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# A Comparison of Washington State Community College Faculty and Administrators' Opinions and Beliefs on Academic Freedom and Tenure

by

Michael J. Grubiak

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

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Abstract

A Comparison of Washington State Community College Faculty and Administrators' Opinions and Beliefs on Academic Freedom and Tenure

by

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Chairperson of the Supervisory Committee
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What people believe often guides their actions. Within higher education, beliefs about academic freedom and tenure may guide some of the behaviors of both administrators and faculty members. Role theory suggests that faculty members and administrators, because of their different roles within the institution, may have differing opinions, attitudes, and expectancies.

This study surveyed the attitudes and opinions about academic freedom and tenure of a sample of administrators and faculty in community colleges in Washington State. A self-administered mailed questionnaire was used. Results are described and comparisons are made between the responses of the two groups and between subsets of each group. Interaction effects of race/ethnicity and gender were analyzed. Differences between minorities and whites were examined as well as differences between females and males. Effects of current experience, total experience, age, and level of education were measured.

A factor analysis identified nine factors related to academic freedom and tenure: Importance and Impact, Understandability, Professional Autonomy, Classroom Autonomy, Dismissal for Wrongful Behavior, General Freedom of Speech, Dismissal for Cause, Student Rights, and Academic Speech.

The major research finding for this study suggests that the set of administrators with and without previous faculty experience disagree with the set of faculty members with and without previous administrator experience on factors related to the importance and im-

pact of academic freedom, professional autonomy, and classroom autonomy. This disagreement is similarly evident between administrators without previous faculty experience when compared with faculty without previous administrator experience.

Faculty members believe academic freedom and tenure are important principles while administrators do not believe they are. Faculty members believe they have rights that prevent administration from controlling curriculum, grades, and off-campus teaching and consultation activities while administrators do not believe faculty members have these rights. Faculty members believe they have rights that prevent administration from controlling teaching methods and grading polices while administrators do not believe faculty members have these rights.

No interaction effects for race/ethnicity or gender were found. Differences were noted between minorities and whites and between females and males. Current experience, total experience, age, and level of education may influence some responses.

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## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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Lastly, and with love, I thank my mother and father who taught me the value of education, and whose sacrifices enabled me to obtain the opportunity that education brings. I thank them for their love and support and for being there every step of the way.

## DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my bride of 27 years, Julia. It is her love that makes all things possible and gives meaning to all that I do. We did it together.

# CHAPTER 1

# INTRODUCTION

## Background

> The concept of academic freedom serves higher education well when the understanding of what the concept represents is consistent. However, when conflict clouds this understanding or when the concept starts to represent values that are not legally supportable and may even contradict the mission of the institution, the concept no longer serves its purpose.
>
> Jonathan D. Fife, (Poch, 1993 p. xv)

Academic freedom is a concept that is both easy and difficult to define. It is easy to define because, when asked, many college and university faculty and administrators are likely to claim to know exactly what it is and what it is not. It is difficult to define because each of these answers is likely to be different.

Some of these responses may be grounded in historical fact, others based upon legal precedent, and still others based upon AAUP documents. However, many answers may be based on myths, misunderstandings, half-truths, and much wishful thinking.

Tenure—a practice closely linked to the protection of academic freedom—similarly is victimized by a myriad of myths, unfounded beliefs, and general misconceptions. Indeed, within the rich folklore of college and university life, academic freedom and tenure provide the foundation for many tales.

Academic freedom and tenure are fundamental building blocks in the foundation of education. Olswang and Lee (1984, p. iii) stated "they are of special importance to the maintenance of the intellectual vitality and creativity of American colleges and universities." Poch (1993, p. 1) echoed this importance, "Academic freedom is one of the most valued components of higher education in the United States. Upon it rests the active discourse, critical debate, free exchange of ideas, and communication of values that characterize effective scholarship, teaching and learning."

Although many people consider academic freedom to be one of the cornerstones of American higher education, it is not a cornerstone without cracks. Some of these cracks are caused by the people whom academic freedom is supposed to protect. Participants at the October 1987 American Association of University Professors symposium held at the University of Texas School of Law suggested that "potential threats to academic freedom are coming more and more from faculty members themselves" (Mooney, 1987, p. A15). Mooney continued, "faculty members themselves often disagree on what should be protected by academic freedom, and may invoke it to accomplish contradicting goals" (p. A16) and "more faculty members are using the term 'academic freedom' as a catch-all way to protest everything from parking policies to trustees' decisions, obscuring legitimate violations" (p. A15).

These false claims create a very real problem for academe. As the boy who cried, "wolf" discovered, when legitimate threat appears, no one will listen.

