universities. It also provides governance and mandates by the NCAA, specifically the hours a student-athlete can participate in and out of season as well as what services must be available to a student-athlete while they attend classes and represent collegiate athletics. However, the paper was completed without interviewing a sampling of collegiate athletes to ascertain what their detailed experiences have been like, what their stressors are and how they’ve changed as they’ve grown into collegiate student-athletes and how they perceive they are treated by faculty and staff. A great number of factors to consider for future research would be: number of hours taken per semester, undergraduate majors of the student-athletes, comparing/contrasting men and women in various sports and stress levels, considering individual versus team sports stress and finally, interviewing leadership in higher education institutions to see what they see and do on behalf of student-athletes to minimize their stressors and maximize the successes of student-athletes both in and outside the classrooms. Finally, taking a look at the correlation between student-athlete retention rates and the universities (and conferences) would provide interesting data for a university as well as a potential student-athlete and his/her parents.

Conclusion

Student-athletes are recruited and perhaps even considered local heroes on a college campus long before they set foot inside an actual classroom. Their performance on the fields of play is scrutinized by local fans and even the national media, depending on the sport in which they participated. Many professors and fellow students preconceive notions about the character and aptitude is simply by watching them compete in a sport surrounded by pressure where their performance may not meet their level of preparation. Having to live up to these expectations would be difficult for many of us entering a new job position or community. Having to do so at the ripe old age of 17-23 is something many of us have no idea the levels of frustration they face. Couple that with a full-time course load in a world-class university where people on campus and in the community live (and seemingly die) if you listen to the call-in shows following a loss to a major rival and you have the possible recipe for academic "failure." Although many colleagues I've spoken with regarding the tools in place to assist student-athletes wish the same "benefits" (tutors, mentors, facilities, etc.) were in-place for all students, they seemingly understand not many typical students experience 87,451 watchful eyes on them on a Saturday or a national television audience on them when they are in the spot light of a sporting event. From meeting a student-athlete where they are academically when they arrive on campus; to helping them grow and mature; to witnessing them achieve their dreams of moving on to the next level of sports; and watching them walk the graduation stages, we as an institution of higher education, have a special opportunity to make a real difference in the lives of a unique student population. These student-athletes represent us all locally and globally in their sports due to their high-profile positions and make great sacrifices for their respective universities. Universities and faculty must create learning environments where academic opportunities are not only present, but celebrated. When a student-athlete walks the graduation stage and shakes hand with the president of the university with his student-athlete sash on, there are some enormous smiles and personal pride by staff members that had even the smallest of parts of that degree being awarded!

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THE DIFFICULTIES OF COLLEGIATE ADVISING: THE GROWING PRESSURE AND EXPECTATIONS BEING PUT ON STUDENT AFFAIRS ADMINISTRATORS

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Journal of Higher Education Management 29(1) [2014], pp. 39-xx.

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Academic advising is a huge part of the university experience for every college student (O’Banion, 2009). An advisor is the one who guides you through your academic endeavors—the one who gets you to that coveted 13x17 piece of paper that says you made it through college (Gordon, Habley, Grites, & Asso., 2008). A collegiate advisor can be everything from a student’s biggest advocate to the source of difficult reality checks. But ultimately, an advisor exists to serve students and enhance the college experience. So why are so many students displeased with the advising experience? How should advisors handle the generational collision that happens in today’s advising sessions? Do students really understand the role of an academic advisor? For that matter, what *is* the role of an advisor? The answers depends on who you ask. If you were to ask the dean or any other higher-level administrator, the answer would differ from that of the student. It would most definitely be a different answer than one from an actual academic advisor. How should collegiate advisors address this huge disconnect? Also, what is the difference between advising and counseling? What kind of boundaries should advisors use when it comes to “counseling” an advisee? With all the pressure being put on collegiate advisors to make their advisees succeed, it can be hard to handle all the aspects that are required for today’s student. New expectations and ever-growing pressure comes from all directions: from students, parents, deans, associate deans, faculty, alumni etc. Similar to teaching, collegiate advisement is expected to have certain outcomes—ultimately a degree; but also more than that. An advisor helps the student to leave the university with lifelong skills such as decision making, critical thinking, responsibility, and appreciation for education in addition to learning academic regulations (Missouri State Handbook).

Review of Literature

A logical place to begin is to map out exactly what an advisor does. This can vary from one university to another but the general aspects are pretty similar. Although the characteristics of students are ever-changing, with current students bringing a huge array of concerns and needs to their advisors, the basic purpose of advising continues to be to assist students (Upcraft, Gardner & Barefoot, 2005). Here at Auburn University, the job summary statement is simple, an academic advisor should provide professional level academic advising and/or counseling and student support at the college level. It also states that an advisor may supervise employees but supervision is not the main focus of the position (AU Human Resources). In addition, the Human Resources department gives eight essential functions of the advising role:

1. Provides advisement/counseling for students in matters related to goals, choice of curriculum, course load, study habits, and course scheduling/selecting.
2. Assists in registration coordination procedures and schedule adjustments including verification of appropriateness of transient student requests.
3. Assists with student orientation, whether freshman or transfer students.
4. Develops and/or completes college/school documents such as classroom assignments, plans of study, curriculum guides, graduation forms, and study abroad documentation.
5. Serves as a resource for the university's student database including coordinating input, generating reports, training users, and recommending updates.
6. Verifies/reports student and course information which may include (but not limited to) class rolls, grades, academic certification of athletes/veterans, statistical analyses, and/or forced drops.
7. Evaluates and/or updates student records in order to post grades, do graduation checks, monitor students' progress, and advise students on an appropriate course of study.
8. May assist with recruitment of prospective students.

Of course, these are representative of the major duties of positions in this job classification; specific duties could vary based on departmental needs. Other responsibilities may be assigned similar to these essential functions consistent with the knowledge, skills, and abilities required for the job. At the same time, not all of these duties may be assigned to a position.

The National Academic Advising Association (NACADA) is an association of professional advisors, counselors, faculty, administrators, and students working to enhance the educational development of students. Ultimately, it is the largest professional group for advisors all over the world—calling itself the “Global Community for Academic Advising.” Professionals from all over travel to their conferences, seminars, and symposiums. NACADA has their own list of duties and responsibilities of the advising position as well which goes in to greater details than that of Auburn University’s description. They say that an academic advisor should be able to advise students about academic requirements and selection of courses, disseminate information on institutional policies, understand FERPA rules, evaluate transfer credits, perform and interpret degree audits, know the graduation requirements, assist students with career planning, monitor student registration and recommend solutions to academic difficulties, and maintain frequent contact with advisees as well as keeping accurate records of interactions. NACADA also expects advisors to coordinate communications with students regarding things such as registration or academic standing and to be a student advocate when appropriate, serve as a liaison and foster relationships with other advisors and offices, refer students to specialized staff if the situation calls for it, participate in orientation for first-time college students and transfer students, and serve as a resource for faculty and staff. At the same time, advisors need to stay abreast of changing institutional information including admissions requirements, new programs, course changes, deadlines, important dates, costs, expanding facilities, updates in college-wide initiatives, transfer requirements, and state and federal mandates. It is also very important to engage in professional development activities, including but not limited to, memberships in professional organizations; attendance at conferences, workshops, division, department training sessions, and stay current with information technology skills. Finally, advisors should participate in institutional student development and retention programs and develop advising materials and presentations to support individual and group student sessions (McMahan, 2008).

NACADA also summarizes the most cited job skills preferred or required by employers in academic advising: interpersonal skills, teaching skills or excellent skills in public speaking, planning and organizational skills, efficiency in computers, service oriented attitude, ability to learn easily and disseminate detailed information, attention to details, problem-solving skills, ability to work independently and collaboratively,

flexible, patient, creative, ability to work with complex systems in a fast-paced and dynamic environment. And last, but not least, a good sense of humor (McMahan, 2008).

The level of education required to be an academic advisor varies depending on what university you're looking in to. For example, Auburn University requires a minimum of a bachelor's degree in a discipline appropriate to the position (AU Human Resources). While NACADA tells us that most positions require a master's degree (McMahan, 2008).

It is safe to assume supervisors would expect all of the duties and skills listed above—at minimum! There will always be those “other responsibilities as assigned” that were already mentioned. What exactly does that entail? Basically, an academic advisor can be asked to perform any reasonably related task and they have to oblige because technically it's in the job description. But also, you're expected to do these extra undertakings if you ever plan on receiving pay raises or promotions. Advisors are expected to attend conferences, serve on committees, present at professional events, advance their professional development, and continue to build on their dossier. If one is not careful, the student-advisor relationship could take a hit.

How can we, as advisors, enhance students' experiences? The two most popular theories of advising are Prescriptive Advising and Developmental Advising (Missouri State handbook). Prescriptive advising holds that the academic advisor tells the advisee what to do, and the student does it. It is linear communication from the advisor to the student and places the bulk of the responsibility on the advisor, not the student. The advisor is required to have the answers to any challenges. The developmental advising model holds that the academic advisor and the advisee are partners in educational discovery in which responsibility is shared between the participants. The developmental advising philosophy is the one most often endorsed by NACADA and most institutions (King, 2005). An easy way to understand the two concepts would be by comparing them using this chart by Crookston (1972, p.13):

Prescriptive Advising	Developmental Advising
Advisor tells student what he/she needs to know about programs and courses.	Advisor helps student learn about courses and programs for self.
Advisor knows college policies and tells student what to do.	Advisor tells student where to learn about policies and helps in understanding how they apply to him/her
Advisor informs about deadlines and follows up behind student.	Advisor informs about deadlines, then lets student follow up.
Advisor tells student which classes to take.	Advisor presents class options; student makes own selections.
Advisor keeps informed about academic progress through files and records.	Advisor keeps informed about academic progress through records and talking to student about academic experiences.
Advisor tells student what to do in order to get advised.	Advisor and student reach agreement about nature of advising relationship.
Advisor uses grades and test results to determine courses most appropriate for student.	Advisor and student use grades, test results and self-determined interests and abilities to determine most appropriate courses.

Advisor specifies alternatives and indicates best choice when student faces difficult decisions.	Advisor assists student in identifying alternatives and weighing consequences when facing difficult decisions.
Advisor suggests what student should major in.	Advisor suggests steps students can take to help decide on major
Advisor identifies realistic academic goals based on grades and test results.	Advisor assists student in identifying realistic academic goals based on grades, test results and self-understanding.
Advisor is concerned mainly about academic life of student.	Advisor is concerned about personal, social and academic life of student.
Advisor provides information mainly about courses and class schedules.	Advisor provides information about workshops and seminars in areas such as career planning and study skills, in addition to courses and class schedules.

How do today’s students’ expectations mesh with all the roles that these student affairs administrators are supposed to juggle? Past studies on student expectations for advising behavior reflect a general lack of consensus on the definitions of advising and the appropriate roles for advisors (Alvarado, 1988; Guinn & Mitchell, 1986; Kelley & Lynch, 1991). Despite this divergence in student preferences, research has given us two general roles that an advisor is expected to play—personal mentor and academic counselor (Propp & Rhodes, 2006).

Student affairs administrators may find it useful to understand the divergent social norms adopted by each generation of students (Menezes, 2005). There are some important characteristics that define the current “Millennial” generation of students. These are pupils born between 1982-2003 (Howe & Strauss, 2003) and are often attributed with being special, sheltered, confident, team-oriented, achieving, pressured, and conventional. It may be surprising for some student affairs administrators to find out that these Millennials are eager to accept guidance and instruction—making them open to both prescriptive and developmental advising. But, they should also realize college may be the first time they receive any indication they may not be as special as they have been treated their whole lives (Endres & Tisinger, 2007). Of course, it’s dangerous to stereotype a generation’s characteristics since individuals within that generation won’t necessarily fit the qualities ascribed to them (Steele & Gordon, 2006). Every generation is a little skeptical of the values and abilities of the past generations, and every generation wants to “correct” the errors of those who came before them—this creates great potential for generation gaps (Gleason 2008). These young adults enter universities with an ever-increasing amount of technological aptitude—they’ve always had access to computers and are able to use them in ways the previous generations probably didn’t even think was possible. At the same time, with new technologies constantly emerging, many campuses see a decline in the educational outcomes of student learning. This lightning-fast access to so much information can lead to a lack of critical thinking about sources and quality of information, as well as an inability to “mine for data;” many students are likely to click one or two pages into a website, but no further than that (Endres & Tisinger, 2007).

Since the Millennials were raised always having access to computers and other devices, they love technology. Many times, they actually depend on it. The reality is that technology and its implications on college campuses is not going away. How can student affairs administrators address this? “Advising-on-demand” is a positive use of technology that allows a student access to important information regarding policy and procedure. Of course, it is in no way meant to replace one-on-one advising for students, but it is a great tool to ease immediate anxieties prior to an advising session (Endres & Tisinger, 2007). More and more

advising office are utilizing tools such as Skype, instant messaging, podcasts, Facebook, Twitter, and the like in order to reach out to their students. For example, at Auburn University, email is the official form of communication for students and employees alike. However, many university officials encounter resistance when it comes to emailing students. When asked, students have expressed a desire to use these new technological tools for communication because they don't always check their email carefully (AU Harbert College of Business). Ultimately, university officials should be open to using new technologies. Moneta tells us that technology should not be used on campus just because it is available; rather, conscious decisions must be made to be sure that it fills appropriate pedagogical concerns (2007).

Our current culture has produced college students who are comparison shoppers with high expectations and short attention spans (Propp & Rhodes, 2006). Some researchers have argued that this trend has made a generation on "customers" (students) that has on-demand expectations for education (Leidner, 1993; Odland, 2002; Ritzer, 1993). Today's college student demands fast and hassle free service and fair value for the money they're paying for a higher education (Howe & Bellizzi, 2003; Upcraft & Stephens, 2000). The Auburn University Harbert College of Business Office of Academic Advising regularly administers surveys to their students during registration time in order to improve office functions. Every semester, the top complaints are about wait times and a lack of advisor availability. Compared to earlier generations of students, these new student "customers" expect and demand more services from the universities they choose to attend, and their demands include getting more from advising services. It's possible these students would rather be told exactly what to do (prescriptive advising) than have to make decisions in tandem with their advisor (developmental advising). Quality advising is directly related to important educational outcomes so it is a recurring concern of students, parents, college officials, and faculty members (Propp & Rhodes, 2006). What Petress stated about the advisor's role still holds true today:

Students' academic performance is inexorably tied to how the rest of their lives are progressing.

Students' teacher, peer, family, romantic, and employment relationships; their physical, mental, and emotional, and spiritual health; their out-of-class activity, financial well-being; test anxiety; and post-graduation anxieties are all germane to the advisor's role (Petress, 1996, p. 92).

The collegiate advising role is more complex than ever and knowing student expectations has become a pivotal part of the position.

