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**Georgia Journal of College
Student Affairs
2014-2015**

Georgia College Student Personnel (GCPA)



Georgia Journal of College Student Affairs

Journal Editor

Brenda Marina, Ph.D.

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Table of Contents

Welcome and Journal History <i>Brenda L. H. Marina, Ph.D.</i>	4
Introduction <i>Brenda L. H. Marina, Ph.D.</i>	5
Student Affairs Professionals' Perceptions of Campus Incivility <i>Amy J. Zieziula & Daniel Calhoun, Ph.D.</i>	6
Sexual Attitudes as Predictors of Homonegativity in College Women <i>James A. Archibald, Pd.D. & Tamera Dunn</i>	18
An Assessment of Faculty Job Satisfaction in Georgia's Technical College System Using Bolman and Deal's Four Organizational Frameworks <i>Bee Hart, Ed.D and Brenda L. H. Marina, Ph.D.</i>	28
Raising the Bar and Surpassing Expectations <i>Niles Reddick, Ph.D. and Nicholas Urquhart, M.S.</i>	43
Book Review: Women and Leadership in Higher Education <i>Brenda L.H. Marina, Ph.D.</i>	51
GJCSA Call for Papers	52
GJCSA Call for Editorial Board Members and Peer Reviewers	53

Welcome to the *Georgia Journal of College Student Affairs*, the official journal of the Georgia College Personnel Association. The *Georgia Journal* is the leading journal for college and university student affairs administrators and counselors in the state of Georgia. The *Journal* serves as the primary communication link for research, critical issues, and best practices for the student affairs profession.

History of the *Georgia Journal of College Student Affairs*

The *Georgia Journal* was first published in 1985, under the editorship of Tom G. Walter, then a doctoral candidate in the Department of Counseling and Human Development Services at the University of Georgia. Prior to that time, there was a graduate student publication called *Viewpoint*, which benefited from financial support from the Georgia College Personnel Association. However, the official “birth” of the *Georgia Journal of College Students Affairs* as the GCPA journal was Volume One which was published in 1985. Several graduate students edited the Journal over the succeeding years. Dr. Roger B. Winston, Jr., Professor in Counseling & Human Development Services at UGA became Editor in 1997. The first online version of the *Georgia Journal* was published in 2002 (Volume 18), under the editorship of Dr. Diane L. Cooper, a faculty member in the same department. From 2004 through 2007, Dr. Teresa Raetz, Director of Student Affairs for the University of Georgia Gwinnett Campus, was the Editor of the *Georgia Journal*. Dr. Tom G. Walter, Vice President for Student Development & Enrollment Management at Gainesville State College served as Editor of the *Georgia Journal of College Student Affairs* from Summer 2007-through 2010. Dr. Kijua McMurtry, Associate Dean of Students & Special Assistant to the President on Diversity of Agnes Scott College transitioned to the role of Editor during 2011. In 2012, Dr. Brenda Marina took on the role of co-Editor of the Journal. Together, McMurtry and Marina modified procedures and strategies for the Journal. Dr. Marina has served as the Editor of the Journal since January, 2013. During the 2013 year, Marina requested and received an ISSN number for the both the print and online version of the Journal.

Introduction

This issue of *GJCSA* is a critical dialogue about *Campus Climate* and *Culture* in higher education and student affairs. The articles selected for this issue challenge our thinking about different matters that link to what takes place in larger societal contexts. In *Student Affairs Professionals' Perceptions of Campus Incivility*, Zieziula and Calhoun move beyond the discussion of the importance of **civility** on college campuses to the role student affairs professionals play in identifying **incivility** outside of the classroom. The authors note that student affairs professionals are seeing an increase in uncivil acts related to social media and technology. With the *Sexual Attitudes as Predictors of Homonegativity in College Women* Archibald and Dunn highlight a study about sexual attitudes and **discrimination** as they contend that little attention has been given to the predictors of homonegativity in females. Moving from a student centered perspective, in *An Assessment of Faculty Job Satisfaction in Georgia's Technical College System Using Bolman and Deal's Four Organizational Frameworks*, Hart and Marina provide valuable information about the growing level of **dissatisfaction** among college faculty. The authors contend that by identifying major contributors to **job satisfaction**, organizational leaders may be better able to strengthen those aspects of the work environment to promote morale and limit turnover. Transitioning to a practical application dialog, in *Raising the Bar and Surpassing Expectations* Reddick and Urquhart discuss **academic warning, probation, and suspension**. More specifically, they highlight the creation and evolution of a retention program that originated from changes in their standards of academic progress. Finally, Marina provides a book review that gives voice to *Women and Leadership in Higher Education* (2014), edited by Karen A. Longman and Susan R. Madsen. As a recommended reading, Marina suggests that this book is about more than women in leadership; it is about **struggle, domination, political trends, and community needs** and should be part of the conversation about campus climate and culture.

Brenda L. H. Marina, Ph.D.
Editor

Student Affairs Professionals' Perceptions of Campus Incivility

Amy J. Zieziula
Daniel W. Calhoun

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to gather data regarding student affairs professionals' perceptions of student incivility and which acts of incivility are most often observed. Results from 409 participants suggested that student affairs professionals perceive that "very uncivil" acts are observed less often whereas acts that are perceived to be neither civil nor uncivil are witnessed more frequently. In addition, findings indicated that student affairs professionals are seeing an increase in uncivil acts related to social media and technology, and the manner in which students are using social media to vent frustrations with campus staff and their peers. Finally, recommendations for practice and further research are provided.

While the concept itself is broad and its definition can vary, the ways in which individuals treat and respect one and other has been a subject of great importance within higher education. Countless books have been written about it, and individuals regularly tour the country speaking to faculty, staff, and students on the topic. The Dutch scholar, Erasmus referred to it as "what enables us to live together" (as cited by Connelly, 2009, p. 52) and George Washington once wrote, "every action done in company, ought to be with some sign of respect to those that are present" (Connelly, 2009 p. 47). Additionally, Forni (2002) defined it as "being constantly aware of others and weaving restraint, respect, and consideration into the very fabric of this awareness" (p. 9). Today, it is most often referred under the broad term "civility".

In the context of the university setting, perhaps civility is best described as "the authentic respect for others when expressing disagreement, disparity, or controversy. It involves time, presence, a willingness to engage in genuine discourse, and a sincere intention to seek common ground" (Clark & Carnosso, 2008, p. 13). Conversely, incivility would encompass speech or actions that are disrespectful or rude, ranging from insulting remarks and verbal abuse to more volatile, aggressive behavior (Tiberius & Flak, 1999).

On college campuses, civility issues typically are linked to student conduct. In the early 1990s, a report by the American Council on Education and the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching found that student conduct had worsened on college campuses, and that there was an increase in incivility towards other students and faculty (as cited by Sorcinelli, 1994). The council offered a number of recommendations, including the idea that faculty, administrators, and students increase their participation in campus life to build a better connection to their students. In addition, the report suggested that campuses create a list of common principles, values, and clear expectations that encourage respect for others.

In 1997, Forni co-founded the Johns Hopkins Civility Project to both promote and study civility on Johns Hopkins' campus (Troop, 2012). Other colleges and universities around the country followed suit, and the number of civility campaigns and programs on college campuses quickly increased. Institutions developed intervention programs, committees, workshops, courses, and websites in hopes of positively affecting campuses and decreasing instances of incivility both in and outside of the classroom (Connelly, 2009). These actions led to an initial feeling within higher education circles that incivility was on the decline.

Nonetheless, Connelly (2009) recommended that higher education institutions continue to research issues of incivility to assess its magnitude and impact. Despite this recommendation, thus far the research on incivility on college campuses has been either anecdotal, aimed at specific disciplines, (such as nursing or music majors), or institution specific (Bjorklund & Rehling, 2010). More recently, Alkandari (2011) found that classroom incivility was deemed an important issue by campus administrators, but in general there are few studies that have focused on this topic within higher education. Given this gap in the research, the purpose of this study was to gather information on acts of incivility from a student affairs perspective, and more specifically to assess the types of incivility observed as well as the frequency and severity of these acts.

Literature Review

Incivility and College Students

Baker, Comer, and Martinak (2008) researched ways in which generational changes have affected classroom civility. Forni (2002) posited that the internet age has created a generation of “radical informality” comprised of individuals who treat the web as their trusted source of knowledge. In the past, faculty were revered and viewed as respected conveyors of knowledge, but in today’s academic climate, college students seem to view professors as being a paid service (Dechter, 2007). Similarly, universities have shifted to a business model in which students are seen as ways to attract money (Baker et al., 2008). This mentality can be harmful to both parties in that it produces “consumer graduates who think first of themselves” (Baker et al., p. 67) which in return has led to a change in thinking regarding incivility on college campuses.

Typical millennial college students today grew up with technology. They have a smart phone and constant internet access, are consistently in contact with friends and family, and enjoy socializing with large groups online; what Baker et al. (2008) referred to as being “well-wired” (p. 70). These students rely heavily on the internet and social media as a primary means of communication, which has led to less formal interactions amongst college students and their community. Often students will express their feelings and opinions on social media rather than directly with their peers or professors. In addition, when students are in a group or class setting they may continue to use their smart phones, indicating a disinterest in what is going on around them. This new method of communication may mean that incivility could soon be back on the rise.

Hirschy and Braxton (2004) found that classroom incivilities can negatively impact a student’s commitment to college. Students who witness repeated incidents of classroom incivility may become less interested with the course material and less inclined to think critically during the class. Incivility in the classroom may also jeopardize faculty and student interaction, as well as group learning in the class, both of which are qualities for successful undergraduate education. Students may be less inclined to pay attention in class, and instead may act disruptive (Dechter, 2007). Instructors can also contribute to the problem by being dismissive, uninvolved, and sarcastic towards their students (Dechter, 2007; Forni, 2002). Occasionally professors may interpret student’s restlessness with the course material as rebelliousness, when in actuality the professor may need to update his or her technology or materials to better captivate the student (Dechter, 2007).

Incivility and Faculty Members

Incivility in the classroom can be disheartening for professors, and in extreme cases can even cause them to reconsider their career choice (Bjorklund & Rehling, 2011). In 2000, the Indiana University Center for Survey Research conducted a survey of over 2,000 faculty and graduate instructors to help better understand what faculty perceives as incivility inside the classroom. The acts that faculty reported witnessing most frequently were “students arriving late for class, students cutting class and students being unprepared for class” (Indiana University Center for Survey Research, 2000, p.10).

Although there is little empirical data on campus incivility, there has been an increase in literature suggesting ways for professors to address issues of incivility in the classroom (Dechter, 2007; Knepp, 2012). Faculty most often address issues of incivility in the classroom by speaking with the involved students outside of class time (Indiana University Center for Survey Research, 2000). Others offer a more proactive approach to this problem. Baker et al. (2008), Bjorklund and Rehling (2011), and Sorcinelli (1994) suggested that faculty members include expectations in their syllabus or first class discussion about acceptable behavior inside and outside of the classroom as well. In hopes of preventing issues of incivility from occurring, professors may need to create a positive environment in the classroom (Sorcinelli, 1994) or consider designing class time to include more “cooperative and collaborative learning” (Hirschy & Braxton, 2004, p.69). Since not all professors agree on what is considered civil behavior and what is not, it may be beneficial for a faculty member to clearly explain to students what he or she considers inappropriate (Bjorklund & Rehling, 2011). Knepp (2012) suggested faculty members work with their students to create a classroom code of conduct or behavior contract. These types of agreements provides students the opportunity to realize how their uncivil behavior not only affects the professor, but also their peers. This approach tends to be effective because students may care more about what their peers think of their behavior than their professors (Knepp, 2012).

Incivility Outside the Classroom

Most studies regarding incivility on college campuses have primarily focused on student behavior and attitudes inside of the classroom (Bjorklund & Rehling, 2010; Boice, 1996; Dechter, 2007; Feldmann, 2001). Similar to their 2010 research on college students perceptions of incivility in the classroom, Bjorklund and Rehling’s 2011 study found that faculty perceived acts such as “missing a scheduled appointment, wearing apparel with explicit language or images, and insisting that you force register them into a closed course” to be the most common disrespectful acts to happen outside of the classroom setting (Bjorklund & Rehling, 2011, p. 31). Clark and Springer (2007) and Clark (2009) examined acts of incivility based on student and faculty perceptions. Outside of the classroom acts included complaints about faculty, turning in late assignments, failing to use appropriate communication channels, and discrediting faculty. These acts were attributed to a general feeling that students had a sense of entitlement and lack of respect. Unfortunately, these are some of the only studies that mentioned incivility outside the classroom, and provide only the faculty or student perspective.