## Significance of the Study

The problem is that academic freedom, and the related concept of tenure, mean different things to different people. Administrators and faculty have differing beliefs about academic freedom and tenure. Many of these beliefs are not grounded in fact (Valetta, 1993; Zito, 1993). Beliefs vary within these groups as well as between them (Ambrose, 1990; Newman 1986). However, there has been very limited study of the nature of this variance. Therefore, additional systematic study of the heterogeneity of beliefs about this subject may be fruitful. What do faculty believe? What is the variance in faculty beliefs? What do administrators believe? What is the variance in administrator beliefs? Do faculty and administrators believe differently from one another? If so, on which factors and how differently? Do variables such as gender, and race or ethnicity affect these beliefs? If so, in what ways?

Olswang and Lee (1984) stated that faculty and administrators either do not understand or are unwillingly to enforce the responsible exercise of academic freedom and tenure

among their colleagues. A better understanding of the concepts of academic freedom and tenure among faculty and administrators may lead to a more responsible exercise of these rights and practices. This in turn may lead to a stronger defense of academic freedom from both the internal and external forces which would weaken or destroy it.

## Major Research Questions

1. To what extent do administrators and faculty in Washington State community colleges differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?
2. Is there a two-way interaction effect of race/ethnicity with job category, i.e., administrator or faculty position?
3. Is there a two-way interaction effect of gender with job category, i.e., administrator or faculty position?
4. Is there a two-way interaction effect of race/ethnicity with gender?
5. Is there a three-way interaction effect of race/ethnicity with gender and with job category?

## Subsidiary Research Questions

6. To what extent do minorities and whites who are employed as administrators and faculty in Washington State community colleges differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?
7. To what extent do females and males who are employed as administrators and faculty in Washington State community colleges differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

## Definitions

Washington State community college: Any of the 27 public community colleges in the sovereign State of Washington operating under the auspices of the State Board for Community and Technical Colleges.

Administrator: Any full-time community college employee who self-identified as holding administrative rank and who therefore is presumed to hold an administrative contract and represents the Board of Trustees and the college president (CEO) in carrying out the management functions of the institution.

Faculty: Any full-time community college employee who self-identified as having tenure, or being on a tenure track, and is therefore presumed to be eligible to be a member of a faculty bargaining unit if one exists. In addition to classroom instructors, in the State of Washington tenured or tenure-track counselors and librarians are included in this definition.

## Dependent Variables

There are two groups of dependent variables. The first group is a set of 17 survey questions about academic freedom. The second group is a set of 12 survey questions about tenure. Each of these 29 individual questions is a separate dependent variable. Each dependent variable is in the form of a statement about academic freedom or tenure in which the respondents are asked to indicate their level or agreement or disagreement using a five point Likert-type scale.

## Independent Variables

1. Role status-job category, i.e., faculty or administrator:

Respondents were divided into either job category based upon their self-report.

Q30. Please check the best description of your current position?

- ❑ Full-time administrator
- ❑ Full-time tenured or tenure track faculty
- ❑ Full-time non-administrative exempt
- ❑ Other: Please specify _____

2. Previous role status as an administrator or faculty: A self-report of previous experience in a different role was applied to examine for some effects of previous history.

Q31. If you checked "full-time administrator" in Q30, have you ever been a full-time tenured faculty member at any institution of higher education?

- ❑ Yes
- ❑ No

Q32. If you checked "full-time tenured or tenure track faculty" in Q30, have you ever been a full-time administrator at any institution of higher education?

- ❑ Yes
- ❑ No

3. Time in current position at current institution: A self report of number of years in current position at current institution. Used to establish the minimum threshold for inclusion in the study.

Q33. How many years have you served in your current position at your current institution?

- ❑ less than 3 years
- ❑ 3 - 5 years
- ❑ 6 - 10 years
- ❑ 11 - 15 years
- ❑ 16 - 20 years
- ❑ 21 - 25 years
- ❑ more than 25 years

4. Experience: A self report of the number of years of full-time experience in higher education, by five-year categories, was applied to examine maturation factors due to experience.

Q34. How many total years administrative and/or tenured faculty experience do you have in all of your higher education?

- ❑ less than 3 years
- ❑ 3 - 5 years
- ❑ 6 - 10 years
- ❑ 11 - 15 years
- ❑ 16 - 20 years
- ❑ 21 - 25 years
- ❑ more than 25 years

5. Race or Ethnicity: A self report of race or ethnic heritage by five categories was applied to examine race or ethnicity as a factor: Native American: American Indian, Eskimo, Aleut, Alaskan; Asian/Pacific Islander; Black or African American; Latino Hispanic; White/Caucasian.