Another facet that student affairs administrations have to withstand: the parents of Millennials. Parental involvement in the daily campus life of millennial student exceeds that of any previous generation (Bigger, 2005). Along with this new generation of student, comes a new variety of adult—"helicopter" parents and the even more extreme "snowplow" or "bulldozer" parents. "Helicopter" parents who hover and swoop in for the rescue are now being replaced by the "snowplow" or bulldozer" parents who push anticipated obstacles out of their child's way (Taylor, 2006). Today's students are used to having their parents be their personal advocates who are ready, willing, and often eager to challenge authority on behalf of their children (Menezes, 2005) and often act as informal advisors as their students make academic and career decisions (Javeed, Brusckke, & Chen, 2010). The Millennial generation was raised by extremely vigilant parents who are obsessed with safety. These children grew up with a great respect for authority and a belief in a system that exists to make the world a better places (Howe & Strauss, 2000). They grew up thinking that family involvement in education was the norm. With that being said, it's hard to decipher if they're thriving or coddled as a result (Javeed, et. al, 2010). An advisor will have to use discretion on how to advise such students—prescriptive advising versus developmental or even a combination of the two.

With such strong parental presence in university offices, some legal issues may arise. It is essential that family members understand the Family Educational Right and Privacy Act (FERPA). FERPA guarantees students the right to privacy by limiting access to student education records to third parties—including their parents. It is imperative for academic advisors to help parents understand that it is possible that they're

undermining the advisor's attempt to establish a trusting relationship with the student when they ask to discuss the student's records or other issues without the student's permission (Menezes, 2005). Basically, once a student is in college, he or she has to give permission for his/her records to be released. This can be a bit problematic for some parents as they feel they are "entitled" to those records since the student is not paying his/her own tuition. Typically, today's parents actually consider their college students to still be "children" (Donovan, 2003). This brings us full-circle to the FERPA issue. Since kindergarten (or even pre-school), parents have had access to their children's academic records. But, since the majority of parents still consider their college student to be a child, of course they should still be privy to this information, right? Wrong. The actual FERPA regulation states that while it "gives parents certain rights with respect to their children's education records, these rights transfer to the student when he or she reaches the age of 18 or attends a school beyond the high school level" and the term "education records" is broadly defined as "**all records, files, documents and other materials which: contain information directly related to a student;** and are maintained by the educational agency or institution or by a person acting for such agency or institution." The good news for the zealous parents is that their "eligible student" can give written permission in order to release any information from a student's educational record. The bad news is that certain rules still apply to the releasing of said information. Here's the challenge: advisors and other administrators have to follow the FERPA regulation exactly how it is written. Students have to prove they are who they say they are by presenting proof of identification before they can even meet with their assigned academic advisor. It makes sense, you wouldn't want to discuss another student's record with the wrong student or some kind of imposter. So, even if the eligible student writes out a letter or fills out a form giving his/her parents permission to access his/her education records, how can we certify that the parents are who they say they are unless they appear in person before the administrator with valid identification in-hand? You cannot. Most parents want to have access to communicate with a school official by phone or email and there is just no way to verify their identity with any kind of certainty. A student can always give his/her advisor permission to communicate with family via email if they give the specific email address. But, when it comes to phone calls, the student must be present with the administrator in order to have a conference call. According to the "Helicopter Poll," an online survey conducted by Experience Inc., thirty-eight percent of more than four hundred college students admitted that their parents participate in meetings with academic advisors (Colavecchio-Van Sickler, 2006). The whole FERPA issue is actually becoming quite a hot issue amongst academic advisors and other student affairs administrators. Unfortunately, there's some debate on how certain aspects of the FERPA regulation should be translated.

Implications for Policy & Procedure

Like it or not, advisors have to be open to change. Nothing is static in the world of a university—curricula change, policies adapt, and students grow. Advisors must find a way to accommodate parents since they have such a huge impact on today's college students while also abiding by the FERPA regulations. They have to continue to grow in their professional development as well. It is imperative that student affairs administrators work in tandem with other offices in order to give students all the relevant information needed to succeed.

Some students are lucky enough to have more than one advisor—an academic advisor and a faculty advisor. But not all faculty are eager to help. Also, there seems to be a big disconnect between faculty and advisors—faculty have no idea what advisors tell their advisees so there needs to be clearly defined roles (Spence, 2011). Two concepts that are becoming more common in today's higher education institutions are academic ratchet and administrative lattice. Academic ratchet is the tendency for faculty to shift effort away from tasks such as teaching, student advising, and committee work in order to spend more time on research and other endeavors that are more financially (or personally) rewarding (James, 1990; Massy & Wilger, 1992;

Massy & Zemsky, 1994). Administrative lattice is characterized by the growing administrative structures, usually with the amount of administrative posts growing faster than the number of faculty (Ortmann & Squire, 2000). So, all of the administrative-like tasks that faculty are expected to do, in this case—advising, get put aside and eventually have to be done by an actual administrator. Thus, creating more work and a need for additional student affairs administrators, growing the administrative lattice (Bastedo, 2012). But is every department equipped to add more administrators? Do they have the budget? How can administrators who aren't considered advisors provide additional support? Perhaps the most important relationship advisors have in the administrative world is with their dean (or associate dean). There absolutely has to be effective communication between these two entities. Since most of the policies and decisions come from the dean's office, effective communication would allow advisors to have input on these decisions (Spence, 2011). In higher education, decision-making tends to be highly decentralized; top-down directive fails without the buy-in of who they effect (Bastedo, 2012).

Future Research

With today's universities and students being ever-changing, research on student-administrative interactions will always be necessary. Some questions to consider: what form of advising is most effective? How can student affairs administrators continue to encourage students in order to increase retention rates? How many advisees should one advisor have? In what way can new technologies be utilized in advising? It is imperative that these questions be answered so that universities can continue to produce the best students possible. If advising can't keep up with today's students, we can't expect them to be prepared for the "real world."

Conclusion

Ultimately, academic advising will always be a pivotal part of the college experience for every student. Today's student affairs administrators should always be striving to improve themselves and their offices in order to enhance the student experience. Although development advising is the preferred method for interacting with students, it's ok to use prescriptive advising or intertwine the two theories if it is more advantageous for the student. Today's millennial students come with many great characteristics—motivated, open to instruction, confident, etc. But it can also be frustrating for administrators to have to constantly deal with "helicopter" or "bulldozer" parents—especially with having to adhere to FERPA regulations. The good news is academic advising is constantly changing and adapting for the better. Administrators are partnering with other offices such as counseling offices, academic support, career centers, study abroad, registrars, veterans' resources, athletic departments, financial aid and many others! Academic advisors are also taking advantage of new technologies and doing their best to cater to these Millennials. For example, Auburn University's Harbert College of Business implemented group advising where students are able to be advised in a group setting—giving them opportunity to network, get up-to-date information, and learn answers to questions they would not have known to ask. As long as our student affairs administrators don't stay static and always keep the students' best interest in mind, we can keep producing successful adults ready for the real world.

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OUTSOURCING: THE HIGHER EDUCATION OF TOMORROW?

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Journal of Higher Education Management 29(1) [2014], pp. 48-58.

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The dependency of universities and colleges on state funding has caused many to be vulnerable to reductions in funding and the changing environment, causing many to reevaluate how they will meet their revenue needs (Zusman, 2005). The raising of tuition costs and cutting of programs will only work for so long. Administrators must begin the search for new and innovative ways to use available resources. One possible tool that may be used is outsourcing. The thought of outsourcing in Higher Education is becoming more common and a survey at the 2002 National Association of College and University Business Offices (NACUBO) conference reported that 90 percent of higher education institutions were engaging in some form of outsourcing (Russell, 2010). A few of the more common areas of outsourcing in Higher Education occur in the auxiliary services – dining operations, custodial services, and bookstore operations (Adams, Guarino, Robichaux, & Edwards, 2004). As the landscape of Higher Education changes, outsourcing is beginning to gain traction in all areas of Higher Education not just auxiliary services. These changes are slowly moving higher education to be more like the business world; a fact that will affect all stakeholders (Lerner, 2008). With that being said, is outsourcing the answer to the current and future problems of higher education?

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this paper was to provide information about outsourcing in higher education and provide examples of how different higher education institutions are implementing outsourcing. The relationship between higher education institutions and Resource Dependence Theory and how this relates to outsourcing was also considered. This should allow the reader to not only learn more about outsourcing in higher education but also begin to develop a stance on whether or not outsourcing is the answer for higher education. The paper will begin with the defining of several key terms associated with outsourcing and higher education. Followed by a review of the changing environment of higher education and why outsourcing is being considered as an option. Then a description of the pros and cons of outsourcing as well as the necessary steps taken to insure success will be provided. The paper will conclude with specific examples of outsourcing at various higher education institutions to show that all areas of higher education are being considered for outsourcing. In the end, the answer to the question of “Is outsourcing the higher education of tomorrow?” should be answered.

Key Terms

The following three terms: outsourcing, higher education, and Resource Dependence Theory will be used often in this paper. Defining these terms should assist in the understanding of the major concepts of the paper.

Outsourcing – Merriam-Webster’s dictionary defines the verb outsource as, “to procure (as some goods or services needed by a business or organization) under contract with an outside supplier” (Merriam-Webster’s online dictionary, 2011). But how would you define outsourcing in terms of the higher education arena? According to Phipps & Merisotis (2005), “Outsourcing is a form of privatization that generally refers to a higher education institution’s decision to contract with an external organization to provide a traditional campus function or service” (p. 1).

Higher Education – Merriam-Webster dictionary defines higher education as “education beyond the secondary level; *especially*: education provided by a college or university” (Merriam-Webster’s online dictionary, 2011). The Merriam-Webster definition is very simple and to the point, but to define higher education to those more familiar is a little more complex. Bartem and Manning (2001) define higher education as a place, “where tradition is dear, where forms of ownership rarely change, and where educational institutions themselves – their cultures, brand names, buildings and grounds, and tenured professors – seem to endure timelessly” (p. 44). Throughout this paper, the terms higher education institution, college, university, and campus will all be used interchangeably.

Resource Dependence Theory – Bob L. Johnson, Jr. defines Resource Dependence theory as “a theory of organization(s) that seeks to explain organizational and inter-organizational behavior in terms of those critical resources which an organization must have in order to survive and function” (Johnson, 1995, p. 1). The theory describes how organizations will align themselves with organizations that supply these necessary resources and how those organizations will affect the institution.

Why Outsourcing?

The grounding principles that organizations require resources to survive and that organizations are rarely self-sufficient are the premise behind Resource Dependence Theory (Johnson, 1995). These principles are definitely true for higher education institutions. When considering higher education institutions in terms of the Resource Dependence Theory, Anna Neumann describes the importance of resources.

Many of the field’s ideas about academic organization and leadership have been developed from within an imagery of the college or university as (1) resource dependent, (2) resource seeking, and (3) resource preserving. To survive – and hopefully thrive – in scarce, tumultuous, and unpredictable environments, an organization must be all three. This view has long guided the thinking and actions of college presidents and other chief administrators, as well as the researchers who study them (Neumann, 2012, p. 307).

As the world changes, administrators are faced with coming up with new and innovative ways to keep their institutions successful. Administrators may be able to use outsourcing as a way to approach some of these new challenges. There are many factors to consider when the question of “Is outsourcing the answer of higher education institutions’ problems?”

State Funding. Research into outsourcing in higher education continued to produce results with a repetitive theme and a fact that those familiar with higher education are aware of. Funding of higher education from state and federal governments is in decline (Curtis & Thornton, 2010; Lederman, 2012; Russell 2010). A study performed in 2011, found that state appropriations for higher education institutions fell by 7.6 percent in 2011-12. This reduction in funding represented the greatest single year decline in 50 years (Lederman, 2012). These entities are no longer able to provide the support those colleges and universities have heavily relied on for so long.

Tuition. Colleges and universities have been forced to look elsewhere for revenue due to the decrease in funding from state governments. One of the obvious answers is to raise tuition and colleges have done so. According to CollegeBoard.org, the average cost of tuition and fees at a four-year public institution was \$8,893, an increase of 27% in the last 5 years (“Tuition and fee”, 2014). This practice can cause a number of issues from excluding qualified students who are unable to afford the higher costs of colleges to students determining that the high cost of colleges is not a financially responsible long term decision.

Employee Pay and Benefits. Higher education institutions are starting to feel the strain of employing highly specialized and professional faculty and staff. The salaries of employees for the colleges and universities in the state of Minnesota had reached 70 percent of all university expenses in 2011. (Severns, 2012) In 2012 - 2013, Auburn University’s Main Campus salaries represented 58.4 percent of university expenditures (Auburn University, 2013). Higher education organizations, as any other organizations, feel the pressure to keep salaries and benefits competitive with peer institutions. Not doing so could cause bright young employees to move on and over time take away from the quality of the services provided by the institutions. Simply cutting salaries is not as cut and dry as it may seem.

Enrollment Fluctuation. With college tuition covering more and more of higher education institutions expenditures, student enrollment is obviously a key factor to take note of. Higher education institutions have experienced fluctuation in student enrollment. The National Center for Educational Statistics reported that between 1990 and 2000, enrollment increased 11 percent. From 2000 to 2010, student enrollment increased 37 percent. To put this number in perspective, a 37 percent enrollment increase meant an increase from 15.3 million to 21.0 million students in just 10 years.(U.S. Department of Education, 2013) But in more recent years, colleges are beginning to experience declines in enrollment. Enrollment declined 1.8 percent from fall 2011 to 2012 and 2.3 percent spring 2012 to 2013 (Lederman, 2013). The rise and fall of student enrollment causes many issues for higher education administration and makes it difficult to plan for the coming years.

Higher Expectations. With the high cost of higher education and a generation of students who expect more out of every facet of life, universities are feeling the pressure.

Now that it has become so important for a university to give its students the feeling that they have chosen the best university to attend, schools are considering all the possible factors that might contribute to a student’s happiness. One way of accomplishing this is by increasing the efforts to maintain and enhance the quality of campus life” (Glickman, Holm, Keating, Pannait, & White, 2007, p. 443).

With this being considered, universities are looking outside of the normal core functions of higher education, beyond academia, catering to the needs of students who are functioning on campus at all times. Students require additional services, transforming the campus into small cities (Glickman et al., 2007). These are not areas in which higher education institutions would be considered experts.

The high cost of college is also causing many students to orient themselves to institutions that will allow them to get a job after college. One of the institution types most affected by this are the Liberal Arts Colleges. Recent research has shown that since 1990, Liberal Arts Colleges have declined from 212 to 137 in 1999(Baldwin & Baker, 2009). These institutions must find ways to be more economically appealing to students or lower costs to be successful.

Technology. The fast paced and ever changing world of technology is another major challenge to higher education institutions. “Particularly in a time of rapid technological change, student demands may outpace the ability of higher education to respond in a timely fashion, and external providers can offer unique service otherwise unavailable to students”(VanHorn-Grassmeyer & Stoner, 2001, p. 20). Higher education cannot afford to lose out on students, due to their slow response and unwillingness to pursue new ventures.

Institution Dissatisfaction. The change may be brought about by the organization itself. Experiencing dissatisfaction with a current service on campus may be reason enough to look in to outsourcing.

Administration may choose to compare their internal abilities or services to their private counterparts. If they deem that a third party could perform the service better, why not pursue outsourcing?

