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comments from the editor . . .

One of the most important visible measures of quality in journalism and mass communication programs is the quality of the faculty that a unit has assembled. That quality, although sometimes differently assessed by the constituents at various institutions, historically has been valued on generally agreed upon measures of teaching, research and service – what most institutions would define as the teacher-scholar model.

Robert C. Dickeson, in his “Prioritizing Academic Programs and Services,” suggests that the teacher-scholar model has been key to what he terms “quality of program inputs.” It was the central measure used by universities to assess program quality until the strong shift by accrediting agencies occurred and measuring outcomes of what a program actually accomplishes with these resources became important. The reason that these types of inputs were employed is relatively easy to surmise: this measure was easily quantifiable for an academic unit.

The recent Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication convention in Kansas City highlighted the confusion that continues to exist in the promotion and tenure process. There were multiple panels, business sessions, and informal discussions during the four-day convention with colleagues comparing their university processes. The issue was also included in a number of the presentations on assessment techniques and practices.

This *Insights* issue continues to broaden the discussion of faculty retention.

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Chair Involvement IS KEY TO Faculty Success

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GMELCH AND MISKIN have suggested that the recruitment and hiring process of faculty involves three stages. The first stage is the setting up of the search; its focus is primarily on planning related to growth and need with the department. The second stage refers more to the actual design of the search; this would include the recordkeeping aspects. The third stage consists of the actual selection, including conducting the interview and making the offer, as well as induction into the institution. While the process of recruiting and hiring on the university campus has come under some scrutiny because of equity issues, the orienting and retaining of new faculty is largely ignored on most campuses.

Although I am unaware if these statistics are compiled nationally, I have been told in informal conversations with colleagues that, at many institutions, about half of the faculty hired in tenure-track probationary positions do not reach tenure review some six years later. Many are hired away to other institutions, some leave academe and move to other professions, some move into administration, and some are encouraged to leave. Of those who remain at the hiring institution, another 10-20 percent are given terminal appointments instead of tenure.

Thus a very small number complete the professional preparation and the probationary work period before being admitted to full faculty status. Most of our fellow professions would find this an inefficient and costly situation.

With the decentralization of management authority within universities, the responsibility for orienting new faculty may be left to the discretion of each department and the leadership of its chairperson. But with the demands of fundraising, grant-writing, alumni development and curriculum revision, this most important responsibility of the department chair, the hiring of new tenure-track faculty and seeing them through tenure, gets lost. Studies involving tenure-track faculty have revealed that there is an often-unstated assumption that these newcomer faculty know how to accomplish tenure on their own. However, my experience has been that new faculty become overwhelmed by the demands of teaching classes, advising students, serving on committees, and navigating the departmental politics of the institution, and they fail to focus on the long-term goal of “tenure.”

At many institutions, it is also the case that chairpersons who are not typically professional administrators no longer remain for extended periods in their leadership roles. Frequently a chairperson who is there for the “hiring” phase is gone before the new faculty member can ever reach tenure evaluation.

While the consistency of providing teaching orientation for new tenure-track faculty is “spotty,” most do not even provide the equivalent amount of training the institution provides for their new graduate students. This is a mistake because, as Fink noted, approximately 50 percent of new faculty arrive at their first tenure-track job without having had full responsibility for a course. They face the stress of choosing books, writing syllabi, and planning courses and lectures without any background or understanding of educational theory.

Some institutions have begun to focus on the improving of college teaching, but because teaching is often viewed as of lesser importance than research, even these institutions give it less time than they should. My own university supports a mandatory program. Using a week-long format before the fall semester, all faculty who are new to the institution are required to attend.

The participants have been surveyed before the workshop to gain input on topics to be covered and to gain an understanding of any specific expertise a new faculty member may bring to the group. The workshop includes a minimum of infor-

mation about the community and institution in order to underscore the institutional priority of teaching effectiveness. The first day is an all-day interactive workshop, and the following four days are mandatory for the morning sessions with voluntary afternoon sessions on various topics and activities.

While faculty development offices and pre-semester teaching workshops can be valuable aids for enhancing the new instructors’ teaching skills, it is the responsibility of each department for “junior” faculty to be adequately inculturated. However, departmental culture and climate can vary considerably between departments within a larger academic unit and certainly between campuses. Organizational communication scholars agree that culture is produced from the social relations of the participants within an organization and culture changes as new individuals and groups join it.

Not everyone experiences the department culture in the same way, and it is unrealistic to assume that a senior faculty member will automatically take on a mentoring role. It remains the chair’s role to personally conduct or to design deliberate, ongoing mentoring in order to have any hope of increasing the probability that each faculty member will have a positive experience while growing toward promotion and tenure. In some instances, the chair may not be able to take on all faculty and play an active role in their development. In these situations, chairs may assign each new person an experienced faculty member to act as a mentor.

Conflicting demands are always being placed on the faculty member. “Should I concentrate on my teaching because there are going to be student classroom evaluations and peer observations, or should I concentrate on my research because there is a campus expectation that I must publish?” It seems to me that the annual plan is a way to overcome this uncertainty and help the faculty member focus on what he/she hopes to accomplish personally and professionally during the first year and beyond. It is a proactive way to nurture good habits and encourage planning. The plan, developed by the faculty member in consultation with the mentor, should be personalized to meet the specific needs of the department and the faculty member in areas of research, teaching and service.

The process of creating the plan with the consultation of a mentor or chair is important. Bensimon et al suggest that the

New faculty become overwhelmed by the demands of teaching classes, advising students, serving on committees, and navigating the departmental politics of the institution, and they fail to focus on the long-term goal of “tenure.”

Faculty need to know the criteria that will be used for promotion and tenure. Although time consuming, a proactive approach helps eliminate unnecessary stress during formal reviews. The process also has merit for more experienced faculty as they navigate the levels in the promotion process.

chair meet within the first two weeks with each new faculty member to go over the faculty handbook and answer questions or address concerns about promotion and tenure. This session should be followed midway through the first semester with a meeting to find out if the new faculty member has questions or needs additional information. To be meaningful, this meeting should address specific questions and should focus on how well the faculty member is maintaining a balance among teaching, research and service. This is an appropriate time for us to address a variety of questions:

- “What are the teaching expectations for the department?”
- “How will the faculty member be expected to demonstrate teaching capabilities?”
- “What are the research expectations of the department?”
- “Should I aim for some preferred publications or professional conventions for presentations?”
- “How much service is considered to be enough?”

At the conclusion of the session, the faculty member should have developed a list of goals that can become the basis of discussion for future meetings.

During the second semester, the chair should touch base with the faculty member to see how things are progressing before the first annual review, when teaching and research goals are developed for the summer and year two.

At the outset of year two and each successive year, the chair and the faculty member should meet to assess the summer’s progress and to go over plans for the coming year.

At the end of each subsequent year, the chair and faculty member should meet to review the progress toward specific goals and to establish new goals and work plans for the following year.

It is in the setting of goals and in the review of accomplishments that the department chair’s involvement is essential. Faculty need to know the relative importance of their work to the department and the criteria that will be used for promotion and tenure at the department, college and institutional levels. This proactive approach, although time-consuming, ensures that the chair maintains regular contact with the faculty and helps eliminate unnecessary stress during regular formal reviews. It also seems to me that the development of a personal interest helps faculty know that they have someone when they need support.

And while the focus has been on new faculty members who are just now joining university faculty, the process has merit for more experienced faculty as they navigate the levels in the promotion process.

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A SURVEY OF

Tenure and Promotion Policies

AT SCHOOLS WITH ACCREDITED
MASS COMMUNICATION PROGRAMS

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WHEN A COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY CHANGES ITS INSTITUTIONAL POLICIES of tenure and promotion, information is invaluable in specifying the necessary revisions. This study responds to possible changes in the tenure and promotion policies at Grambling State University. In order to propose revision to this institution's tenure and promotion policy, the Department of Mass Communication undertook a survey of policies at other schools with accredited mass communication programs. There are many similarities and variances in policies among these schools. Other schools in circumstances similar to that of Grambling State University may benefit from the data in this study.

The academic institutional systems of tenure and promotion are under review at universities throughout the nation. These reviews are being originated by both states and schools alike. Reasons for the reviews and subsequent changes vary, but accountability is the central theme of all of them. Parents, students, legislators and taxpayers are demanding college faculty members must meet ever more rigorous standards to attain promotion and tenure.

College faculties are expected to be more productive to justify increasing salaries and benefits. Tenure and promotion of professors are no longer automatic. At some institutions, the concept of tenure is being revised and at others expunged as unnecessary. Thus, universities have a new mandate to use incentives to attract and retain outstanding faculty. This mandate is complicated by the fact that faculty shortages exist in some fields and are developing in others.

Statement of Purpose

Grambling State University, in Grambling, Louisiana, like other schools, is exam-

ining its tenure and promotion policy in order to make recommendations to the school's administration and governing boards on possible adjustments to tenure and promotion policies. The review process includes a survey of tenure and promotion policies at other colleges and universities. This was done in order to ensure any policies formulated on tenure and promotion complied with standards found throughout the nation.

Schools whose mass communication programs were accredited by ACEJMC served as the population for this study. This population was chosen because it was felt by the administrators at Grambling State University that this group corresponded to the Grambling program in mass communication, in that they all met certain standards as outlined by the Accrediting Council. The survey questions were designed to generate data in different areas of tenure and promotion. (See Table 1.)

Each school was requested to provide a written copy of its tenure and promotion policies. These would be used for a more

qualitative analysis of policies found within the sample population.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Faculty members argue that tenure protects certain hard-fought-for rights, while some administrators and boards of regents or trustees say tenure presents no big hurdle if faculty members must be dismissed. In recent years, the tenure issue has caused friction and discussion at institutions of higher learning: "The collegiality traditionally valued at institutions of higher learning is being disrupted by trustees who too readily listen to the advice of outside management consultants and too willingly offer college administrators excessive authority," wrote Perley (p. A48).

Although the tenure system has many advocates, it also has many opponents. Among them are Magrath (p. A60) who called for the abolishment or revision of tenure systems, which could be replaced with a performance review. The public, he pointed out, views tenure in higher education as an unjustified form of job security. The main problem with tenure is the hiring of incompetent faculty, wrote Nelson (p. B4). The solution, he stated, is to hire first-rate people in the first place.

Tenure no longer is connected to academic freedom, which is guaranteed by the Constitution, asserts the author. Some university systems, such as the California State University and College System (CSU), already have a review system. CSU faculty are subject to review every five years (Wilson, p. A12).

Leigh and Anderson suggest that obtaining tenure can be particularly difficult for faculty in journalism or mass communication (p. 74). Such faculty often must defend or justify "creative works" when applying for tenure status. In a 1987 survey of accredited journalism school administrators, Leigh found that nearly half (44%) had encountered problems in tenure decisions because of differing interpretations of acceptable criteria (Ibid., p. 75).

TABLE 1. SURVEY QUESTIONS

1. What is the name of the division that offers degree programs in mass communication?
2. What is the highest degree offered by the university?
3. What is the highest degree offered by the college/school/department?
4. What areas (Advertising, Broadcasting, Film, Mass Communication, News-editorial, Magazine, Public Relations, Visual Communication, Other) and levels of degree are offered by the college/school/department for both undergraduate and master's degree programs?
5. What is the number of full-time and part-time faculty?
6. What is the number of professors, associate professors, assistant professors and instructors?
7. What is the number of tenured and non-tenured faculty?
8. Is there a limit imposed on the number of faculty which can be tenured?
9. Are instructors eligible for tenure?
10. Does it matter whether a faculty member is part-time or full-time when being considered for tenure?
11. Are faculty members who receive tenure automatically promoted to the next level?
12. Is a terminal degree required for promotion?
13. Does your college/school/department have any faculty members without a terminal degree?
14. Are tenure requirements different for faculty members without a terminal degree?
15. How many years of teaching experience are required to be eligible for tenure?
16. Is experience at the instructor level considered for tenure?
17. How many years are required for promotion from one rank to the next?
18. Is there a fixed pay raise for promotion to the next rank? If so, what is the amount or the percentage?

Schweitzer (1989) found that journalism administrators expect traditional academic research in addition to creative activities. He concluded that faculty members may have difficulty attaining tenure on "continuing professional achievement" (p. 45).

In 1990, results of a survey by Coulson (p. 58) confirmed Schweitzer's findings, noting that even activities such as consulting should be publishable.

A survey of administrators of accredited programs in 1991 found that most of the faculty members considered for tenure and/or promotion the previous year were successful (Leigh and Anderson, p. 78). Faculty denied tenure usually had insufficient research and publication records. Although some emphasis is being placed on research and publishing, good teaching is still considered to be the most desired contribution, they concluded.

METHOD

Surveys and an accompanying letter were mailed to the chairs of the mass communication departments at the selected institutions. Included with each package sent was a return envelope. In addition to returning the surveys, each respondent was asked to provide a copy of their institution's tenure and promotion policy.

The first mailings were in the fall. By the beginning of spring, the survey return rate reached 47 percent. At this time, another mailing was sent to those institutions that had not responded. The second mailing included another cover letter and a second copy of the survey. From the second mailing, an additional 16 surveys were received, increasing the return rate to 64 percent.

Because of the survey return rate, it was concluded that any additional mailings would not significantly increase the returns. One additional survey was received well after the established deadline and was subsequently excluded from the analysis.

Each packet was numbered upon its return. Afterward the surveys were separated from the printed tenure and promotion

TABLE 2. HIGHEST DEGREE OFFERED

Responses		Frequency	Percent	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	Doctorate	50	82.0	83.3	83.3
	Master's	8	13.1	13.3	96.7
	Bachelor's	2	3.3	3.3	100.0
	Total	60	98.4	100.0	
Missing	No Response	1	1.6		
	Total	1	1.6		
Total		61	100.0		

policies included by the schools. The printed policies were divided equally among the three principles for review and compilation of a condensed report.