Q35. Please check the box that most closely matches how you define your racial or ethnic heritage.

- ❑ Native American: American Indian, Eskimo, Aleut, Alaskan
- ❑ Asian / Pacific Islander
- ❑ Black or African American
- ❑ Latino / Hispanic
- ❑ White/Caucasian

6. Gender: A self report of male or female was applied to divide administrators and faculty into respective subsets to examine gender as a factor.

Q36. Gender:

- ❑ Male
- ❑ Female

7. Age: A self report of age, by five-year categories, was applied to examine maturation factors due to age.

Q37. What is your age?

- ❑ 20-29
- ❑ 30-39
- ❑ 40-49
- ❑ 50-59
- ❑ 60 and over

8. Highest degree attained: To determine if the level of education might produce a history effect, faculty and administrators were asked to report their highest degree attained.

Q38. Highest degree held:

- ❑ Doctorate
- ❑ Masters
- ❑ Bachelors
- ❑ Associates

## Limitations of the Study

The limitations and weaknesses of the study may be viewed in two ways. One set of limitations comes from what the study is, the other set of limitations comes from what the study is not.

From one point of view the study has limitations and weaknesses because it is a simple cross sectional descriptive survey. From another point of view, however, it also has limitations and weaknesses because it is not a fully controlled scientific experiment.

As a survey, it suffers from the limits and weaknesses that are generally inherent in survey research conducted by questionnaire. Because it is not a true experiment, it also suffers from the weaknesses and limits of an experiment in which there is no pre-test or control group and in which subjects are not randomly assigned to each of the treatment groups, i.e., administrative group and faculty group.

### Limits as a Questionnaire

There are several limitations inherent in conducting surveys by self-administered questionnaire:

1. Misinterpretation of questions — Respondents may not assign the same meaning the researcher had in mind, nor may respondents assign the same meanings as each other to questionnaire items. The pretest phase is intended to minimize this effect.
2. Misinterpretation of responses — The researcher may not assign the same meaning to a given response as the respondent had in mind. There are no open response items to minimize this effect.

3. Cheating — There is no guarantee that whoever answers the questionnaire is the desired respondent to whom it is mailed. The salience of the topic and the professional status of the respondents may minimize this effect.
4. Response rate — A response rate of 70% is considered very good (Babbie, 1990) to minimize sampling bias. The response rate for the survey was 75%.

Limits as an Experiment

Experiments have both internal and external sources of invalidity.

Internal validity:

The internal validity of an experiment is the extent to which extraneous variables have been controlled by the researcher.

1. History — During the period of time prior to becoming employed at their present institution some respondents may have a set of experiences that are more influential than the set of experiences in being either a faculty member or administrator at their present institution. To control for the possible influence of previous experience, only respondents who have been employed for at least the three previous years at their current institution are included in the study. In addition respondents were asked to report their highest level of education as an additional measure of history effect.
2. Maturation — During the same period psychological changes may occur which will either strengthen or weaken the attitudes and beliefs.
3. Differential selection — Personnel were not randomly assigned to each role. There may be differential predisposing factors that led some people to choose one role rather than another. These factors, in addition to others, may also contribute towards the measured differences in attitudes and opinions. Analyzing for interaction effects of gender, and racial or ethnic heritage may minimize some of this effect.

4. Experimental mortality — This may be a problem if attrition is differential among subjects. For example, results would be skewed if more subjects who had negative attitudes left the institution before three years and therefore were not proportionately reported in the results.

5. Selection-maturation interaction — Some roles may be populated by older or younger people. Different attitudes may be accounted for simply because of maturation. Respondents were asked to report their age to examine this possibility.

External validity:

External validity is the extent to which findings of an experiment can be applied to particular settings.

1. Population validity — The use of a systematic sample with a random start should allow generalization from the sample to the experimentally accessible population, i.e., Washington State community colleges. However, there may be inherent limitations in generalizing to a target population of other community colleges in the United States since there may be some factors that are particular to Washington State community colleges or to subjects who choose to work in Washington State community colleges.

2. Personological interaction with treatment effects — The study may not be generalizable to other types of colleges, e.g., technical colleges, senior colleges or research universities.

3. Multiple treatment interference — Some subjects may have been both a faculty member and administrator. Thus they will have been exposed to multiple treatments. Contamination of results may occur as a result. Respondents were asked to report previous experience in opposite job category to measure this possibility. For this study, since experience in the opposite job category would have occurred dur-

ing a time previous to the last three years, the multiple treatment interference becomes a history effect and will be referred to as such in the study.