Academic Changes. There are changes occurring in the academic landscape at higher education institutions as well. Arlene Russell notes three changes in the higher education landscape being witnessed by higher education administration: (1) growing competition from for-profit institutions (approximately 8 percent of undergraduate market share), (2) students are commonly receiving credits from more than one higher education institution and the acceptance by institutions of credits not earned internally, and (3) the decline of the long-established tenure based employment system resulting in a transition toward more faculty being adjunct and non-tenured (Russell, 2010).

These changes all affect the resources of the higher education organizations. Resources in higher education can range from state government funding, student tuition, and the people employed by the university. One application of Resource Dependence Theory is that administrators should work to make sure that no one resource is relied upon too heavily (Gumpert, 2012). With so many revenue sources for universities being threatened, outsourcing can allow some relief to the bottom line of these institutions.

Pros and Cons of Outsourcing

A benefit of outsourcing can be seen when a problem arises. If the service is provided internally, universities will be required to perform an internal review to figure out the problem. When the service is outsourced, there is a more direct way of dealing with the issue, going straight to the provider of the service and requiring them to review what went wrong and fix the issue. This can result in significant time and money savings and allow the organizations to address problems quicker (Glickman et al., 2007).

It is important to define a successful outsourcing venture to determine if the pros are something an organization would be interested in.

A successful outsourcing venture was defined as meeting at least one of three institutional needs: (1) improved customer service (the institution could not have provided the enhanced service with existing resources), (2) decreased costs (the external source could provide comparable or enhanced service at a lower cost, or more efficiently, than the institution could), or (3) increased revenue (the institution generates a revenue stream through a fee or in-kind support at the outset or over the duration of the contract; the outsourcing firm returned a portion of revenues to the institution; or both) (VanHorn-Grassmeyer & Stoner, 2001, p. 14).

Successful outsourcing ventures do not occur by chance. Successful outsourcing relationships have several key characteristics. The higher education organization and the service provider must be in constant communication and work together and also be willing to change and adjust. The situation must be such that the service provider's skills and experience work in conjunction with the needs of the organization. The service provider must maintain costs less than what the organization would have incurred without the agreement and must maintain the cost savings over the life of the contract. Finally, the service provider must regularly change and improve the business model to answer the changing environment (Moneta & Dillon, 2001).

As with any business type venture, there are negatives of outsourcing. Outsourcing does not represent an end all solution to the problems being faced by higher academic organizations. It is important to remember this when institutions are trying to use outsourcing to "solve a management or organizational problem, to make money, or to amplify an existing mission statement." (VanHorn-Grassmeyer & Stoner, 2001, p. 14)

Outsourcing should not be considered as a solution for incompetent leadership, it is not the proper tool for such problems. Underlying issues of accountability within the current leadership, will more than likely lead to similar, disappointing results with outsourced services (VanHorn-Grassmeyer & Stoner, 2001).

The failure of outsourcing on campuses can occur for many reasons, several of which revolve around the unwillingness of institutions to release control. Failure will occur if the institution does not allow the

service provider to use their expertise and cost efficiency measures. The institution does this by forcing the service provider to tailor their services to the organization, thus not allowing the provider to do what they are good at. Campuses must recognize that the service provider has specific experience in their field, and trust the provider will rely on this experience. Institutions must allow service providers to manage their operation how they see fit. Institutions should refrain from meddling in the management structure of an outsourced service (Moneta, & Dillon, 2001). While allowing the service provider some space to perform their duties, institutions should not completely separate themselves from the relationship. A “hands-off” approach can quickly lead to issues (Bartem, & Manning, 2001). As in any successful endeavor, communication is the key. Failure to communicate will quickly lead to failure. Communication shortcomings can occur if the services to be provide are not clearly defined, expectations are not expressed, the value of the contract is less than would be required for such service, or contract stipulations make it hard for the provider to perform their duties (Bartem, & Manning, 2001).

Outsourcing at Higher Education Institutions

College campuses are made up of a number of organizations that provide most services required by students and faculty. This results in a wide array of possible outsourcing ventures. The focus of this paper will be the outsourcing ventures being used by various campuses in academic and auxiliary services.

Outsourcing of Academia. At the core of any higher education institution is the teaching of students. The thought of outsourcing such a vital part of the universities mission is a new concept. The thought of outsourcing academic functions is so new in fact, that a 2002 survey of higher education business officers did not even include education as an option (Russell, 2010). There have been suggestions that the historical view of education is changing and that the lines between higher education and the business world are blurring. “The process between student and instructor and between student and institution has become transactional instead of transformational. Students pay for credits and knowledge, institutions provide a credential that certifies that they have attained some specified level of competence” (Burnett & Collins, 2010, p. 197). If this view represents the higher education of tomorrow, perhaps the outsourcing of academia doesn’t seem so farfetched.

Instruction. The outsourcing of instruction in higher education is most commonly seen with the use of part-time professors, also commonly referred to as adjunct professors. These adjunct professors are part time educators commonly hired to teach a specific class or on a course by course basis (Zhang & Liu, 2010). They allow the institution flexibility due to the limited term they are hired for and cost the university less than a full time faculty member. The use of adjunct professors in higher education institutions is on the rise, with a report from the American Association of University Professors estimating that as recently as 2011, 41 percent of faculty members were part-time faculty (Curtis & Thornton, 2013). The same report shows that Full-Time Non-Tenure-Track Faculty are at their lowest numbers since tracking of the data began in 1975. Institutions with focus at higher levels than undergraduate education have used teaching assistants to provide the instruction in undergraduate classes. The term “contract employee”, implying they are used on as needed basis, has been used to describe these teaching assistants, despite their employment with the university (Adams et al., 2004).

Auburn University’s College of Architecture, Design, and Construction – McWhorter School of Building Science has been using a form of outsourcing for the benefit of its students since 2007 in the form of the Visiting Industry Professor (VIP) since 2007. The school believed that their students could benefit from being educated by an individual currently active in the construction industry and bring a “real world” approach to education. The use of a VIP by the school also allows flexibility for the college by limiting the appointment terms; the school can bring in new professors and allow students to experience many different industry professionals.

Online Programs. Online degree programs are one of the first areas of academia being pursued through outsourcing. This movement away from conventional classroom education has opened the doors for companies to offer their expertise. Colleges are looking for ways to establish programs quickly, efficiently, and without incurring major costs. Although not all programs will follow the same model the typical responsibilities are as follows: the higher education institution's faculty have control of the academic program and their private counterpart provides "technological expertise, student support services, and marketing and recruitment resources (Russell, 2010, p. 2). Online programs are an area of outsourcing that HBCUs have been slow to adopt. In 2012, only 27 of the 106 HBCUs in the United States (25 percent) offered fully online programs, this compared to 62.4 percent of all other institutions (Ingeno, 2013).

Lamar University has partnered with Higher Ed Holdings (HEH) to provide online graduate programs in the field of education. HEH sold the program to Lamar University on the basis of increased enrollment with little to no investment from the university. Lamar University saw immediate benefits of the program. "In the first year, graduate enrollment in the College of Education grew to 4,172, an increase of nearly 225 percent, leading to the hiring of six new faculty members and additional staff" (Russell, 2010, p. 3). The students of Lamar also benefited from the newly formed program. Students pursuing the online degree saw a 60 percent savings on tuition costs versus classroom-based degrees and also a reduction in time required to finish the degree, 18 months versus 24 months (Russell, 2010). HEH has also helped Arkansas State University (Master's Degree in Education), the University of Texas at Arlington (education and nursing programs) and Ohio University (nursing degree) all develop online programs. The Arkansas State program was brought in to question early in the process due to lack of faculty involvement in negotiating the program with HEH. Only a year later though, faculty voted to increase the number of programs provided by HEH. Not all programs are so successful nor garner faculty support. A 2009 agreement between University of Toledo (Ohio) and HEH to establish two online education master's programs was spurned by faculty and ultimately the deal fell through. Although the programs would offer both cost savings and a shorter required time period faculty feared that the university president was more interested in profits than quality education (Russell, 2010).

Tutoring. Higher education institutions are looking beyond the classroom for academic outsourcing opportunities as well. Colleges are now partnering with online private education companies to provide tutoring and academic support to their students. One of these companies, Smarthinking, works with approximately 300 colleges and universities. Smarthinking sells tutoring services and the ability for students to work with live tutors at any time of the day (Russell, 2010). The benefits of such a program are clear for both universities as well as students. Universities are able to provide tutoring on an as needed basis instead of paying tutors on campus regardless of use. Students that desire additional help are able to receive tutoring at any time, not having to schedule their study times around those of the universities' on campus tutors. The obvious negative is that the university is not employing as many, if any, student tutors on campus, thus limiting on campus job opportunities for students.

Grading. One of the more questionable areas that higher education institutions have begun to explore for outsourcing is grading. A Washington D.C. based company, EduMetry, Inc., is one such company that offers grading services through their service "Virtual TA". It is alarming however, to discover that the actual graders employed by EduMetry are located in India, Singapore, and Malaysia. The concept may not be as controversial as it seems though. Professors maintain responsibility of the final grading as well as the creation of syllabuses, selection of textbooks, and overall scoring guidelines. So what is provided by the service? EduMetry's employees, the graders, provide scores and comments to the students and summary information to the professors. Both academic parties can benefit greatly from such specific feedback. West Hills Community College (California) currently uses the system for a few of its courses, and has noted that students are more likely to finish classes because they are receive constructive feedback throughout that they

may have not otherwise received. The system does have flaws though, including the lack of face to face interaction between student and grader and the high cost of such programs, with the average cost per student in the \$12 range (Russell, 2010).

Recruiting and Admissions. There are still other areas of academics at higher education that are being considered as possible outsourced services. The recruiting and admissions at institutions are two such services. Colorado College used outsourcing to answer a question that was being presented by prospective students. Will Colorado College accept admission applications through the internet (VanHorn-Grassmeyer & Stoner, 2001)? This service was not being provided by the college and was something that they felt they could not perform efficiently as outside entities. The college turned to three different service providers, two for-profit and one not-for-profit consortium. The college receives no revenue through the service and in the case of one of the on-line services, actually pays an additional \$10 charge so students don't incur the cost. It may seem strange that a college would see an outsourcing venture that does not provide revenue and may even cost money to the university as a success, but that is exactly what has happened. The reduction in time of staff processing the applications has resulted in a money savings for the university and a sharp increase in the number of on-line applications (VanHorn-Grassmeyer & Stoner, 2001).

An interesting use of outsourcing to benefit the recruitment of students occurred at the University of Missouri-Kansas City. The university was experiencing a drop in enrollment, after a sustained period of growth. Student affairs set out on a mission to fix the issues with student enrollment. The university hired the consulting service of Noel-Levitz to perform a study of the current campus environment and consult with the various organizations on the campus. The result was a success, with enrollment increasing at the university after only two years and the campus organizations having a better understanding of what it takes to recruit and retain students (VanHorn-Grassmeyer & Stoner, 2001).

Duke University entered into an agreement with Royall & Company to assist with the recruitment of prospective students through mail services. The service works by Duke supplying Royall with the biographical information of students meeting Duke's required scores on major national tests and then Royall mailing out information and publications describing Duke University to the students. After the initial mailing, students signifying interest in Duke will continue to receive information from Royall. The benefits and reasoning behind the agreement are evident. Royall & Company has built a business around the direct-mail recruitment process and had the expertise required by Duke University. While Duke does not realize a savings by using Royall, they have experienced an increase in the efficiency of the mailing process, a 48 hour turnaround time, and the Office of Undergraduate Admissions can focus on other endeavors. Duke University considers this outsource service a success (VanHorn-Grassmeyer & Stoner, 2001).

Outsourcing of Auxiliary Services. When thinking of outsourcing in higher education, the more traditional view is of the outsourcing of auxiliary services. These services are not the core function of the university, but have become necessities on campuses due to the demands of students and faculty. A study performed in 2003-04 of 162 respondent higher education institutions found that, 77.8 percent of dining operations, 45.1 percent of custodial services, and 54.9 percent of bookstore operations were outsourced. All results were an increase from a previous study performed in 1998-99 (Adams et al., 2004).

Dining. One of the most frequently outsourced services on higher education campuses are the various dining venues. With students living on campus and spending most of their day on campus, dining on campus is one of the most important services a university can provide. In an article that appeared in the February 2002 issue of Food Management magazine, titled "2002: A Cross-Segment Business Forecast" it was stated that "college students today are demanding more personal freedom, lifestyle choice, and foodservice options than ever before" (Glickman et al., 2007, p. 443). With this much importance being put on the foodservice sector of campuses, outsourcing can allow universities to address the need of students without being involved in the day to day operations of running these venues. Outsourcing of dining isn't without its

pros and cons. Those for outsourcing of dining talk about the benefits of higher education institutions being able to focus on their core services and the potential to save and even make money. The service provider in most cases is experienced in the food service business. This allows them to not only provide their expertise, but the larger companies are able to provide cost savings through economies of scale. Those against promote a model where the institution maintains control of dining service with in-house operations. They argue that universities will keep more of the profits provided through the dining service and by hiring experienced managers can limit the inexperience factor (Glickman et al., 2007).

The experiences of George Washington University (GWU) outsourcing their dining services to Aramark Corporation can serve as an example of the difficulties that can be experienced when outsourcing does not go as planned. GWU's campus is made up of approximately 22,000 students, roughly three-fifths being undergraduate students living on-campus. Aramark Corporation was one of the largest higher education food services providers, serving over 400 campuses across the United States. Despite Aramark's efforts to customize their service to GWU's campus, students were not satisfied with the services being provided. It was also noted that the employees of Aramark were not happy with their employment conditions. Early in the agreement, students could only use their on campus accounts to purchase food from Aramark food venues, which provided steady income for Aramark. In response to the students' dissatisfaction, the university opened these campus cash accounts to other non-Aramark dining venues. These new options hurt Aramark's business and forced them to reconsider their business plan. Despite Aramark's extensive food service experience, GWU's campus provided a number of challenges. In the end, GWU and Aramark renewed the food service contract in Fall 2004. In this example of on campus outsourcing, both the university and the business partner had to work together to make the service work on campus (Glickman et al., 2007).

Housing. Another auxiliary service being outsourced at universities across the country is on-campus housing. Each higher education institution views its housing differently. For some, residence halls are integral parts of the university, considered to educate students beyond the classroom, with staffs that serve as part of the educational environment. For others, housing is seen as nothing more than a place for students to sleep (Burnett & Collins, 2010). Depending on how the campus views its housing would affect how they pursue outsourcing on campus. On-campus housing is being outsourced in a variety of ways, from the actual construction of the facility to the management of the housing after construction. Private developers are partnering with universities to build housing due their ability to build faster and less expensive. A tax-exempt corporation model has emerged due to its benefits for both the university and the private developer. The university benefits through their use of the developers experience and efficiency and the developer benefits by utilizing the universities tax-exempt status and being able to provide management service (Bekurs, 2007).