Role of Student Affairs Professionals

Even those with the highest of moral character can experience and participate in acts of incivility if the situation becomes too stressful or burdensome. For this reason, Popovics (2014) contends that fostering civility on a college campus is the responsibility of the entire campus community, not just of the faculty. In the nursing field, Hunt and Marini (2012) used the term “moral agents” when referring to those individuals in a position to lead and show others the civil way to act. Within higher education, it is student affairs staff who most often see and experience the stresses that that students face; and it is those same individuals who would be in the best position to provide information and education regarding civility and incivility to the campus community. With that in mind, the purpose of this descriptive study was to assess student affairs professionals’ perceptions of incivility involving students outside of the classroom.

Methodology

The purpose of this descriptive study was to assess student affairs professionals’ perceptions of incivility involving students outside of the classroom. The overarching research question for this study was as follows: What acts of incivility are witnessed by student affairs professionals and what is the perceived severity and frequency of these acts? In an effort to answer this question, this study utilized a survey adapted (with permission) from a similar instrument created by Bjorklund and Rehling that was administered to faculty in 2011. In addition, participants were provided an opportunity to respond to an open-ended question regarding their perceptions of acts of incivility they have witnessed.

Data Collection and Sample

The researchers utilized the purposeful selection process known as snowball sampling (Patton, 1990). A short-survey was distributed via email to various student affairs list-servs. Respondents were asked to describe their institution, their job classification, and number of years employed in higher education, but did not have to provide any personal identifying information (such as age, gender or name). The targeted population for this survey was full-time student affairs professionals.

A total of 409 participants who met the necessary criteria completed the survey. Over 300 respondents hailed from public institutions. Additional information regarding participant institutions is listed in Table 1.

Public university 308 (74%)	Private university 101 (24%)
2 year university 28 (7%)	4 year university 379 (91%)
Urban university 198 (48%)	Rural university 208 (50%)
Commuter campus 130 (31%)	Non-commuter campus 272 (66%)

Table 1: Institutional Characteristics

A variety of institutional sizes were represented, with 33% of participants employed at institutions with student populations between 20,000 – 40,000 and 22% from institutions with less than 5,000 students. This information is shown in Table 2.

Size of 5,000 or less 92 (22%)	Size of 5,000 – 10,000 65 (16%)	Size of 10,000 – 20,000 88 (21%)	Size of 20,000 – 40,000 139 (33%)	Size of 40,000+ 25 (6%)
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Table 2: Size of Institutions

Forty-four percent of respondents had worked at their university for 5 year or less, and only 11% had worked at the university for over 20 years. More than half of the respondents had worked in student affairs for less than 10 years (59%). This information is displayed in Table 3.

Worked at university 0 – 5 years 184 (44%)	Worked at university 5-10 years 104 (25%)	Worked at university 10 – 15 years 56 (13%)	Worked at university 15 – 20 years 20 (5%)	Worked at university 20+ years 45 (11%)
Worked in student affairs 1 – 5 years 139 (33%)	Worked in student affairs 5 – 10 years 108 (26%)	Worked in student affairs 10 – 15 years 75 (18%)	Worked in student affairs 15 – 20 years 34 (8%)	Worked in student affairs 20+ years 55 (13%)

Table 3: Years of Experience

The majority of respondents worked in health services (118) and the second largest group of respondents classified themselves as working in an area that was something other than those listed (109). This information can be found in Table 4.

Department	Number of Respondents	Percent of Respondents	Department	Number of Respondents	Percent of Respondents
Admissions	11	3%	Health Services	118	28%
Campus Recreation	6	1%	Multicultural Center	5	1%
Career Services	4	1%	Student Activities	19	5%
Counseling Services	32	8%	Student Conduct	19	5%
Dean of Students	38	9%	Student Disab. Resource Ctr.	1	0%
Educational Opportunity Programs	2	0%	Student Leadership	10	2%
Fraternity & Sorority Relations	0	0%	Student Media	0	0%
Financial Aid	3	1%	Other	109	26%
Housing/ Res. Life	38	9%			

Table 4: Campus Departments

Instrument

Respondents were provided a common definition of the term incivility. Also included on the survey were examples of common acts of incivility in extracurricular settings, such as students leaving programs early, arriving late, students not showing for scheduled meetings, inappropriate attire, and rude or disrespectful interactions with staff. Respondents were asked to use a 5-point Likert scale to rate the severity of these acts, ranging from being “very uncivil” to “very civil”. For example, one question asked, “How would you perceive a student committing the following act – wearing apparel with explicit language or images?” In addition, respondents were asked to state the frequency of how often they witness these acts, ranging from “daily” to “never”. In addition, respondents were provided an opportunity to include any additional acts they may have perceived but were not listed, and their opinion as to the severity of those acts via open ended questions at the end of the survey.

Data Analysis

Data was analyzed using descriptive statistics for closed items and an inductive analytical approach for open-ended responses (Thomas, 2006). Data were used to calculate the mean and to compare different subgroups of the respondents. Results were reported by highlighting those acts of incivility that were reported as most frequent, as well as those reported as most severe. Open-ended responses were categorized and analyzed according to the patterns and trends of incivility.

Findings

The findings provide some insight into answering the research question: What acts of incivility are witnessed by student affairs professionals and what is the perceived severity and frequency of these acts? These results are organized by the survey and open-ended responses.

Survey Responses

The two scenarios that received the highest percentage for being perceived as very uncivil were emails or voicemails with explicit language (62%) and attending campus programs under the influence of drugs or alcohol (72%). Ninety-two percent of respondents reported observing students leaving emails or voicemails with explicit language either never or once or twice a year. Eighty-five percent of respondents reported observing students coming to programs under the influence of drugs or alcohol either never or only once or twice a year. Acts that were considered uncivil and received high percentages of respondents were abruptly leaving meetings (61%), leaving garbage in an administrator’s office or meeting space (72%) and using cell phones during meetings (64%). Forty-four percent of respondents reported observing students abruptly leaving meetings once or twice a year and 33% reported observing students leaving garbage in their office or meeting space once or twice a year. The majority of respondents reported these acts as uncivil, yet they were rarely observed. Finally, 62% of respondents reported observing students using cell phones during meetings either monthly or weekly. This information can be seen below in Table 6.

Act committed	Percent perceived	Time frame observed	Percent observed
Emails or voicemails with explicit language	Very uncivil, 62%	Either never or once or twice a year	92%
Coming to programs under the influence of drugs or alcohol	Very uncivil, 72%	Either never or only once or twice a year	85%
Abruptly leaving meetings	Uncivil, 61%	Once or twice a year	44%
Leaving garbage in your office or meeting space	Uncivil, 72%	Once or twice a year	33%
Using cell phones during meetings	Uncivil, 64%	Either monthly or weekly	62%

Table 6: Top Acts Perceived Uncivil

Open-ended Responses

The open-ended responses showed some trends of student affairs professionals dealing with situations involving students being disrespectful, rude, or inappropriate as a result of technology such as email, social media, and smart phones. Respondents explained that students utilized Facebook as a means for airing their grievances about particular departments on campus, described by one respondent as “micro-aggressions”. Similarly, another respondent explained that students had posted inappropriate pictures of other students on social media.

Open-ended comments revealed a general annoyance over students frequently texting during meetings, which supported the data stated in Table 6. Some respondents indicated that they often witness students actually walking into others on campus because they are so heavily engrossed in what they are doing on their cell phones.

Other respondents expressed concern over students ignoring email and phone call requests to meet. At the same time participants indicated students regularly demand things above and beyond the usual accommodations. Respondents also commented on students screaming rude chants at athletic events and just overall inappropriate behavior at public events. Additionally open-ended responses included physical altercations and arguments among students.

Discussion

The findings of this study were similar to previous research on incivility in the classroom setting. Much like Bjorklund & Rehling’s (2010) study, student affairs professionals rarely observed acts that would be described as being “very uncivil”. Similarly, the results parallel those of Feldmann (2001) regarding students’ disregard for presenters’ time (arriving to programs late or leaving early) and blatant cell phone usage during events. Many responses indicated that acts were perceived as neither civil nor uncivil. One can infer that this may be caused by individuals becoming more accepting of certain occurrences, and perhaps certain acts previously viewed as uncivil have now become too common on college campuses to make one view it as civil or uncivil.

Meaningful information was extracted from results of the open-ended questions. Examples of Feldmann’s (2001) “classroom terrorism” and similar larger and more disruptive incidents were revealed when respondents described of fights and threats among students at events or in the residence halls. These larger incidents of incivility have a different impact than that in previous research since they may disturb an office or a campus community, rather than just a classroom.

Despite common definitions provided in the survey instrument, the data showed that individuals have differing thresholds for how they view incivility, echoing the work of Bjorklund & Rehling (2010). For example, one respondent shared that as a male, he does not view issues of students yelling or arguing with him as serious, but he believes that some of his peers may feel differently. While this idea was not within the scope of this study, it brings an interesting perspective and is one that could be explored further through future research.

This research differed from previous studies in that the results highlighted the perceived ways students use technology (specifically social media and cell phones) in an uncivil manner. The high reliance on technology and cell phones by students today makes it difficult to gauge whether or not there is an issue of incivility. It is not always known if the student is being rude to those with whom he or she is meeting or if the student is using their phone for something related to the meeting.

Open-ended responses highlighted some instances where the use of technology in an uncivil manner was more evident. For example, one respondent commented about students "posting lewd or harassing messages on Facebook anonymously". Another respondent mentioned a student "using social media to belittle the conduct process because they were not happy with the result". Another example was described as occurring when students "ignore emails or requests to meet sent to them". These findings reflect the research of Baker et al. (2008) that indicated that certain traits of millennial students are highlighted through uncivil behaviors in the classroom. Some of these findings reflect on millennial students as having a sense of entitlement, a lack of respect for people's time, and having a constant online connection via social media and email. Similarly, respondents made reference to students who demanded particular services or requests to which they believed they deserved. Forni (via Dechter, 2007) described this way of thinking as the "consumer mentality of students" (p. F1). One respondent specifically stated "students often act entitled - as if they are deserving of special treatment, when in fact they are not". Another respondent stated that students were "calling different administrators in the same office to get a different answer from one of them". Essentially, these students continued to push administrators until they received the answer that they wanted. The situations revealed through these responses are an indication of what Dechter (2007) described as a transformation from students being viewed as a way to attract money for institutions, and universities viewed as a service. Because of this shift in higher education, students may feel more entitled to their demands and institutions may be more likely to succumb to their demands.

Implications

One can infer from this research that incivility is a prevalent issue and an area of concern for student affairs professionals. While the philosophies of the institutions, departments, and student affairs professionals who took part in this study are different, the findings reveal that issues of incivility seem to be similar across the board. These findings reflect the change in the culture of today's college student described in previous studies (Bjorklund & Rehling, 2010; Boice, 1996; Dechter, 2007; Feldmann, 2001), however, given the increased presence of technology; it seems that these issues are becoming more prevalent.

In fact, technology has made it easier for students to be uncivil because the personal interactions are now removed from the equation. Today's student has grown up with technology, and the consumer mentality of many students makes it necessary for student affairs professionals to be well trained in a variety of areas.

This notion of cyber incivility is one that is impacting how students communicate with their college community and how students express their opinions.

It is essential for student affairs professionals to understand the technology that today's students are using so that they can educate students on how to use it in a civil and respectable way. If meeting students where they are developmentally is an important belief of student affairs staff, it may be beneficial to incorporate technology into our interactions with students. Student affairs staff should be trained to deal with interpersonal conflicts that occur completely online, as these issues are no longer limited to face-to-face interactions. Staff may implement communication modules for students to complete that promote healthy communication between students and their peers, but also between students and faculty or staff.

It may also be beneficial for staff to be trained on how to deal with an upset student that is making extreme demands upon them. Although these students may be acting in an uncivil manner it is imperative that student affairs professionals continue to respond in a civil manner. As the moral agents of the campus community, it is important that staff model appropriate behavior to the students. They should see that students' questions are answered and that if demands are unable to be met that students at least understand the reason why. Respect and courteousness should be included in university student handbooks and codes of conduct and promoted through campus civility campaigns.

Previous research recommended that faculty members should engage students in discussions about civil behavior, and student affairs professionals should do the same. Student affairs professionals may want to implement programs or workshops that address online etiquette and email decorum. It may also be beneficial for students to be offered panel discussions from lawyers regarding the real life implications from student's online actions or uncivil behavior.

Open responses indicate a need for student affairs professionals to continue to address issues of social media and online forums, as it seems that this is an area which breeds incivility. A suggestion for student affairs professionals might be to create workshops and presentations on proper online etiquette and email decorum, and connect these programs to their civility campaigns. The use of cell phones during meetings was observed frequently by respondents, so student affairs professionals may also want to make certain that their campus civility campaigns are addressing this issue.