Data from the surveys were coded, and the review of the printed tenure and promotion policies provided by the schools are provided in the following section.

RESULTS

Introduction

The results of this study are in three sections: an overview of the frequencies obtained for each question, a discussion of the results from the correlations that were run, and an examination of regressions of variables with correlations greater than .50 with a probability of .05 or less.

Frequencies

The first question of the survey instrument was used to determine the university's division that offers degree programs in mass communication. About half (20) of the respondents indicated that department is the unit which offers the degree program in mass communication; 12 replied school, 12 replied college, and one answered "other."

The next two items were designed to

provide information on the highest degree offered by both the university and the division. Fifty of the respondents reported their university offered a doctorate as its highest degree. Only eight respondents selected master's as the highest degree offered by the school, and two selected bachelor's degree. One respondent did not answer this particular question. (See Table 2.)

Results for the mass communication unit differed slightly from those for the university: 16 offered a doctorate, 35 a master's, and eight a bachelor's degree. Two respondents did not reply to this question.

In the area of advertising, almost half (32) of the schools offered a bachelor's degree, while only 12 schools offered students an emphasis in advertising. Those schools not offering any undergraduate program in advertising numbered 17. The majority of the schools did not offer a master's degree in advertising.

The results were similar for broadcasting. Only 34 respondents offered a bachelor's degree in broadcasting, 17 offered broadcasting as an area of emphasis, and 10 schools offered no program in this discipline.

TABLE 3. MASTER'S IN BROADCASTING

Responses		Frequency	Percent	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	No Reply	3	4.9	4.9	4.9
	Yes	13	21.3	21.3	26.2
	No	45	73.8	73.8	100.0
	Total	61	100.0	100.0	
Total		61	100.0		

Like advertising, most respondents (45) did not offer a master's degree in broadcasting, and 13 schools offered this type of degree program. Three respondents did not reply to this question. (See Table 3.)

In film studies, only four units offered a degree program and four an emphasis; 53 respondents offered no program in film studies. Only four schools offered a master's degree in film; 56 of the respondents said their school offered no master's program in film, and one did not reply.

Among the respondents, 44 offered no programs in mass communication. However, 13 reported offering a bachelor's degree in mass communication and four offered an emphasis. The data for the master's level differs from that for the bachelor's degree. Almost one-third of the respondents (19) offered a master's degree in mass communication, while 41 schools offered no such program. One did not respond.

News-editorial appeared as a popular discipline area among the respondents. About two-thirds (40) of respondents provided a bachelor's degree in news-editorial, while another 17 offered an emphasis. Four of the schools offered no program in news-editorial. At the master's degree level, 17 schools offered a program in news-editorial while 44 did not.

Only 17 had a program in magazine publishing, and six schools an emphasis. The majority of the schools had no undergraduate program in magazine publishing. Five schools offered a master's degree in magazines; 55 did not. One respondent did not reply to this question.

Eleven respondents did not offer a program in public relations, 34 did, and 16 offered an emphasis. Concerning the master's degree, 14 awarded such a degree and 47 did not.

About three-fourths of the respondents (46) offered no undergraduate program in visual communication, eight offered a bachelor's degree, and seven had an emphasis. Only four schools offered a master's degree

TABLE 4. INSTRUCTORS ELIGIBLE FOR TENURE

Responses		Frequency	Percent	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	Yes	9	14.8	15.8	15.8
	No	48	78.7	84.2	100.0
	Total	57	93.4	100.0	
No Reply	No Reply	4	6.6		
	Total	4	6.6		
Total		61	100.0		

program in visual communication, while 55 schools did not. Two schools did not respond to this question.

More than half of the schools did not offer any other type of degree in mass communication. However, more than one-fourth (18) offered some other type of degree in mass communication, and nine offered some other discipline as an area of emphasis. In most cases, these other degrees were a combination or variations on those previously discussed. An example might be a degree program in broadcast advertising or multimedia. Again, as with the bachelor's degree, the master's degrees offered were a variation of those areas already discussed.

Respondents at most of the institutions (48) stated those who teach at the instructor level are not eligible for tenure. Instructors are eligible for tenure in nine institutions. Four respondents did not reply to this question. (See Table 4.)

While only nine respondents reported instructors were eligible for tenure, 11 respondents replied to this question.

The majority of the respondents (50) stated that part-time or full-time status was a

consideration for tenure. Only five reported this issue was not a consideration for tenure. Six respondents chose not to answer this question.

In order to determine if a relationship exists between tenure and promotion at the surveyed institutions, respondents replied to whether professors were granted an automatic promotion upon being granted tenure. Almost three-fourths (45) of the respondents reported an automatic promotion was not granted upon receipt of tenure, while 15 respondents stated a professor could expect a promotion when tenure was granted. One respondent did not reply.

For 20 of the institutions, a terminal degree is required for promotion to the next rank. A larger number (39) responded that a terminal degree was not necessary to be promoted to the next rank. Two respondents did not answer this question.

While a terminal degree may or may not be needed for promotion, most schools (52) responding reported faculty members who did not hold a terminal degree. Conversely, only seven schools stated they did not have faculty members who did not hold a terminal

TABLE 5. MANY FACULTY WITHOUT TERMINAL DEGREE

Responses		Frequency	Percent	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	Terminal Degree	52	85.2	88.1	88.1
	No Terminal Degree	7	11.5	11.9	100.0
	Total	59	96.7	100.0	
Missing	No Reply	2	3.3		
	Total	2	3.3		
Total		61	100.0		

degree. As with the previous question, two respondents did not answer this question. (See Table 5.)

Whether tenure requirements differed for instructors or professors who do not hold a terminal degree was also studied. About two-thirds (38) of respondents stated there was no difference in tenure, while 11 institutions left this question unanswered.

At almost half the institutions (29), a professor must have at least six years of experience to be considered for tenure. Responses to this question were as follow (with 10 leaving it blank):

- 1 year - 2 respondents
- 2 years - 1 respondent
- 4 years - 1 respondent
- 5 years - 11 respondents
- 6 years - 29 respondents
- 7 years - 7 respondents

At slightly over half of the institutions, a professor's time at the instructor level is considered when granting tenure. At 24 of the institutions, no consideration is given for time spent in the position of instructor when a professor's application for tenure is being granted. Five respondents did not provide an answer to this question.

The next series of questions delved into the number of years an instructor must spend at one level before being promoted to the next. Approximately three-fourths (45) of the respondents did not give an answer as to

how many years an employee must spend at the instructor level before being promoted to assistant professor. This appears to reflect colleges automatically promoting instructors to assistant professor upon acquisition of a terminal degree. The other responses were: four indicated three years, six stated five years, two stated six years, and one person indicated seven years were required at the instructor level before being promoted to assistant professor.

Only about half (28) of the respondents provided the number of years of experience required at the associate professor level before being promoted to full professor. Responses ranged from one to 10 years:

- 1 year - 1 respondent
- 3 years - 2 respondents
- 4 years - 3 respondents
- 5 years - 10 respondents
- 6 years - 7 respondents
- 7 years - 2 respondents
- 10 years - 3 respondents

The next series of questions sought to determine whether a professor was granted a raise when promoted. If a raise was granted, what was the amount given? According to the respondents, over half stated that a pay raise was given at the time of promotion. Of the 61 respondents, 35 said a raise was given, 21 stated no raise was granted, and five did not respond. Pay raises given at the time of promotion divided into either a percentage or a

predetermined dollar amount. A little more than one-third (29) of respondents provided information on the amount of a raise. Among those who reported a specific dollar amount, the range of pay raises were from \$750 up to \$4,000. No one category received a majority of the 23 responses which gave a dollar amount. The largest number of respondents (four) said their institution granted a \$3,000 raise upon promotion.

Nine respondents listed promotional raises as a percentage of a person's salary. The percentage of salary increase ranged from 7.5 to 10 percent. The distribution of responses was fairly equally distributed among four percentages: one reported 7.5 percent, two responded with 8 percent, and three each stated 9 and 10 percent. (See Table 6.)

Correlations

In seeking a linear relationship among the variables in this study, a series of correlations was computed. During these computations, each of the variables was correlated with all the other variables from the survey questions.

Correlations which resulted in strong to moderate relationships were further analyzed using regressions. A strong correlation is defined as having a probability of .05 or less with a coefficient of .75 or greater, while a moderate correlation is one with a coefficient of .50 or greater. Several correlations met these conditions.

The first correlations are with the variable of a master's in advertising. Four other variables correlated with this item. Three of these variables were master's in other disciplines - broadcasting, news-editorial, public relations and visual communications. Each of these correlations had a moderate coefficient at .594 or less at a probability of .001 or less. All correlations were positive. This correlation is predictable. A review of higher education curricula in mass communication would show schools offering degrees in more than one area or discipline.

TABLE 6. AMOUNT OF PROMOTIONAL RAISE

Responses		Frequency	Percent	Valid %	Cumulative %	
Valid	\$0000	1	1.6	6.7	6.7	
	\$1000	2	3.3	13.3	20.0	
	\$1200	1	1.6	6.7	26.7	
	\$1500	1	1.6	6.7	33.3	
	\$1935	1	1.6	6.7	40.0	
	\$2000	2	3.3	13.3	53.3	
	\$2500	1	1.6	6.7	60.0	
	\$3000	4	6.6	26.7	86.7	
	\$3600	1	1.6	6.7	93.3	
	\$4000	1	1.6	6.7	100.0	
	Total	15	24.6	100.0		
	Missing	No Reply	46	75.4		
		Total	46	75.4		
Total		61	100.0			

The amount of a promotional raise correlates with the variable of automatic promotion on tenure receipt. The coefficient is $-.631$ at a probability of $.012$. Though the frequencies indicated many institutions granted a raise on promotion, most of the institutions did not grant a promotion when giving tenure. So while the granting of tenure may not result in a salary reduction, neither does it appear likely it results in a salary increase and promotion. (See Table 7.)

Offering of an undergraduate degree or emphasis in broadcasting correlated with the offering of the same degree in news-editorial and an instructor's years of experience for tenure. The linear relationship between the two undergraduate degrees had a moderate coefficient of $.572$ with a probability of $.001$ or less. Considering that many broadcasting curricula evolved out of news-editorial and journalism curricula, this would not be an unexpected result.

Regarding the relationship between the broadcasting undergraduate degree and the instructor's years of experience for tenure, the coefficient was $.707$ at a probability of $.015$. Expectations are that there is no relationship between years of experience for tenure and the curricula. However, this particular relationship could be a reflection of the number of college teachers at the instructor level who provide instruction in broadcasting. It could also be a reflection of the number of schools offering curricula in broadcasting which do not consider experience at the instructor level for tenure. The more likely a school is to have such curricula, the less likely it offers tenure to instructors.

Compensation for promotion is the next linear relationship. Compensation for promotion from instructor to assistant professor is related positively to compensation for promotion from assistant professor to associate. The coefficient is a strong $.856$ at a probability of $.030$. This relationship is a direct reflection of the frequencies which indicated promotions from one rank to the next resulted in a predetermined dollar amount or

TABLE 7. CORRELATION BETWEEN AUTOMATIC PROMOTION ON TENURE AND AMOUNT OF SALARY INCREASE

		Amount of Promotional Raise	Automatic Promotion on Tenure Receipt
Pearson Correlation	Amount of Promotional Raise Automatic Promotion on Tenure	1.000 $-.631$ (*)	$-.631$ (*) 1.000
Significance (2 tailed)	Amount of Promotional Raise Automatic Promotion on Tenure	$.012$	$.012$
N	Amount of Promotional Raise Automatic Raise on Tenure	15 15	15 60

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2 tailed).

percentage increase in compensation.

A division's highest degree offering had a correlation with years required for promotion from instructor to assistant professor. The coefficient of $.564$ had a probability of $.023$. The higher the degree offered, the longer an instructor waits for tenure. This relationship may reflect a greater number of faculty with terminal degrees at institutions offering graduate degrees, thereby limiting opportunities for those at the rank of instructor. (See Table 8.)

The correlation between an undergraduate degree in film with a master's degree in film showed a coefficient of $-.509$ at a probability of less than $.001$. It might be expected that an institution with a graduate program offering an undergraduate degree in film would also offer a master's degree. However, in this case, the data computations

resulted in a negative correlation. With this correlation, a suitable assumption is that institutions which do not offer an undergraduate degree in film do not offer a graduate degree. When the constant used is the master's in film, the suitable assumption is that institutions offering a master's degree in film are significantly likely to also offer an undergraduate degree.

The variable of the number of full-time faculty correlated with several other variables dealing with the number of faculty. All of these correlations were positive with a probability of significance at $.04$ or less. The items with which this variable correlated and their respective coefficients and probability significance are: number of associate professors, $.711$, $.001$; number of assistant professors, $.671$, $.001$; number of tenured faculty, $.721$, $.001$; number of non-tenured faculty,

TABLE 8. CORRELATION BETWEEN HIGHEST DEGREE OFFERED AND PROMOTION IN RANK

		Highest Degree Offered by Division	Years for Promotion from Instructor to Asst. Professor
Pearson Correlation	Highest Degree Offered by Division Years for Promotion from Instructor to Asst. Professor	1.000 $.564$ (*)	$.564$ (*) 1.000
Significance (2 tailed)	Highest Degree Offered by Division Years for Promotion from Instructor to Asst. Professor	$.023$	$.023$
N	Highest Degree Offered by Division Years for Promotion from Instructor to Asst. Professor	61.16 16	16

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2 tailed).

The awarding of degrees is rendered by the smallest administrative unit, and almost all degree-granting units have a graduate program.

.799, .001; number of professors, .639, .001; and an instructor's years of experience for tenure, .621, .042.