Custodial Services. One of the largest employers of personnel on any campus is the custodial services group. Auburn University's Facilities Management Building Services Department utilizes a hybrid form of custodial services. Building Services employs a small staff of custodial managers and staff to clean the buildings on campus that management has deemed as high priority. One such building is Samford Hall, the building that houses Auburn's Office of the President, Office of the Provost and also the Executive Vice President and Chief Financial Officer. Management's decision to maintain control of this small staff was the ability to insure control of the cleaning of the building and to allow flexibility in services needed. The majority of campus cleaning has been outsourced to Centaur Building Services. This decision was made to reduce costs incurred by the university. This system has allowed Auburn to have clean buildings on campus and still provided specialized service to those campus entities that require it.

Bookstores. On-campus bookstores represent a money making venture for universities. Typical bookstores will supply everything from textbooks for students to memorabilia for alumni and fans. It is important to the university to insure the bookstore is a success. Southern Illinois University Carbondale has outsourced its bookstore operations, a common occurrence on campuses. The university was experiencing

student dissatisfaction with its bookstore operation, while employees were also experiencing issues with state regulations. The university made the decision to contract with Wallace's College Bookstores. The university's contract with Wallace included the upgrading of the current bookstore facility as well as a percentage of bookstore revenues being returned to the university. The agreement seemed to be a success until the company that owned Wallace declared bankruptcy. This unknown of outsourcing had an immediate impact on the bookstore and left the university in a tough place (VanHorn-Grassmeyer & Stoner, 2001).

Future Research

Researchers in the field of outsourcing in higher education will have two important areas to further develop. The first is the result of the early stages of outsourcing. As the first phase of outsourcing in higher education comes to an end, research will need to be done to detail the favorable and non-favorable outcomes experienced by higher education institutions. The second area to develop is the use of outsourcing in new ways and how different institutions implement and adapt ideas.

Outsourcing in higher education is emerging from its infancy. This should allow researchers the ability to deliver more result driven research and statistics in the future. There is a wealth of information on what is currently being outsourced and statistics on the areas being outsourced. The success or failure of these ventures is currently being determined and future research will be able to compare and contrast these developments.

Higher education institutions have merely scratched the surface of outsourcing opportunities. As more universities use outsourcing in different areas of higher education life, other colleges and universities will adopt and adapt these ideas. Future research should develop these new forms of outsourcing and how different higher education institutions (i.e. HBCUs, Liberal Arts Colleges, Private Institutions, etc...) have been able to make outsourcing work for them.

Implication for Policy & Practice

Moving forward, more and more institutions will implement outsourcing as a tool to reduce costs while still providing a quality product to their students and other on campus stakeholders. It is important for administrators to understand that outsourcing is not the cure to every issue on campus. It is however, a solution to difficult situations when the use of outsourcing is thought out and molded to fit the individual organization.

The uses of outsourcing on the academic side in instruction, online courses, tutoring, grading, and recruiting and admissions have produced favorable and non-favorable results for the institutions involved. One of the keys to successful outsourcing ventures is the modeling of the venture to the individual institution. This involves the input of the organizations employees, the expertise of a business partner related to the needed service, and the ability of the organization to not micromanage the service provider. Letting go of control can be difficult for institutions that are commonly in control.

Auxiliary services were the first areas to be outsourced by higher education institutions. The three most common services which were addressed in this paper are dining, custodial services, and bookstores. The paper also addressed housing, another commonly outsourced service. These areas are outside of the expertise of the higher education institutions, so bringing in an expert can often be beneficial to the institution. However, it is still important that the administrators make their goals and expectations known throughout the process.

As outsourcing becomes more prevalent, each institution will need to develop policies on how outsourcing will be handled in their institution. The creation of a policy will assist each entity on campus when engaging in outsourcing. While one of the major goals of outsourcing is reduced cost, it will be important for

the institution's integrity to not be compromised for the mere sake of saving a few dollars. A policy will help further define these expectations and the requirements of each outsourcing venture.

Conclusion

The decision to outsource by university administrators can be difficult to make. Outsourcing requires that the institution relinquish some control of the service being provided and requires a level of trust in the provider. As resources available to higher education institutions become scarce and change, administrators will be forced to adapt and change how they run their organizations. Outsourcing may not provide the answer to every institution's needs, but when trying to answer if outsourcing is the answer to the current and future problems of higher education, it is definitely a step in the right direction and one that should be considered.

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UNSEEN COSTS OF REPLACING FULL-TIME WORKERS WITH PART-TIME EMPLOYEES IN EDUCATION

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Journal of Higher Education Management 29(1) [2014], pp. 59-67.

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Background

Dating back to the Enlightenment period and The Revolution, Western Civilization has enjoyed the relative ease of acquiring a basic education (Urban & Wagoner, 2009). Haphazard at first, early efforts to organize education in the early 1800s struggled as the mostly teacher-lead schools worked to define processes (Urban & Wagoner, 2009). As with almost every organized effort, the lack of resources was and continues to be one of the primary barriers for education administrators looking to do more. Programs and offerings are seemingly limited more often by funds than lack of vision. Inevitably, human resources officers and college administration will make compromises in hopes of meeting demands without breaking the budget. As with many business operations, though, the cheapest option is not always the best one.

Historically, “administrative” roles would be filled by the faculty themselves (Urban & Wagoner, 2009). The term “faculty advisor” is not uncommon. After all, the faculty would be the most aware of the most efficient course sequences. They would have information on which course combinations to avoid and which courses work well together. In early arrangements, students would pay teachers directly for instruction (Urban & Wagoner, 2009). Of course, this contributed to reduced attrition rates and more favorable grade distributions. Ironically, this data likely was not tracked. The emergence and evolution of administrative-only roles in education is perhaps worthy of its own study. Nevertheless, we find ourselves with equal parts of teaching and non-teaching employees in higher education (Guskin, 1996). Faculty are certainly the producers on the front lines with students, but there is a great deal going on in the background at any institution. Alan Guskin (1996) makes a good point in his paper on reducing costs in education. Employers (colleges included) find themselves victims of progress. It is becoming increasingly easier to replace or outsource projects and people. The advancement of technology has fueled this movement by allowing fewer workers to multitask more efficiently. Further, it is becoming increasingly expensive to hire full-time workers. The rising costs of living means workers demand higher pay. Colleges simply can no longer commit to hiring as many full-time workers at high salaries with amidst uncertain economic outlooks.

Contemporary administrators are certainly faced with more complex challenges than their 19th century counterparts. A constant struggle is staffing. Full-time employees are expensive. On top of the base salary, there are things like benefits, insurance premiums, retirement-matching and office space overheads to consider. The total package for an employee with a base salary of \$50,000 may climb closer to \$75,000 at the bottom line. During times of prosperity, colleges may look to fill every open position. They will hire associate

deans for every office and assistants for everyone. Maintenance and facility workers will have plenty of help, tools and supplies as enrollment is up and state allocations are coming in. These prosperous days of hiring can be dangerous though. For educators and tenured faculty especially, it is difficult if not impossible to fire or lay off full-time workers (Bennett, 2009). Many of them will become tenured or vested in as little as three years of full-time service. As things like proration or enrollment decline hit, keeping these workers on staff shifts from a luxury to a difficult burden. Colleges may implement policies disallowing the hire of new full-time employees. Positions made vacant for whatever reason would be absorbed by other workers or just left empty. The reduction in enrollment after all means less demand on the workforce.

Of course, there is also the matter of tenure and its implications. Certainly this achievement is traditionally awarded to full-time faculty and, occasionally, administrators. Tighe (2003) argues that this is pointless, though. If instructors are freely operating under first-amendment rights then what protection do they need from tenure laws? This is relevant here because full-time faculty may not always be inclined to “cruise” and/or “settle in” without the protection of tenure. Further, there may be more qualified part-time workers that are willing/able to do the job but cannot secure the full-time position due to some tenure technicality. The other side of that argument is that tenure encourages creativity as teachers can explore research opportunities and avenues with less fear of losing their position over a failed attempt (Chait, 2002).

Purpose of Study

The goal of this paper is to answer the question of whether it is “better” to hire multiple part-time workers to take the place of full-time workers. As with many questions, the answer is not as simple as there are finances to consider on one hand and student learning outcomes to consider on the other. With faculty and administrators often disconnected on the true needs of the college, it will be important to find a balance to provide the most effective and productive learning environments while staying within the budgetary constraints (Chait, 2002).

Current Literature

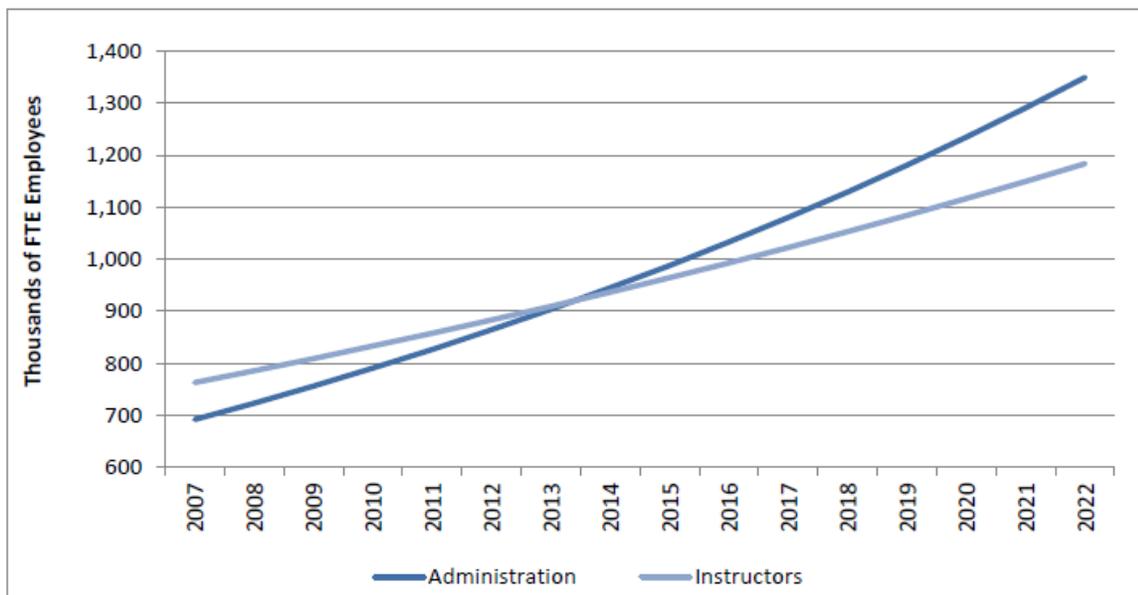
The discussion on the benefits/drawbacks of use of part-time workers is not a new one. There can also be little argument as to the money savings associated with cutting the secondary benefits of full-time workers. Little if any attention has been paid to the community and social benefits gained from hiring full-time workers. Specifically, the realm of education offers unique challenges such as the training of displaced workers, PTSD sufferers, and other forms of adult learners. Existing studies show a deficiency in the evaluation of how full-time and part-time workers in institutions of higher education interact with each other and students. Adjunct faculty are often treated as contract labor. Hired to do a clearly-defined job, they tend to avoid extra (unpaid) work. Though technically filling a position, there is little study on the benefits of having full-time workers on-campus and available for “office hours.”

The Establishment of Full-Time Positions

One largely understated benefit to full-time employment is the sense of identity that a person gains with his/her career. An individual’s identity is at least partially defined by full-time employment (Chait, 2002). A person can say something like “I am the Director of Counseling Services.” The simple statement, “I am” implies identity. It is likely that the position follows that director home. He is no doubt checking and responding to emails from students and colleagues even during what would be considered “off hours.” Further, the worker’s home life is enabled by the position. Houses, cars and other purchases are made possible by full-time steady and stable employment. As these workers continue in positions long-term, they become more efficient and streamlined in their processes. They are available for committee meetings and mentorships with less experienced employees. The establishment of office space creates the proverbial

“home away from home” where they are most productive. This productivity is empowered by the focused efforts of the individual. He may have multiple projects in play, but they are all projects with ultimately the same goal in mind. The costs for dividing this worker’s attention are much greater than the simple time lost. A trait particularly associated with full-time education administrators and faculty is their longevity (Bennett, 2009). Well-established workers become fixtures in their institutions and commonly will spend the majority of their working careers in a single institution or even in a single position. This phenomenon is empowered at least in part due to fair dismissal laws that are much easier to circumvent in the public sector. Vedder (2013) explains in his paper on cutting the costs of education that the early 2000s saw a surge in hiring of administrative staff in education. Colleges need administrators, but it is the faculty that are on the “front lines” and actually earn income for the school. Vedder suggests that the unbalance in staff/faculty ratio is fueling at least in part the economic collapse of many colleges today. Vedder’s chart below shows IPEDS projections of future hirings.

Figure 6.2: Employee Projection at 4-Year Public & 4-Year Private Not-for-Profit Colleges



SOURCE: IPEDS FALL STAFF SURVEYS

This top-heavy model is being held up by the few faculty that are being hired. Of those, many (most) are part-time workers. According to Vedder (2013), the opposite approach to hiring is needed if colleges are to continue to support themselves financially. Universities should learn to run with lean administration and hire an adequate number of full-time faculty to meet the institutional goals. These concepts are clearly outline in accreditation requirements (SACS/COC, 2012).

The Bubble Burst

In 2008, the state of Alabama stopped issuing “percentage raises” for full-time employees and implemented the Deferred Retirement Option Plan (DROP). The cessation of raises was not a matter of policy as much as it was a shortage of funds. DROP was designed to encourage employees to retire by allowing what equated to a retirement buyout plan. The plan was largely successful as many long time employees took the option to retire. Many of these vacant positions were either left empty or absorbed by remaining workers in

colleges across the state. The positions that were filled made use of entry-level workers generally making much less than the outgoing veteran. To save further, colleges would sometimes opt to fill a full-time position with multiple part-time employees. This saved the school the expense of benefits and allowed them to hire at will. It was much easier to lay off a couple of part time workers than a tenured full-timer. Colleges enjoyed this freedom but critics of the practice suggest that they were overlooking the lost benefits of having a full-time person identify with that position and make it his own (RSA, 2008).

Another topic to keep in mind is the relatively high turnover rates associated with part-time and contract labor. Without the personal connections and investments into the organization, part-time workers can be quite fickle (Bennett, 2009). Considering the high costs of training and re-training (Hart, 1995) associated with these transitions, institutions need to be ever mindful of the total cost of all of their employees. A part-time tutor or office worker may save money in wages and salary but can be quite costly if they leave the company after an intensive paid training program.

Money-Saving Tactics

Though perhaps a bit dated, Guskin's paper (1996) further emphasizes a shift in education away from student outcomes toward economics. Guskin's work is still relevant in particular because he makes the comparison between education and health care. In each instance we see rising costs, an unwillingness to bargain or deal with the "core delivery system," governance structures that stifle progress, top-heavy administration, decision making that is out of touch with activities on the front lines and heavy dependence on a system that is underwritten by federal dollars.

So with the higher-paid administration and faculty veterans moving out, the college (in theory) has increased monies. A strategy employed by some is to allow administrative positions to be absorbed into remaining jobs (Chait, 2002). Full-time faculty need to be replaced because, after all, they are the money makers on the front lines with students. Rather than replacing outgoing workers immediately, colleges will often post a temporary full-time faculty position. This accomplishes several goals.