Recommendations for Future Research

Future studies could include qualitative interviews focusing on a particular position or a specific department within student affairs to gather data on how a dean or a director views student incivility. In addition, one could conduct observations of student programs or events in order to track instances of incivility (such as how many students arrive late or leave early, or the amount of students using cell phones or other personal devices during speakers or events). Using a similar survey to the one that was administered, but emailing it out to a broader, more intentional population (such as covering all student affairs organizations and not just those to which the researchers belonged) may provide more expansive data. In doing this one might be able to gain a better understanding as to the different issues of incivility various departments endure. Future research may also include tracking data from Residence Life departments as it relates to roommate conflicts to better understand the root of these conflicts and if it stems from a generational change in how students interact with one another by a greater use of technology and the potential incivility of these actions.

Another recommendation would be to study participants from various ages to see if there are any generational differences with how incivility is viewed. Another recommendation could be to focus on respondents' gender or ethnicity and determine if there are in fact gender or ethnicity differences as Alexander-Snow's research indicates. The final recommendation is for one to survey both staff and students on the use of technology to see if there are in fact different ways that technology is viewed in terms of civility.

Limitations

Our research includes several limitations. Participants were recruited electronically through emails and list-servs, primarily those associated with the professional organizations of the researchers. Those completing the instrument either needed direct access to the email or have it provided to them via another professional. As such, the respondents were not evenly distributed among the functional areas or institutional type. While the survey did not target a specific functional area, health services professionals represented a significantly large portion of the respondents (28% health services and 8% counseling). Similarly, approximately a quarter of respondents selected "other" as their functional area. Not knowing the specific department or area limits how the results may be interpreted as the nature and level of student interaction is unclear. Also, this study did not ask for information on participants' gender or race. In retrospect, this information would have helped to have for comparison purposes. Finally, the majority of responses came from participants at four-year institutions, which limits the generalizability of the data across all student affairs settings and institutional types.

Conclusion

In spite of these limitations, this research suggests that student affairs professionals are witnessing fewer extreme acts of incivility but they perceive an increase in smaller acts of incivility involving social media and other technology. In addition, students continue to demonstrate a consumer mentality regarding their education and appear to be placing unnecessary expectations and demands on staff members.

Today's college student relies heavily on technology and social media, so it is likely student affairs professionals will continue to see an increase in uncivil acts by students using smart phones or social media. It is important for colleges and universities to work to educate students about online etiquette and the best way to use social media. Student affairs professionals need to turn their focus towards these smaller acts of incivility and work to create programs and workshops to educate the student population on appropriate behavior. Similarly, they should engage students in conversations about technology and explain to students the greater impact this could potentially have on them. Curbing incidents of cyber incivility and the methods in which students express their opinions and communicate with their college community should be an ongoing focus for student affairs professionals.

While previous research indicated that incivility was a concern for faculty inside of the classroom, now it is evident that incivility is a concern for student affairs professionals as well. Furthermore, the responses indicated that incivility on college campuses, and those tied to technology, remain a concern for student affairs professionals. Student affairs professionals have a unique opportunity to educate students outside of the classroom. These findings indicate that further educational opportunities are necessary to better educate students on proper behavior, not

only in person, but on the internet and via social media as well. It is clear that college students are not merely behaving in an uncivil manner in the classroom towards faculty, but outside of the classroom in their daily interactions as well. More than ever, there is a need for faculty, staff and students to address incivility on college campuses. Many universities have begun to implement civility campaigns; however, this research shows a need for more specific educational programming to inform students of civil behavior outside of the classroom as well.

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Amy J. Zieziula is the Assistant Dean of Student Integrity at Armstrong State University and is a doctoral student in Higher Education Leadership at Georgia Southern University. Ms. Zieziula has developed and implemented Codes of Conduct at various types of institutions. In addition, she currently serves on the research committee for the Association for Student Conduct Administrators (ASCA), has presented at several professional conferences, and was a panelist at the Women’s Empowerment Conference in 2013 at Georgia Southern University.

Daniel W. Calhoun is an Assistant Professor and program coordinator of the M.Ed. in Higher Education Administration program at Georgia Southern University. His research is focused on the support and development of graduate students and new professionals. Dr. Calhoun is an active member of ACPA and currently serves on the Commission for Professional Preparation directorate and as a Faculty in Residence for the Standing Committee for Graduate Students and New Professionals.

Sexual Attitudes as Predictors of Homonegativity in College Women

James Archibald
Tamera Dunn

Abstract

Rancorous attitudes toward lesbian women and gay men are widespread in the United States (Morrison, Parriag, & Morrison, 1999). Homonegativity is any prejudicial attitude or discriminatory behavior directed toward an individual because of his or her homosexual orientation (Morrison, McLeod, Morrison, Anderson, & O'Connor, 1997). A small amount of research has been done regarding women's attitudes towards lesbians. The purpose of this study is to investigate the potential relationship between sexual attitude expression and homonegativity. It was hypothesized that females with conservative sexual attitudes would show higher levels of homonegativity, and females with liberal sexual attitudes should show more non-homonegative expression towards lesbians. A correlation analysis supported the hypothesis ($r = .73$, $p < .01$) indicating a positive correlation.

Sexual Attitudes as Predictors of Homonegativity in College Women

Although researchers have investigated predictors of homonegativity in males, little attention has been given to the predictors of homonegativity in females (Kite, & Whitley, 1998). Predictors such as self-esteem, religiosity, and contact with lesbians and gay men have been widely investigated in men but rarely in women (Basow & Johnson, 2000). It has been widely found that males have more negative attitudes towards gays and lesbians than females (Herek & Capitanio, 1999). Negative attitudes towards gays and lesbians are often referred to as homophobia or homonegativity. Homonegativity is a prejudicial attitude or discriminatory behavior directed toward an individual because of his or her homosexual orientation (Morrison, McLeod, Morrison, Anderson, & O'Connor, 1997). The term "homophobia" is often a misnomer because it frequently is used to refer to nonphobic negative reactions toward homosexuals (Haaga, 1991). Negative reactions toward homosexuals and prejudicial beliefs about homosexuals are defined as homonegativity. Homonegativity can be expressed by means of physical violence, verbal assault, or discriminatory actions.

Consequences of Homonegativity

Anti-gay Violence. Research suggests that men are less accepting of homosexuality than women, and that men account for the majority of anti-gay violence on college campuses (Perez, DeBord, & Bieschke, 2000). Anti-gay hate crimes are usually based on actual or perceived sexual orientation or gender identity of the victim. According to the Bureau of Justice Statistics (2005), a hate crime is a criminal offense committed against a person or society in which the crime is motivated by the offender's bias against a religion, disability, sexual orientation, ethnicity, or national origin. Hate crime victims show more fear of crime and increased feelings of vulnerability. People who experience same-sex or both-sex romantic attraction are more likely to experience extreme forms of violence than people who have a heterosexual attraction (Perez, DeBord, & Bieschke, 2000). According to Parrot, Adams, & Zeichner (2002), 94% of surveyed

gay and lesbian persons reported some form of victimization during their lifetime. Nearly 50% of the respondents had been physically threatened (Parrot, Adams, & Zeichner, 2002).

Anti-gay violence can prove to be fatal. The case of Matthew Shepard is a prime example of the dangers of homonegativity. Two men pretended to be gay to deceive Matthew Shepard. Matthew Shepard was then taken to a remote area where he was robbed, severely beaten with a handheld gun, tied to a fence, and left to die (Savin-Williams, 1999). Leonard "Lynn" Vinnes was a drag queen that lived in Baltimore, Maryland (Savin-Williams, 1999). Leonard was shot six times by a group who felt gay men did not belong in their neighborhood (Savin-Williams, 1999). Barry Winchell was a soldier in the United States Army dating a transgender performer at a nightclub not far from the army base (France, 2000). Despite the "Don't Ask, Don't Tell" policy, Barry Winchell experienced severe harassment from the other soldiers because of his perceived homosexuality (France, 2000). On July 9, 1999, Barry Winchell died of internal injuries after in a beating with a baseball bat by a homonegative soldier (France, 2000). These three men perceived to be gay were deceived, beaten, harassed, and ultimately killed due to strong homonegative behaviors exhibited by others. While seemingly extreme, it is disturbing to consider the attacks to the physical and mental wellness of the homosexual population due to the those who act upon their homonegativity.

Sexual Orientation Discrimination. Verbal harassment and intimidation are the most common forms of victimization of lesbians (Herek & Berrill, 1992). Parrot, Adams, & Zeichner (2002) report that 90% of gay and lesbian persons are targets of verbal abuse. Although researchers, practitioners, and policymakers may be tempted to downplay verbal harassment in comparison to physical harassment, verbal harassment can be viewed as being equally detrimental. It has been suggested that slurs such as "faggot," "dyke," and "queer" are used to remind the oppressed of their subordinate status. Such anti-gay verbal abuse represents a form of violence and a reminder of the ever present threat of a physical assault (Herek & Berrill, 1992). The psychological effects of verbal abuse may be as brutal as physical assaults. There is always the possibility that victims of verbal abuse may become psychologically scarred. A psychological scar affects how one feels about oneself and expressions of feelings (Herek & Berrill, 1992). Verbal harassment and intimidation of the lesbian population is not to be ignored given its prevalence and potential for negative psychological effects on the individual being targeted.

Predictors of Homonegativity

Attitudes toward Gays & Lesbians. According to Herek (2000), sexual prejudice refers to negative attitudes toward an individual because of her or his sexual orientation. Individuals considered to have a sexual prejudice include heterosexuals with negative attitudes toward homosexual behavior, people of homosexual or bisexual orientation, or communities that are predominantly homosexual or bisexual. Higher levels of sexual prejudice were found among individuals who are older, less educated, and persons living in rural areas. Heterosexual males generally display higher levels of sexual prejudice than heterosexual females (Herek, 2000). Among heterosexual males, high levels of sexual prejudice are strongly related to whether a person knows a homosexual or not. Most of the empirical research in this area is limited due to the fact that its focus has been on heterosexuals' attitudes toward gay men and not lesbians (Herek 2000).

In a study conducted by Schellenberg, Hirt, & Sears (1999), researchers investigated attitudes toward homosexuals among a broad selection of undergraduate students. It was

hypothesized that students who majored in the Arts and Social Sciences would have more liberal views than students who majored in Business and the Natural Sciences (Schellenberg, Hirt, & Sears, 1999). The researchers tested a finding by Kite & Whitley (1998) which stated the following: although males' attitudes toward homosexuals tend to be more negative than females; acceptance of homosexuality varies as a function of the gender of the homosexual. It was found that attitudes toward gay men are more negative than attitudes toward lesbians. Approximately 199 undergraduate students participated in this study. The participants' ages ranged from 18-35. The researchers administered the Attitudes toward Gay Men and Lesbians (ATGL) scale developed by Herek. The scale consisted of 10 items that measured attitudes toward lesbians and gay men. The results indicated that students majoring in Arts and Social Science had more positive attitudes toward homosexuals than students majoring in Business and Natural Science. Although there were no differences between Business majors and Natural Science majors, the Arts majors had more positive attitudes than Social Science majors. The results supported previous findings that female students had more positive attitudes than male students. Attitudes toward lesbians were more positive than attitudes toward gay men. Limitations of this study included generalizations based on one instrument, Attitudes toward Gay Men and Lesbians scale, and use of a participants samples consisting of less than 8% of non-European descent participants (Schellenberg, Hirt, & Sears, 1999).

Negy & Eisenman (2005) did a comparative study of African-American and Caucasian-American college students' affective and attitudinal reactions to lesbian, gay, and bisexual individuals. Seventy African-Americans and 143 Caucasian-Americans participated in this study. Eighty nine percent of African-Americans indicated that their religious affiliation was Christianity, and 76% of Caucasian-Americans indicated Christianity as their religion. All participants completed the Index of Attitudes toward Homosexuals (IAH) and the Heterosexual Attitudes toward Homosexuality questionnaire. To determine if African-Americans and Caucasian-Americans differed on demographic variables, an ANOVA was used with ethnicity serving as the independent variable. Age, class standing, socioeconomic status, frequency of church attendance, religious commitment, and socially desirable responding served as the dependent variables. The results indicated that African-Americans had modestly higher homophobia and homonegativity scores than Caucasian-Americans (Negy & Eisenman, 2005). For both ethnic groups, gender and religiosity variables significantly predicted homophobia and homonegativity. Males in both ethnic groups had significantly higher homophobia and homonegativity scores than females (Negy & Eisenman, 2005).

Gender & Gender Roles as Predictors. In a study conducted by D'Augelli & Rose (1990), the researchers hypothesized that college freshman would have negative attitudes towards gay men and lesbians and would report making homonegative statements regarding homosexuality. One hundred and eight heterosexual females and 110 heterosexual males participated in this study. The age range of the participants was 17 to 19 years old. The participants were asked to fill out a background information questionnaire and complete the Attitudes toward Lesbians and Gay Men Scale. The background questionnaire inquired about the participants' religious affiliation, living environment, and family upbringing. In regards to the Attitudes toward Lesbians and Gay Men Scale, 29% of the participants believed that their university would be a better place if only heterosexuals attended. It was found that 98% had heard homonegative statements about gay men and lesbian. It was also found that 85% of the participants had made recent homonegative comments and that it occurs often. However, it was reported that 24% of the female participants had never made homonegative statements about gay

men and lesbians. Thirty-six percent of the female participants did not care about problems concerning gay men and lesbians, and 60% of the male participants did not care about problems concerning gay men and lesbians. The results indicated that males had more homonegative attitudes toward gay men and lesbian than females (D'Augelli & Rose, 1990).