4. Posttest sensitization— This may be a factor since the questionnaire may serve as a teaching device or catalyst that helps to develop new or different opinions or attitudes.

5. Interaction of history and treatment effects — Results must be interpreted in terms of the period in which subjects are employed. If a particular institution is embroiled in current issues or controversy the results are likely to reflect the history of the event.

6. Measurement of the dependent variable — The use of a different questionnaire, different items, a different ordering of items, or different survey methods, e.g., interviews, may affect generalizablity of results in other designs.

# CHAPTER 2

# REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

## Academic Freedom and Tenure

### Introduction

The history of academic freedom and tenure has been described in a few seminal works. Hofstadter and Metzger (1955) wrote about the German influence of the concepts of *Lernfreiheit* and *Lehrfreiheit* on the American university. The 1940 AAUP document (American Association of University Professors, 1977; Joughin, 1969) continues to be the most important historical, philosophical and legal document on the subject in America.

Kaplin (1985) asserted that it is not possible to define precisely the concept of academic freedom since it incorporates both educational and legal meanings. Kaplin further stated that contract law, state statutes and administrative codes, and state and federal constitutions further define the boundaries of academic freedom.

### General Definitions

"Academic freedom is the right to conduct one's research and teach one's subject free of institutional and governmental interference and supervision . . . (It) grants faculty the ability to speak freely inside and outside the classroom, to express political and religious ideas different from those of his or her employer, and to search out new and different discoveries, no matter how unique or controversial" (Olswang and Lee, 1984, p. 17).

A broader definition of academic freedom incorporating a concept of responsibility along with the traditional concept of rights is suggested by Malcom Tight:

> Academic freedom refers to the freedom of individual academics to study, teach, research and publish without being subject to or causing undue interference. Academic freedom is granted in the belief that it enhances the pursuit and application of worthwhile knowledge, and as such is supported by society through the funding of academics and their institutions. Academic freedom embodies an acceptance by academics of the need to encourage openness and flexibility in academic work, and of their accountability to each other and to society in general (Tight, 1988, p. 132).

## Legal Definitions

Kaplin (1985) claimed that it is not possible to define precisely the concept of academic freedom since it incorporates both educational and legal meanings. The initial legal boundaries of academic freedom are determined by contract law. i.e., academic freedom is what the parties to a contract say it is. This is particularly true in private institutions. In public institutions, state statute, administrative codes and state and federal constitutions further define the boundaries of academic freedom.

Legally the definition of the concept of academic freedom becomes the very broad "catch-all term to describe the legal rights and responsibilities of the teaching profession" (Kaplin, 1985, p. 180). The application of this concept is more narrowly defined by particular court cases.

Tenure is the protection that faculty members are granted either by contract or statute which protects them from dismissal except in very special circumstances. These circumstances generally are financial exigency, program elimination or just cause. Just cause is generally considered to be incompetence, moral turpitude, neglect of duty and insubordination (Olswang and Lee, 1984).

## History

### 20th Century History

By the turn of the 20th century faculty members were being dismissed from colleges for a variety of beliefs and utterances. The stage for these dismissals was being slowly set in the period after the Civil War. Issues such as the silver and gold standards, immigration, criticisms of the railroads, and a variety of new liberal political, economic and social views were causing boards of trustees to dismiss faculty. The lay boards which had permitted a new toleration at the beginning of the nineteenth century were now the new authoritarian enforcers of political and social orthodoxies (Brubacher and Rudy, 1968). No longer were faculty content with the transmittal of the known, but rather, they were begin-

ning to see as their professional obligation the right both to question and to extend this knowledge.

The outrage felt by many faculty members over the dismissal of their peers was as much to the underlying principle that allowed lay boards to hire and fire faculty at will as to the dismissal of the faculty themselves. What seemed to upset faculty most was their being treated as contract employees in contrast to the mediaeval tradition of belonging to a guild of scholars (Brubacher and Rudy, 1968).

But changes were occurring elsewhere that would affect the future of academic freedom in America. Once again America was to look abroad for the roots of its freedoms—this time to Germany. One hundred years after the Declaration of Independence, the influence of the German higher education system was seen in the founding of the Johns Hopkins University, the first and quintessential American research university. "Johns Hopkins represents the most important innovation in graduate instruction launched during the whole period between the Civil War and the First World War" (Brubacher and Rudy, 1968, p. 179). By the end of the century fifteen major graduate schools or departments were founded. This beginning of the university system with its emphasis on research and pursuit for intellectual freedom was to have a major effect on the need for a codification of academic freedom and the mechanisms to protect it.