- There is generally no search process required for temporary workers. This allows administration to fast-track the hiring of faculty members without the drawn-out full committee selection process.
- Temporary employees are generally not entitled to any sort of benefits beyond their base salary. This offers a great deal of savings to the university.
- As mentioned earlier, established full-time tenure-tracked employees can be difficult to release. The fair dismissals and due process laws have ensured that. Temporary employees are only contracted for the term of the temporary agreement. At the end of the term the college has no obligation to them.
- The college will get the full-time efforts of the worker. This may actually be increased by a worker looking to "prove himself" during the trial period.
- Hiring temporary workers allows a sort of trial period for the school. If the worker does not meet expectations, the college is not bound to that worker beyond the initial contract.

One drawback with temporary employment for the employee is that it is not guaranteed. At least it is much more volatile than a tenure-tracked position. So the applicant pool may shrink when we exclude those not willing to leave current employment to take the risk of getting the temporary position only to lose continued employment later. The compromise for some seems to be to hire permanent part-time workers. This provides resiliency to the job but gives the college the power to negotiate the terms. As mentioned earlier, this strategy has its dangers and drawbacks. Considering these it is interesting to consider how the Human Capital Theory comes into play (Fitzsimons, 1999).

Legal Considerations

Perhaps it plays to the benefit of the institution, or even the entire school system, that adjunct instructors and part-time employees are not as likely to be active members of a teacher's union. We have seen the influence of groups like the National Education Association, the American Federation of Teachers and even, more locally, the Alabama Education Association. Full time instructors and employees will join these groups for multiple reasons. Members will look to their union or organization for legal counsel and representation in the event of a student/parent accusation. These groups will also push for the salary/benefits of their members. Seldom ever will we see a union group pushing part-time pay as these part-time workers often displace the full-time employees. Having large numbers of union members is beneficial to the individual colleges as they are able to collectively bargain more effectively (Kaplin, 2014). Further complicating matters, Underwood (2003) tells us that adjunct faculty are among a growing number of part-time workers seeking benefits from their employers. Backed by court rulings in favor of the employees, colleges may soon find themselves in the peculiar situation of being required to pay for things like healthcare and retirement for their part-time workers. On the surface this certainly appears to be a win for instructors everywhere. Further consideration, though, reveals possibilities for increased tuition to cover rising costs. Mikoski and Osmer (2011) remind us that the faculty majority can be somewhat blindsided. We see this in legal cases where an outspoken minority creates change that ripples not only through the institution in question but through all of academia. Historically, rising tuition means lower enrollment and lower demand for instructors (Urban & Wagoner, 2009). The bottom line becomes, the colleges may compensate their adjunct faculty more/better but will there be students willing to pay the ever-climbing costs of education? This phenomenon of adjuncts seeking benefits circumvents the entire model that drives part-time instructors. The colleges are able to fill a classroom with 40+ students paying \$100 or more per credit hour while paying the single instructor as little as \$500 per credit hour (IPEDS). With budgets and planning based on previous years, it is not likely that the institutions will cut costs to pay adjuncts. For many, there seems to be a sympathy factor too. Part-time instructors with no other employment depend on teaching as their primary income. Instructors with full-time work outside of the adjunct position enjoy more bargaining power. Institutions looking to stay out of the complicated matter of pay cuts will often opt to pass expenses on to their consumers. The most logical solution is to raise tuition.

Formalization and Educational Organization

Dr. William Tierney defines formalization in educational organization as a sort of implied rigidity and that workers adopt in their jobs. There is little social fabric holding the organization together, rather it is the rules and regulations that keep things running. More informal climates surround smaller schools where employees may know each other on a more personal level. This encourages some cross-training as workers "cover" for one another. Considering our topic, it is interesting to apply the concept of formalization to the argument on hiring part-time workers over full-time employees. With a formal environment there is an underlying lack of personality in the work. So can we say that a formal environment lends itself more quickly to the hiring of contract labor (part-time workers)?

Outsourcing

There is a body of evidence supporting the value of outsourcing in higher education (Vedder, 2013). The notion can be applied quite directly to something like facilities. Specifically, lawn and outdoor maintenance can quite easily (and should?) be outsourced to a private vendor. Private vendors can be hired and fired freely. This gives them an incentive to do a good job. Further, it removes the overhead burden of equipment maintenance from the university. This is not a new concept and certainly it has proven itself. As mentioned earlier, adjunct instructorship is merely a form of outsourcing labor. There is little/no overhead to

content with adjuncts are much easier to release from duty should the need arise. One might argue that the same outsourcing principles apply to the teaching contractor. They may be inclined to perform well based on the fact that they are expendable. Further, the hope of a future full-time position may fuel their performance as well. Daniel Bennett (2009) outlines in his article for Center for College Affordability and Productivity that there has been a disproportionate hiring trend among colleges of all types. Schools tend to hire part-time instructors because they can fill the “basic functions” of an instructor while they are hiring full-time support staff. This raises an interesting point. Colleges are hiring part-time workers who are presumably less invested in the overall well being of the college to be the “front liners” with direct contact with students. Meanwhile, institutions hire full-time workers to do the “back office” clerical work. Bennett (2009) is calling “back office” work the mundane “widget making” that certainly is vital to the school but does not have any customer service value at all. One might think that the notion of putting our best paid and most qualified staff on the front lines would be priority. Of course, many of these decisions are not driven by student learning outcomes but by the reality of the economics in the situations.

Online and Out of Office Work

With the communication revolution, part time workers, faculty in particular, have more opportunities than ever to “work from home” (Vedder, 2013). On the surface this type of arrangement seems to provide equal benefit to all parties involved. The institution need not worry about office space overhead, benefits and other extraneous expenses. The worker is contracted for a specific amount to do perform a specific task. For the worker, the agreement allows freedom and income. It is argued, though, that employees, especially instructional staff, see a drop in productivity when they are off campus (Jensen, 2007). Perhaps it is the lack of looming accountability or even distractions from home that cause home workers to slip. It is also argued that workers from home do not feel the same deadline crunch that one might experience in the office. If a worker knew that he need to “get this done today,” he would know that “today” was before quitting time. For the at-home worker, “today” could mean later tonight after his television program was finished.

When combined with part-time workers, the results are inevitable. The use of part-time faculty (online or in-person seems to make no difference) there is an increased isolation of those faculty. As previously said, the contractors show up, do their job and move on to the next employer. Further, there is a reduction in the institution’s control over the curriculum (McGrath, 1991) when part-time instructors are used. They have more perceived academic freedom and less accountability. These factors add up to what equates to “walking away power” which does not serve the students or the institution well. The resulting disconnection between the levels of education provided by adjuncts vs. full-time faculty is certainly worthy of its own study. Other possible caveats include the hiring of full-time *temporary* workers, positions “based on continued funding,” and non-tenured faculty tracks. These practices have a tendency to save the university “lots of money” but these equate to a sort of “second class faculty” according to Tighe (2003).

Community Involvement

Community colleges will often require their full-time faculty to engage themselves in some sort of local project or community outreach program. This has obvious implications for the local area and does much to boost the community’s perception of the institution (Tinto, 1997). Further, it can be said that these extra experiences allow instructors to connect with students on a more personal level thus creating accountability and improved student learning outcomes (Frye, 1999). Part-time instructors, as stated before, do not inherently carry that sense of belonging or ownership with the college. They do not carry office hours and are generally unavailable for “small talk” or chats (Jacoby, 2006). It can be said that these factors play a part in students’ overall development and that the college is showing its patrons a disservice by staffing classes with part-time instructors (Frye, 1999).

Human Capital Theory

Patrick Fitzsimons (1999) from the University of Auckland reminds us that education has been “re-theorized under Human Capital Theory as primarily an economic device.” This gives validity to the money saving tactics discussed earlier when considered from a purely financial perspective. Further, Annemarie Nelen’s (2003) study on part-time productivity delivers conclusive results on the matter. Nelen discovered that part-time workers were largely more productive than their full time co-workers. Part-time workers could be scheduled to bridge gaps in full-time lunch breaks and tend to be more focused on the tasks at hand during their time on the job. The lack of a work “home away from home” seemed to encourage workers to work more efficiently with much less overhead (Nelen, De Grip and Fouarge, 2011). Nelen’s study was based on purely on productivity, though, and did not consider the efficiency of worker’s whose duty (all too often) is to be available at a station. Academic advisors are a prime example of this.

Non-faculty academic advisors are generally stationed in an office of their own. They may have even had an opportunity to personalize the space with pictures. Often taking ownership of “their space” on campus, they leave little/no opportunity for a second shift to take over.

Becker (1993) reinforces these concepts with his take on the division of labor and Human Capital Theory. With the emergence of specialization in the work force, it is more difficult to encourage a widespread division of labor. That is, workers have their comfort zone and are not easily convinced to work “outside the box.” This of course fuels the contract labor mentality that surrounds many workers, especially part-time workers. Fitzsimons (1999) goes as far as to say that human capital theory is an “impoverished notion of capital” and that it does not account for the activities of humans rather simply applies a dollar figure to the specific tasks they perform. This is consistent with the other literature and criticism on human capital theory.

Though somewhat dated, Bowles (1975) critique of Human Capital Theory sarcastically refuses to base her comments on the “repugnance some have expressed at the notion of placing a dollar value on human beings.” It is a light-hearted comment, but its truth strikes at the heart of the practices this paper addresses. Bowles goes on to point out the flaws in, not necessarily Human Capital Theory as a theory but the practice of working to “maximize profit.” We are, after all, an institution of education. The focus has so obviously shifted from education, though, toward the economics of education. Interestingly, Bowles makes the distinction between the terms “labor” and what she calls “labor power.” Labor is the actual work being done while labor power is the mental and physical capacity of the one doing the work. Bowles (1975) argues that the labor is not likely to meet labor power (we will never get a person’s full productivity potential met) while we are following the Human Capital Theory. The suggestion is that people should disconnect the dollar figure from the person and wage the employee based on productivity. Wages in stocks and profits based on merit may be viable for the private sector, but such models do not exist for colleges and universities.

Agency Theory

The application of Agency Theory to higher education institutions places the role of agent on the faculty and other employees with regular direct interaction with students (Bowles, 1975). The principal becomes the upper management and the president. Principles count on their agents to keep the interests of the principle in mind. With no incentive for improved performance or consequence for poor performance, agents often do the minimum required. In the case of faculty, who presumably became faculty for their interest in teaching, there is an internal drive to improve student outcomes (Bennett, 2009). The principle is generally more driven by quantitative information such as enrollments and revenues. The principle will look to the agent in higher education for quantitative data on things like attrition and completers. These, after all, play into the institution’s bottom line.

Part-time workers may exhibit an even deeper disconnect from the institution. The lack of identity or ownership may contribute to their agent-like behaviors. Full-time workers who have made an identity connection with the institution will tend to take on the characteristics of the principle and keep the overall goals of the college in mind (Bennett, 2009). There are things that the college can do to help part-time and full-time employees identify with the school in ways that will promote an awareness and identity connection.

Other Theories

There is no shortage of information on employment theory and how to administer workers. We can find works relating to all levels of employees. While few of them apply their efforts to the realm of higher education, some of the research is generic enough to be applied to all disciplines of work. One criticism of the field of Human Resource Management (HRM) is that it lacks a clearly defined theoretical framework. Particularly in the realm of higher education staffing, we see a deficiency in established norms and hiring models with proven performance. Valid and relevant theories might include allowances for the biological model and how humans interact with each other based on their status within the organization. Certainly there is productivity that takes place when employees have an opportunity to get comfortable and familiar with each other. As mentioned in the section on Outsourcing, this is not always desired as sometimes contractors are not expected to be creative. They are expected to complete a task. As higher education professionals, though, interaction and creativity are almost always at the heart of continued growth. Relevant models would certainly account for the stifling of creativity with the ticking of a time clock.

Conclusions

As long as there is a disconnection between those in education administration and those who are actually doing the work in the classrooms, we are likely to continue to see a struggle with needs not being met. Work-around options like online office hours are certain to help balance the budget, but we must consider the true costs of such arrangements. In production-based positions we see that part-time employees, particularly faculty, can be quite efficient (Vedder, 2010). They can report to their position, perform a task and move on with little lapse in performance. The same would apply to part-time tutors, facility workers and receptionists. For faculty, one might argue that the absence of true office hours is a hindrance to students. With the communication revolution, though, this argument has lost some of its validity. It seems to be the nature of the undergraduate student to wait until the last opportunity to get things done. Time management is certainly something we all must learn quickly. With this procrastination comes some urgency when the time finally comes to get things done. Students will inevitably drive to campus in search of the person who can help. It is important for the college to be open and for that person to be at his/her station ready to help. Too many students are lost to closed doors and unreturned messages.

It would be convenient to simply apply models like human capital theory to the notion of hiring part-time workers over full-time employees. "On paper" it works out quite well. Considering the "biology" of the facts and nature of humans who, after all, are doing the work, it is impossible to write off the benefits gained through social interaction, job security, encouraging creativity and innovation that occur with the seating of full-time qualified, career-minded education professionals.

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CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES FOR PhD's: EXPECTATIONS OF EMPLOYMENT IN NON-ACADEMIC OR NON-TENURE ENVIRONMENTS

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Journal of Higher Education Management 29(1) [2014], pp. 68-77.

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PhD graduates from a variety of academic backgrounds have either chosen not to pursue the traditional or expected tenure-track career path or they have been placed in a position where tenure is unattainable or unavailable (Dybas, 2013). This predicament or choice places a PhD in a position where they must market their skills and make themselves attractive to potential employers, either within or outside the academe. While non-academic employment may not have been part of one's plan upon earning their PhD, employment in the private sector may eventually become desirable where he or she is able to, according to Dybas (2013), "perform 'academic research' without the stresses of tenure and teaching" (p. 917). Should a PhD graduate find themselves in a position where a tenure-track position is not feasible (despite their desire for such), they must then consider the process of seeking employment in the private sector. However, many PhD's are, according to Wood (2014), "ill-equipped to manage a non-faculty job search [and] many new PhD's struggle to find openings relevant to their interests and skills" (para. 2). In order to prepare themselves for postsecondary employment outside of the academe, it is worthwhile to ask the question of whether it would be prudent for PhD's to focus on job search techniques and marketing skills so they can become viable candidates for industry or corporate positions.

Research has been conducted by those within the academe in order to understand why industry may seek PhD's for employment. Research on PhD's who have found success within or who still face challenges in the non-academic environment is also included and more specific topics, such as the special challenges women encounter after earning a PhD are also brought into the conversation. Along with the aforementioned issues, this paper also seeks to answer the question of how to motivate a PhD to conduct a job search outside of the academe. In conclusion, the possibility of altering how academia approaches their graduate curricula and how they manage conversations with PhD's are discussed and suggested to become the foundation for future research.