Sexual Attitudes as Predictors

Human sexuality and sexual attitudes are very complex and varies widely. Unlike human sexuality, the concept of sexual attitudes has been described as being on a bipolar continuum ranging from a liberal attitude to a conservative attitude regarding sexual orientation (Hudson, Murphy, & Nurius, 1983). At the liberal end of the continuum, people tend to feel that the expression of human sexuality should be open, free, and unrestrained. At the conservative end of the continuum, people tend to feel that the expression of human sexuality should be considerably constrained and closely self-regulated. Although there are people who adhere to extreme forms of a liberal or conservative orientation concerning human sexual expression, most people fall somewhere in between the extreme position (Hudson, Murphy, & Nurius, 1983). According to Leiblum, Wiegel, & Brickel (2003), gender has a significant impact on sexual attitudes. Research suggests that females are more sexually conservative than males. Although women report that they tend to not be frequent engagers of masturbation, pornography, and extra-relationship sex in comparison to men, they tend to be more tolerant towards homosexuality.

In a study conducted by Olatunji, Lohr, & Meunier (2002), the researchers investigated emotional correlates and predictors of homophobic tendencies. Approximately, 138 participants completed this study. The following instruments were used in this study: the Index of Attitudes toward Homosexuals, the Sexual Attitude Scale, the Medical Fears Survey, the Disgust Emotions Scale, Padua Inventory, and the Fear Survey Schedule (Olatunji, Lohr, & Meunier, 2002). The Padua Inventory was used to assess obsessive and compulsive symptoms. The statistical analysis of this study consisted of multiple correlations between the measures, Pearson correlations (Olatunji, Lohr, & Meunier, 2002). The results indicated that the scores from the Index of Attitudes toward Homosexuals were positively correlated with results from the Sexual Attitude Scale, the Disgust Emotion Scale, and the Padua Inventory (Olatunji, Lohr, & Meunier, 2002). The researchers concluded that participants who showed homophobic tendencies or homonegative attitudes on the Index of Attitudes toward Homosexuals tend to have conservative sexual attitudes and high levels of disgust (Olatunji, Lohr, & Meunier, 2002).

After surveying the literature, gender has been found to be a correlate of heterosexual attitudes toward gay, lesbian, and bisexual individuals (Liang & Alimo, 2005). The literature also supports the notion that heterosexual males tend have more negative attitudes toward homosexuals than females. However, the literature is lacking specific attention to women's attitudes towards homosexuals. As attitudes are an important predictor of behavior, it is particularly important that an increased understanding of negative attitudes toward gay and lesbians be sought (Herek, 2000). This paper presents the findings of a study investigating a hypothesized relationship between sexual attitude expression and homonegativity. This study investigated the following hypothesis: females with conservative sexual attitudes should show higher levels of homonegativity, and females with liberal sexual attitudes should show less homonegative expression.

Method

Participants

Seventy-five female undergraduate and graduate students at a university in the Southern region of the United States participated in this study. Twenty-nine percent (n=22) of the sample were graduate students, 26% (n=20) were college seniors, 22.7% (n=17) were college sophomores, 12% (n=9) were college juniors, and 9% (n=7) were college freshman. Ethnically, the vast majority were Caucasian with 70.7% (n=53), 18.7% (n=14) were African-American, 6.7% (n=5) were Asian, and 4% (n=3) were biracial. The participant's ages ranged from 18-26 years old.

Instruments

The Sexual Attitude Scale (SAS) (Hudson, Murphy, & Nurius, 1983) is a 25-item summated category partition scale that was designed to measure the extent to which an individual adheres to a liberal or a conservative orientation concerning sexual expression. Each item is scored on a 5-point "agree-disagree" continuum, and all but two items are worded and scored so that a higher score represents a more conservative orientation. The SAS is scored as bipolar agree-disagree continuum, and the total score ranges from 0 to 100 with a midpoint score of 50. A score below 50 indicates a more liberal sexual attitude, and a score above 50 indicates a more conservative sexual attitude. With respect to reliability, the scale has been investigated to have an alpha coefficient of .90 or larger. With respect to validity, the scale has been investigated to have validity coefficients of .60 or greater (Hudson, Murphy, & Nurius, 1983). The following are examples of the items on the scale: "sex education should be restricted to the home;" "I think sex should be reserved for marriage;" and "there is too much sex on television." Additionally, the Homonegativity Scale-*Lesbian Version* (Morrison, Parriag, & Morrison, 1999) was used. This scale measures negative attitudes toward lesbians. The scale contains six items and is set up for response on a Likert-type scale with 1 indicating strongly disagree and 5 indicating strongly agree. Scores can range from 6 to 30. A score of 6-17 indicates a nonhomonegative attitude, and a score of 18-30 indicating greater homonegativity. With respect to reliability, the scale has been investigated to have an alpha coefficient of .84. With respect to validity, the scale has been investigated to have an alpha coefficient of .56 or greater (Morrison, Parriag, & Morrison, 1999). The following are examples of items on the scale: "lesbians are immoral" and "lesbians should not be allowed to work with children."

Design & Procedure

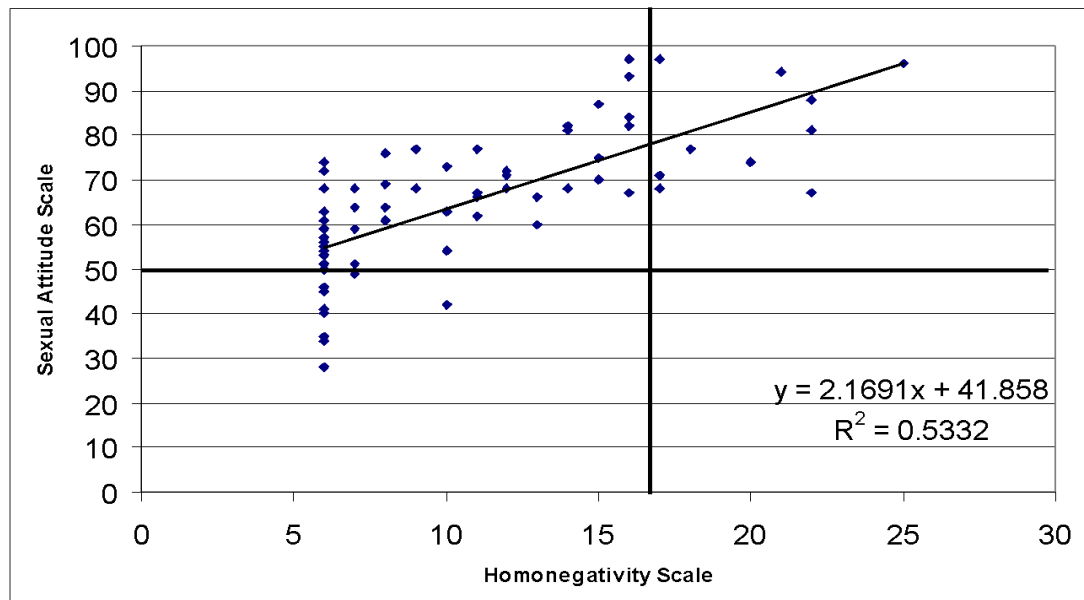
Participants for this study were recruited in undergraduate and graduate courses by the principal investigator and first author. A written announcement was posted on a research information board indicating the nature of the study, the location of where the study was being conducted, and the investigator's contact information. Participants also had the option to schedule appointments for participation in the study. A time sheet for scheduling was made available in the departmental office and was managed by the administrative assistant. A demographic sheet was developed to assist in describing the sample population. Information concerning the participant's age, ethnicity, and class classification was obtained through the use of the demographic sheet.

Participants individually completed the inventories and a demographic sheet in private testing units. All inventories and demographic sheets were coded with a number to indicate which inventories were completed by each participant prior to administration. Upon completion, participants were thanked for their participation. An incentive was not offered for participation in this study.

Results

Scores on the Sexual Attitudes Scale showed that 66 females endorsed conservative sexual attitudes, and 9 females endorsed liberal sexual attitudes. The average score on the Sexual Attitudes Scale was 65. The standard deviation was 15. The statistical mode for Sexual Attitudes Scale was 68. Scores on the Homonegativity Scale-*Lesbian Version* indicated that 68 females had more non-homonegative attitudes, and 7 females had more homonegative attitudes. The average score on the Homonegativity Scale-*Lesbian Version* was 10. The standard deviation was 5. The statistical mode for the Homonegativity Scale-*Lesbian Version* was 6. A Pearson correlation analysis indicated a significant positive correlation between sexual attitudes and homonegativity ($r = .73, p < .01$, see Figure 1). College women who had higher homonegativity scores had higher conservative sexual attitude scores.

Figure 1. Pearson Correlation of Homonegativity Scale and Sexual Attitude Scale



The results supported the hypothesis that there is a relationship between sexual attitudes and homonegativity in females. Although there is a strong positive correlation, this is mostly reflecting a relationship between conservative attitudes and homonegativity, since only 9 of the participants endorsed liberal sexual attitudes. There appears to be a biased sample effect in that there were not enough participants who endorsed liberal sexual attitudes to distinctly demonstrate a relationship between the measures. A score above 50 indicates a conservative sexual attitude. There is a cluster of scores that are well above the midpoint (50) of the Sexual

Attitudes Scale. Many of the participants showed low levels of the homonegativity on the Homonegativity Scale-*Lesbian Version*. Nevertheless, the findings are consistent with Leiblum, Wiegel, & Brickel (2003) indicating that females have more sexually conservative attitudes. The results are consistent with Herek & Capitanio (1999) that females have lower levels of homophobia or rather homonegativity.

Limitations

The Sexual Attitude Scale and the Homonegativity Scale-*Lesbian Version* are self-report measures. Therefore, threats to validity are possible when using these types of measurements. The purpose of the study may have been readily apparent given the nature of the items. There is a possibility participants could make themselves appear more liberal or conservative on the Sexual Attitude Scale, and less homonegative on the Homonegativity Scale-*Lesbian Version*. The number of participants was relatively small, with the majority identifying their ethnic background as White/Caucasian. A more diverse sample population would be needed to generalize the results to the larger population. Since there was no method of controlling for sexuality other than self-identification, there is a possibility that lesbians participated in the study. A potential for biased responding is present with any participants who chose to self-identify as lesbians.

This study was conducted in what is known as the “Bible Belt” of the United States. The “Bible Belt” refers to the midwest and southern regions of the United States which have a strong Christian Protestant influence, and tend to be morally and socially conservative (Ginn, Walker, Poulson, Singletary, Cyrus, & Picarelli, 1998). Should this be the case, there may have been a predisposition to have an unbalanced sample of females with conservative sexual attitudes. Although religiosity is a known predictor of homonegativity, it was not measured in this study. Future studies should include an examination of the potential role of this variable as it relates to homonegativity.

The level of contact with gay and lesbian persons is also a variable that should be investigated. The amount of contact and familiarity a person has with gay or lesbian people has also been shown to be predictors of the comfort level with gays and lesbians (Mohipp & Morry, 2004). More research should be done in the area of homonegativity in order to find ways to promote positive attitudinal change in society towards persons who identify as gay and lesbian. Finding the most significant predictor of homonegativity has important implications for the reduction of negative attitudes toward lesbian and gay individuals (Basow, 2000).

Conclusion

It is important for student affairs professionals to be aware of any biases, prejudices, or discriminations they might have against LGBT students. Interactions with LGBT persons has helped reduce homonegativity in heterosexuals (Walters, 1994). Student affairs professionals can be active in combating the violence and bullying perpetuated by homonegative persons. They can support penalties for discrimination based on sexual orientation. They can also support organizations that work to stop violence against the LGBT community, and provide access to or creation of groups that advocate for awareness and authentication of all sexual orientations. Student affairs professionals should be ready and able to support LGBT support groups or “safe space” networks. If a student has experienced an act of bullying or violence that has been committed against her or him, student affairs professionals should encourage the student to

report the action and offer any assistance and support throughout the process. By assisting students in reporting harassment to student conduct officers or authorities can help the student cope with the situation.