More than nine thousand American students studied at German universities in the nineteenth century, bringing back with them new ideas about academic freedom, the structure of a university, and the quest for scientific discovery. The fuel for America's new fire of learning and scientific discovery was imported from Germany. "Under the impact of the scientific point of view and of the traditions of the German university, the idea of academic freedom in America would be invested with strength and new purpose" (Rudolph, 1962, p. 411). However, only those ideas which fit into the existing American culture were to take

root. The German influence reinforced rather than initiated American change (Hofstadter and Metzger, 1955).

An increasing number of American faculty members were among those thousands of students who had been trained in the German universities. They brought the German university ideas of academic freedom with them to their American universities. To the already developed French and English civil liberties of freedom of expression was added the German idea of protection of economic reprisals by losing one's faculty position. The concept of tenure in American higher education was thus born (Brubacher and Rudy, 1968).

It is of interest to note that although the idea of tenure originated in the German university, not every professor was afforded its privilege. Only the head professor of each department was granted tenure (Williams, personal correspondence, 1989).

The key German concept which applied to the American growth of academic freedom was the word *Lehrfreiheit*. "By *Lehrfreiheit*, the German educator meant two things. He [*sic*] meant that the university professor was free to examine bodies of evidence and to report his [*sic*] findings in lecture or published form —that he [*sic*] enjoyed freedom of teaching and freedom of inquiry—it was the distinctive prerogative of the academic profession, and the essential condition of all universities" (Hofstadter and Metzger, 1955, pp. 386-387).

The dualism of academic freedom in Germany is curious to note. Freedom within the university did not extend to freedom outside the university. Since German professors were civil servants it was assumed that they were loyal to the state and that engagement in politics spoiled scholarship. The former ideal was easily transported to the American university, but the latter would never be acceptable to an America entrenched in the civil libertarianism of a rich English and French cultural and historical influence.

The concept of *Lernfreiheit* is briefly mentioned only because of its importance in Germany. German students could study what they wanted, where they wanted. Regular

attendance was not required, and a final examination was the only evaluation required. This concept did not survive the long crossing of the Atlantic. While the concepts of academic freedom for professors becomes codified during the early twentieth century, there is almost no mention of codifying the academic rights of students during this period.

The closest American concept is found in the elective principle. Beginning with Jefferson, America had already begun a tradition of allowing greater student freedoms. Harvard president, Charles William Eliot, developed this principle more fully so that by 1874-75 a majority of courses at Harvard were now elective. Experimentation with totally elective programs, partially elective programs and major-minor systems prevailed through 1910 (Brubacher and Rudy, 1968). It may be hypothesized that the availability of wide choice among curriculum satisfied the American tradition of higher education more readily than the more radical student freedoms of *Lernfreiheit.*

There were several differences between the German concepts of academic freedom and the American modifications of those concepts. The emphasis in America was on the academic freedom of the professor rather than the student while the German concept emphasized both. The German theory relied heavily upon the power of the state and on the history of the guild for the protection of its professors. In America, institutional trustees generally considered the faculty incapable of governing themselves and the courts were reluctant to interfere with administrative authority. Therefore, the American concept linked the protection of its professors to the promotion of the universities as a public trust. Academic freedom was thus framed as something that was in the broader public interest.

In the classroom, German instructors saw it appropriate for them to win students over to their own personal and philosophical viewpoints, while American professors chose to remain neutral on controversial issues and silent on issues outside their areas of competence. Finally outside of their university roles, American professors sought freedoms that their German counterparts did not. The American constitutional commitment to freedom of

speech applied both within and without the walls of the university (Hofstadter and Metzger, 1955).

The AAUP

The formation of the American Association of University Professors had as its catalyst the case of Professor Edward A. Ross at Stanford in 1901. Dismissed for his advocacy of bimetallism and municipal ownership of street railways and his criticism of Asian immigration, the case received major national attention. The American Economic Association reviewed the case. This was the first time that a third party got involved in reviewing the dismissal of a professor (Brubacher and Rudy, 1968).

In 1915 a meeting of 867 professors from sixty different colleges and universities met to form a new professional organization which would go beyond subject matter lines and find a common bond. This common bond was the protection of job tenure as a method of insuring academic freedom. Amidst a controversy over whether such an organization was ethical, and with the staunch opposition of the *New York Times* and the Committee on Academic Freedom of the Association of American Colleges—the professional association which represented college presidents, the AAUP was born (Brubacher and Rudy, 1968).