The correlation of these variables with the number of full-time faculty is expected. As the number of full-time faculty increase, it can be anticipated that the number of faculty members at each rank also increases. If there is an incredulity in these results, it is that the strength of the correlations is not greater. As the numbers of faculty with terminal degrees increases, it is expected that time spent at the instructor's level is a consideration for tenure.

The number of years at the instructor level considered for tenure correlated with the following variables: compensation for promotion from assistant to associate professor; compensation for promotion from associate to full professor; whether a pay raise is granted upon promotion; and years of experience for tenure.

Offering a master's degree in magazines correlated positively with a master's in news-editorial and a master's in visual communication. The coefficients for these two correlations are a moderate .504 and .536, respectively, with a significance level of less than .001. Like the other degree correlations, this one may be a reflection of being able to build degree programs upon others. Magazine publishing has a great deal in common with both news-editorial and visual communication programs.

Compensation for promotion from assistant to associate professor correlated with several other variables. These variables are compensation for promotion from instructor to assistant professor; years at instructor level considered for tenure; compensation for promotion from associate to

full professor; and number of associate professors. The statistics for these correlations in order mentioned are: .856 at .03, .580 at .023, .950 at .001, and -.575 at .025. Expectations are that, if an institution offers compensation for promotion from one level to the next, it would do so for all similar promotions. Therefore, these are correlations that are expected to occur.

REVIEW OF
TENURE AND PROMOTION STATEMENTS

One school has an annual review of each tenured and tenure-track faculty member. The review provides the primary basis for the chairperson's recommendations relating to salary, promotion, granting of tenure, successive appointments, non-reappointments and dismissal.

If an individual is to be considered for the rank of full professor largely on the basis of teaching contributions, those contributions must be truly outstanding and cannot be merely based on the accumulated record of above average, consistently good teaching evaluations. In many instances, appointment to the rank of professor requires national recognition in the profession.

Throughout journalism education, there is no mandatory requirement that a journalism professor possess an earned doctorate. Professional experience is weighted with degrees. This is reflected in the following statements:

- A faculty member continuing to serve under regular appointment to the teaching faculty after the expiration of the probationary period shall have tenure.

- A faculty member having rights and privileges of tenure shall have the continuing professional responsibility to keep informed in the discipline, to render efficient service to the university, and to abide by the known regulations and procedures of the university.

- The faculty believes that faculty preparation should not be judged primarily on the basis of their professional abilities, not just on the degrees they hold - "good professional experience in the field."

One institution viewed the primary component of a faculty member's role in the College of Fine Arts and Communication as quality teaching. At least one university (Utah) had provisions for leaves and changes in duties, such as from faculty to administration. In another institution, the central task of the faculty is to keep knowledge living, and therefore growing, in their students and themselves. One university asks candidates for tenure to provide names of external evaluators, who write "unbiased" letters from the candidates' dossiers.

DISCUSSION

A review of the results does not reveal any startling discoveries. There is a consistency in answers to survey questions by the respondents.

It appears the awarding of degrees at schools with accredited mass communication programs is rendered by the smallest administrative unit. In up to 50 percent of

Many schools have faculty without terminal degrees, and if they are working at the instructor level, it is likely many of them will not benefit from the tenure system because of ineligibility.

*Time spent waiting on promotion
corresponds to time spent waiting on tenure
– usually five to seven years.*

these schools, the division or department was offering the degree in mass communication. Almost all of the degree-offering units had a graduate program with more than 80 percent of those units having a program of doctoral study.

Among the various areas of study in mass communication, the most popular among these schools based on degrees or area of emphasis are advertising, broadcasting, news-editorial and public relations. News-editorial programs were offered by most of the schools. This is evidence of the age of these programs. Many mass communication curricula began by offering a degree program or area of study in news-editorial or journalism. With time, other areas of study, such as advertising, broadcasting and public relations, were added. The addition of these programs can be related to the perceived employee needs of mass communication companies.

In contrast, programs least likely to be offered by the accredited programs are magazine publishing, film, visual communication and mass communication. It is likely these areas are either combined with other areas of specialization, or in the case of a mass communication degree, it is not offered because the concentration is broken into the various specialized mass media areas.

Most of the schools do not seem to have a limit on the number of tenured faculty, but to become tenured, an instructor must attain the rank of assistant professor or higher. In addition to rank, a professor's employment status (full/part-time) was considered for tenure eligibility.

Many schools report having faculty who do not hold terminal degrees. If faculty members who do not hold terminal degrees are working at the instructor level, it is likely many of them will not benefit from the

tenure system because of their ineligibility. Even though faculty without terminal degrees at the instructor level may not be eligible for tenure, they are eligible for promotion.

Whether a faculty member holds a terminal degree or not, he or she can expect to wait an average of five to seven years for tenure. However, the period used to calculate this time may not include years spent working at the instructor level in about half the schools surveyed.

Professors most likely to be affected by these policies are those who may be ABD (all but dissertation) and have accepted a position at the rank of instructor. The study did indicate that, upon the granting of the doctoral degree, a person can expect to be automatically promoted to the rank of assistant professor. Professors facing this problem would be advised to expeditiously complete the terminal degree requirements in order to take advantage of the tenure and promotion system.

Whether a school is granting a promotion from assistant to associate professor, or from associate to full professor, the average time spent waiting on that promotion corresponds to the time spent waiting on tenure. This waiting period is on average from five to seven years.

With a promotion usually comes a pay

increase, and academia is no exception. The amount of the raise varied considerably from school to school. Raises were based either on a fixed dollar amount or a percentage of pay. These raises could range from approximately \$1,000 up to several thousand dollars. The amount was dependent on the school, with responses distributed widely across the differing dollar amounts and percentages of compensation.

The correlations yielded no unusual discoveries. The offering of one degree correlated with the offering of other degrees. Promotion and raises correlated with each other. The lack of an unexpected results from the correlations made any regression analysis unnecessary.

The written tenure and promotion policies received from the schools reflected a similarity in the items considered for tenure. These items divided into the three broad categories of teaching research, and service to the university and community.

The introduction and literature review stated that the tenure system was under attack and possibly destined to disappear as an antiquated form of job security. This study presents a different view. The tenure system seems alive and well in accredited mass communication programs around the country.

There are implications that both faculty and administrators can garner from this study. The most obvious implication for untenured faculty, either because they are new to the field or changing positions, is they should carefully review an institution's tenure and promotion policy in considera-

*The tenure system seems alive and well,
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tion of any offer they receive. Faculty should not accept a stated policy with which they do not agree. In accepting a position, all items including tenure and promotion are negotiable. Non-tenured faculty are urged to negotiate these points as well as others. This study reflects a diversity of policies that are not immovable.

For administrators and those hiring new faculty, tenure and promotion policies can be used as a recruitment tool. Administrators need to allow some flexibility in the areas of tenure and promotion to entice the best and brightest faculty to their institution. This includes items considered for tenure and promotion, as well as the weight given to the three areas of teaching, research and service. Though intangible, tenure and promotion offers prospective faculty an asset as

valuable as a paycheck – that of job security. This does not mean that administrators and faculty should view tenure as a guarantee to lifetime employment.

Though this study presents the system of tenure as continuing, it does not provide any indications of how this system may have changed and is changing. Comparisons to similar studies, as well as a longitudinal study, may provide answers to these types of questions.

In addition to the changes in the tenure and promotion system, this study has other shortcomings. These include a failure to examine demographics, such as school size, location, number of degrees awarded, and whether the institution is private or public. There are a multitude of comparisons that could be done with such information.

There was no indication of a relationship between tenure and promotion and curricula. This is another area requiring further exploration to validate these results.

While this study surveyed only schools with accredited mass communication programs, future studies could be broader in scope. Since tenure and promotion policies are set at the university level, other studies may want to survey offices of academic affairs and include both accredited and non-accredited institutions.

Despite its limitations, this study served its purpose of answering questions about tenure and promotion for the Department of Mass Communication at Grambling State University. It is hoped this information offers institutions answers to questions relating to tenure and promotion policies at schools with accredited mass communication programs, and perhaps this study will inspire some to review their policies for possible revision.

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what really leads to

Positive Teacher-Course Evaluations

PRESCRIPTIONS FROM SELF-DETERMINATION THEORY

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INSTRUCTORS AT ALL LEVELS HAVE STRUGGLED with the issue of how to provide a positive learning experience for their students and, correspondingly, how to receive high evaluations of their courses. Should they be distant and professional or should they “buddy up” to the students? Should they attempt to fill their students with knowledge or should they just ease up on the workload? Do their students appreciate the information they have learned throughout a course or do they look at the bottom line only: the grade received?

Over the past 30 years, dozens of studies have been conducted hoping to find the Rosetta Stone of teacher evaluations, as they focused on a seemingly endless string of variables. While some general ideas have been shown to surface in a number of studies, there remains little in the way of a consensus as to what will prompt students to give the most positive assessments of their courses and their instructors.

For example, teachers' knowledge, ability to create rapport, class management, attention to fairness, grading schemes, and level of workload have all shown promise in predicting positive course evaluations, among many other variables. But what, if any, common threads underlie these multitudinous factors.

In our research, we attempted to provide a parsimonious account of the critical factors producing positive teacher-course evaluations, by drawing from a well-known theory of human motivation: self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 1991, 2000). Self-determination theory begins with the assumption that humans have an evolved set of psychological needs, which must be satisfied in order for optimal well-being and performance to occur. Specifically, the theory posits three basic psychological needs: for autonomy, competence and relatedness. Considerable empirical research supports the unique functional importance of each type of experience (Deci & Ryan, 2000); they are an important part of "what makes for a good day" (Reis, Sheldon, Gable, Ryan & Roscoe, 2000), what makes for the most satisfying events (Sheldon, Elliot, Kim & Kasser, 2001), what makes for a secure attachment relationship (LaGuardia, Ryan, Couchman & Deci, 2000), and what produces the highest quality of performance on the job (Baard, Deci & Ryan, in press).

In this vein, Filak and Sheldon (2003) recently demonstrated that individuals who reported high levels of all three experiences within their college class also provided the most positive ratings of their instructors. Below, we first provide additional theoretical background relevant to the concept of need-satisfaction. We then describe our empirical results in greater detail. Finally, we discuss current work being undertaken to further extend these findings.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 1991, 2000) began with the concept of intrinsic motivation, i.e., behavior undertaken because the experience of behaving is inherently stimulating and rewarding. Early research focused on the factors that can undermine intrinsic motivation, such as external rewards, pressures, deadlines and threats. Later research focused on psychological need-satisfaction as the crucial mediator between contextual factors and resultant intrinsic motivation, specifically, the needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness. The three needs are additive in nature, meaning that, while one or two needs will allow students to grow and improve, the combination of all three needs will allow students to most fully realize their potential. Ryan (1995) uses the analogy of a plant that needs soil, water and sunlight to grow properly. While one of these needs, for example water, might be

the most important of the three, it is clear that, if the plant is to flourish, it will require the presence of the other two elements as well.

Previous research on need-satisfaction in the area of education (Black & Deci, 2000; Deci, Nezlek & Sheinman, 1981) examined only the concept of autonomy support, as autonomy is typically construed as the most important psychological need. Autonomy, as defined by Deci and Ryan (1985), involves experiencing "a sense of freedom to do what is interesting, personally important, and vitalizing" (<http://www.scp.rochester.edu/SDT/index.html>) as when a person "feels free from pressures, such as rewards or contingencies" (p. 29), has been the focal point of many pieces of motivation research.

Much educational research has focused on autonomy and autonomy support. For example, Ryan and Connell (1989) found that students who reported feeling controlled in the learning environment were less likely to enjoy school, while those with relatively more autonomy in the classroom were more likely to report enjoying the learning experience. Deci, Nezlek and Sheinman (1981) looked at a group of students in fourth through sixth grade and examined how autonomy support for the teacher could affect the students. In that study, the authors found that teachers who used controlling methods had students who were less intrinsically motivated than students who had teachers who used informational methods. These and other studies illustrate clearly that, if students are to succeed in internalizing the values that they are learning, they must be given some sort of autonomy. By internalizing and engaging the material, students begin to feel more connected to the material and thereby often enjoy the experience more than those who work for external rewards, such as grades.

Other researchers from outside the SDT camp have also discussed the benefits of allowing students freedom of choice. For example, Glasser's (1998) "choice theory" emphasizes that students should be allowed to make their own selections within the classroom, regarding everything from assignments to class rules. Similarly, Passe (1996) argued that instructors who fail to take student input into account are bound to end up with students who find the work boring and irrelevant. For this reason, he argues, students must have some autonomy in order for them to engage the material.

According to SDT, autonomy support has three distinct facets (Deci, Eghrari, Patrick & Leone, 1994). First, the autonomy-supportive authority provides choice wherever and whenever possible. This can be as simple as an instructor allowing a class vote to see when an assignment is due or providing a list of acceptable paper topics, instead of offering just one topic. Or, the instructor can draw up the basic parameters of

the assignment but allow the student much freedom within those parameters.

Of course, sometimes it is not possible to offer a choice; for example, all students must learn the multiplication tables, and must learn to read. This highlights the second facet of autonomy-support: perspective-taking. As Ryan, Kuhl and Deci (1997) explain, autonomy is not independence or total freedom, but allowing the individual to have some input as to how action will be taken. When this type of choice-provision is not possible, it is important for the authority to empathize with the subordinate's perspective upon the assignment (Zuckerman, Porac, Lathin, Smith & Deci, 1978). But in addition to having their perspectives acknowledged, students must also arrive at a clear understanding of why they can have no choice in some matters. This highlights the third facet of autonomy support: rationale-provision. Students will feel more autonomy, even when they have little choice, if they understand why the behavior is necessary.