It is important for college counselors to be aware of any biases, prejudices, or discriminations they might have against gay and lesbian students. The American Counseling Association has adopted a resolution that states that it: “opposes portrayals of lesbian, gay, and bisexual youth and adults as mentally ill due to their sexual orientation; and supports the dissemination of accurate information about sexual orientation, mental health, and appropriate interventions in order to counteract bias that is based on ignorance or unfounded beliefs about same-gender sexual orientation (ACA, 1998, p. 1-2).” College counselors should never assume a student’s sexual orientation is heterosexual or homosexual as sexuality is described on a continuum with range wide. It is suggested that not only college counselors but other student affairs professionals as well identify support groups and centers in the local and regional areas in which they can refer students who may benefit from these services.

With respect to hate crime victims, student affairs professionals and administrators can be active in combating the violence perpetuated by homonegative persons. For example, by supporting penalties for discrimination and hate crimes based on sexual orientation this can send a message that homonegativity will not be tolerated. They can also support student organizations that work to bring awareness of hate crimes, and provide support groups for victims of hate crimes.

Graduate programs in college student personnel, student affairs, or higher education leadership should consider developing courses that involve working with LGBT students. Graduate faculty and educators should challenge their students to confront their own heterosexism. The more exposure aspiring student affairs professionals have with working with LGBT issues, the more prepared they will be in becoming advocates and allies.

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James G. Archibald is an Assistant Professor of Higher Education Leadership at Valdosta State University. Dr. Archibald is also a Research Associate with the Center for Higher Education at Ohio University.

Tamera Dunn is a Residence Life Coordinator at Texas Tech University. She received her M.Ed. in Higher Education Leadership from Valdosta State University.

An Assessment of Faculty Job Satisfaction in Georgia's Technical College System Using Bolman and Deal's Four Organizational Frameworks

Bee S. Hart
Brenda L. H. Marina

Abstract

This study examined the extent to which elements within Bolman and Deal's (2003) four organizational frameworks impacted the job satisfaction of full-time faculty working within the Technical College System of Georgia (TCSG). A factor analysis coupled with a linear regression analysis found that elements within Bolman and Deal's structural framework had the greatest impact.

In an age of increasing professorial job dissatisfaction, high mobility rates within the teaching profession, and public accountability demands for quantifiable work performance, educational administrators must develop organizations that are not only highly effective but also promote worker morale (Sanderson, Phua, & Herda, 2000; Syptak, Marsland, & Ulmer, 1999; Kelly, 1989). By having a greater understanding of what forces within an institution have the greatest impact on faculty job satisfaction (or dissatisfaction), administrators can be better positioned to create such an environment.

Job satisfaction is a topic of interest to leaders in a variety of fields because of its ability to impact an assortment of work attributes. Previous literature has shown that an employee's level of job satisfaction can impact worker motivation, absenteeism, commitment, productivity, and even illness (Bozeman, B. & Gaughan, M., 2011; HMRS, 2005; Kelly, 1989; Syptak, Marsland, & Ulmer, 1999). This is of particular interest within the realm of higher education. There has been a growing level of dissatisfaction among college faculty (Levin, 2006), with 41.3% of nationally polled faculty indicating they have considered leaving the field for a different career (Sanderson, Phua, & Herda, 2000). With a better understanding of the factors contributing to satisfaction, or lack thereof, educational leaders can devise more effective strategies to promote recruitment and retention (Johnsrud & Heck, 1994; Seifert & Umbach, 2008; Smart, 1990; Weiler, 1985). Chen, S. H., Yang, C. C., Shiao, J.Y. and Wang, H. H. (2006) also note that institutions can only improve quality in teaching and learning if they identify mechanisms that improve faculty job satisfaction and contentment.

Faculty job satisfaction studies have been carried out in traditional two-year and four-year settings (e.g. Kessler, 2007; Levin, 2006; Sanderson, Phua, & Herda, 2000; and Jackson 2000); however, faculty job satisfaction studies within the technical college environment have been largely neglected (Brewer & McMahan-Landers, 2003). Technical colleges provide a unique setting in which to consider faculty job satisfaction because they are inherently different than other educational settings in which faculty job satisfaction studies have been conducted. Cohen and Brawer (2003) note that technical colleges provide a unique educational work environment because their purpose is to prepare students for employment and provide industry with trained workers. Palmer (1987) also asserts that some view the technical college environment as being innately different than other branches of education for three reasons: an emphasis on workforce development; terminal program offerings that provide services to students that are seen as being less prepared academically than those pursuing baccalaureate degrees; and the social service perspective of providing economic improvements to communities.

In this study, a multidimensional approach was used to assess organizational elements impacting job satisfaction of full-time faculty members within the Technical College System of Georgia (TCSG). The following provides a review of the fundamental constructs discussed within each of Bolman and Deal's (2003) organizational frameworks. These constructs provide the theoretical foundation upon which this study was developed.

Literature Related to Bolman and Deal's Four Organizational Frameworks

Bolman and Deal (2003) have divided organizations into four broad frames: the structural frame, the human resources frame, the political frame, and the symbolic frame. They define an organizational frame to be a set of ideas that enables one to better understand daily occurrences. These frames were chosen for this study to better understand how each facet of the work environment impacts faculty job satisfaction. By identifying major contributors to job satisfaction, organizational leaders may be better able to strengthen those aspects of the work environment to promote morale and limit turnover as well as improve the quality of services provided. A brief overview of each of the four frames is provided below along with representative job satisfaction studies (Zabriskie, Dey, and Riegle 2002; Truell, Price, and Joyner, 1998; Chatman, 1991) discussed within the context of the given frame.

The Structural Frame. The structural frame posed by Bolman and Deal (2003) relates to the administrative hierarchy of an organization. They contend that the structural framework of an organization can accommodate institutional goals while allowing for individual differences and have outlined six foundational assumptions of this frame:

1. Organizations exist to achieve established goals and objectives.
2. Organizations increase efficiency and enhance performance through specialization a clear division of labor.
3. Appropriate forms of coordination and control ensure that diverse efforts of individuals and units.
4. Organizations work best when rationality prevails over personal preferences and extraneous influences.
5. Structures must be designed to fit an organization's circumstances (including its goals, technology, workforce, and environment).
- 6). Problems and performance gaps arise from structural deficiencies and can be remedied through analysis and restructuring. (p. 45)

Zabriskie, Dey, and Riegle (2002) found a supportive environment allowing faculty to focus on teaching without having to divert their available time and energy towards being defensive to be positively correlated with job satisfaction.

The Human Resources Frame. The human resources frame considers the relationship between individual and organizational needs. Steers and Porter (1991) define a human need as an internal state of imbalance that causes an individual to pursue a set of actions by which to regain balance. Hoy and Miskel (2005) note that the ultimate objective of an individual's action is to fulfill a need or otherwise reduce an existing imbalance and it is within the context of needs that human behavior can be explained. Bolman and Deal (2003) note that the alignment between the needs of an employee and the needs of the organization is critical in providing meaningful and satisfying work for the employee and have outlined the following four core assumptions:

1. Organizations exist to serve human needs rather than the reverse.
2. People and organizations need each other. Organizations need ideas, energy, and talent; people need careers, salaries, and opportunities.
3. When the fit between individual and system is poor, one or both will suffer. Individuals are exploited or exploit the organization – or both become victims.
4. A good fit benefits both. Individuals find meaningful and satisfying work, and organizations get the talent and energy they need to succeed (p. 115)

In a study of job satisfaction among community college occupational and technical faculty, Truell, Price, and Joyner (1998) found that full-time faculty members were most satisfied with the nature of the work being performed. Waltman, J., Bergom, I., Hollenshead, C., Miller, J., and August, L. (2012) found similar outcomes when studying the job satisfaction of non-tenure track faculty. The work of Bozeman and Gaughan (2011) regarding university faculty also led to similar findings, showing that these individuals were satisfied overall, but felt a need for their work to be considered important and appreciated.

The Political Frame. The political frame posed by Bolman and Deal (2003) considers the interactions that impact individual and group interests within an organization. Mintzberg (1983) defines politics to be influence stemming from informal individual or group behaviors that are not sanctioned by formal authority and notes that these actions often serve the interests of a particular group at the expense of the organization as a whole. Bolman and Deal (2003) note, however, that politics can be used to benefit an organization and they have outlined five underlying assumptions regarding this frame:

1. Organizations are composed of coalitions of diverse individuals and interest groups.
2. There are enduring differences among coalition members in values, beliefs, information, interests, and perceptions of reality.
3. Important decisions involve allocating scarce resources-who gets what.
4. Scarce resources and enduring differences make conflict central to organizational dynamics and underline power as the most important asset
5. Goals and decisions emerge from bargaining, negotiation, and jockeying for position among competing stakeholders (p. 186).

The Symbolic Frame. Bolman and Deal's (2003) symbolic frame considers how people give meaning to symbols and how such meanings help shape an organization's culture. They contend that symbols embody culture and culture defines for members of the organization "who they are and how they are to do things" (pg. 243). Chatman (1991) recommends that organizations desiring close employee-organization value relationships spend time developing selection and socialization strategies. Specifically, Chatman (1991) recommends that organizations seek out those individuals that possess values similar to those of the organization at entry and that organizations also develop socialization opportunities that will allow the continued development of employee-organization fit. Bolman and Deal (2003) draw on existing literature (e.g. Selznick, 1957; Dittmer, 1977; Hofstede, 1984) within the field of institutional theory to develop assumptions regarding their symbolic frame:

1. What is most important is not what happens but what it means.
2. Activity and meaning are loosely coupled; events have multiple meanings because people interpret experience differently.
3. In the face of widespread uncertainty and ambiguity, people create symbols to resolve confusion, increase predictability, find direction, and anchor hope and faith.

4. Many events and processes are more important for what is expressed than what is produced. They form a cultural tapestry of secular myths, heroes and heroines, rituals, ceremonies and stories that help people find purpose and passion in their personal and work lives.
5. Culture is the glue that holds an organization together and unites people around shared values and beliefs. (p. 243).

Ultimately, Bolman and Deal (2003) state, “the symbolic frame seeks to interpret and illuminate basic issues of meaning and belief that make meanings so powerful” (pg. 242).

Methodology

This research study focused on the following overarching question: To what extent do elements within Bolman and Deal’s (2003) four organizational frameworks impact faculty job satisfaction the Technical College System of Georgia? The following subquestions were used to seek answers to the overarching question:

- Subquestion 1: To what extent does faculty job satisfaction vary among technical colleges?
- Subquestion 2: To what extent do perceptions regarding elements within Bolman and Deal’s (2003) four organizational frameworks vary among technical colleges?
- Subquestion 3: To what extent do elements within Bolman and Deal’s (2003) four organizational frameworks impact faculty job satisfaction?

Each stated research question has one dependent variable and multiple categorical independent variables relating to the specific research question. The independent variables for research question one are: demographic groupings; for research questions two and three: elements within organizational frameworks.

Instrument Development

For this study, a question pool was developed using information provided within each of the four frameworks proposed by Bolman and Deal (2003). Three veteran administrators within the field of technical education, consisting of a Vice President for Academic Affairs and two college Deans, agreed to participate in the instrument development phase of the study. These administrators were provided with a brief summary of Bolman and Deal’s (2003) four organizational frameworks and were asked to review the question pool to provide initial feedback regarding question clarity and the degree to which questions fit the intended frameworks. Additionally, the group was asked to review four open-ended questions, one pertaining to each of the four organizational frameworks, for clarity and fit. One question directly asking participants how satisfied they are with their jobs was also included.

After revisions were made to the initial question pool based on group feedback, the group was asked to complete the survey to obtain initial consistency data. Two of the three participants returned completed surveys for a preliminary data review. Internal consistency values were obtained for groups of questions within each framework by calculating Chronbach’s alpha. DeVaus (2002) states that Chronbach’s alpha values can range from 0 to 1 and that the higher the value of alpha the greater degree of reliability between items. DeVaus (2002) asserts that an instrument should have a reliability coefficient of 0.7 to be considered reliable, and that items should be removed from the instrument until an acceptable value is achieved. The Chronbach’s

alpha values for question groups were calculated using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software program. Questions were grouped together by framework and individual questions were removed until an acceptable value of Chronbach's alpha was found for each framework grouping. An additional Likert scale item asking participants to rank their overall level of job satisfaction was also included to make comparisons between groups of items within a given framework and the overall level of satisfaction stated.

The final survey instrument, reflecting modifications based on expert feedback and internal consistency calculations contained 32 Likert scale survey items, four open-ended questions, and six demographic questions. The Likert scale used allowed participants to respond to a given question by choosing one of the following numeric values: 1 (strongly disagree), 2 (disagree), 3 (undecided), 4 (agree), or 5 (strongly agree). Using this construction, higher valued responses corresponded to higher levels of agreement with the stated survey item. The four open-ended questions were presented so that one question relating to each organizational framework was included. Demographic groupings (see Appendix A) included the following: gender, race/ethnicity, years of employment, college size classification, type of instructor (program or general education), and type of previous employment experience (k-12 education, post secondary education, business and industry, or other). A summary of item sets and corresponding consistency values for each framework in the final survey instrument can be seen in Table 1.