In the same year, thirteen members of the newly formed AAUP met and published a document on academic freedom in America. Simply titled a "Declaration of Principles," this document provided a clear statement on academic freedom, tenure, professional responsibility and procedures (Jouglin, 1969). This 1915 document was solely a product of the professorial ranks—presidents and deans being banned from attending. Seven of the thirteen members were social scientists. This is understandable since many of the dismissals that led up to the formation of the AAUP concerned social scientists. The contribution of the German university to American academic freedom can again be seen in the fact that eight of the thirteen signers had studied in Germany. This small group of professors, although not necessarily representing the fullest diversity of university and collegiate faculty,

did publish the landmark document on academic freedom in America (Hofstadter and Metzger, 1955).

From this earliest formal document concerning tenure, it was clear that the issue was academic freedom and not tenure in itself. Tenure was viewed as the mechanism that protected academic freedom and not a right in itself; academic freedom was the right. Metzger stated it most clearly, " Academic freedom was the end: due process, tenure and establishment of professional competence were regarded as necessary means" (Hofstadter and Metzger, 1955, p. 481).

This distinction between academic freedom and tenure is again echoed by Olswang and Lee (1984, p. 8), "This early statement defined tenure primarily as a mechanism to protect academic freedom in its provision of procedural guarantees to individuals whose employment was threatened because of their espousal of unpopular ideas . . . tenure was viewed as a means to protecting academic freedom rather than as an end in itself." Academic freedom was not viewed as absolute. It did not protect the incompetent.

The 1915 document tied academic freedom to the need for academic research, adequate instruction, and the development of experts for public service. If bound by charter to a specific doctrine, the board of trustees had an obligation to be clear about that fact. In all other cases the board was to act as trustees of the public good. Essentially the professors saw themselves not as employees of any governing board per se but rather as owing allegiance to the public itself. Boards were not viewed by the faculty as having the qualifications to judge the faculty. Professors had an obligation to be competent, neutral, and fair. However, outside the university, professors were not to be bound by the norms of neutrality and competence (Hofstadter and Metzger, 1955).

Ten years after the publication of the 1915 document, the American Council on Education held a conference which included the AAUP. The purpose of the conference was to formulate a shorter statement which would take into account the last ten years of experi-

ence. This document became the "1925 Conference Statement on Academic Freedom and Tenure." The 1925 document was endorsed by the AAUP and the Association of American Colleges and these two organizations continued to meet in a series of additional conferences. The 1940 "Statement of Principles on Academic Freedom and Tenure" resulted from this series of conferences (Jouglin, 1969).

The 1940 document is generally recognized as the seminal document on academic freedom in America. "The most widely used articulation of the scope of academic freedom is the AAUP's 1940 statement on academic freedom and tenure" (Olswang and Lee, 1984, p 9). Additionally, it is this document to which the courts refer, whether included as part of an institution's faculty contract or as the recognized industry standard, when it is not included in the specific contractual language of an institution.

This document is a little more than a dozen paragraphs long. It is a masterpiece of simplicity and succinctness. This document also limits the breadth of academic freedom, placing both limits and expectations on faculty behavior. Although dated by its exclusive use of the masculine pronoun, several statements which capture the essence of academic freedom are worth quoting directly: "The teacher is entitled to full freedom in research and in the publication of results, subject to the performance of his other academic duties . . . The teacher is entitled to freedom in the classroom in discussing his subject, but he should be careful not to introduce into his teaching controversial matter which has no relation to his subject . . . The college or university teacher is a citizen . . . When he speaks or writes as a citizen he should be free from institution censorship or discipline, but his special position in the community imposes special obligations," (Joughin, 1969 pp. 35-36). Quite simply, this is the essence of academic freedom.

Rights in Conflict

The controversy at the beginning of the twentieth century centered upon the right of donors of large sums of money to colleges to attach strings to their money. Many faculty

viewed big business as investing in colleges to pursue their own interests. Several pro-labor faculty were dismissed. Others who espoused social reform were similarly dismissed. Increasingly, big business was seen by university faculty as the enemy to academic freedom. The founders of the AAUP breathed this atmosphere.

World War I presented the next challenge to academic freedom on America's campuses. Under a veil of suspicion faculty were again being dismissed—this time for not being patriotic enough, or loyal enough, or pro-war enough. President Nicholas Murray Butler, on June 6, 1917 withdrew the privilege of academic freedom from the faculty at Columbia. However this was balanced by Harvard's President Lowell's refusal to fire a pro-German professor even at the potential cost of a $10,000,000 bequest (Hofstadter and Metzger, 1955).

The AAUP found itself in a difficult position. It straddled the fence in listing four grounds for curtailing academic freedom during time of war for dismissing faculty.