Brief Overview of PhD Programs

Doctoral programs are rigorous in nature as they are a mixture of completing coursework, developing research topics, conduction research, and publishing research findings (Ampaw & Jaeger, 2011). While completing the stages of a doctoral program, PhD students and candidates are trained to become, according

to Miller and Nettles (2006), “future faculty and future leaders of commerce and industry” (as cited in Jones, 2013, p. 83). This training is facilitated by a doctoral student’s supervisor who is responsible for his/her student’s success (Jones, 2013) and who collaboratively works with his/her student in order to support and guide them through their program. Doctoral students can be both intrinsically and extrinsically motivated to complete their program in order to gain prestige within a university or corporation or in order to increase their earning potential (Jones, 2013). In order to better understand how a doctoral program is organized, it is helpful to divide it into stages. According to Jones (2013):

In the developmental stage, doctoral students complete their coursework thus acquiring the skills needed to be a doctoral candidate and develop a specific research agenda. This stage usually ends with presentation of a dissertation proposal. The final stage is the research stage where students complete their research of defend their dissertation (Ampaw, 2010). In the final stage, financial support and external commitments continue to be salient. (p. 642).

A diagram (Figure 1 below) outlining the stages of a PhD program provides a helpful visual and adds detail to the above information. This diagram is adapted from Amber Stuver’s “A Graduate Student’s Expectation of Graduate Education.”

Figure 1. A graduate student’s matriculation stages during PhD completion (Stuver, 2006).



During the above referenced stages, doctoral students may be fortunate enough to finance their education through assistantships and grants or they may use student loans as a means to support themselves (and possibly their family) while paying tuition (Jones, 2013). While progressing through their program, students may run into personal or professional circumstances that cause them to reconsider their decision to earn a PhD. According to Di Pierro (2012), “students may abandon their programs of study for many reasons; however, most do not leave due to lack of competence” (p.30). These reasons can be financial in nature or maintaining a work/life balance becomes too taxing on the doctoral student and his/her family (Marcus, 2007).

Upon completion of a doctoral program, decisions regarding future employment and post-doctoral studies are contemplated and discussed in detail in the next section. It should be noted that further research is desired regarding doctoral student retention. Issues such as the relationship between doctoral students and their supervisors, the student’s perception of the doctoral program itself, and performance feedback have been suggested as areas of future research (Jones, 2013).

Options upon Completion of a PhD

As a PhD candidate arrives at the end of his or her arduous journey of research, writing, and publishing they are faced with the prospect of continuing their involvement with academia and seeking positions within a university that lead to tenured employment. Within academia, a tenured position is the

most secure level of employment yet the trek towards tenure can take years and universities often set limits for probationary tenure periods (Marcus, 2007). Should a PhD allow this probationary period to expire or seek opportunity elsewhere, career choices may not be as plentiful outside the professoriate. Yet, the private sector can greatly benefit from the unique expertise of a PhD. Outside of academia, PhD's can be a valuable resource as they are, according to Garcia-Quevedo, Mas-Verdu, and Polo-Otero (2011), "considered a key element in the creation, commercialization and diffusion of innovations and a main input in knowledge production" (p.608). They can also act as a link between universities and industry (private sector), providing insight for organizational decisions that will affect a corporate entity (Garcia-Quevedo et al., 2011). This collaboration is especially apparent in technology-based industries. According to Garcia-Quevedo et al.(2011), "firms that cooperate with universities are more likely to hire PhD's and this probability is greater if these firms, besides cooperating with universities, belong to technology-intensive industries" (p.618).

It is also of great concern to PhD's that within their area of expertise, they may have to compete against many other PhD's with similar backgrounds therefore flooding the market of PhD holders (Garcia-Quevedo et al., 2011). PhD's from Spain and other European countries may have a more difficult time seeking employment in the private sector when compared to the United States (Garcia-Quevedo et al., 2011). Based on these findings, it should be the goal of universities to understand the criteria under which a corporation will employ a PhD so this information can be passed on to a PhD who can then use these guidelines to their benefit. Recognizing the value of a PhD is also of importance to employers as, according to Keep (2009), "In a knowledge-based economy, where specialist training is required to keep pace with rapid growth of knowledge in the most important fields, a three- or four-year B.A. is no longer sufficient" (p.20). In other words, can a corporation expect a return on investment if they hire a PhD for a management or an executive position? According to Casey (2009), corporations can benefit from hiring PhD's:

The qualities possessed by PhD's are important for firms that are competing in the market place and wish to maintain and improve upon their position relative to other firms. One way in which firms can do this is to ensure that they are both open to new ideas and can use these ideas. Firms that employ highly qualified staff might be able to "hoover up" and transform or initiate new technologies and ideas faster than firms that do not, whilst their highly qualified staff can communicate how these ideas should be used to those with whom they work faster than those without such qualifications. (p.224)

Recognition of the above mentioned skills, as well as recognizing and utilizing the writing, research, and abstract thinking skills cultivated through years of research and study, can empower a corporation to have more of a competitive edge when compared to similar industry providers. While the prospect of industry and corporate employment may be attractive to many PhD holders, this career track may be the only viable choice upon earning a PhD or if the tenure track becomes too burdensome.

Challenges for Women Post PhD

The possibilities in the non-academic workforce may seem more promising and supportive for those whose career trajectory is altered for personal reasons, such as starting a family. Along with those who seek gainful employment outside of the professoriate, women have also had to consider finding a foothold in non-academic settings in order to compensate for absences from academia stemming from child birth or raising children (Marcus, 2007). These choices, while noble, can place women in a position where they must choose between commitments such as obtaining tenure or remaining committed to family and postponing tenure. The decision to temporarily place family above working towards tenure is not always held in high esteem amongst those in the academe. According to Marcus (2007), "women are being discouraged from careers in academia because the timing and requirements of tenure make it so hard to raise families" (p.28). However, not all universities create barriers for women who seek a balance between work and family and these

institutions can become models for other universities who may be considering a realignment of tenure requirements. Universities such as Duke University allow for faculty to work a more flexible schedule in order to balance family demands (Marcus, 2007).

While Duke and other universities, such as the University of Washington, recognize the need for a balance between work and family commitments, there are still many barriers evident in the academic landscape that may not be as prevalent in the private sector. Indeed, corporations have made better strides toward accommodating those who must place family needs above the needs of industry. Universities have fallen behind the private sector when providing for flexibility (Marcus, 2007). It is also important to mention that women tend to seek a tenure-track position around the same time when they choose to start families (Marcus, 2007). Stepping away from an academic position in order to focus on family can result in waning interest in academics. This disassociation from rigorous academic demands results in women being open for employment and growth possibilities within corporate America. Promotions, achieving an executive position, or becoming part of company leadership may occur faster when one's occupation is non-academic. According to Marcus (2007), "In general, the percentage of women in senior positions at universities and colleges has edged up but nowhere near as fast as in other occupations" (p.30).

The possibilities for job growth and visibility within a corporation are illuminated when compared to the demands associated with tenure track positions. According to Marcus (2007), "business and industry long ago started making allowances to attract star female employees. What they realized a lot faster than higher education was that there was competition for the best people" (pp. 29 – 30). Competition is an ideal term to use here as competition among PhD's can discourage those who already feel as though they are, despite their educational accomplishments, unprepared to pursue tenure-track positions or have been placed in a professional conundrum when tenure-track positions are unavailable.

Competition amongst PhD's

PhD's from a variety of academic schools maintain this commonality; there are too many PhD's in the market who seek employment within academia. For example, within the field of counseling psychology, Golde et al (2006) and Nyquist (2002) contend that, "doctoral education has failed to meet the needs of industry, and has thus created misalignments and inefficiencies in the employment marker for graduates. It is observed that there are too few academic positions for graduates" (as cited in Servage, 2009, p.765). This statement has a discouraging undertone but when approached differently, can reinforce the decision for those who are interested in employment within the private sector. According to Neumann and Tan (2011), "acknowledgement of the important role of the training of doctoral graduates also recognizes that a knowledge economy requires research careers beyond the traditional academic career, and generates interest in the connection of the doctorate to non-academic employment" (p. 603). Furthermore, according to Neumann (2003), "a national study on doctoral education showed that only around half of doctoral candidates necessarily contemplated moving into an academic career" (as cited in Neumann & Tan, 2011, pp. 603 – 604). The appreciation of a PhD's research skills is attractive to many industries, specifically scientific industries that base their innovation and visibility on research and product development.

For PhD students and candidates in scientific-based fields, the cross over from academia to a non-academic career could very well have been influenced by the requirement for them to complete an internship in order to garner necessary job skills. This involvement with industry benefits the PhD upon completion of their doctoral program as the possibility for an academic position is, according to Mangematin and Robin (2003), "eroded by the fierce competition for the small number of tenured posts" (as cited in Gemme & Gingras, 2012, p. 670). The question for a PhD to consider is how valuable is their PhD outside the walls of academia? While the presence of a PhD holder may foster a company's competitive edge and innovation

(Cruz-Castro & Sanz-Menendez, 2005), PhD's must consider the forward movement of their career when they become part of the private sector.

Value of a PhD in the Private Sector

It is worthwhile to consider the value of a PhD outside academia as university budgets and funding have been negatively affected by the economic downturn of 2008-2009 (that still affects employment throughout academia and industry). According to Keep (2009), "in this time of rampant budget deficits at both public and private postsecondary institutions, tenure has become a luxury few can afford" (p.20). Non-academic job positions that require one to have an advanced degree and perhaps a few years of working experience can become attractive in a time of uncertainty. As PhD's find employment success outside of the professoriate, they can perhaps act as a liaison between industry or the corporate world and academia. According to Keep (2009):

"Many programs have had some success with inviting former students who have made a successful transition from academe to the corporate world back to their alma mater to discuss how they went from dissertation writing to gainful employment in government and business" (p. 21).

PhD professionals who share success stories with future PhD's share valuable insight into the reasons why industry benefits from their research, publishing, and presentation skills. PhD's employed in industry are the best source for what is expected of employees who transition from academia to a non-academic job role. According to van de Schoot, Sonneveld, and Yerkes (2012), "doctoral recipients feel that supervisors provided little useful information about career options, especially outside academia" (p. 344). In support of that statement, supervisors of doctoral candidates admit that they do not have high expectations of their student gaining employment outside of academia (van de Schoot et al, 2012). Should this be the case for a doctoral candidate, they must compare and contrast the benefits of non-academic employment and maintain an open mind in order to gain perspective from those securely employed in the private sector.

Within the scientific fields, academics and research can overlap providing a PhD candidate with constant exposure to collaborations between their chosen field of study and industry. This is particularly common at research universities. Through grants, scholarships, and collaborative efforts, apprenticeships have allowed for PhD candidates to expand their skill set outside of academia. According to Gemme and Gingras (2011), "one goal of these programs is to increase the exposure of researchers-in-training to alternate careers while perhaps encouraging non-academic employers to integrate more researchers within their ranks" (p.672). These programs can also assist with professional growth among those who have spent the majority of their doctoral program in academia. Working with fellow employees who have been in industry for the majority of their professional career will help PhD candidates adapt to a productive culture that differs from academic culture.

Other fields, such as those who support their industry growth based on research and development, are also promising options for PhD's who seek non-academic positions. According to Cruz-Castro and Sanz-Menendez (2005), "the relationship between the previous existence of an R&D department and the existence of patents in which the PhD was included as a co-author is also positive and significant" (p.63). Industries who collaborate with research universities are in a powerful position to add expertise to their staff while the PhD holders themselves develop a broad network of university and industry contacts and remain connected to academia should they consider a tenure track position in the future or must utilize the university for research purposes (such as having access to labs). Even more proactively, it would be ideal for universities to connect successful and relatively recent PhD holders with PhD candidates with the goal of establishing a mentorship so PhD candidates can seek guidance that the university may be unable to provide (van de Schoot et al., 2012).

The Professional Doctorate

Working professionals who wish to earn a PhD but are unable to become part time or full time students due to work and family demands can enter programs where they earn a Professional Practice Doctorate (PPD). If one chooses, they can earn their PPD via distance education which enables the student to increase their knowledge without having to attend on-campus classes. According to the Center for Studies in Higher Education (2013), “In the past 10 – 15 years, new kinds of doctorates – in field that never had doctorates before – burst onto the U.S. higher education scene” (para 1). While earning a PPD, an individual’s intrinsic motivation merges with industry demands for specific skill sets and therefore, the relationship between higher education and the labor market becomes functional (Brown, 2001; Walters, 2004 as cited in Servage, 2009, p. 770). According to Servage (2009), knowledge-based economies grow as a result of the professional PhD holder being free “from the bounds of traditional disciplines, in order that they might learn and apply knowledge in ways that are more relevant to their professional practices” (p.771). Figure 2 displays the types of PPD’s that have been awarded to employees in various professional fields since 2010.

Figure 2. An example of professional degrees and the industry they represent.

Degree	Industry
Doctor of Business Administration (DBA)	Business
Doctor of Pharmacy (Pharm.D.)	Pharmacy
Doctor of Clinical Practice (DClinP)	Psychology
Doctor of Social Work (DSW)	Social Work
Doctor of Biblical Studies (D.B.S.)	Theology
Doctor of Law and Policy (Lp.D.)	Law
Doctor of the Built Environment (DBEnv)	Construction
Doctor of Education (Ed.D.)	Education

At this point, it is necessary to explain the differences between a professional PhD and a PhD earned at an academic institution and the reasons why an individual seeks the former. According to Domínguez and Pérez (2012):

The remarkable growth in the number of doctoral candidates and in the variety of research fields in Europe and the US has made the professional university career less accessible for students who are looking for a job outside the university. (p.154)

A PPD is, according to Jones (2013), “strongly [linked] to industry and its ‘terminal’ status” (p.89). Jones (2013) also asserts that an academic PhD can be viewed as having “relative futility to a student who has no intention of entering academia” (p.89). Employed professionals may be required or may choose to earn a PPD in their career field in order to increase their earning potential and professional visibility. Along with an enhanced professional status, the duration of a PPD programs is not as tenuous as an academic PhD. According to Zuman (2013), “In some cases, these programs are only slightly longer than the master’s program they replace” (para. 3). Often, a professional PhD program does require a student to have a Master’s degree as well as professional experience. For example, according to Grossman, Tappert, Bergin, and Merritt (2011), the Doctor of Professional Studies (DPS) in Computing at Pace University requires its students to have “a master’s degree and have a minimum of five years professional experience in computing and IT” (p.134).

Not all professional PhD programs require the student to write a dissertation and the differences in requirements between an academic and professional PhD may cause some to question its value (Jones, 2013).

The professional PhD program at Pace University has their own requirement for earning the DPS. According to Grossman et al., (2011), “we set our doctoral program apart from both the professional doctorates and from the academic research doctorate (Ph.D.). It is neither one nor the other, but a synergistic integration of the two” (p.135). Aligning an educational opportunity with existing career expertise allows for one to advance their educational status while subsequently maintaining visibility within their professional organization.