Framework	Items	Chronbach's Alpha
Structural	1, 5, 9, 13, 17, 21, and 28	0.778
Symbolic	4, 8, 12, 16, 20, 24, 27, and 31	0.959
Human Resources	2, 6, 10, 14, 18, 22, 25, and 29	0.857
Political	7, 11, 15, 23, and 30	0.938

Table 1. Internal consistency values for each organizational framework.

Respondents

Participants were full-time faculty members employed within the Technical College System of Georgia. There were 2,219 full-time faculty members working in the technical college system at the time the survey was administered, however 278 faculty (see Table 1) completed the survey to yield a response rate of 12.5%. The majority of the respondents, 59%, were female and 39% of all respondents had 2-5 years of experience at their current place of employment. Approximately 48% of the respondents work in large technical colleges and roughly 32% work in medium size technical colleges. Most respondents, 68%, came to their positions from business and industry backgrounds.

Instrument Delivery

An electronic link to the final survey was sent to the TCSG state-level Research Manager for distribution to all Vice Presidents of Academic Affairs and Deans of Instruction via organizational listserves. In turn, the link along with a letter of invitation to participate in the study and a letter of support from the state-level Research Manager's Office, was then be forwarded by the Vice President to all full-time faculty within each college.

By emailing the survey to faculty email addresses, unauthorized access of the survey instrument could be reduced. DeVauss (2002) purports that using the internet to deploy research

questionnaires is both viable and popular. He encourages inclusion of an invitation letter to participate in the study containing directions for the instrument and the social value of taking part in the study along with the URL where the survey instrument can be found in order to gain participant cooperation. Additionally, DeVauss (2002) recommends using an internet survey software package to ensure anonymity and smooth implementation. For this study, the internet survey software package, eListen, was utilized to deploy the survey instrument and store participant responses. This software package allowed participants to respond to survey items anonymously. The data obtained was uploaded into SPSS for statistical analysis.

Data Analysis

Data for each of the three subquestions were collected and organized using eListen software. The numeric data were then uploaded into SPSS for further analysis while responses to open-ended questions were coded to provide additional insight into respondent perceptions of elements impacting their job satisfaction. The coding method consisted of organizing responses into general themes and recording the frequency of occurrences. The following paragraphs discuss the statistical approach and outcomes for each of the three research subquestions.

The first subquestion considered how job satisfaction varies within TCSG for full-time faculty. To determine the variation in job satisfaction, descriptive statistics and t-tests were calculated for each demographic grouping in the study. No statistically significant difference was found in the mean level of job satisfaction within the gender, years of experience, college size, and type of instructor demographic variables. It was found that a statistically significant difference exists at the 0.05 level of alpha in job satisfaction for the racial demographic variable between black respondents and respondents not identifying with any of the race choices listed on the survey instrument. Also, a statistically significant difference was found at the 0.05 level of alpha between respondents coming from K-12 institutions and business and industry as well as K-12 institutions and those coming from backgrounds other than the choices listed on the survey instrument. A statistically significant difference was found at the 0.01 level of alpha between K-12 respondents and post-secondary respondents, with the mean response value for K-12 respondents being higher.

The second subquestion examined how perceptions of elements within each of Bolman and Deal's four organizational frameworks vary. To determine how perceptions differ within each of the four frameworks, descriptive statistics were calculated for all respondents for survey items within each framework, responses to open-ended questions were coded and presented, and t-tests were calculated between demographic groupings for each survey item within a given framework.

Within the structural framework, t-test analyses showed a statistically significant difference between some groups for some of the survey items relating to that framework. After coding open-ended responses, it was found that "limited institutional communication" influenced full-time faculty job satisfaction the most. Within the symbolic framework, t-test analyses again show a statistically significant difference for some of the survey items for each demographic grouping and coding data reveals that having a supportive institutional culture impacted their job satisfaction the most. For the human resources framework, a statistically significant difference was found between some items within each demographic grouping except for the college size demographic variable. The most frequent open-ended response impacting job satisfaction was interaction with students. Similarly to t-test outcomes for the human resources framework, t-test

analyses within the political framework showed statistically significant differences between group perceptions of some survey items except for comparisons within the college size demographic variable. Coded responses within this framework revealed that overall organizational politics have a negative impact on full-time faculty job satisfaction.

Finally, the third subquestion considered the extent to which elements within Bolman and Deal's (2003) four organizational frameworks impact faculty job satisfaction. To better understand this relationship, a linear regression analysis and factor analysis were conducted. An initial linear regression analysis was conducted for each of the four organizational frameworks utilizing the question groupings outlined for each framework. For this regression analysis, each question within a framework grouping served as an independent variable and was compared to the job satisfaction dependent variable, survey item 32. The Pearson correlation coefficient, r , for each grouping is provided in Table 2 below:

Table 2

Organizational Framework	r-value
Structural Framework	0.847
Human Resources Framework	0.776
Political Framework	0.681
Symbolic Framework	0.682

The result of this linear regression suggests that elements within the structural framework are the strongest predictors of job satisfaction. An r -value of 0.847 was obtained, which suggests a strong positive correlation between the two. The human resources framework had the second highest correlation value, 0.776, which also suggests a strong positive correlation to job satisfaction. The correlation values for the political framework and symbolic framework were very similar at 0.681 and 0.682 respectively, suggesting that elements within each of these frameworks have roughly the same impact on job satisfaction and are less important to overall job satisfaction than elements found in the previous two frameworks.

To better understand the extent to which individual survey items within a given framework impact overall job satisfaction, a factor analysis was performed for each framework grouping. Component coefficients were calculated and used to create four new weighted factor variables in SPSS. These four new factor variables were used to perform a second linear regression analysis to determine the relationship between each of the weighted factor variables and survey item 32.

Structural Framework analysis. The factor analysis for the structural framework returned one factor variable. This factor analysis demonstrated that survey item 1, "feeling valued as an employee", is the best indicator of how the structural framework impacts job satisfaction. Survey item 5, "enjoying the work environment", was the second most important aspect of the structural framework. Survey item 28, "taking part in important decision making", was third. Items 17 and 21, "feedback from supervisors and autonomy", were of similar importance. And finally, items 13 and 9, "feeling that work is significant" and "compensation", were least important. Ultimately, all factor coefficients within this variable demonstrated a positive correlation to job satisfaction, as shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Structural Framework Item	Factor Coefficient
Survey item 1 I feel valued as an employee of my organization	0.858
Survey item 5 I enjoy my work environment.	0.794
Survey item 9 I am satisfied with my compensation	0.470
Survey item 13 I feel that my work is significant	0.531
Survey item 17 My supervisor does a good job of providing feedback	0.651
Survey item 21 I have autonomy within my job	0.641
Survey item 28 I get to take part in making important decisions within my organization	0.673

Human Resources Framework analysis. A factor analysis of the human resources framework survey items returned two factor variables. After creating each new factor variable and including it in a linear regression analysis of survey item 32, it was found that factor variable 1 had a Pearson's correlation value of 0.768 as compared to a value of 0.064 for variable 2; therefore, variable one was included in the analysis (see Table 4). The two strongest indicators of job satisfaction within the human resources framework were survey items 2 and 10. Item 2 considers "goal alignment between an employee and institution" while item 10 considers the "impact that full-time faculty employment has on an individual's self-esteem". Other elements within the framework carried r-values of less than 0.7. Again, all items within the human resources framework had a positive correlation with job satisfaction, as shown in Table 4.

Table 4

Human Resources Framework Item	Variable 1 Coefficients	Variable 2 Coefficients
Survey item 2 My personal goals align with the goals of my organization	0.763	-0.005
Survey item 6 My work behavior is consistent with my supervisor's expectations	0.643	0.300
Survey item 10 My job helps build my self-esteem	0.751	0.059
Survey item 14 My relationships at work impact my level of job satisfaction.	0.201	0.671
Survey item 18 I feel that my job is secure	0.693	0.252
Survey item 22 My organization tries to promote from within	0.456	-0.390
Survey item 25 I am offered training for my job	0.460	-0.442
Survey item 29 My work is intellectually stimulating	0.627	-0.259

Political Framework analysis. The factor analysis for the political framework returned one factor variable. This analysis indicated that survey item 30, the "distribution of power within an organization" was the best indicator of job satisfaction within this framework; however, the "potential for expert knowledge to surpass formal authority" returned a similar value. All of the elements within this grouping were positively correlated to job satisfaction, except the feeling that "a technical college is very political." This item was negatively correlated with job satisfaction (see Table 5). This suggests that politics reduced job satisfaction for faculty.

Table 5

Political Framework Item	Factor Coefficient
Survey item 7 I feel that there are groups of people in my organization that I can relate to	0.536
Survey item 11 Expert knowledge is more powerful than formal authority in my organization	0.776
Survey item 15 My supervisor uses rewards to motivate me	0.535
Survey item 23 I feel that my organization is very political	-0.680
Survey item 30 I am satisfied with the distribution of power between groups in my organization	0.792

Symbolic Framework analysis. A factor analysis of the symbolic framework survey items returned two factor variables. After creating each new factor variable and including it in a linear regression analysis of survey item 32, it was found that factor variable one had a Pearson correlation value of 0.653 as compared to a value of 0.068 for variable two; therefore, variable one (1) is included in the analysis (see Table 6). Survey item 16, “creating a sense of community between diverse groups”, was the strongest indicator of job satisfaction within this framework. Survey item 8, “alignment between individual and organizational values and priorities”, was also a strong indicator of job satisfaction within this framework. Other items were found to less influential.

Table 6

Symbolic Framework Item	Variable 1 Coefficients	Variable 2 Coefficients
Survey item 4 The culture of my organization impacts my job satisfaction.	-0.173	0.781
Survey item 8 My values and priorities match my organization’s values and priorities.	0.748	-0.057
Survey item 12 Understanding the culture of my organization impacts my level of success.	0.191	0.752
Survey item 16 My organization develops a sense of community between diverse groups	0.797	-0.102
Survey item 20 My organization uses an orientation process	0.669	-0.064
Survey item 24 I spent time with members of my organization before beginning work	0.493	-0.191
Survey item 27 I regularly participate in organizational ceremonies	0.384	0.311
Survey item 31 Becoming part of the group is important in my organization	0.365	0.364

The four weighted factor variables were used to generate a linear regression analysis between each factor variable and question 32. The values of this regression can be seen in Table 7.

Table 7
Pearson coefficient with Factor Variables

Organizational Framework	r-value
Structural Framework	0.810
Human Resources Framework Variable 1	0.768
Human Resources Framework Variable 2	0.064
Political Framework	0.641
Symbolic Framework Variable 1	0.653
Symbolic Framework Variable 2	0.068

The result of this regression analysis suggests that full-time faculty job satisfaction is most influenced by elements found within the structural framework. Elements within the human resources framework have the second greatest impact on job satisfaction followed by elements within the symbolic and political frameworks respectively.

Limitations

Before we discuss our conclusions, it must be noted that this study has three important limitations that constrain the generalizability of the findings. First, while there were 2,219 full-time faculty members working in the technical college system at the time the survey was administered, only 278 full-time faculty completed the survey. Given that there is very little research regarding faculty job satisfaction within the technical college environment, we believe that this study is a step towards unveiling what institutions can do to facilitate job satisfaction. We suggest that this study be replicated to further substantiate our conclusions. A second limitation involves the demographic data. Given the limited demographic data for full-time faculty within the Technical College System of Georgia, differences between respondents and the total full-time faculty population are somewhat ambiguous. Future studies could expand upon this work to account for this difference. A third consideration must be given to the limitations surrounding the research design itself. While participant responses were anonymous, some may have believed their responses could be tracked and were, thereby, influenced to answer positively. This concern arises based on feedback given within open-ended questions.

Discussion and Conclusions

Full-time faculty members are typically satisfied with their jobs although there is variability in the perception of how satisfied members are within demographic groupings (see Appendix A). The only statistically significant differences in satisfaction were found between Black respondents and “Other” respondents and also within the previous employment variable between the K-12 group and all other groups. This difference suggests that Black and K-12 respondents have a higher level of association with elements presented within the study that are positively correlated with job satisfaction, are less likely to be impacted by elements that limit job satisfaction, or typically find a balance between those groups of elements which allows them to be significantly more satisfied than other respondents. For example, Black and K-12

respondents are likely to be more satisfied with the level of autonomy provided within their respective institutions, take part in organizational ceremonies, find their work rewarding, feel that they are supported by others within the organization, and are less impacted by the political power struggles that exist among various groups within the organization. The fact that there is not a significant difference in the perceived level of job satisfaction among the other demographic groups suggests that elements presented within the four frameworks have comparable influences among these groups. According to this study, gender, years of experience, type of instructor, and the size of the technical college are not the best predictors of potential job satisfaction. This supports and advances the work of Bozeman and Gaughen (2011) by expanding their findings to the unique environment of technical education.