> These were: (1) 'conviction of disobedience to any statute or lawful executive order relating to the war'; (2) 'propaganda designed, or unmistakably tending, to cause others to resist or evade the compulsory service law or the regulations of the military authorities'; (3) action designated 'to dissuade others from rendering voluntary assistance to the efforts of the Government'; (4) in the case of professors of Teutonic extraction and sympathy; and in their private intercourse with neighbors, colleagues and students, to avoid all hostile or offensive expressions concerning the United States or its government' (Hofstadter and Metzger, 1955 p 504).

It was during the depression that the next big challenge to academic freedom occurred. A number of states required that professors affirm their loyalty to the state and federal constitutions. The AAUP took the position that oaths that simply asked professors to obey the law were okay but oaths that limited the faculty's right to freedom of expression were not. The real furor was to come after World War II (Brubacher and Rudy, 1968).

After World War II a new wrinkle was thrown into the loyalty oath business—the faculty at Berkeley had to swear that they were not Communists, even though the Communist party was a legal party in California. Thirty-nine refused and were fired. Even though

the California State Supreme court overturned their dismissals, the country was still finding communists on every campus and trying to fire them. Faculty who exercised their fifth amendment rights were dismissed. Out of this turmoil the United States Supreme Court finally began to pay attention to the issue of academic freedom. As a result of several landmark decisions between 1952 and 1959 the court recognized academic freedom as both a substantive right and as a procedural right. Faculty were finally afforded "academic due process" (Brubacher and Rudy, 1968). The construction of the necessary triangle of academic freedom, tenure, and due process was now complete.

The Courts

At the beginning of the twentieth century, disputes relating to the dismissal of faculty were seen by the courts as internal disagreements over which they were very reluctant to become involved (Brubacher and Rudy, 1968). Even today, the courts are very reluctant to become involved in academic freedom issues related to course content, teaching methods, or classroom behavior (Kaplin, 1985).

In the 1950's and 1960's, in a series of landmark decisions, the courts utilized the First, Fifth and Fourteenth Amendments of the Constitution to provide constitutional status to the term academic freedom (Kaplin, 1985).

Even though academic freedom is usually equated with constitutional guarantees, it is important to note that academic freedom is more generally defined by contract law. In private institutions contract law usually defines academic freedom. In public institutions there are additional guarantees.

Public institutions are guided by the principle of *state action. State action* means that since a public college or university is an extension of the government, its employees have certain constitutional protections from the excesses of government. Employees are therefore automatically afforded certain constitutional rights, usually regardless of whether they are tenured or not. *Board of Regents v. Roth*, 408 U.S. 564 (1972) and *Perry v. Sindermann*,

408 U.S. 593 (1972) are two of the most important Supreme Court cases that afford Fourteenth Amendment due process rights to faculty in pending dismissal proceedings (Kaplin, 1985). In addition, it is not uncommon for there to be state statutes and administrative codes which also provide certain protections (Kaplin, 1985).

Olswang and Lee (1984) listed four specific areas where courts have granted judicial protection to faculty: individual political and religious beliefs, teaching and classroom activities, research and inquiry, and the conduct of one's private affairs.

Miller (1985) conducted an extensive review of the legal literature on academic freedom and tenure related to community colleges. Conditioning his conclusions that particular situations must be limited to the narrowness of the court findings in the cases he used for his analysis, Miller concluded:

> 1. Courts will intervene when the teacher's right to free speech is infringed, with free speech broadly interpreted to include most forms of expression as long as they are not materially or substantially disruptive of the education process.
> 2. Courts will intervene when a dismissal or nonrenewal has infringed upon a property interest, and such interest may exist in some cases even if the faculty member is not formally tenured. This is often called *de facto* tenure.
> 3. Courts will intervene when colleges fail to follow established policies, rules, and customs, and when colleges fail to follow state procedures and statutes.
> 4. Most dismissal and nonrenewal cases will involve both liberty and property claims by the teacher.
> 5. Liberty and property claims and procedural grounds will continue to be the basis for judicial decisions. Academic freedom, though recognized by courts, will not be the basis of judicial decisions.
> 6. When multiple grounds for dismissal are involved, courts will use the *Mt. Healthy* criteria, meaning that the court must determine if protected activity is the principal reason for dismissal and if the dismissal would have occurred without the protected activity.
> 7. Tenure systems will continue to be threatened by declining and fluctuating enrollment. Enrollment changes make the already strong desires of administrators for flexibility even stronger. That desire may be frustrated by tenure systems.
> 8. The growing trend toward political conservatism will in all likelihood increase the threat to academic freedom through community pressure to silence controversial faculty members.

9. The right of community college boards of trustees and administrators to establish curriculum standards and enforce those standards will continue to be sustained by judicial review.