The opportunity to earn a PPD while devoting time and energy to research specific to one’s industry can occur at a time when one has reached certain professional accomplishments. A PPD attained in one of the human services fields, such as education, psychology, and nursing (Neumann, 2005 as cited in Servage, 2009, p.771), supports the need for an increase in experts in these fields as these industries are largely driven by consumer demand. The caveat to attaining PPD is that a professional PhD holder is often excluded from academic circles as PPD’s do not hold the same status as a conventional (academic) PhD (Servage, 2009) and this may cause some potential students to reconsider their pursuit of a PPD. Conversely, the prestige a PPD holds within a non-academic environment may be satisfactory enough for mid-career employees to gain a competitive edge when seeking mobility and promotions.

PhD Job Satisfaction Outside of Academia

Satisfaction amongst PhD holders in non-tenure track positions has been positive according to a study that focused on non tenure-track faculty at twelve research universities. According to Waltman, Bergom, Hollenhead, Miller, and August (2012), “a large percentage of non tenure-track faculty in our groups felt that the act of teaching in front of a group of students is one of the most rewarding and satisfying aspects of their jobs” (p. 419). Satisfaction was a dominant theme as these particular faculty members were not pressured to balance research with teaching responsibilities in order to secure a tenured position. A lack of pressure to research and publish led to a sense of control over one’s personal and professional responsibilities. According to Waltman et al., (2012) “since their roles are more defined and limited than those of their tenure-track colleagues, they are more able to structure their work schedules to accommodate family responsibilities” (p.421). These attributes of a non tenure-track position can be enticing to those who have ruled out or have not yet seriously considered tenure.

Other sources of job satisfaction are just as prevalent in a non-academic setting. For PhD’s who work in science-based fields (such as biology or chemistry), the availability of tenure-track positions is rather low yet these PhD holders are encouraged by their supervisors to remain in academia (Sauermaann and Roach, as cited in Dybas, 2013, p.918). While research may remain the motivational force for those employed within a scientific field, research can be conducted on their schedule without the pressure to publish their research while teaching. According to Dybas (2013), “the aspirations of many scientists may be better matched with nonacademic fields” (p. 916). Rather than providing a one-sided approach for how PhD candidates can navigate through tenure-track requirements, it would be wise for those who supervise PhD’s to also consider non-academic fields as they may be a better match depending on personality and professional goals.

Professional experience is also deemed as attractive for PhD holders and this attractiveness is not correlated with salary. According to Cruz-Castro and Sanz-Menendez (2005), “their incentives to work in the private sector were several, but it is striking the low importance of salary considerations.....the most important factor was the attractiveness of the possibility of having professional experience in the private sector” (p. 62). However, for those who remained in the private sector, as stated by Cruz-Castro and Sanz-Menendez (2005), “the economic returns are significantly higher for those who have continued in the same company. The situation in terms of wage levels is significantly worse for those who returned to the public sector” (p. 65).

Implications for Policy and Practice

The information in this paper is informative and is meant to be an institutional and departmental guide for those who are planning to pursue a PhD, are in a post-doctoral position at their university, and for those PhD holders who work outside of academia. Policies regarding the structure of PhD programs could be affected as more collaboration between academia and industry are stressed and successful results of this collaboration are documented. This paper is also meant to be a guide for university personnel, specifically those who supervise PhD students and candidates, so they may consider non-academic possibilities for their student upon completion of their PhD.

Future Studies

Considering the value of a PhD in the private sector is gaining recognition as many industries seek highly qualified employees who are skilled researchers and excellent writers. Industries who utilize the skills of PhD students and candidates in apprenticeship programs are also recognizing the value of a PhD's expertise while enabling the PhD themselves to realize the benefits of non-academic employment. Indeed, exposure to environments where the final product or outcome is reached based on one's research and collaborative efforts can have a profound impact on a PhD's decisions to remain in academia or pursue employment in the private sector. According to Gemme and Gingras (2011), "one could expect that graduate students' career preferences are likely to evolve as they progress through their program, experience some situations, and are influenced by people they work with" (p. 673). This finding can encourage industry and universities alike to seek collaborations and partnerships to increase research exposure, become brighter options for future students as well future employees, and provide an alternative for those PhD holders who choose non-tenure track or non-academic positions.

The methods used by academia when guiding PhD's to a career path can shift perspectives when they take the time to consider the interpersonal skills sets of their candidates. According to Sundberg, DeAngelis, Havens, Holsinger, Kennedy, Kramer...and Zorn-Arnold (2011), while conducting research on how universities prepare botanists to "address national needs for protecting biodiversity" (p.133):

A startling revelation as we began data analysis, particularly for those of us in higher education sector, was that the skills and general knowledge that graduate students viewed as their greatest strengths were seen by potential employers as the areas needing the greatest improvement. (p.133)

Incorporating interpersonal skills training in a doctoral program can result in professionals who understand the importance of developing rapport and develop the networking skills to establish productive relationships with other professionals (Sundberg et al., 2011). Along with interpersonal skills training, incorporating apprenticeships, internships, and practicum into a doctoral program that purposely take place off-campus is one way to consider non-academic career interests. Should a PhD holder remain attached to academia without the need to become tenured faculty, it would be wise for university personnel to, according to Waltman et al., (2012), "to improve the status and satisfaction of their non-tenured track faculty, particularly those who work full-time or who have made significant contributions to their universities" (p. 431). This action would reduce the isolation and stigma that is associated with non-tenured faculty.

Researching and recognizing contributions made by PhD's in the private sector and broadcasting success stories also brings awareness to postdoctoral options previously unconsidered by the PhD candidate. The audience for this type of information is vast as, according to Neumann and Tan, (2011), "the consistently high level of employment, both initial and ongoing, of those with doctorates, irrespective of sector of employment would indicate that doctoral graduates are competitive and successful in gaining employment in the labor market" (p. 610). How PhD's in the private sector benefit the wider society also warrants further study as themes such as motivation, employment outcomes, and productivity can be affected when a PhD is part of a team or collaborative effort between departments within a particular industry. According to Casey,

(2009), “the production of PhD’s can be argued to contribute to a pool of knowledge from which all can draw. PhD holders might be better at drawing from this pool of knowledge and transferring it into the production of goods and services” (p. 226).

Conclusion

The opportunities for non-academic employment in the private sector or non-tenure employment in the academe are plentiful for PhD holders so long as they are fortunate enough to have supervisor and university support, are or can become part of a collaborative effort to work with others outside of the academe, or are satisfied to remain at a university and pursue their love of teaching. As companies, particularly research and development companies, partner with universities to create apprenticeship programs, PhD’s can be in an enviable position to choose the academe or the private sector. Those who do not consider tenure to be a good fit for them also have an opportunity for employment in these environments.

PhD’s can also take a proactive approach and seek what works best for them in terms of gainful and rewarding employment. Reaching out to those who have been successful outside the professoriate, networking with potential employers, as well as researching peer-reviewed articles focusing on PhD’s in non-academic or non-tenure settings can also increase their visibility and knowledge of non-academic employment opportunities. For those who wish to not feel bound by the rigorous requirements of achieving tenure or for those who wish to be part of an executive leadership team in the private sector, non-tenure and non-academic options are available and rewarding.

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BLACK WOMEN IN LEADERSHIP: AN ASSESSMENT OF THE GENDER INEQUALITY AND RACISM THAT EXISTS AMONG BLACK WOMEN LEADERS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

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Journal of Higher Education Management 29(1) [2014], pp. xx-xx-

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Alabama State University recently hired their first female president, Dr. Gwendolyn Boyd. While it appears that the institution is making great strides toward equality, there is a specific clause in Dr. Boyd’s contract that has sparked some interesting controversy. The clause states “for so long as Dr. Boyd is President and a single person, she shall not be allowed to cohabitate in the President’s residence with any person with who she has a romantic relation” (Montgomery Advertiser, 2013). The cohabitation clause in Dr. Boyd’s contract raises concern of gender inequality as a considerable problem that still exists for Black women leaders at institutions of higher education.

Purpose and Research Questions

This research is part of a larger study that examines gender inequality and racism experienced by Black women leaders in higher education. This research examines the questions: To what extent does racial and gender inequality exist among Black women leaders at colleges and universities in the United States? Is racial and gender equality an issue that needs to be addressed by institutions of higher education?

Implications

Gender inequality and racial discrimination are prevalent issues that Black women in leadership roles within higher education is a real problem that needs to be addressed by the colleges and universities in the American higher education system. One could disagree with this assessment by pointing out the fact that there are currently a significant number of Black women serving as college and university presidents. According to Ross and Green (2000), minority presidents were more likely than Caucasian presidents to be women. “Approximately one in four African American (26 percent) and Hispanic (24 percent) were women” (Ross & Green, 2000, p. 23). A counter argument to pointing out that there are a lot of Black women college presidents is similar to those who say that racism no longer exists within the United States because the country elected their current and first Black president, Barack Obama. So because the country now has a Black president, how can one conclude that racism no longer exists? “In truth, such a proposition (that the victory of one person of color signifies a victory over racism aimed at nearly 90 million) is very nearly the definition of lunacy.” (Wise, 2013)

The same is true for Black women serving in upper administrative and faculty roles at colleges and universities. While I think that it great that there has been a significant increase in the number of minority women serving in leadership roles within higher education, gender inequality and racial discrimination still exist and needs to be addressed. Unfortunately, sexism and racism has been and still are prevalent issues as it pertains to African American women in upper level administration and faculty positions at colleges and universities throughout the United States.

Gender Inequality. According to Dorius and Firebaugh (2010), gender inequality exists when men (or women) benefit from a disproportionately greater share of some valued good such as political power or long life. Higher education institutions in the U.S. are aware of the issues women confront, especially women of color with little financial means, but the institutional climate has not changed over the last two decades (Waldron and Jacobs, 2010). "Men and women can differ in any number of domains, so gender inequality intersects other types of inequality (educational, economic, political and so on). Women may be gaining on men in some domains and falling further behind in other domains." (Dorius & Firebaugh, 2010, p. 1941)

The Equal Pay Act of 1963 is a federal law amending the Fair Labor Standards Act with the intention of abolishing wage differentials based on gender (Waldron and Jacobs, 2010). "In passing the bill, the US Congress strongly condemned gender discrimination for its depression of wage and living standards for employees among other transgressions. Yet in 2009, scholar activists still find evidence of gender injustice in the US workplace." (Waldron and Jacobs, 2010, p. 9) The Equal Pay Act of 1963 and the Nineteenth Amendment gave women gains necessary in order to achieve legal equality and fighting gender discrimination did not evolve until the 1960s, with legislation that resulted from the Civil Rights Movement. According to Waldron and Jacobs (2010), "The modern Women's Rights Movement fostered the development of feminist jurisprudence as a field of study and women using the legal system to challenge gender discrimination in employment, domestic relations, reproductive rights and education. Today, given lingering inequity, additional scholarship is needed in the study of gender and its disparities" (p. 9).

Existing research implies women faculty often faces obstacles that make their work life qualitatively different from that of their male colleagues (Cress & Hart, 2009). According to Waldron and Jacobs (2010): Research (Nerad, 2004) shows that academic institutions create cultural and institutional pressures for women to become a professor, marry a professor but not to have children. The reality for women, however, is that while 45% of them remain single, only 33% of men find themselves in that category. For those women who were married, only 6% of them had children as opposed to 24% of the males who had a wife as well as kids. The policy to grant family leave when needed has served to slow down progress among female faculty, with considerable impact on tenure, research productivity and promotion, whereas no ill effects of this policy are reported for males. Again, these findings are further differentiated for black and Hispanic women, few of whom make it into the academy and even fewer who get or stay married while they are in the academy (p. 5).

A female faculty member argued that the problem of gender inequality in colleges and university "is no longer about hiring women, it is now about women finding ways to stay on par with their male counterparts in terms of salary, respect, rewards, awards, acknowledgment and power" (van Assendelft et al, 2003, p. 315).

Racism in Higher Education. Racism has long existed in the American education system. According to Cobham and Parker (2007), "For communities of color, American education was used as a medium to reinforce oppression through segregation and isolation, forced language requirements, a curriculum rooted in Eurocentric ideals taught by White teachers, and the powerlessness of students of color to express their unique cultural values" (p.86). There are two monumental cases in America's history that addressed and changed racial discrimination practices in education.

In the historic case of *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896), the Supreme Court held that racial segregation on railroads was constitutional provided facilities were "equal." Even though this decision was specific to

railroads, this case legalized segregation in almost “every service or institution of American life, including restaurants, housing, and education” (Cobham & Parker, 2007, p. 87). This case is particularly significant because it is the first case that addressed the issue of racism and a need for change in discriminatory policies.

During the 1950s and 1960s, the Civil Rights Movement took place. The impact of the civil rights movement obligated the federal government to address educational inequities through strategic support programs and services that were conscientious of racial disparities, yet such efforts have never been free from criticism (Garrison-Wade, Lewis & C.L., 2004). According to Marbley et. al (2007):

Few cases have come before the nation’s highest court that so directly affected the minds, hearts, and daily lives of so many Americans as the 1954 landmark Civil Rights case of *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka*. The cases’ outcome barred the segregation of students by race in public schools. This decision continues to be important to the education reform movement in general and to our model in particular for two reasons: (a) constitutionally sanctioned racially diverse classes exist as a result of integration and (b) the preparation of teachers to effectively and respectfully teach all students is an absolute necessity (p. 9).

The Court voted that segregated educational facilities were unequal and, therefore, violated the equal protection clause of the fourteenth Amendment of the Constitution (Garrison-Wade, Lewis & C.L., 2004). It overturned the previous decision in *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896), which permitted “separate but equal” public facilities for minorities and pushed policymakers to examine other principles governing education for people of color (Garrison-Wade, Lewis & C.L., 2004).

According to Alger et. al (2000), the civil rights movement and President Lyndon B. Johnson’s War on Poverty in the mid-1960s launched a movement for the nation to respond by offering equal access to education, housing, and other resources. President Johnson signed an Executive Order in late 1965 mandating government contractors to “take affirmative action” in all aspects of hiring and employing minorities (Garrison-Wade, Lewis & C.L., 2004). As a result the affirmative action mandate, many colleges and universities began to actively recruit minority students, faculty, and administrators. Garrison-Wade, Lewis & C.L. (2004) stated that affirmative action “led to these institutions initiating admission policies that took race into consideration. These policies increased admission for African Americans and Hispanics at predominately white institutions” (p. 24).

Woman as Leaders in Higher Education

As President. Female presidents are often unfairly evaluated compared to their male counterparts. Eagly (1987) found that women leaders were assessed differently and less auspiciously than men even when performing the same leadership behaviors. “Thus, social perceptions and expectations often result in more exacting standards for women and ethnic minorities than those applied to white men” (Chin, 2011, p. 3). In spite of the gender bias that is still prevalent, there were great Black women who were successful while serving in presidency position.