Respondent feedback for subgroups of questions within each organizational framework supports the belief that there is variability among faculty perceptions of elements comprising each framework. Variability was found within most demographic groupings within each framework suggesting that faculty have different fundamental reactions to organizational elements. This also suggests that organizations have variability in the degree to which organizational attributes are expressed. For example, some technical colleges may foster work environments that are more mechanistic in nature whereas others may promote a more organic setting. Some colleges may be more politically oriented than others or some colleges may promote better unity among groups than others. We conclude that differences within the work environments of technical colleges coupled with innate differences in individual perceptions lead to variability in how faculty perceive and react to elements within each of the four organizational frameworks. Such perceptions and reactions ultimately shape the level of job satisfaction held by full-time faculty members within the TCSG.

It was found that elements within the structural framework have the greatest impact on full-time faculty job satisfaction within the TCSG. Full-time faculty members were most impacted by “how they perceive the administration” of the technical college in which they work. It became clear that faculty value autonomy, clear communication, feedback, support from administrators, and being treated as academic authorities within their respective disciplines. Our study suggests that faculty job satisfaction is limited by administrators that give assignments that are perceived as being menial, by administrators that micro-manage, do not provide a sufficient level of support, or do not provide regular feedback. The positive correlation between faculty job satisfaction and a supportive work environment is consistent with the findings of Zabriskie, Dey, and Riegle (2002). We found that full-time faculty within the TCSG primarily derived satisfaction from intrinsic aspects of their work environments with “the need to feel valued” having the single greatest impact on full-time faculty job satisfaction overall.

Elements within the human resources framework were the second largest contributors to full-time faculty job satisfaction. The most significant component within this group was found to be “employee and institutional goal alignment”. Individuals would most like to feel their efforts are contributing to a cause they perceive to be worthwhile and are thus satisfying basic intrinsic needs as well. Another strong contributor within the human resources framework was the “desire to do work that builds self-esteem”. This suggests that individuals chose the technical school system because they felt that they would be successful. Responses to an open-ended question relating to the human resources framework suggest that “interactions with students” and “the nature of the work being performed” are the greatest contributors to satisfying these intrinsic needs. Our conclusions regarding this framework further confirm and expand the findings of Truell, Price, and Joyner (1998) and Waltman, Bergom, et.al. (2012).

Within the political framework, “power distributions” among groups impacted faculty job satisfaction more than other aspects of this framework. For example, one respondent directly stated “yes, group politics has had a negative impact on job satisfaction” and another remarked that “[politics] creates an environment of distrust, resentment and professional dishonesty.” While there is variability in the perception of organizational politics within the TCSG, some faculty felt their job satisfaction was limited by favoritism within their organizations. This, in turn, led to feelings of isolation for some faculty. Overall, faculty felt that organizational politics had a negative impact on their job satisfaction and felt that their educational contributions were undermined by affiliations between groups.

Finally, within the symbolic framework, “developing a sense of community between diverse groups” had the most influence on full-time faculty job satisfaction within the TCSG. This outcome confirms and expands the findings of Chatman (1991) and suggests that a sense of unity within the organization is important. This supports the conclusion that faculty members desire support within their respective organizational roles. Based on feedback to an open-ended question related to the structural framework, the “diverse groups” were not necessarily limited to gender, race, or instructor type groupings. Faculty and administration were considered diverse groups within the organization, which again supports the conclusion that full-time faculty job satisfaction is most impacted by administrators within the organization. Ultimately, faculty typically desired to have a supportive, community-oriented relationship with their supervisors as well as with one another.

Implications

The implications for this study are far reaching in the technical college community. We suggest and urge administrators working within the Technical College System of Georgia to use the outcomes of this project to consider the creation of environments that foster higher levels of job satisfaction. Outcomes of the study may be used to enhance the efficiency of current hiring and retention practices within the system in an effort to limit the expenses associated with employee turnover. Namely, financial costs associated with advertising vacant positions can be limited, lower levels of morale among existing employees can be reduced, organizational cultures can be developed more fully with increased retention, and services provided to students may be improved given that the acclimation periods for new employees would be less of an issue.

The study’s findings may be particularly important to educational policymakers. Local and state level policies may be reviewed within the context of this study to ensure that factors leading to improved levels of job satisfaction are maximized while those elements limiting full-time faculty job satisfaction are minimized. Namely, policies and procedures should be developed in a way that allows for faculty input, that enhance levels of autonomy, that encourage communication between faculty and various levels of administration, and that provide regular feedback from supervisors to faculty members.

Educational administrators within the Technical College System of Georgia should continue to work towards creating environments that are supportive in nature. Administrators must also diligently strive to be cognizant of the impact that clear and open communication has on faculty morale and should request faculty input in organizational decision-making when appropriate. A recurring response to one open-ended question was that faculty did not feel they were respected for their levels of experience and education, which led to lower levels of job

satisfaction. As such, we suggest that administrators re-examine measures that ensure that faculty are treated as academic professionals. We concur with Chatman (1991), that administrators should develop and schedule organizational events that allow diverse groups of faculty the opportunity to interact in order to promote communication among faculty members as well as between faculty and administration. Such interactions will allow faculty the opportunity to find other faculty members that share similar core values, which has been shown to improve job satisfaction and retention (Kelchtermans, G. & Vandenberghe, R. 1996; Meir and Hasson, 1982; Marcus, 1998). By having a greater understanding of how various aspects of the technical organization impact full-time faculty, we believe there is a greater potential for educational administrators to develop and sustain environments that promote faculty job satisfaction.

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Appendix A

Participant Demographic Data

Gender	n	Relative Percent
Female	165	59.35%
Male	104	37.41%
No Response	9	3.24%
Race/Ethnicity	n	Relative Percent
White	218	78.42%
Black	29	10.43%
Hispanic	6	2.16%
Asian	5	1.80%
Other	11	3.96%
No Response	9	3.24%
Years of Employment	n	Relative Percent
0-1	33	11.87%
2-5	110	39.57%
6-9	46	16.55%
10 or more	77	27.70%
No Response	12	4.32%
Size of College	n	Relative Percent
Small	40	14.39%
Medium	89	32.01%
Large	135	48.56%
No Response	14	5.04%
Previous Employment	n	Relative Percent
K-12	38	13.67%
Post Secondary	41	14.75%
Business/Industry	127	45.68%
Other	61	21.94%
No Response	11	3.96%

Bee Hart is a Math Instructor in the General Education Department at Southeastern Technical College in Vidalia, Georgia.

Brenda Marina is an Associate Professor in Educational Leadership/Higher Education Administration at Georgia Southern University in Statesboro, Georgia.

Raising the Bar and Surpassing Expectations

Niles Reddick
Nicholas Urquhart

Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to highlight changes that were made as part of Abraham Baldwin Agricultural College's Complete College Georgia initiative, which was a broader University System of Georgia's effort that linked to Complete College America. Specifically, we focused on the creation and evolution of a retention program that originated from changes in our standards of academic progress. The changes reflected a philosophical shift from the college being a traditional associate's degree granting institution to being a baccalaureate degree granting institution. We also discuss other factors that may have attributed to the success of the early intervention program. We hope that by sharing the success of this model that other institutions may revisit their own retention programs and institutional standards in order to advance the common goal of student success.

Background

Abraham Baldwin Agricultural College (ABAC), ranked fourteenth in "top public schools" in the Southern region by *U.S. News and World Report*, is a unique college with an enrollment of approximately 3400 students in a micropolitan community in rural Southern Georgia. The hundred and five year old campus is a unit of the 31-member University System of Georgia and is situated on over five hundred acres. With its vast facilities, including a working farm, horse stables, golf course laboratory, and the Georgia Museum of Agriculture and Historic Village, the College has a long history of agriculture and natural resource programs that account for about twenty-five percent of the college's overall student population (Office of Institutional Research). A high percentage of students also major in nursing, business, liberal arts, and science.

In 2011, the Director of Student Financial Services met with Academic Affairs leadership to express concern over changing federal financial aid guidelines from the U.S. Department of Education, particularly as those guidelines related to the Financial Aid standards of progress. Students who fell below the 2.0 grade point average or who didn't meet the standards of academic progress were issued a letter of warning and notification from the Student Financial Services office. The results of a customer service survey highlighted problematic issues in the Student Financial Services office. In addition, the director felt that raising the academic standards of progress (used for academic warning, probation, suspension) to match the new financial aid standards of progress might assist in addressing some of the confusion students and parents experienced when confronted with different standards.

The Academic Affairs leadership reviewed the Standards of Academic Progress, produced scenarios that would more closely align the Academic and Financial Aid standards, and asked the Enterprise Data Services office to produce reports that would reflect the impact of making changes.

The Academic Standards of Progress for Probation at the time were (*ABAC Catalog*):

<u>Total Hours Attempted</u>	<u>Minimum Cumulative GPA</u>
0-12	1.5
13-24	1.6
25-36	1.7
37-48	1.8
49-60	1.9
60+	2.0

Traditionally, the office of Academic Affairs notified students who were placed on academic probation, and these students were limited to taking 14 credit hours of course work for the following semester. Having less than 15 hours each semester is a progression issue if a student is to graduate on time, and the college is addressing this issue through advising from advisors in the Academic Support Office. Dictating that students on probation take 14 credit hours was actually irrelevant because the majority of these students did not take over 12 credit hours. In addition to the 14 hour rule, students on probation were encouraged to get tutoring, assistance from their instructors, etc. Historically, there had been no tracking of or follow-up with students on probation to ensure they received assistance in any way.

The Academic Standards of Progress for Suspension (*ABAC Catalog*) at the time were:

<u>Total Hours Attempted</u>	<u>Minimum Cumulative GPA</u>
0-24	no minimum
25-36	1.5
37-48	1.6
49-60	1.7
60+	1.8

A student's first suspension was for one semester while subsequent suspensions were for one calendar year. In essence, these standards of academic progress for probation and suspension meant that a student could actually be on campus with a zero GPA for a full year, if not longer, while on probation—a situation that our leadership found to be appalling from both an ethical and an accountability perspective.

While ABAC's leadership was investigating impact of the standards of progress, the University System of Georgia unveiled the Complete College Georgia (CCG) initiative, part of the larger Complete College America movement, which required institutions to set completion goals, develop action plans, and report outcomes or measures of progress. More specifically, increasing access, increasing progression and retention, and increasing graduation were components that the university system colleges and universities were striving for in their action plans. ABAC had one of the highest retention rates among the state colleges in Georgia (above 55%) and a graduation rate approximately 5% above the 8% state college average.

As part of the College's CCG plan, the Vice President for Academic Affairs and the Director of Academic Support worked through the development of an early intervention system for students placed on probation at the end of their first semester, and college leadership adopted new academic standards of progress that were recommended from the academic administrators

and faculty. The new academic standards of progress were 2.0 GPA across the board. If a student did not achieve a 2.0 in his/her first semester, then he/she was placed on academic probation. If the student did not achieve a term GPA of 2.0 in his/her second semester, then he/she would be placed on suspension; however, if the student achieved a 2.0 term GPA in the second semester (even if the overall GPA fell below 2.0), then the student remained on continued academic probation and would continue as such until the overall GPA became 2.0. While part of the development of the early intervention system was to “save” students before they were suspended, part of the motivation was also to not adversely impact overall enrollment by suspending more students. These new standards allowed for an innovative early intervention system, and subsequently a higher academic standard, while still allowing a gradual penalty for weak academic performance and maintaining enrollment, a major concern for the college given the lack of growth in a down-turned economy.

Toward the New Model

To get a better understanding of what other higher educational institutions across the nation were implementing for an early intervention system, an academic intervention program review was completed by the Academic Support team, where models from Iowa State University, George Mason University, Macomb Community College, and Rockland Community College were selected for study due to their success, the variety of institutional type, and for their geographical locations. Common components for these programs include early identification of poor performance (usually after the first semester), mandated participation requirement, meeting with academic advisors, and a meeting with a success counselor or required tutoring. These components served as a framework to help guide the academic intervention program at ABAC.

The Academic Support team developed the intervention program based on the following criteria:

- Involvement in the intervention program from the students placed into the newly developed retention class for first time freshmen on probation, ABAC 1100
- Required group meetings with the Academic Support Counselors that focused on the seriousness of academic probation and suspension
- A minimum of two required meetings with an Academic Support Counselor before midterm
- An online interactive component, through the Desire 2 Learn (D2L) learning management system, that students could complete on their own time, which introduced them to campus services, time management, and study skills
- A mandated requirement to register and attend the class component that would not hinder the students’ academic progression or interfere with other academic classes

Using the above criteria and the framework from the other institutions, a hybrid intervention course, ABAC 1100, was drafted. The curriculum for this course was approved by the College’s standing curriculum committee. The course was presented to the Cabinet for approval because of the mandated one credit hour these students on probation would be required to take. Adding a mandated one hour course for students, even though the intention was to assist students in becoming more successful, had economic implications because of the added tuition costs for students and their families and had an indirect institutional cost in time for the Academic Support unit.