The second important need, according to SDT, is competence, which Deci and Ryan define as "a need for having an effect, for being effective in one's interactions with the environment." The struggle to attain competence begins at any early age; the child first learns how to move, then how to crawl, and then how to walk. Indeed, every learning activity, from tying one's shoes to learning to read, can be viewed as motivated (ideally) by quest for competence. Children repeat activities until they are mastered, and then look toward new challenges (Stipek, 1988). Unfortunately, a great deal of how a student feels about him or herself within academic environments comes from extrinsic forces (McCombs, 1989). Failure to attain the "proper" level of achievement in academic or social settings as determined by the group the individual wishes to be judged by can result in diminished self-esteem. For example, Miserandino (1996) found that students who felt that they lacked competence in completing a task were less likely to do well at that task. These students were more likely to have negative affect in describing their school experience. Other researchers (Phillips, 1984, for one) have found similar results with regard to perceived incompetence.

To aid competence, researchers have suggested that leaders should convey confidence in subordinate's ability to perform the task, and should also give subordinates positive feedback whenever possible. In this case, intrinsic motivation will be enhanced. For example, Deci, Cascio and Krusell (1975) found that intrinsic motivation in college-age men increased when positive feedback was given. Conversely, they found that negative feedback inhibited intrinsic motivation and created a sense of dislike of the activity and the instructor. Of course, stu-

dents need to be corrected when their performance or understanding is inadequate. The crucial thing, from the SDT perspective, is that this information is delivered in such a way that students maintain positive expectancies about their ability to do better in the future.

Finally, relatedness is defined as the need to feel meaningful connection to others. Ryan and Deci (2000) argued that, when a feeling of security is present, such as that between a mother and child, intrinsic motivation is far more likely to occur than if there is no connection, such as when a child would be in the presence of a stranger who is showing no interest in the child. Others have described it as the need to feel connected and worthy of benefits afforded to them by others (Connell & Wellborn, 1991). Of course, intrinsic motivation can occur in isolation, as when a person becomes absorbed in a solitary hobby or sports activity. However, if a feeling of being related to others can also be injected into the task, then intrinsic motivation can be further enhanced. Relatedness develops from the interest in communicating and interacting with others on a level playing field (Miserandino, 1996). Rather than finding themselves in a hierarchical learning environment, students who feel a sense of relatedness will be more likely to interact with the teacher, giving both parties a chance to connect as individuals. This kind of individual connection can improve the enjoyment of a task or lesson (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

In sum, the work in the area of self-determination theory has demonstrated that, if individuals are to engage in a learning environment and feel positive toward the activity in which they are participating, an instructor must satisfy their three basic psychological needs. By fulfilling the need for autonomy, competence and relatedness, the instructor can not only improve the student's liking of the course but also help the student reach a level of intrinsic motivation that will allow students to learn for learning's sake.

FINDINGS

Our work blended the tenets of SDT research with the questions raised by educational scholars in regard to course and instructor evaluations. By utilizing surveys containing conventional course evaluation questions that examined underlying psychological needs, we were able to assess to what level autonomy, competence and relatedness predicted course and instructor approval (Filak & Sheldon, 2003).

In both studies we conducted, all three needs positively predicted instructor approval. Not surprisingly, competence was the strongest predictor of the three needs. Given that the fundamental goal of taking a class is to master the material and to demonstrate this mastery via a good grade, it is logical that, if they fail in this regard, students would be less likely to approve

of the instructor and her or his methods. However, both autonomy and relatedness also played integral roles in predicting instructor approval. In other words, consistent with Ryan's (1995) "plant" metaphor, students needed the other nutrients as well. Thus, good teaching goes beyond clear and concise conveyance of material; it also requires allowing students to learn in their own way, and creating a sense of relatedness or connection with students. In contrast, only autonomy and competence need-satisfaction were significant predictors of high course (rather than teacher) evaluations; although relatedness was significant at the bi-variate level, it failed to predict independent variance in course evaluations. This made sense, given that students are doubtless giving the interpersonal qualities of the instructor less weight in these types of judgments.

Still, examination of the open comment portions of Study 2 illustrated the strong importance students placed on interpersonal needs. For example, instructor friendliness and openness were seen as very important traits by students. Instructors who maintained a flow of dialogue were also viewed positively, while those who did not came across to many students as cold and uncaring. Students also praised instructors who allowed them to feel free to express their opinions without being judged or reprimanded, and who seemed to like and accept them for who they are.

One additional finding that might be of interest to both instructors and administrators concerned the number of times an instructor has taught a certain course. In Study 2 of Filak and Sheldon's (2003) article, instructors were asked to provide demographic information, including age, gender, years teaching college courses and years teaching this particular course. We found that the number of years teaching the same course was strongly negatively correlated with autonomy and relatedness satisfaction, although course experience was uncorrelated with competence satisfaction. Interestingly, instructor's age and overall years of teaching experience did not predict low autonomy and relatedness, which eliminates a "generation gap" argument. It appears that, when instructors teach the same course again and again, they begin to stop bothering with students' autonomy and relatedness needs.

Given the limited sample in the earlier study (N=12 teachers, responsible for 12 sections of the same course; Filak & Sheldon, 2003), we were somewhat cautious in accepting these findings and interpretations. In a subsequent study, however, we have been able to replicate this course burnout finding (Filak & Sheldon, forthcoming). Using the same scales to measure autonomy competence and relatedness, we collected data from more than 200 students enrolled in a different semester of the same required pre-journalism course, and again found that the

students' reported levels of autonomy and relatedness again were negatively correlated to the number of years the instructor taught that particular course. In addition, we again found that all three needs positively predicted instructor approval, while autonomy and competence again predicted course approval.

In our earlier work, we likened the "course burnout" finding to that of a farmer who fails to rotate his crops. By repeatedly planting the same vegetables on the same plot, the farmer saps his soil of essential nutrients. In this instance, we posit that, by repeatedly teaching the same course, the teacher is sapped of the necessary emotional investment in the course and thus fails to fulfill the needs of students. Given the importance autonomy support has been shown to have in a classroom setting (Black & Deci, 2000) and the way in which the three needs have been shown to work in tandem to improve psychological investment in activities (Deci & Ryan, 2000), administrators and instructors alike need to revisit the way in which courses are assigned and the number of times each instructor teaches the course.

CONCLUSION

The question of what makes for a "good" teacher is a subjective one, and thus, unable to be answered by any amount of research. For years, scholars have put forth efforts to assess how best to reach students and help them attain the best educational outcome. Our work has attempted to provide some parsimony to the ongoing debate as to what items were most likely to produce positive course and instructor ratings.

By examining course evaluations from the perspective of psychological need satisfaction, we were able to provide instructors with a clear and concise list of issues that need to be addressed if a student is to find a course experience worthwhile. The tenets of self-determination theory have provided instructors with a simple guide to need satisfaction and hopefully an opportunity to create a more engaging educational atmosphere. We have found in three separate studies that, by fulfilling the needs of autonomy, competence and relatedness, instructors are likely to see more positive evaluations from their students. Beyond that, however, the theory of SDT argues that, if students' needs are met, they will be engaged in higher-level motivation and thus be more likely to learn better and carry that learning with them beyond the structure of the classroom. While we did not measure the concept of learning in any of these studies, research in this field has borne out the likelihood of this occurrence.

For instructors looking to enact these measures, the changes need not be course-altering but rather simple adjustments to allow for the satiation of the needs. The provision of choice is one of the easiest and most obvious for instructors.

The investment of a project is far greater when that project is created of one's own volition. By allowing students to pick topics or areas for papers, news stories and other assignments, instructors acknowledge the students' need for autonomy. Furthermore, it allows students to learn how to go about selecting proper topics and ideas. When choices like these are not possible, explanations that go beyond "because I said so" can aid students in understanding the rationale behind the assignments. Constructive criticism can aid in competence building. Instructors can also demonstrate proper techniques and engage in non-caustic correction measures when students begin to stray. Relatedness can be satisfied by engaging in

lectures that go beyond the book and draw commonalities between instructor and student while illustrating key points.

Many of these ideas are likely to be second nature for many instructors. For some, they may seem far afield. In either case, we have found that instructors who satisfy the psychological needs of their students are likely to receive positive ratings of both themselves as instructors and the course in general. Our findings come from those people in the position to best judge the impact of instruction on course approval, namely the students.

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Mentoring Faculty through the Promotion and Tenure Process

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THE WINTER 2003 ISSUE OF *College Teaching* published research on student evaluation of instruction on our campus. When we surveyed faculty at our institution about student evaluation of instruction, we found that a majority of respondents (88 percent) indicated that they believed student evaluations were “very” or “somewhat” important to those responsible for tenure and promotion decisions. In our conclusion, we encouraged faculty members to educate “themselves and others about the limitations of standardized evaluations and about the potential biases and abuses that can occur” (Baldwin & Blattner, 2003, 31). As part of that recommendation, we suggested that faculty members inform their colleagues, department chairs, deans, and others involved in the promotion and tenure (P&T) process on what the current literature states about best practices in evaluating faculty who are going through the P&T process. While the focus in that article was on evaluation of teaching and on what the faculty member can do to ensure fair assessment of his or her teaching, we recognize that teaching effectiveness comprises only one of the areas under scrutiny in the P&T process. Further, we recognize and appreciate the crucial role that the department chairperson has in the tenure and promotion process of faculty members in his or her department. With this in mind, we’ve formulated the following six suggestions to assist department chairs in helping their new faculty to successfully navigate the P&T process.

T. Baldwin & N. Blattner (Winter 2003). Guarding against potential bias in student evaluations: What every faculty member needs to know, *College Teaching* 51 (1), 27-32.

Suggestion 1: Assign a departmental mentor, a senior faculty member who has successfully navigated the promotion and tenure processes.

Because departmental chairpersons cannot mentor all the new faculty in their departments, senior faculty members should be asked to serve as mentors for newly hired faculty on the tenure track. These mentors should have had previous involvement at the department level, and if possible at the college and university level, with the P&T process. In order for as many faculty members as possible to serve in this role, appointments to P&T committees should be rotated if possible, giving broader experience with P&T procedures above the departmental level. It is also important to select mentors who are politically savvy about the institution, who understand the cultural climate of the entire university, not just in the department, and who express a genuine desire and a willingness to spend the time necessary to aid junior faculty through the first six years – and more – of their careers.

In order to attract the most effective mentors, the senior faculty members who have served in this role must be compensated for their work in annual reports or performance-based increases. While mentors often find it intrinsically rewarding to see new colleagues promoted and tenured, in part because of their assistance, the time and effort they spend with junior faculty for a period of several years as they complete the requirements for obtaining promotion and tenure must be recognized in a more tangible way.

Suggestion 2: Don't wait until the fourth year to provide constructive or critical feedback.

By naming a senior professor as a mentor to a newly hired faculty member, department chairs have already made progress toward providing feedback prior to the critical fourth-year review. However, both members of the mentoring team may need some specific suggestions about how to collect annual data on the junior faculty member's progress and how to respond to areas that need improvement.

In order to make the annual evaluations as specific as possible, the department chair could arrange for the junior faculty member's performance in the classroom to be videotaped. Then, a few days after the taping session, the chair should encourage the faculty member and his/her mentor to review the tape and discuss both the positive points of the teaching presentation and those areas that could be improved. In reviewing the tape, they might look for student behaviors that show engagement and learning taking place and note those behaviors of the teacher that contributed to students' positive responses. In a similar fashion, behaviors of the teacher that could be annoying or that could even prevent learning (e.g., pacing, jingling change in one's pocket, annoying and repetitive speech patterns, such as "okay," "uh huh," etc.) should be highlighted.

The junior faculty member's service and scholarship components should also be reviewed at this point. Often, new faculty are inundated with requests to serve on committees, advise students, and complete community service projects. When they are new to the institution, most faculty need some help in sifting through these requests to determine which are most likely to count significantly toward tenure and promotion in the future. While this approach may sound calculating, there is always time after tenure has been granted for a faculty member to serve as the chair of a social committee or take part in an alumni fundraiser. The chairperson and mentor can steer the new faculty in the right direction by knowing what P&T committees will value the most.

Many new faculty dedicate much of their time to teaching preparation, particularly during the first semesters they are at an institution. For many of us at institutions which value teaching highly, this is a laudable approach; still, when committees review P&T papers, scholarship is often the component that prevents the faculty member from advancing in his/her career. Each faculty member should be assisted in developing a scholarship agenda for two to three years in advance. These activities should be carefully reviewed against the departmental, college and university criteria for promotion and tenure. If publications are required for advancing a faculty member's career, then planning and writing should begin early in the six-year timeframe to acknowledge the possibility of rejection notices and to ensure ample opportunities to revise submissions if required.

The conclusion of this review of performance should be a list of positive behaviors, both in and out of the classroom, that should be continued, and a set of goals for the faculty member to work toward during the next evaluation period that allow for improvements to be made in areas of noted weaknesses. In order to encourage the faculty member to make the needed changes,

meeting these annual standards should be tied to performance evaluations. Ideally, all evaluation systems (promotion, tenure and performance evaluations) must send the same signal to faculty members. If the criteria for these three processes are not aligned, they should be reviewed and rewritten to support and complement, not contradict, each other.

Too many faculty are given lukewarm, or worse, unduly flattering, recommendations until the fourth-year review. The chairperson should be honest with the faculty member and encourage peer reviewers to be as well. Being less than completely honest in annual evaluations with faculty who are not yet tenured or promoted does them no kindness. In fact, these well-meaning, but ill-intentioned, evaluations actually harm the faculty member by not allowing for improvements to be made. Each annual review should be a time for specific recommendations for improvement.

Suggestion 3: Review the criteria for tenure and promotion, the calendar of deadlines, and successful and unsuccessful tenure and promotion files with the junior faculty member.