Mary McLeod Bethune is one of the first and most well known black women to open a college specifically for young women of color. She also held the role of being the college’s president. “With clarity of vision and determination of spirit Mary McLeod Bethune transformed the Normal and Industrial Institute that she opened for young women in 1904 in to a college, merging with Florida co-educational Cookman Institute in 1923.” (Bates, 2007, p. 374). She held an administrative role at Bethune-Cookman College for several years. She also played a major role in training young women in to become educated leaders who were capable of making meaningful changes in their communities (Bair, 2004). “Although most people in Daytona Beach, where the college was located, thought she would not succeed and the school would fold, Bethune worked diligently” (Gasman, 2007). Opening a college and assuming the role of presidency at Bethune-Cookman

College during the Jim-Crow era in the South was a great achievement. One can only imagine the racism that Mary McLeod Bethune experienced while in this position.

Spelman College is considered by many to be one of the most prestigious historically black colleges in the United States. Founded in 1881 as the Atlanta Baptist Female Seminary, the college became Spelman College in 1924 and “have since held the distinction of being America's oldest historically Black college for women.” (Spelman College Website, 2014) Interestingly enough, Spelman did not have their first female black president, Johnetta B. Cole, until 1987 (Watson & Gregory, 2005). After retiring from her presidency at Spelman College in 1997, Dr. Cole went on to become the fourteenth President of Bennett College in Greensboro, North Carolina in 2002 (Bates, 2007). Prior to Dr. Cole serving as president from 1881 to 1987, all of the presidents who served were men or White women.

Even though I was unable to find literature that detailed any racial or gender discrimination that Dr. Johnetta B. Cole experienced during her presidential term at Spelman, I still felt that it was necessary to include since she was the first Black female president to serve at Spelman College. Spelman is one of the most prestigious and oldest historically colleges founded for Black college women, yet they did not elect their first Black woman president until 1987. Marybeth Gasman, author of *Swept Under the Rug? A Historiography of Gender and Black Colleges* (2007), states women only made up half of the trustees at Spelman during the 1960s and 1970s. “Given the white and mostly male makeup of the black college boards of trustees from their beginnings through the early 1970s, it is not surprising that black women have rarely served in the role of president.” (Gasman, 2007, p. 772)

Marital status continues to be a big difference between women and men presidents. In the year 2000, most men presidents were currently married (90 percent), compared with 57 percent of women presidents (Ross & Green, 2000). It was also noted that women presidents were more likely than men to be serving without the support of a partner. It is possible that the trustees at Alabama State University considered these marital statistics as a reason to include a clause about “no cohabitation in” her contract. According to Cohen and March (1986), the presidency role is conventional. The president comes to his or her job through a “series of filters that are socially conservative vis-à-vis his major constituents” (p. 2). The president’s actions, activities and self-perceptions are constrained within social expectations that he or she accepts as essentially legitimate (Cohen & March, 1986).

It is totally understandable that a university president’s actions are constrained within social expectations and that he or she should behave in a manner that is acceptable and representative of the university. Traditional values can be good when operating a traditional university that has history and values; however, institutions must make sure that their traditional values do not lead to discriminatory practices and policies. “If [Gwendolyn] Boyd were a single male one must wonder if said stipulation would be included in the contract? Were Boyd’s leadership credentials, professional background, and references not enough to ensure she was aware of expected professional conduct?” (Gasman & Commodore, 2014, para. 6) The clause in Dr. Boyd’s contract regarding cohabitation is an example of how institutionalized practices and structures contribute to gender inequality in higher education.

As Dean. While the presidency role is one of the most important administrative roles in higher education, college and university deans also have vital leadership roles that are necessary in order to help colleges and universities function. The late nineteenth century saw an increase in the number of women being appointed as deans at colleges and universities. According to Schwartz (1997) several college presidents began to appoint female faculty members to advise, help, and mentor the new “minority” population on campus, female students. Appointing women deans was done as a result of the increase in enrollment among female students. The women who served as deans during this period were usually given the title “dean of women” to reflect their new dual roles (Schwartz, 1997).

The barriers that deans of women experienced included promotion, levels of compensation, exclusion from many disciplines, discriminatory practices in the workplace and classroom, and sexual harassment (Herdlein, Cali, & Dina, 2008). These women were making great contributions to the field of higher education, yet they still had to endure discriminatory hardships based on their gender. "Four steps were especially critical to the deans' quest for professional recognition: laying an intellectual foundation, initiating collective activity, becoming an expert, and creating a professional literature and association." (Herdlein, Cali, & Dina, 2008, p. 292) There are some women who served as deans who were able to master these four steps, but still did not receive the recognition of their male colleagues.

A significant amount of literature can be found on women, particularly White women, who worked as deans during the late nineteenth and early twentieth century (Nidiffer, 2000). However, not a lot of literature can be found on about African American women serving as deans during this time. During the late nineteenth century, there were several African American women who served as deans at historically Black colleges. Little attention has been paid by historians to the unique role and significant contributions of African American women serving as deans at historically Black institution in higher education (Nidiffer, 2000).

Despite of the fact that there is not a lot of research on Black female college/university deans, there is extensive literature on Lucy Diggs Slowe. "Slowe, the first Dean of Women at Howard University (1922-1937), was a powerful and groundbreaking leader within the black college community as well as within higher education in general" (Gasman, 2007, p. 773). Lucy Diggs Slowe was well-known for being a visionary and women's rights advocate. When she was appointed as the dean of women in 1922, she insisted on having academic rank and the opportunity to teach classes in one of the colleges according to her academic discipline. For Slowe, it was important that she be recognized as an academic professional and compensated on the same level as fellow deans (Herdlein, Cali, & Dina, 2008).

Slowe was not afraid to challenge the exclusion and underrepresentation of black women at Howard. According to Gasman (2007):

In an article from the 1930s, Slowe described her frustrations with the lack of input allowed on the part of students, especially women, to "participate in the making and executing of the rules under which they live". Her bold demeanor angered many of her black male peers, who were used to being openly condescending to black women.

Lucy's unconventional nature of advocating for women at Howard angered many of the men, including then Howard University president Mordecai Johnson. According to Gasman (2007), President Johnson and Lucy Diggs Slowe quarreled over equality issues for black women until her death in 1937.

As Faculty. It could be argued that faculty members have the most important roles in higher education because of their responsibility to facilitate classroom learning to college students. As a former student affairs professional I had the opportunity to see firsthand just how much institutions value their faculty members, especially if a faculty member has reached tenure and/or has an administrative role in addition to their faculty role. Faculty members are often viewed as leaders simply because college/university administration, students, researchers from their respective fields, and endowers think very highly of faculty in higher education.

The hiring and retention of faculty from underrepresented groups is a significant issue in higher education (Davis, Reynolds, & Jones, 2011). Perna, Gerald, Baum, and Milem (2007) discuss how the nation's higher education institutions are making some progress in increasing the representation of Blacks among undergraduate and graduate student enrollment, however these institutions have hardly made any progress in increasing the representation of Blacks among their faculty. "The challenges that are associated with raising the representation of Blacks among the nation's faculty and administrators vary along multiple dimensions, including institutional type and discipline." (Perna, Gerald, Baum, & Milem, 2007)

According to the American Council of Education (2006), Black women had the highest percentage (23%) of earned doctorates of any people of color between 1995 and 2005. However, in Fall 2007, there were 20,148 Black female faculty in the United States; moreover, Black females accounted for only 6.8% of all female faculty and 2.9% of all faculty (The Almanac of Higher Education, 2009). According to Troubling Success: Interviews with Black Female Faculty (Edwards, 2011):

As faculty of color, Black women are placed in a unique position because they are constantly challenged with tackling sexism and racism (Bryant et al., 2005). A faculty member who is Black and female has limited accessibility to certain privileges in institutions of higher education in addition to the challenge of invisibility and marginality (Stanley, 2006). The intersection of the two factors can combine in subtle and unsubtle ways to create multiple obstacles in terms of the climate for Black female faculty in predominately White institutions, who as a result, likely experience the academy differently than their male counterparts.

“It is clear that as a group, Black females have shown much success in doctoral attainment and overall representation in the professoriate relative to other faculty of color. What is not clear, however, are the reasons Black female faculty who earn more doctorates than any other faculty of color, are not achieving the same success in climbing the ranks of the professoriate.” (Edwards, 2011)

According to the Mentoring African American faculty in Predominately White Institutions (Davis, Reynolds, & Jones, 2011):

Women sometimes occupy a tenuous position within the academy due to pervasive male privilege and the marginalizing dynamics of hegemonic patriarchy. Women's continual quest to be regarded as serious scholars who make important contributions to the field, to attain parity with their male colleagues, can prove more arduous for Black women whose professional and personal lives are mitigated by the intersectionality of race and sex as well as the navigational implications that derive from conflated racism and sexism.

The underrepresentation of culturally diverse faculty in predominantly white institutions can make junior faculty more vulnerable to isolation that threatens their personal and collective identities. “In response to institutional racism, culturally diverse faculty have reported lower levels of job satisfaction compared to their White counterparts.” (Behar-Horenstein et al, 2012)

Another factor to consider when recruiting, hiring, and retaining Black female faculty members is the impact that their presence has on the students enrolled in higher education programs. According to Hughes and Howard-Hamilton (2003):

The number of African American faculty members also has an impact on whether students are attracted and retained in institutions of higher education (Howard-Hamilton, Phelps, and Torres, 1998; Freeman, 1997; Hughes, 2001). In fact, the success of black students who attend predominantly white institutions (PWIs) is greatly influenced by relationships with faculty, administrators, and students (Howard-Hamilton, Phelps, and Torres, 1998; Freeman, 1997; Hughes, 2001). For example, according to Defour and Hirsch (1990), the sheer presence of African American faculty at institutions of higher education may encourage African American students to persist.

Having qualified African American female faculty present to mentor African American students could not only potentially increase Black student enrollment, but having more Black female faculty could potentially increase graduation rates among the Black student population. Many African American students become frustrated by the lack of African American role models in visible leadership positions at their institutions. (Hughes & Howard-Hamilton, 2003).

Implications for Policy and Practice

Lorene Garrett-Browder (Chin et al, 2007, p. 57) suggests that African American women have been able to be good leaders throughout history despite living in an unjust environment and dealing with power structures that do not always include their voices (Chin, 2011). Great African American leaders can be found in many aspects of American culture, including but not limited to higher education. In *Women in Leadership: transforming visions and current context*, Chin (2011) stated that “African American women (leaders might tend to use more direct communication styles and) have used our anger as an ally to help us speak the truth... even though it may be unpopular.” According to Chin (2011):

Case examples suggest that an African American woman may identify with the values of straightforwardness and assertiveness in their leadership style while an Asian American woman may identify with values of respectfulness and unobtrusiveness. However, others may perceive the direct confrontational style of an African American woman as intimidating and deem the use of an indirect and teaching style of an Asian American woman as passive. These factors are likely to influence access to leadership positions and appraisals of their effectiveness as leaders.

Cultural differences in the way in which many Black females communicate can potentially impact how they are treated. Their communication style can also have an impact on factors such as being promoted for a better position. For example, a Black woman may be the best candidate for a leadership position at a university based on her knowledge and merit. However, because her communication style is different from how others in that same or similar position typically communicate, she may not be considered for the position.

Another possible cause of racial and gender discrimination among Black female administrators and faculty within higher education is the way in which many protest to unjust treatment. “Culturally diverse female faculty often cope with the stress within the Academy by engaging in expressive acts of resistance, such as testifying (defined as asserting, affirming, and reclaiming one’s sense of humanity while resisting oppression)” (Burke, Cropper & Harrison, 2000). When a person stands up by speaking against unjust treatment is usually viewed as commendable, however when a Black administrator or faculty member does so, it could very well lead to further gender and/or racial discrimination. Even if an administrator or faculty member expresses concern or protests in a composed manner, she can still be perceived as “angry” because of stereotypes that perpetuate the image of Black women as always angry.

According to Chin (2011), literature on gender differences in leadership has shown that women and racial minorities who hold leadership positions often have different experiences while leading than their white male counterparts who held the same leadership role. Chin (2011) stated, “Given the tendency to view traits held by women and racial/ethnic minority groups as negative or deficient because they are viewed as exceptions or different, leadership is a different experience”. While some may view Black women leaders negatively because of their gender and/or ethnicity, colleges and universities must help discontinue any negative stereotypes by recruiting, hiring and promoting qualified Black women to lead and teach at their institutions.

Recommendations

Tillman (2001) developed a conceptual framework that mentions three obstacles that often prevent Black women from successful promotion and tenure. The first obstacle is lack of socialization to faculty life. The second obstacle is the lack of meaningful mentoring. The last obstacle that prevents many Black women from successful promotion and tenure is the inability to articulate a viable and sustainable research agenda. Institutions should address these three obstacles when addressing the issues of hiring and recruiting women of color for leadership and faculty positions.

Leaders who are interested in retaining Black female faculty should consider “heavy service loads for Black female faculty and work to ameliorate them” when developing faculty mentoring programs (Davis et al,

2011). In addition to programs specifically for Black female faculty, the universities should offer professional development funding. "This provides an opportunity for Black female faculty to participate in organizations geared towards their development and success." (Davis, Reynolds, & Jones, 2011) Institutions that are interested in recruiting and retaining qualified Black female faculty would really benefit by utilizing a proactive approach such as developing mentoring programs and allocating funds specifically for these faculty members' professional development.

Colleges and universities cannot attempt to address issues of inequity simply by increasing the numbers of Black women in leadership and faculty positions. Institutions must also consider psychological and social dimensions. According to Cress and Hart (2009) "Structural change must be accompanied by systemic thinking that addresses multiple contexts and paradigms. Such approaches use principles, such as collaboration, inclusiveness, and community involvement that logically empower women and faculty of color and, by extension, other historically underrepresented faculty, as they often face similar challenges at work." Institutions also need to investigate the unfair hiring and promotion practices, as well as investigate the Individual institutional analyses need to investigate unfair hiring and promotion practices and imbalanced distribution of "teaching, advising, and service workloads" (Cress & Hart, 2009).

According to Patitu and Hinton (2003) institutions also need to provide leadership and resources to improve search processes when looking to hire qualified Black women for top administrative and faculty positions. This can be done "by educating search committees to reveal unconscious and subconscious institutional and individual biases" (Patitu & Hinton, 2003, p.90). It was also recommended that search committees use a follow-up interview for candidates who either turned down the position or who did not receive an offer. This method of can be used to determine how the college or university could become more effective in recruiting and hiring Black women administrators and faculty; this will hold senior administrators accountable search committees' behaviors and selection outcomes.

The final recommendation is to increase salaries for Black women leaders and faculty. Waldron-Moore and Jacobs (2010) research findings show that women of color were much less likely to find a faculty position than White women, let alone find a position with a better salary than white women. Giving Black administrators and faculty equal pay to their White women and male counterparts could increase institutions' recruitment, hiring, and retention efforts.

Concluding Discussion

The research provides enough evidence to show that gender inequality and racism are problems that need to be addressed by institutions within the American higher education system. Black women leaders' experiences are often different than those of their colleagues, which can lead to unfair job strain and retention issues. Colleges and universities should recognize the mentoring and advising efforts of Black women faculty women considering them for promotions within their academic departments. Institutions must be accommodating and supportive to Black women by providing support programs and professional development opportunities. Colleges and universities must take a proactive approach in educating other administrators and faculty members about the necessity of having a diverse administration and faculty that includes Black women.

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