Providing students with the appropriate academic resources and support to return them to “Good Academic Standing” was the objective developed for ABAC 1100. According to research by Ishitani and DesJardings (2002), who conducted a longitudinal study on college dropouts, the higher a student’s GPA is his first year of college, the more likely he is to make progress toward graduation. The results of Ishitani and DesJardings’ study suggest that the earlier a college can provide academic assistance to low performers, the more likely they are to succeed and matriculate through college. The course was designed to be conducted during the first eight-week short session of the semester to provide the necessary resources for early academic achievement. Students placed in the class would meet for one hour a week during a time no other classes were scheduled on campus for the first three weeks of the semester.

Beginning the Course

The first class meeting conducted by the Academic Support Counselors introduced the resources offered by the Academic Support department and required the students to sign up for their first individual meeting with their assigned Academic Support Counselor. Additionally, the Vice President for Academic Affairs and the Director of Financial Aid met with the students, during a separate class hour to discuss poor academic performance and the long term effects on their academic aspirations and resulting restrictions and/or loss of financial aid. ABAC’s online learning management system (Desire2Learn) was used as a supplement to the in class time to cover topics such as: a) Study Skills, b) Time Management, c) Campus Resources and d) Putting it all together. More specifically, instructors communicate how to effectively use all the resources with one’s classes. Further, instructors provide the supplemental online class experience by allowing the students to complete the lessons at their pace, with a deadline of midterm, to prevent conflicts with other and more rigorous academic class requirements.

Two required face-to-face meetings with an Academic Support Counselor were designed as the main component to help each student develop an individual success plan. The first meeting was required within the first two weeks of class, and the students completed and returned their academic self-assessment, which was an assignment that allowed students to check their grades in Banner and discuss how they came to earn the grades they did. During this time, a tutoring schedule and referrals to other campus resources were made. Possible referrals included Student Development for professional counseling and career services, Dean of Students Office for conflict resolution in student housing, and the Tutor Center Coordinator for individual tutoring sessions. Students were encouraged to drop in and visit the Academic Support office as often as they liked between the first and second meeting.

The second required meeting was scheduled a week before the course withdrawal deadline. Before this meeting, the Academic Support Counselors contacted the students’ instructors and received a full progress report that focused on attendance, assignment completion, test grades, and, if the instructor deemed, whether the student could be successful or should withdraw from the class. This information was reviewed with the student, and in the majority of cases, a success plan for the remainder of the semester was developed.

Previous efforts were passive in nature and simply encouraged students to seek help from their instructors or the tutoring center, as noted in the probation letters. This new model is actively engaging the students, instructors, and academic counselors, thus allowing each student to have support both in and out of the classroom. Students enrolled in the program are actively encouraged to visit Academic Support office as often as they needed, beyond just the required

two meetings. Emails, text messages, Facebook messages, and phone call reminders were sent as a means to reach out to the students between and after the required meetings.

The grading scale for the class is satisfactory/unsatisfactory, which will not impact the student's GPA; however a grade of "U" (unsatisfactory) does negatively impact financial aid as an unsuccessful attempt. A student would be deemed successful by meeting these minimum requirements:

- Attend 2 of the 3 in class meetings
- Attend the two required individual meeting with assigned Academic Support Counselor
- Complete at least 70% of the online assignments

Results of the Course Implementation

In reviewing student data before course implementation from 2011 and 2012, we noted that **25% of students progressed to their second year**. With the retention model in place, the 2013 showed that once **52% of the first cohort of students progressed to the second year**. The results were stunning, and we could not have been more pleased.

While the parameters of the initial test group were first time freshmen who were placed on academic probation for the first time, the actual number of students who met these criteria for the 2012 Fall Semester and received notification from the Academic Affairs office was 200. From this group, 141 returned for the 2013 Spring Semester and were enrolled in the one hour Academic Success Seminar, ABAC 1100. The 59 students who did not return to ABAC were polled, and of the 13 that responded, the top reasons for not returning to the College for the spring 2013 semester were:

- Parent(s) made student attend a school close to home
- Transferred to another institution

At the end of spring 2013 semester, 52% (73) of the 141 students on probation progressed and were not suspended, while 48% (68) were placed on Academic Suspension as shown on Table 1.

The initial results of the first time freshmen, who were placed on academic probation and then enrolled in the ABAC 1100 academic intervention class, are nearly twice as likely to progress to their second year compared to those students from the previous two academic years. The first semester GPAs of the 141 students at the end of fall 2012 ranged as follows:

- $8 = 0.0$
- $0 < 15 < 0.5$
- $0.5 \leq 29 < 1.0$
- $1.0 \leq 89 < 2.0$

Looking at the subset of 89 students who earned a GPA greater than or equal to 1.0 their first term, and the subset of 52 students who earned a GPA less than 1.0 their first term illustrates success. Of the 89 students who were enrolled in ABAC 1100, only 15 were placed on academic suspension. The remaining 74 achieved a term GPA of 2.0 or higher and progressed to the

second year. Consequently, all 52 students in the second subset did not obtain a second semester GPA of 2.0 or higher and thus were placed on Academic Suspension as shown in Table 1.

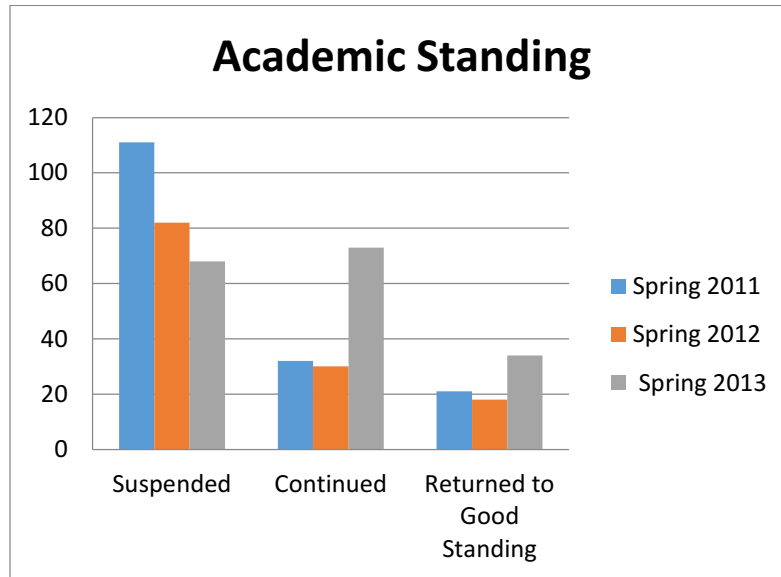


Table 1: Because of the implementation of ABAC 1100, the total number of students being suspended has decreased over time, the number of students continuing to progress has increased over time, and the total number of students who have returned to good academic standing has increased over time.

Discussion

GPA analysis of students in ABAC 1100 is shown in Table 2. Analysis of the results shows that students whose GPA falls between 1.0 and 2.0 are more successful than those whose GPA falls below a 1.0. The ABAC 1100 course will need to be modified in order to better serve those freshmen who earn less than a 1.0 their first term, since they were less successful. One possible solution could be to divide the students into two different sections of ABAC 1100 using a GPA of 1.0 as the criteria in order to more offer more intensive intervention. Nonetheless, the implementation of the academic intervention program, ABAC 1100, is a step in a positive direction to assist students with progress toward a degree.

A student's college choice is an important decision for students and their families, and has great financial implications, so college and university personnel should do all that they can to make the right choice at the beginning of their college journey and help them succeed. Our survey shows that when students "stop-out" or "drop-out" after not performing well, they often transfer or select a school closer to home. It is unclear how students can transfer to another institution if they were academically suspended. However, what is important is that colleges find unique and innovative ways to assist students who choose to stay and work towards academic progress and graduation. The business as usual of maintaining low academic standards must be addressed due to changing financial aid policies and the need for accountability, and in doing so, successful models can not only increase retention, but enable institutions to maintain a balanced enrollment.

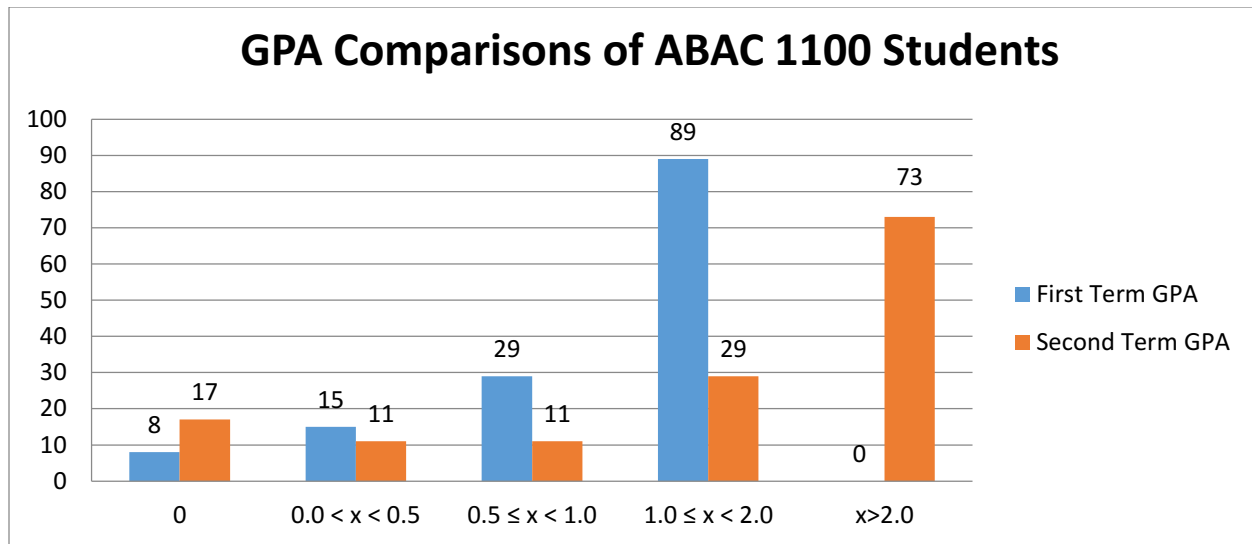


Table 2: This table shows the increase of student GPAs after taking ABAC 1100.

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Niles Reddick serves as the Vice Provost of the University of Memphis, Lambuth Campus, in Jackson, Tennessee. His email is niles.reddick@memphis.edu . He holds a Ph.D. in Humanities from Florida State University, a M.A. from the University of West Georgia, and a B.A. from Valdosta State University.

Nicholas Urquhart serves as the Director of Academic Support for Abraham Baldwin Agricultural College in Tifton, Georgia. His email is nurquhart@abac.edu. He holds a M.S. degree in Counseling from Springfield College in Massachusetts and B.A. in Art and Math from Mercer University.

Book Review

Brenda L.H. Marina

Women and Leadership in Higher Education (2014), edited by Karen A. Longman and Susan R. Madsen is a provocative and important contribution to the conversation about women and leadership in higher education and student affairs. Published by Information Age Publishing, this book is the first in a series that will influence both scholars and practitioners towards a better understanding of gender dynamics in higher education.

There is a picturesque but “stern looking” building on the cover of the book. The bridge leading to the building suggests that “all that enter are welcome”. The big bold letters of the title of the book gives the audience a sense that this book probably will proclaim that women have arrived at the top in the higher education arena. However, the introduction starts out with the alarming demographic information that makes one want to look into each of the windows of the building on the cover and peer down the halls to take a look at what is really going on - this continued underrepresentation of women.

The introduction sets the tone for the book and the purpose intended by the authors; the book articulates the impact that the culture of “maleness” has had on women, students, and the organization of higher education as a whole. The book is divided into four cause-oriented sections with each chapter giving voice to the realities about attitudes and aspirations of both men and women in academia. Through the second section of the book, I was particularly encouraged by the “women of wisdom” who collectively reminded me of different ways to renew my commitment to keep other women moving forward. The third section provided research and insights from presidential perspectives, with intersecting realities about gender socialization and leadership expectations versus leadership experiences. In the final section of the book, the chapter titles alone will draw the reader into topics such as the quest for legitimacy, big-time sports, agents of change, conviction and courage, and grounding.

This book is about much more than women and leadership. It is about struggle, domination, political trends, community needs, and still more. While this book would fit nicely into any women’s studies course, this book could be used as a dynamic tool in an educational leadership course, an ethics course, or a sociology course. As a scholar who examines factors that influence the glass ceiling for women across the global, I found illuminating information that is both timely and critical for transformative thinkers who are willing to re-evaluate the male-normed cultures of higher education institutions. I applaud the authors for this book and encourage both men and women to read this book with an openness to new ideas. It is my hope that each reader will internalize the differing perspectives offered and take intentional steps towards redefining conventional leadership models in higher education.

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