It is often helpful for newly hired faculty to see and review with the chairperson the departmental and university promotion and tenure criteria during their first year to gain an overview of the scope of the expectations to be met in order to gain tenure and promotion. Chairs should also provide a calendar of the promotion and tenure deadlines and notify candidates of their eligibility months in advance. In addition, reviewing with the faculty member actual tenure and promotion papers, both those that have proved successful and those that have not, can also be of benefit, if permission to share such papers can be obtained from their owners.

A member of the department, perhaps the assigned senior faculty mentor, should work with the new faculty member to set up a database that allows for easy entry of teaching, scholarship and service activities. This computer file should be updated frequently and reviewed by the mentor annually. Putting together tenure and promotion documents is a time-consuming process that should not be delayed until the months prior to submitting the paperwork. Furthermore, the visual presentation of the materials can hinder or aid the candidate's case, so care should be taken to make sure the papers are easy to read and pleasing to the eye.

A departmental committee should also review a draft of the candidate's papers prior to their being officially submitted to the P&T Committee. By seeing a draft before the actual papers are submitted, the committee members can make useful suggestions and corrections that can help to present the candidate's papers in their strongest light. It is important to introduce candidates to members of the P&T committee so that they will feel comfortable approaching their colleagues with questions about their papers or the process. If asked, committee members can share their own experiences and offer feedback that will strengthen and improve the faculty member's dossier.

From the chairperson's contacts with other chairs and the dean, faculty in other departments and colleges who have recently been tenured or promoted can be contacted and paired with the junior faculty members to discuss the preparation of supporting documents, compilation of the record of service, and feedback they have received while completing the tenure and promotion sequence. These contacts may prove helpful when the candidate's papers are reviewed beyond the departmental level.

Suggestion 4: Write helpful letters of support.

Letters of support written by department chairpersons should be specific and include information not found in the candidate's dossier, vita or supporting materials. These letters must also emphasize the outstanding achievements of the candidate and explain their significance to a reader not in the candidate's discipline. For example, people from other disciplines may be unaware of the enormous amount of time a faculty member has devoted to advising an inordinate number of students or in learning to use new equipment for a television production course.

Some chairs worry about overstating the case for their faculty members. One such chair at another institution wrote a one-sentence letter of support for his faculty member: "I strongly support Dr. Smith's [the name has been changed] application for tenure." Understandably, Dr. Smith felt hurt by this terse treatment and questioned whether or not her department chair did, in

fact, support her bid for tenure. While the department chair in this case did support Dr. Smith and felt that he'd stated his position clearly in the letter, the brief letter written by Dr. Smith's chair was reviewed by a college committee that looked at laboriously crafted multi-page letters written by other department chairs in support of their colleagues. Clearly, Dr. Smith was placed at a disadvantage by her chair. While this example may seem extreme, it is not an isolated incident.

Suggestion 5: Encourage and support the creation of a college- or university-wide workshop that focuses on successfully completing the promotion and tenure process.

Recognizing that new faculty from across the disciplines and colleges are facing many of the same concerns and criteria regarding tenure and promotion, a few years ago on our campus, we were instrumental in instituting a campus-wide workshop called "Navigating the Promotion and Tenure Process." The first of these was co-sponsored by the campus chapter of ACE-NIN and the Center for Scholarship in Teaching and Learning (CSTL). We invited current and former members of the University Promotion and Tenure Committee and faculty who had recently been promoted or tenured to serve as panelists. Participants spoke about what they looked for in a candidate's file and offered useful tips for what to do and what not to do in compiling the record of service and supporting materials. A lengthy question and answer session concluded the workshop. Because the forum was so well attended, it has become an annual event sponsored by the CSTL. The workshop was unique in that it provided information and perspectives from across disciplines and enabled faculty to hear from colleagues on the University P&T Committee.

As a result of that first workshop, an assistant professor in the business college who attended the panel presentation approached a professor in the biology department who served on the promotion committee with questions. From this encounter, a mentoring relationship grew which provided the assistant professor with valuable insight from a wider university perspective than she could have gotten in her own college. In addition, she gained the benefit of the full professor's experience in completing the promotion process herself.

Suggestion 6: Finally, be a good mentor yourself.

Department chairs should consider themselves as role models for the newer faculty in their departments by valuing teaching, scholarship and service activities performed by the faculty and by continuing to teach and perform scholarly and service activities themselves. The best role model leads by example. Showing all faculty that each of these three components is valued is critical. Department chairs can foster the development of junior faculty members' dossiers by sharing information with them about opportunities to present papers, conferences that they may be unaware of, or by encouraging collaborative efforts with other faculty members.

Department chairs can also encourage senior faculty to serve as mentors for younger faculty by rewarding their efforts and setting the example by serving as a mentor for at least one new faculty member.

Finally, by having an open-door policy, department chairs can encourage junior faculty to take advantage of their expertise and knowledge of the promotion and tenure processes in the department, in the college, and on the campus.

Concluding Remarks

Along with all their other responsibilities, department chairpersons are in the unique position to play the most important role in the new faculty members' success, which ultimately reflects on the success of the department itself. Providing a structured mentoring system to assist in the promotion and tenure process for junior faculty, such as the one outlined above, would not only assist in retaining qualified faculty, but would also provide them with opportunities to advance and grow as valuable departmental colleagues.

FACULTY WORKLOAD

Differentiation

THROUGH

Unit Collaboration

LINDA McMILLIN

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PHASE I OF THE ANAC FACULTY WORK PROJECT uncovered significant disconnections between the existing workload structures of our institutions and the actual complex work that faculty do. This lack of correlation negatively affects how institutions use faculty time and talent to meet the needs of their students. The result is poor faculty morale, ineffective resource management, inappropriate assessment, conflicting priorities, and less agile responses to change. However, by consciously differentiating individual faculty workloads in the context of collaborative academic units, institutions and their faculties can create more satisfying and more efficient structures of planning, support, evaluation and reward that align faculty work with institutional mission. This process will require a fresh examination of both the nature of faculty work and the relationships among individual faculty, academic units and the institution as a whole.

Based on a study by the Associated New American Colleges presented by Elizabeth V. Burt at the 2001 convention of the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication.

The complexity of faculty work today results from a variety of factors. Overall, faculty responsibilities have grown both in number and in kind, in each of the three traditional areas of faculty work. New demands for *teaching* require that faculty not only create engaging lectures but also individualize curriculum, incorporate technology into courses, accommodate a variety of student learning styles, and employ pedagogies that enhance active learning. The requirements of campus *citizenship* – governance, strategic planning, student recruitment, grant writing, alumni relations – and local community citizenship – public service, K-12 support, collaborative business and government ventures – have grown for faculty as well. At the same time, expectations for *scholarship*, especially that which leads to public presentation and publication, has grown exponentially and expanded well beyond research universities to become a greater part of the workload of faculty at almost all institutions. Faculty at ANAC schools have an additional responsibility that grows out of our commitment to interdisciplinary studies and the combination of theoretical and practical education. This commitment requires faculty to make collaborative and creative connections among subfields of a discipline, across disciplines, and between liberal arts and professional training in both their teaching and research – an exciting but time-consuming challenge. And faculty responsibilities are constantly changing as institutions strive to be more flexible and meet the emerging needs of student and society.

Faculty work is further complicated by demographic changes within the academy. As institutions increase the diversity of their workforce both to include women, people of color, the handicapped, and to accommodate differences of age, ethnicity and sexual orientation, new tasks for and approaches to faculty work emerge. For example, an Hispanic faculty member might be called upon to work on minority student recruitment, a wheelchair-using faculty member to help evaluate the accessibility of new building and renovation projects, and a lesbian faculty member to meet with gay alumni: this is work that often comes in addition to other responsibilities. The commutes of dual career couples, the childcare arrangements of working parents, the elder care responsibilities of many, and the universal desire for greater balance between professional and private life add additional layers of complexity to faculty work in the 21st century. Finally, for better or worse, changing patterns of hiring and staffing – tenure vs. adjunct vs. multi-year contracts – have created hierarchies of status, contribution, and responsibility within institutions and departments.

Although the increased complexity of faculty work and demands on faculty time currently result in individualized work patterns, existing structures of faculty work tend to impede

rather than support this emerging differentiation. The main formal acknowledgement of differentiated work patterns is the “special deal” negotiated with the occasional “superstar” faculty member. For the rest, the “one-size-fits-all” approach to workload and the evaluation of faculty work do little to encourage and support the increasing diverse work models needed to fulfill our missions. Current structures almost assure that a

Formally acknowledging the validity of differentiated faculty work patterns and creating a structure that will foster increased collaboration and interdependence among faculty will increase their satisfaction and enhance their effectiveness in achieving institutional goals.

faculty member will be pulled simultaneously in many directions with no coordination and no assurance of appropriate recognition. A faculty member, for example, may teach some courses for a department program and others for the general education curriculum, serve on an elected campus-wide committee (or two), while at the same time work with an ad hoc faculty group designing a new, interdisciplinary program. This faculty member may also be asked to serve on a dean search committee, and in the midst of that be offered the opportunity to edit a volume of a journal. The faculty member may see the editorial work as an important scholarly endeavor for rounding out a tenure portfolio, but the consequence of taking on this additional task, without letting go of some other piece of the workload, will be an impossible juggling act. Current structures do not provide this faculty member with much help in prioritizing these opportunities, or guidance in determining which one or more of these tasks should be dropped. Whatever balance this faculty member strikes among these demands and opportunities, this “workload” will surely look different from that of other colleagues, who also face their own panoply of tasks and competing priorities. Unfortunately, at present, institutions are providing no coherent strategy for coordinating or balancing the growing diversity of demands on faculty and taking best advantage of their interests and expertise.

Formally acknowledging the validity of differentiated faculty work patterns and creating a structure that will foster increased collaboration and interdependence among faculty will increase their satisfaction and enhance their effectiveness in achieving institutional goals. We therefore propose the “academic unit” as a structure that can provide faculty with a

context for setting priorities in individualized work and collaborating with each other as fellow teachers, scholars and institutional citizens. The “unit” might be a department, a division, a program, a professional school or any appropriately sized group of faculty gathered around a common set of goals. It is the place where individual faculty most readily and concretely experience academic community. To be most effective, the unit must be large enough to allow significant differentiation of faculty work, and small enough so that face-to-face interaction can happen on a regular basis. If the members of the unit have a clear enough sense of their collective work and the ways that work contribute to the institution, then they can collaboratively negotiate the individual, differentiated work plans of members in such a way that the work of the unit is accomplished while taking best advantage of the interests and opportunities of the individual members.

So, in the case described above, the faculty member would discuss multiple work opportunities with colleagues in the unit.

Collaboration in the creation of differentiated work plans among the members of the unit should involve regular, collective planning to ensure that all the common goals of the unit are furthered. The unit structure must be flexible enough to allow change and renegotiation.

They might collectively decide that maintaining their contribution to the interdisciplinary program is important, but that another member could take on that role for the coming year. Or they could decide to reduce the number of course preparations for the coming year to allow the faculty member to take on the task of editing the journal. In that case, the other members of the unit would take on the burden of the additional preparations, because having a colleague edit the journal would enhance the visibility of the unit and the academic reputation of the institution (both formally recognized as goals of the unit). Or they might discover that the faculty member had little interest in editing the journal beyond a misperceived notion of needing to increase scholarly output. Here colleagues could reassure that faculty member that the serious scholarly component of designing an interdisciplinary program would be amply recognized in both unit and institutional evaluation, thus creating a choice – journal or program – rather than the impossible mandate of both.

Workload differentiation is a reality, and a focus on the

academic unit is an effective way to cope with the multiplicity of tasks facing faculty. Therefore, institutions should strive not only to accommodate differentiated faculty workloads, but also creatively to direct differentiation toward institutional goals. However, to be strategically employed, workload differentiation must take place in the context of increased collaboration and interdependence among individual faculty. Such collaboration in the creation of differentiated work plans among the members of the unit should involve regular, collective planning to ensure that all the common goals of the unit are furthered. The unit structure must be flexible enough to allow change and renegotiation. Such a structure would call for collective evaluation and reward so that, while the contribution of the individual members to the work of the unit would differ, the unit would be evaluated on the degree to which its contribution to the work of the institution was fulfilled. Collaboration in workload differentiation should lead to collective planning, evaluation and reward at the unit level.

Moving from “one-size-fits-all” toward a more differentiated and collaborative approach to faculty workload requires a high level of trust and openness among faculty, staff and administrators. First they must together determine which tasks need to be accomplished by faculty at the institution. Then they must jointly acknowledge and enhance the ways in which individual faculty, academic units, and the institution as a whole both add value to and are dependent on the work of each.

What is the work of the faculty?

In current practice, faculty often view their work individually so that the range of work faculty are doing results from a complex negotiation between their own interests and expertise and the needs and demands they perceive from their students, disciplines, academic units and institutions. But we propose that faculty work be regarded first in the context of both the academic unit and the larger institutional mission.

1. Institutions and their faculty must inventory and evaluate the range of faculty tasks needed to meet their mission.

The starting point in defining faculty work is to prioritize those tasks that are central to the mission of the institution and the needs of the students it serves. Together, faculty, administrators and staff delineate the disciplinary demands of the curriculum, the responsibilities of institutional citizenship, and the appropriate connections to forge with local and national communities. The range of these tasks can then be aligned with the expertise and interests of both particular units and their

individual faculty members. Thus the goals and priorities of the institution, the unit, and the individual are clearly connected.

2. Academic units and their faculty must together define the collective work of each unit, work for which faculty within the unit agree to be held both individually and collectively responsible.

Collective work is not the same as aggregate work. The work of an academic unit is more than than the sum total of what its faculty do; it is a negotiated understanding of how the unit as a whole fits within the larger mission of the institution. This process is not simple. Many of our mission statements are decidedly fuzzy and difficult to translate into clear priorities. So, too, our strategic plans are often ambitious but only vaguely articulate the everyday work of the faculty. The better faculty, administrators and staff can jointly articulate a compelling mission and a pragmatic strategic plan for their institution that connects to the actual work that faculty do, the more successfully individual units and faculty can bring their own agendas into alignment. At the same time, there needs to be sufficient flexibility and openness to meet changing student needs and to take advantage of unforeseen opportunities. Perhaps the most challenging piece of this process is not deciding what work is valuable and should be done but rather letting go of tasks that are compelling but not currently central priorities.

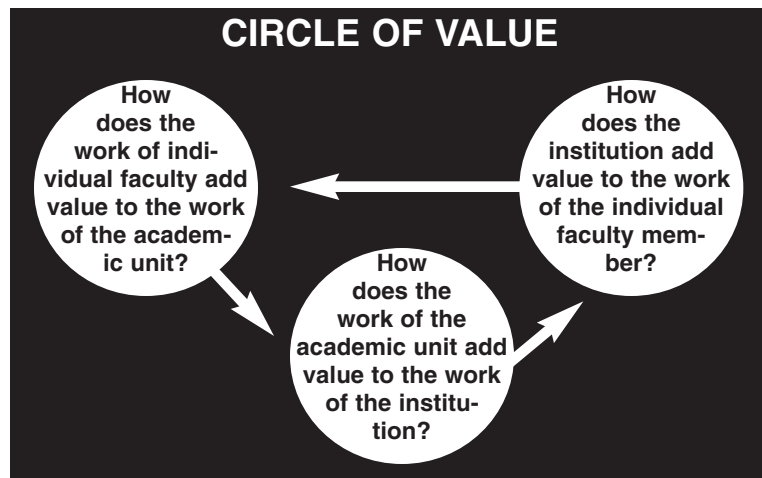
Much of the work that faculty do is highly individualized and idiosyncratic. We operate independently in our research and in our classrooms. We highly prize our autonomy and academic freedom, as well we should. At the same time, faculty work becomes meaningful only in the context of a wider academic community. Our discoveries and applications build on and connect to the intellectual work of others. Our classes are a part of a larger curriculum that structures and enhances the learning of our students. Working collaboratively to increase work differentiation should not negate autonomy. Indeed, it could even enhance it.

After participating in and understanding the institution-wide discussions of mission and strategic planning, faculty within units identify which pieces of this larger mission and plan will shape their particular unit's goals. They articulate the ways they will work together, taking on collective responsibility for the outcome of their work. Thus, individual responsibility becomes intertwined with collective responsibility at the unit level.

What is the nature of the relationships between faculty and their institution?

The various roles of those in the institution all contribute to the health of that institution, and greater synchrony among those

roles, i.e., with fewer gaps and redundancies, will mean a healthier institution, with a concomitant increase in satisfaction among the members. Thus understanding and clarifying the various roles, contributions and relationships among institutional members is essential. We propose that the nature of these relationships should comprise a circle of adding value, such that participants (or groups of participants) not only strive to find meaning, satisfaction and efficacy in their own work but also add value to or enhance the work of others. Adding value means enabling or contributing to the work of others. Thus individual faculty structure their particular work experiences to pursue their specific interests, skills and talents but in the context of identifying the ways in which their work adds value to that of the academic unit to which they belong. Similarly the work of the unit, as a collective, must add value to the work of the institution. Finally, to complete this circle, the institution must also add value to the work of the faculty. In other words, the institution has a responsibility to identify the ways in which the work of the institution adds value to the work of individual faculty. Thus, it becomes the obligation of each institutional member (and of the institution as a whole) to add value or contribute to the collective.



This circle of value should not be viewed as a closed system. There are additional relationships within the circle; for example, institutions add value to units as well as to individual faculty. Each component draws energy from outside the circle as well. Faculty collaborate with students, faculty in other units and colleagues in their discipline at other institutions. Units interact with other units and with community-based organizations. Finally, participation in a consortium brings new ideas to an institution. Nevertheless, this circle of value represents the core relationships that will lead to healthier institutions with faculty, administrators and staff who find their work more meaningful, satisfying and effective. In the next sections, we

describe the components essential to answer our circle of value question: How does each add value to the other?

1. How does the work of the individual faculty member add value to the work of the academic unit?

a. Each faculty member should have a “home” academic unit, though they may work in more than one academic unit. The home unit serves as the primary source for feedback and advocacy for its individual faculty members.

As stated above, differentiating faculty workloads must be done in a collaborative context. Individual faculty need to be part of a specific team – a group small enough for regular face-

Faculty within the unit need to understand how their efforts contribute to the mission of the institution.

to-face interactions to take place but large enough to accommodate significant differences in work duties flexibly. An individual faculty member would receive feedback and peer evaluation within a home unit, and it is to this unit that a faculty member would first turn to work out problems as well. But no matter how rooted a faculty member is in a particular unit – even within a traditional department structure – the realities of interdisciplinary curricula and institutional citizenship necessitate that most faculty members will take on some roles outside of their home unit. Traditional departments immediately come to mind as a natural starting point for defining home units. But for many ANAC institutions, departments are not large enough units to accommodate workload differentiation and our emphasis on interdisciplinary collaboration should encourage us to think creatively about academic structures.

One could argue for a model in which faculty belong to and negotiate with multiple units for various percentages of their workload. Such a model could work. But too often faculty are left with percentages of responsibilities that add up to more than 100 percent, spotty feedback, and little direction in setting priorities among competing unit demands. Our recommendation of creating a home unit recognizes the importance of having a consistent group of peers with whom to collaborate and from which to draw feedback and support.

b. The faculty of these academic units need to define their unit’s work in such a way that it connects the interest and expertise of the faculty to the mission of the institution and the work of other units.

The greatest drawback of focusing on academic units as the primary site for faculty collaboration is the fear that individual departments will simply become even more introspective and engage in competitive fief building. Such is already the case in many institutions, and we are not proposing to strengthen the walls that divide disciplines. Rather, the academic unit needs to be the conduit through which individual faculty work connects to the larger work of the institution. In working together to identify all the work of the unit, faculty have the opportunity to match individual interest and expertise to the priorities delineated in an institution-wide discussion of faculty work. Faculty within the unit need to understand how their efforts contribute to the mission of the institution.

Part of the value that individual faculty members add to a unit is their ability to make connections to the work of other units and the institution as a whole. One faculty member’s class contributes not only to a particular disciplinary major and minor but also to the curricula of general education, of related fields, of interdisciplinary programs. One unit’s co-curricular planning – for speakers, workshops, field trips – joins with that of other units to create a complementary series of programs. The community outreach project of faculty in one unit collaboratively builds on the endeavors of faculty in other units. One faculty member’s participation in a university-wide committee gives voice to the concerns of several related units. All units need to demonstrate how the work of their members interacts with and contributes to the work of other faculty and units.

c. Faculty members within home units collaboratively establish individual work plans for fixed lengths of time differentiated according to how individual talents and interests best add value to the work of the unit. These plans should include clear outcomes on which the faculty member will be evaluated. Assessment, in turn, should reflect individual differential contributions to the work of the unit.

Once a unit has set its goals and defined the work it needs to accomplish, the next step is to decide collaboratively which individuals will take on specific tasks. The goal is to find the best match between individual talents and interests and the work at hand. The result should be an individualized work plan for each faculty member. Institutions will have to decide just how differentiated such work plans can be. Some parameters may be set on a campus-wide or unit-wide basis, i.e., the minimum percentage of time faculty must devote to service, the maximum an individual may devote to research, and so on. Some parameters might be set by the contract status or career stage of a particular faculty member. Probationary faculty might need to attend more to teaching and research than citizenship;

faculty on part-time or visiting contracts might have limited student advising or service commitments. However, the greater the flexibility given to the faculty of a unit to negotiate their plans collaboratively, the more creative possibilities that can be generated. We could encourage institutions to minimize boundaries and maximize flexibility. One size does not have to fit all units any more than all individual faculty.

Work plans need to be tied to a particular time frame in order to recognize the evolving work of faculty. Both student needs and faculty skills change over time. Curricular, research and service projects all have patterns of intense and less intense effort that work plans should reflect. And there will always be unit responsibilities considered less onerous to all that will need to be rotated as a matter of equity. So, too, work plans need to include clear outcomes that connect to individual evaluation – otherwise these plans become just another layer of meaningless paperwork. At the same time, work plans facilitate faculty involvement at all levels of creating, evaluating and rewarding differentiated work. Individual faculty establish and evaluate their own differentiated work plans, review other faculty work plans in their unit, and review and reward work plans as members of tenure and promotion committees. However, faculty need to recognize that a work plan does not guarantee successful evaluation. Work plans set boundaries and priorities for evaluation and indicate types of evidence that demonstrate quality work. Nevertheless, some individuals will be more successful in carrying out their work plans than others, and evaluations need to reflect this.

2. How does the work of the academic unit add value to the work of the institution?

a. Units should negotiate a set of expectations relating to how the unit is to add value to the larger school and/or institutional mission, with the understanding that units will add value to that mission in different ways.

Currently in most institutions the only quantifiable measure of faculty workload is tied to student credit hours. This measure has become the common coin of the realm in weighing both individual and unit productivity. Its limited ability to capture the spectrum of faculty work, even in the area of teaching, is recognized. As a result, complex formulas have been created to try to accommodate differences between lab and lecture, lecture and seminar, internship and practicum, independent research and private music lessons, with added variants to credit new pedagogical approaches that are writing intensive, technology intensive, and/or asynchronous. Other formulas are added on for “released” or “assigned” time in an attempt to incorporate work on research or service projects

within a single metric. Unfortunately, student credit hour data, no matter how creatively crunched, reveals very little about how faculty work adds value to the missions of our institutions.

This system does have certain advantages. It does place teaching and students at the center of the enterprise – even if it only measures the input of “seat time” rather than the outcome of student learning. Student credit hours generated also tie nicely to accounting systems for resource allocation – even if it chronically undervalues individualized, time-intensive faculty-student interactions that many mission statements tout as a central institutional value. It also gives lip service to “fairness” in measuring value across units and institutions – even as it discourages innovation and diversity.

We have not come up with a radical new system to replace the current credit hour measure. Rather, we encourage institutions to recognize the limitations of the existing system and to move toward creating other ways to recognize the diversity of value that individual units add to the mission of the institution.

The goal is to find the best match between individual talents and interests and the work at hand.

The work both inside and outside the classroom of musicians, historians, biologists and physical therapists within the units to which they belong adds value to the institution in their diversity. A public recital, a published monograph, a joint student-faculty research presentation, a successful service learning/community outreach program all defy measurement in “calculated student credit hours,” but all are outcomes that demonstrate valuable contributions to institutional mission. Just as differentiation can happen among individual faculty, so too can it be recognized and encouraged among individual units. But the caveat of collaboration still holds. Unit contributions must clearly connect to the mission of the institution.

b. Units should be held responsible for engaging in self-assessment, based upon student learning, and for making constructive changes based upon these assessments. For its part, the institution is responsible for supporting, recognizing and rewarding academic units that can demonstrate success in carrying out their work.

One way to begin to create new measures of value is for units to reflect critically on and assess their work on a regular basis. This assessment should lead to constructive change. The actual tasks examined and the measures used to perform should vary depending on the unit involved. However, one criterion that crosses all units is the imperative to enhance student

learning. Another is for the assessment to lead to meaningful change and improvement. Most institutions already have some cycle of unit reviews – often connected to outside accrediting agencies. However, the impact of such reviews is often limited and not connected to institutional rewards or other review cycles.

Meaningful unit evaluation is a key piece of directing individual work differentiation toward institutional mission.

If faculty feel valued by the institution, they will be more invested in the institution's health, potential and future growth.

Support, recognition and reward for unit success need to be embedded in the regular life of our institutions. It should affect allocation of resources as well as symbolic tokens of status and esteem. Moreover, cycles of planning, reporting, and evaluation for individuals and academic units should interconnect and build on each other. The interdependence of differentiated workload for individual faculty members and collaboration on the unit level necessitate that these cycles be brought into alignment.

c. Units should nurture the development of faculty leadership, particularly the ability to negotiate group values.

Working in a collaborative unit requires that everyone become more skilled in negotiation and compromise. Faculty within the unit articulate together the common mission and goals of the unit and how their individual work contributes to this larger whole. Leaders facilitate useful discussion, mediate conflict and build consensus. They collaborate with the leaders of other units as well and connect the work of their unit to the mission and goals of the larger institution. The acquisition of such skills by all faculty and in particular those who serve as leaders should not be left to chance. Opportunities to learn and enhance necessary skills should be a regular part of orientation, mentoring and faculty development.

3. How does the institution add value to the work of the individual faculty member?

a. Institutions must provide resources appropriate for the work expected of faculty and foster a climate of support for risk-taking and innovation that furthers institutional mission.

Before institutions can add value to the work of the individual faculty member, they must first accept the “circle of value” as the fundamental concept that defines the relationship between faculty and their institutions. Institutions add value to

faculty members by recognizing that faculty need varies forms of support, action and reward. If faculty feel valued by the institution, they will be more invested in the institution's health, potential and future growth. Institutional support for faculty work adds value not only to the faculty member's work but also to the academic unit and ultimately to the institution. Support is also provided through institutional infrastructures, and such concrete entities as facilities that provide an environment that fosters a culture in which faculty work is valued.

To nurture this supportive environment and to encourage faculty to explore innovative work, the institution must articulate its values and identify supportive mechanisms, establish accountability measures through which faculty work can be evaluated, and provide appropriate professional and financial support and rewards. Underlying institutional support for various aspects of faculty work must demonstrate a constancy of purpose in which consistency and commitment to act are givens. As faculty plan and commit to their work, the product enhances and adds value to the mission and work of the academic unit. By committing to continued support of the work of both the faculty member and the academic unit, the institution takes ownership and responsibility for the circle of value and its effectiveness. While the work of the faculty and the academic unit energize the process of adding value, it is institutional commitment and support that reinforce this effort and guarantee its success.

b. Promotion and tenure standards and other faculty reward systems should reflect institutional values and respect the diversity of faculty work.

As the first phase of the ANAC Faculty Work Project demonstrated so clearly, the espoused values of the institution are often not reflected in the ways in which faculty work is recognized and rewarded. Rhetoric is often incongruent with practice. If the “one size fits all” culture is to change, the faculty reward systems *in use* must change first. Standards for the evaluation of faculty work will have to shift from a focus on individual accomplishment based on *merit* (work intrinsically valued by the individual) to accomplishment based on *worth* (the individual's contribution to the unit and to the university. While the institution may have common academic standards to which faculty in all units are expected to adhere, academic units will define and implement these standards differently. Especially challenging will be decisions about tenure. Traditionally, junior faculty are expected to show excellence in teaching, scholarship and service. Institutions will need to decide whether differentiation of work should extend to tenure-track assistant professors, or whether they should be expected to demonstrate compe-

tence in all three areas before they are free to focus their energies in different ways.

One of the most important non-monetary ways that institutions can reward faculty is to respect and act upon the results of faculty work that contribute to the health and vitality of the institution. Too often, faculty serve on committees that spend valuable faculty time defining problems and proposing solutions only to discover that their recommendations have no real input in institutional decisions. Any number of scenarios are possible: either the decisions have already been made by the administration, or no resources are available to implement the new initiatives, or no one is willing to risk changes to the current institutional structure. Before faculty undertake a task, individually or jointly, they need to be empowered by the institution to address specific problems and they need to know that their recommendations will be acted upon by the administration. Institutions have an obligation to empower faculty to make decisions and then honor those decisions once they are made.

This central obligation by the institution must also extend beyond the faculty role in traditional institutional governance. Faculty regularly contribute to their institutions through teaching and scholarship, through collaboration with their colleagues within and outside of academic units, and by serving the broader community within which the institution is situated. All too often, these vital contributions go unrecognized because they fall outside faculty committees, the traditional conduit by which faculty shape the institution. These other forms of faculty work, however, strengthen and enrich the institution by making it more visible and more of an integrated whole. Institutions have an obligation to create opportunities for faculty to invest in the institution in these ways and then to act upon the results of faculty contributions that create a healthier, more vital institution.

c. Institutions should support faculty exploration of new career trajectories and renegotiate their work responsibilities accordingly.

Differentiating faculty workload needs to accommodate change over time. Faculty will take on different tasks at different stages of their careers. New opportunities for research and service projects will arise, curricular innovations and changes will be required, and new institutional needs will emerge. Institutions must give faculty the opportunity to acquire new skills to meet new challenges and explore new possibilities. Tenure alone should motivate institutions to invest and reinvest in individual faculty so as to assure their continued engagement and productivity in projects that further institutional mission. The shape of such explorations and support will vary consider-

ably by discipline, experience, career stage, and individual skills and interest. But such opportunities represent the concrete ways in which the institution continually renews its compact with its faculty.

Conclusion

What we offer here may seem to be a utopian dream: individualized faculty work plans, collaborative units, institutional support, all adding value to the other and directed toward fulfilling a joint mission to enhance student learning. In the real world, however, the layering on of faculty responsibilities, competition between units, and “one size fits all” institutional policy-making are impeding our ability to consistently connect what faculty actually do to our mission to serve students. It is time then to re-envision the relationship between faculty and their institutions in ways that will lead to greater satisfaction, productivity, flexibility and focus on mission. The schema outlined above allows individual faculty a greater degree of autonomy in shaping their work to fit their individual interests and talents. At the same time it increases the collaboration of faculty within and among academic units – the primary places where individual faculty connect their work with that of the larger academic community to which they belong. Finally, it enhances the institution’s ability to align both individual faculty and unit work with its mission in ways that allow for ongoing change and flexibility in meeting the needs of our students.

Standards for evaluation of faculty work will have to shift from a focus on individual accomplishment based on *merit* (work intrinsically valued by the individual) to accomplishment based on *worth* (the individual’s contribution to the unit and to the university).

What our project has done is to define faculty work in ways that are more representative of what faculty actually do. It has developed a process for identifying what we really do; it helps institutions recognize and value faculty work in ways that are beneficial to both faculty and their institutions; and it proposes concepts and structures for faculty to work with greater satisfaction as individuals and as collaborative team members.

③

Administrators at ACEJMC-Accredited Broadcasting Programs

Who are they?

ED APPLGATE

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DIRECTORS, ASSISTANT DIRECTORS, CHAIRS AND HEADS of 76 ACEJMC-accredited broadcasting programs were surveyed in the fall of 1999. Almost 70% of the respondents representing more than 72% of the programs returned the questionnaire. The typical director, assistant director, chair and/or head is a white male with a Ph.D., heading an administrative unit that has between 200 and 700 undergraduate majors and a faculty of almost 20 members. Although 13 (22.8%) of the respondents had the master's degree as their highest degree, they had more years of professional media experience than those with a doctoral degree.

The authors wish to thank Dr. Robert O. Wyatt, director, Office of Mass Communication Research, Middle Tennessee State University.

Many faculty who teach in ACEJMC-accredited broadcasting programs are not aware of the educational and professional background of their directors, assistant directors, chairs and/or heads, unless they served on the hiring committees and had direct access to these administrators' resumes. Yet, faculty should be interested in the backgrounds of these individuals because these individuals are asked by deans and vice presidents to evaluate faculty.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The authors of this study presumed that such information had been reported in one or more studies, especially those that had been sponsored in full or in part by ASJMC or by AEJMC. However, most studies have focused exclusively on faculty.

For instance, David Riffe, Kandice Salomone and Guido H. Stempel III (January 1999) presented demographic information about members of AEJMC. The authors learned that more women and minorities are among current faculty than among retired faculty. They also learned that the trend in teaching is shifting from news-editorial to mass communication. They also learned that faculty spend more time on teaching than on research.

Fred Fedler, Tim Counts, Arlen Carey and Maria Cristina Santana (Spring 1998) found that the majority (53.4%) of those teaching in skills areas (reporting/editing, advertising/public relations and radio/television) had 11 or more years of professional experience. They also found that faculty members who taught reporting/editing were least likely to have Ph.D.s and least likely to publish refereed articles.

C.A. Tuggle and Don Sneed (Spring 1998) discussed the teaching and/or professional experience of faculty. The authors learned that the majority (61%) of their respondents had been teaching for

more than 10 years. They also learned that all of the respondents had a doctorate and at least five years of professional media experience.

Studies that have focused on administrators failed to provide a comprehensive picture of directors, assistant directors, chairs or heads of ACEJMC-accredited broadcasting programs. For instance, Alexis Tan (Spring 1991) discussed administrators' perceptions of journalism and mass communication programs in the United States. Tan found that university and college administrators generally evaluate their journalism/mass communication units less favorably when compared to other departments in their universities or colleges, particularly on research/scholarship criteria, indicating that the journalism/mass communication faculty do not secure as many grants for research or conduct as much research as other faculty.

Elnora W. Stuart and Elizabeth B. Dickey (Summer 1991) reported the average salaries of faculty and administrators. They learned that salaries increased for higher ranks, male faculty, and for faculty with doctorates. Salaries are also higher for faculty who teach news or public relations. Salaries are lowest for faculty who teach broadcasting. Stuart and Dickey did not provide demographic information about administrators.

Taken together, these studies identify variables that are important to any study of administrators' qualifications, such as age, professional experience, educational experience and degrees, yet none of the studies provide a complete picture of administrators or their academic units.

PURPOSE

The purpose of this study is to provide demographic, professional and educational information about directors, assistant directors, chairs and heads who

manage ACEJMC-accredited broadcasting programs, in an effort to provide a complete profile of these individuals. A second purpose is to cast some light on the individuals who are often required to evaluate faculty in their respective schools or departments. This information should be useful as a description of the current status and as a benchmark against which to compare the results of future studies. This study was guided by the following research questions:

1. How many years has the administrator served in her/his current position?
2. What is the administrator's gender and ethnicity?
3. What is the administrator's academic rank?
4. How many years has the administrator served in all administrative positions?
5. What undergraduate and graduate degrees does the administrator have?
6. How many years has the administrator worked full time in professional media (advertising agencies, broadcasting stations, newspapers, public relations agencies, etc.)?
7. How many years has the administrator worked full time in higher education (administration and/or teaching)?
8. Has the administrator's research productivity been impacted by her/his current position's responsibilities?
9. What is the size (number of full-time faculty and students) of the administrator's academic unit?
10. What is the size of the administrator's university?

METHOD

In the fall of 1999, the authors mailed a one-page questionnaire to every administrator who managed an ACEJMC-accredited broadcasting program. The names of the programs and administra-

tors were selected from several sources, including *Journalism and Mass Communication Accreditation: 1999-2000 (ACEJMC)* and the *Journalism & Mass Communication Director: 1999-2000*. The authors enclosed a self-addressed, stamped envelope with each coded questionnaire, for the respondent's convenience.

The questionnaire asked for the title of each respondent's current administrative position, the names of each respondent's academic unit, and the number of years each respondent had worked in the current administrative position. Additional questions concerned administrative, media and higher education experience; gender; ethnicity; academic rank; undergraduate and graduate degrees earned; research productivity; and number of majors, faculty and students who graduate annually in the respondent's unit; as well as the full time enrollment at the respondent's college or university.

RESULTS

Of the 82 directors, assistant directors, chairs and/or heads at the 76 ACEJMC-accredited programs who were mailed questionnaires, 57 (69.5%) returned them. These respondents represented 55 (72.4%) of the 76 programs.

TABLE 3
Degrees of Respondents

Degrees	No./Undergrad Respondents*
B.A.	36
B.S.	16
B.J.	5
B.B.A.	1
No Response.....	1

* One respondent had two B.S. degrees, while one had the B.A. and the B.J.

Degrees	No./Grad Respondents**
M.A.	34
M.S.	17
M.S.J.	3
M.J.	2
M.B.A.	2
Other.....	4

** One respondent had the M.S. and the M.B.A., one had two M.S. degrees, one had the M.A. and the M.S., one had the M.A. and the M.F.A., and one had the M.S. and the M.S.J.

Degrees	No./Grad Respondents***
Ph.D.	36
Ed.D.	5
J.D.	3
M.D.	1
Ed.S.	1
No Response.....	13

*** One respondent had the Ed.D. and the J.D., while one had the Ph.D. and the J.D.

ALL DEGREES INCLUDED IN TABLE 3

the 57 who responded, 45 (78.9%) were chairs or heads of departments. (See Table 1.)

Most (41 or 71.9%) of the 57 respondents have served in their current administrative position less than five years, while 10 (17.5%) have served less than 10 years. Six (10.5%) have served less than 15 years.

Of the 57 respondents, 22 (38.6%) had served less than five years in all educational administrative positions held. Fifteen (26.3%) had served less than 10 years, while 15 (26.3%) had served less than 15 years. Two (3.5%) had served less than 20 years. One (1.8%) had served less than 25 years, and two (3.5%) had served less than 30 years.

Males occupied these positions more than two to one. Indeed, 39 (68.4%) of the 57 respondents were male, while 18 (31.6%) were female. Most were Caucasian; only five were African American. One (1.8%) was an Asian American. Three (5.3%) did not respond to the ethnic question. (See Table 2.)

The majority (30 or 52.6%) of the 57 respondents were full professors, while 23 (40.4%) were associate professors. Only four (7.0%) were assistant professors.

TABLE 1
Current Administrative Position

Title	Number	Percent
Director	8	14.0
Associate/Assistant Director	4	7.0
Department Chair/Head	45	78.9

TABLE 2
Ethnicity of Respondents

Ethnicity	Number	Percent
Caucasion	48	84.2
African American	5	8.8
Asian American	1	1.8
No response	3	5.3

TABLE 4
Directors, Assistant Directors, Chairs and/or Heads With a Master's Degree as Their Highest Degree

Degree	Position	Years in Position	Years of Professional Media Experience	Years of Higher Education Experience
M.Ed.	Director	13.00	26-30	11-15
M.S.	Chair	11.00	11-15	26-30
M.S.	Director	10.00	11-15	30-plus
M.A.	Head	10.00	6-10	21-25
M.A.	Director	5.00	16-20	16-20
M.A.	Chair	5.00	0-5	16-20
M.A.	Chair	5.00	6-10	30-plus
M.A.	Chair	4.00	16-20	11-15
M.A.	Chair	4.00	6-10	16-20
M.B.A.	Asst. Dir.	2.00	21-25	6-10
M.A.	Chair	1.00	16-20	0-5
M.S.	Chair	0.50	6-10	11-15
M.A.	Asst. Dir.	0.17	0-5	11-15

Thirty-six (63.2%) of the respondents had the B.A. degree, while 16 (26.3%) had the B.S. degree. Six (10.5%) had earned other bachelor's degrees, such as the B.J. or the B.B.A. One (1.8%)

did not respond to the question. (See Table 3.)

Thirteen (22.8%) of the respondents indicated that their highest graduate degree was the master's. Of these, eight

(61.5%) had the M.A., three (23.0%) had the M.S., one (7.7%) had the M.B.A., and one (7.7%) had the M.Ed.

Forty (70.2%) of the respondents indicated that the major of their highest degree was in an area of communications, while 17 (29.8%) indicated that it was outside of communications. Seven (12.3%) of the respondents indicated that the minor of their highest degree was in an area of communications, while 11 (19.3%) indicated that it was outside of communications. However, 39 (68.4%) did not respond to the question.

Thirty-one (54.4%) had majored in an area of communications at the undergraduate level, while 25 (43.9%) had not. One (1.8%) did not respond to the question. Five (8.8%) had minored in an area of communications, while 28 (49.1%) had not. Twenty-four (42.1%) did not respond to the question.

Three (23.1%) of the 13 respondents whose highest degree was the master's served as directors of schools, two (15.4%) served as assistant directors of schools, seven (53.8%) served as chairs of departments, and one (7.7%) served as a head of a department. Those serving as directors had been in the position a minimum of five years. Those serving as assistant directors had been in the position a minimum of two months. Those serving as chairs had been in the position a minimum of six months, and the one serving as a head had been in the position a minimum of 10 years. The three directors had a minimum of 11 years of educational administrative experience; the two assistant directors had a minimum of six years. Six of the seven chairs had a minimum of 11 years of educational administrative experience. The head had a minimum of 21 years. (See Table 4.)

One (2.27%) of the 44 respondents had a specialist degree and was a chair of a department. Five (11.36%) had the Ed.D., and one of these also had a J.D.

TABLE 5
Directors, Assistant Directors, Chairs and/or Heads
With a Specialist or Doctorate as Their Highest Degree

Degree	Position	Years in Position	Years of Professional Media Experience	Years of Higher Education Experience
Ph.D.	Head	14.00	0-5	30-plus
Ph.D.	Chair	13.00	0-5	30-plus
Ph.D.	Head	12.00	11-15	21-25
Ph.D.	Chair	11.00	16-20	11-15
J.D.	Director	10.00	16-20	21-25
Ph.D.	Chair	10.00	0-5	16-20
Ph.D.	Chair	9.00	6-10	30-plus
Ed.D.	Assoc. Dir.	8.00	0-5	30-plus
Ph.D.	Head	8.00	0-5	21-25
Ph.D.	Chair	7.50	6-10	11-15
Ph.D.	Prof. in charge	7.00	6-10	16-20
Ed.D.	Chair	6.00	21-25	6-10
Ph.D.	Director	5.00	16-20	11-15
Ed.D.	Chair	5.00	16-20	0-5
Ph.D.	Head	5.00	0-5	26-30
Ph.D.	Chair	5.00	0-5	21-25
Ph.D.	Chair	4.00	0-5	6-10
Ph.D.	Chair	3.50	6-10	30-plus
Ph.D.	Director	3.00	11-15	26-30
Ed.D./J.D.	Chair	3.00	1-15	16-20
Ph.D.	Chair	3.00	11-15	11-15
Ph.D.	Chair	3.00	0-5	26-30
Ph.D.	Director	3.00	0-5	16-20
Ph.D./J.D.	Chair	3.00	0-5	11-15
Ph.D.	Chair	2.50	0-5	11-15
Ph.D.	Chair	2.25	0-5	16-20
Ph.D.	Chair	2.00	21-25	6-10
Ph.D.	Chair	2.00	16-20	11-15
Ph.D.	Chair	2.00	6-10	16-20
Ph.D.	Head	2.00	6-10	6-10
Ph.D.	Chair	2.00	0-5	30-plus
Ph.D.	Chair	2.00	0-5	26-30
Ph.D.	Chair	1.50	6-10	11-15
Ph.D.	Director	1.50	0-5	21-25
Ph.D.	Head	1.50	0-5	6-10
Ph.D.	Head	1.00	16-20	16-20
Ed.D.	Chair	1.00	6-10	21-25
Ph.D.	Director	1.00	6-10	16-20
Ph.D.	Asst. Dir.	1.00	6-10	11-15
Ph.D.	Chair	0.50	0-5	11-15
Ed.S.	Chair	0.25	0-5	26-30
M.D.	Head	0.08	0-5	16-20
Ph.D.	Chair	0.00	0-5	16-20

Four of these served as chairs of departments, while one served as an associate director.

One (2.27%) of the 44 respondents had an M.D. and served as an interim head of a department, while another (2.27%) had a J.D. and served as a director of a school.

Thirty-six (81.8%) of the 44 respondents had the Ph.D. One respondent who had the Ph.D. also had a J.D. Twenty-two of these respondents were chairs of departments, seven were heads of departments, five were directors of schools, one was an assistant director,

while one was the professor in charge of a department.

The six directors had served an average of 3.9 years in their position, while the one associate director had served eight years, and the one assistant director had served one year. The 27 chairs had served an average of 3.9 years in their position, while the eight heads had served an average of 5.4 years, and the one professor in charge had served seven years.

The directors had a minimum of 11-15 years of educational administrative experience, while the one associate director had 30 years, and the one assistant director had 11 years. The chairs had a minimum of 0-5 years, while the heads had 6-10 years. The one professor in charge had 16-20 years. (See Table 5.)

Among those holding the Ed.D., three indicated that their research productivity had decreased while serving in an administrative position, while two claimed that it had stayed the same.

The respondent with the M.D. indicated that research productivity had decreased, while the respondent with the J.D. claimed that it had stayed the same. The respondent with the Ed.S. indicated that it had decreased.

Among those holding the Ph.D., 28 indicated that their research productivity had decreased while serving in an administrative position. Six claimed that it had stayed about the same, while one indicated that it had increased. One did not respond to the question. (See Table 6.)

Those whose highest degree was the master's degree were in charge of programs that had from under 100 to 1,000 majors and from under 10 to a maximum of 40 faculty. The number of students who graduate annually from these programs ranged from under 25 to more than 100, and the programs were housed in institutions that had overall enrollments from 1,650 to 30,000.

Those whose highest degree was the doctorate were in charge of programs that had from under 100 to more than 1,000 majors and from under 10 to a maximum of 30 faculty. The number of students who graduate annually from these programs ranged from under 25 to more than 100, and the programs were housed in institutions that had overall enrollments from 5,000 to 43,000. (See Tables 7, 8, 9 and 10.)

Three whose highest degree was the master's had earned the degree from the University of Missouri-Columbia. The others had earned their master's degrees from Pennsylvania State University, Xavier University (Cincinnati, Ohio), University of Kansas, University of Illinois, University of Iowa, Boston University, Michigan State University, New York University, University of North Carolina-Chapel Hill and Florida Atlantic University.

Two whose highest degree was the Ed.D. had earned the degree at Texas A&M University. The others had earned their degrees at Boston University, West Virginia University and the University of Tennessee.

The respondent with the M.D. had earned the degree at Johns Hopkins University. The respondent with the J.D. had earned the degree at Lincoln University. The respondent with the Ed.S. had earned the degree at Kansas State University.

Four whose highest degree was the Ph.D. had earned the degree at the University of Texas-Austin. While four had earned their degrees from Ohio State University. Three had earned their degrees from the University of Iowa, and three had earned their degrees from the University of Minnesota. Two had earned their degrees from the University of Wisconsin, two had earned their degrees from Florida State University, and two had earned their degrees from Ohio

TABLE 6
Research Productivity
of Respondents
after becoming Administrators

Response	Number	Percent
Increased	4	7.0
Stayed/Same	14	24.6
Decreased	37	64.9
No response	2	3.5

TABLE 7
Number of Majors
in ACEJMC-accredited
Broadcasting Programs

No. of Majors	No. of Programs	Percent
1-100	3	5.3
101-200	9	15.8
201-400	23	40.4
401-700	11	19.3
701-1,000	9	15.8
1,000-plus	1	1.8
No response	1	1.8

TABLE 8
Number of Faculty
in ACEJMC-accredited
Broadcasting Programs

No. of Faculty	No. of Programs	Percent
1-10	19	33.3
11-20	26	45.6
21-30	10	17.5
31-40	1	1.8
No response	1	1.8

University. The others had earned their degrees from University of California-Los Angeles, University of Florida, University of Western Ontario, Southern Mississippi University, University of Pennsylvania, Louisiana State University, Indiana University, Temple University, University of Colorado, Southern Illinois University-Carbondale, University of North Texas, Texas A&M University, American University, University of Massachusetts and the University of Missouri. One did not respond to the question.

CONCLUSION

Based on the results of the survey, the typical director, assistant director, chair or head is a white male with Bachelor of Arts, Master of Arts and Doctor of Philosophy degrees. His undergraduate and Ph.D. are in a field of communications. The prototypical administrator has been in his current position for four to five years but has been in higher education more than 10 years (48 of 59 respondents, or 84.2%).

The administrative unit has between 200 and 700 undergraduate majors and a faculty of 20 or fewer to teach them. Most (70%) of the programs graduate more than 50 students a year and are housed in universities with enrollments in excess of 15,000 students.

It is interesting to note that those respondents with the master's degree as

their final degree accounted for three out of nine (33.3%) of the directors, two out of four (50%) of the assistant directors, but only eight out of 45 (17.7%) of the chairs and heads. Furthermore, this group of 13 respondents had 11 (84.6%) with more than six years of professional media experience and seven (53.8%) with more than 10 years of professional media experience.

When comparing the above group holding master's degrees to the 36 respondents holding Ph.D.s, the administrators with doctorates had fewer years in the world of professional media. For instance, 28 (77.7%) had less than 10 years of professional media experience, while 19 (52.8%) had less than five years of professional media experience.

Perhaps some of the "winds of change" noted in Betty Medsger's 1996 critique of journalism education could be a reflection of the backgrounds of the department and school administrators. The trend seems to be toward an administrator with a doctorate and fewer years of professional media experience and away from an administrator with only a bachelor's or master's degree and more years of professional media experience, especially for those chairing or heading a department.

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TABLE 9
Number of Students Who Graduate Annually from ACEJMC-accredited Broadcasting Programs

No. of Faculty	No. of Programs	Percent
1-25	5	8.8
26-50	12	21.1
51-75	13	22.8
76-100	13	22.8
100-plus	14	24.6

TABLE 10
Total Full Time Student Enrollment at Respondents' Institutions

No. of Students	No. of Programs	Percent
1-5,000	2	3.5
5,001-10,000	13	22.8
10,001-15,000	7	12.3
15,001-20,000	10	17.5
20,001-25,000	7	12.3
25,000-plus	17	29.8
No response	1	1.8

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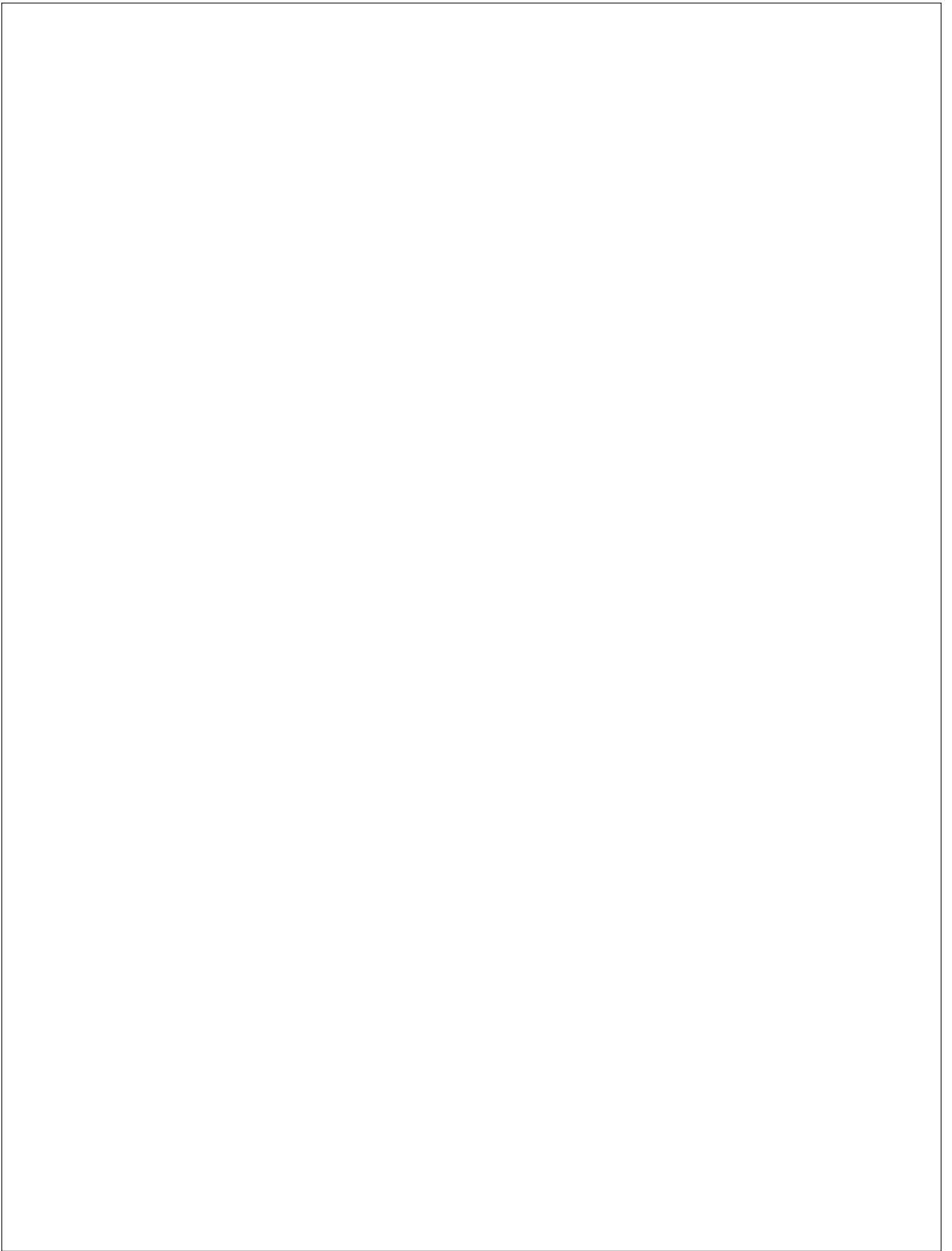
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Evaluating Academic Programs

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