Selected Court Cases

Academic freedom is generally recognized by the courts as a constitutionally protected right. On this basis most requirements for loyalty oaths have been struck down by the courts. Other areas are not always easy to define. For example, there is a fine line between expressing an unpopular idea (which is protected) and inciting misconduct (which is not protected).

*Franklin v. Atkins,* 562 F.2d 1188, United States Court of Appeals, Tenth Circuit, 1977. Professor Franklin had been fired by Stanford University for urging others to occupy the Stanford Computation Center and for his own participation in the occupation and his violation of a police order to cease occupation. Professor Franklin applied at the University of Colorado and was refused employment based upon his activities at Stanford. The Court held that Franklin had the responsibility to show that his conduct was constitutionally protected and that this conduct was a substantial and motivating factor in the decision not to hire. Franklin not having done this, the court held for the University of Colorado (Bickel, 1988).

There is also a fine line between criticism of the administration (which is protected) and insubordination (which is not protected).

*Stastney v. Board of Trustees of Central Washington University,* 647 P.2d 496. Court of Appeals of Washington, 1982, cert. denied, 103 S.Ct. 1528 (1983) found in favor of the institution for having dismissed Professor Stastney for missing class. Professor Stastney had requested leave to lecture in Jerusalem. He was denied leave. When he said that he planned to go anyway he was informed that such a decision would result in disciplinary action. He went and he was fired. The university won the law suit. Essentially the

court ruled that academic freedom does not mean freedom from academic responsibility. (Bickel, 1988).

*Sweezy v. New Hampshire*, 354 U. S. 234 (1957), reversed a contempt finding of a lower court of a professor who refused to give information about his course lectures to the lower court. The Court maintained the importance of preserving an academic atmosphere free from distrust and suspicion (Kaplin, 1985).

*Keyishan v. Board of Regents*, 385 U. S. 589 (1967), held that membership in the Communist party in itself was not sufficient grounds for dismissal and that failure to sign a certificate stating that a faculty member was not now, or never had been, a member of the Communist party was also not sufficient grounds for dismissal (Kaplin, 1985).

*Pickering v. Board of Education*, 391 U. S. 563 (1968), protected a teacher's right to speak on issues of public importance as long as five important tests were met: "(1) Is there a close working relationship between the teacher and those he criticized? (2) Is the substance of the letter a matter of legitimate public concern? (3) Did the letter have a detrimental impact on the administration of the educational system? (4) Was the teacher's performance of his daily duties impeded? (5) Was the teacher writing in his professional capacity or as a private citizen?" This case established the criteria for making further judgments as to the appropriateness of statements of public importance (Kaplin, p. 184, 1985).

*Smith v. Losee*, 485 F2d 334 (10th Cir. 1973), overturned the dismissal of a faculty member who had been fired for expressing opposition to the college administration in his post as a member of the executive committee of the faculty association (Kaplin, 1985).

*Rampey v. Allen*, 501 F.2d 1090 (10th Cir. 1974), overturned the dismissal of eleven professors and three staff members who had been fired for talking to students and other professors about problems that the school was having (Kaplin, 1985).

Controversial subjects, which are a legitimate part of a class, are protected. Even criticism of the administration, if it is part of a legitimate teaching activity, is protected.

However, material unrelated to the course would probably not be protected. Academic freedom does not protect faculty from dismissal when their teaching methods are not considered appropriate for the institution, their teaching is poor or when relationships with students and colleagues are unsatisfactory.

*Hetrick v. Martin*, 480 F.2d 705 (6th Cir. 1973), made a distinction between what is taught and how it is taught, and affirmed an institution's right to dismiss when the issue is clearly one of method and not one of content (Kaplin, 1985).

Wolf (1988) reports freedom to teach does not mean freedom not to teach as Riggen discovered when Riggen failed to cover the established curriculum. "*Riggen v. Board of Trustees of Ball State* 489 N.E.2d 616 (Ind. App 1 Dist. 1986). Trans. denied, 499 N.E.2d 243 (Ind. 1986). Plaintiff's employment was terminated because of failure to cover course material, expenditure of excessive amounts of class time on non-pertinent matters, and failure to carry out responsibilities. The court said: "The cases hold that school and university administrators have a right to control curriculum, course content and methods of instruction, and that a teacher has no right to override the wishes and judgments of his superiors and fellow faculty members in that regard . . . Academic freedom is not a license for uncontrolled expressions at variance with established curriculum content. Academic freedom does not encompass matters inherently destructive of the proper functions of the institution. 480 N.E.2d at 629-630" (p.4).

*Clark v. Holmes*, 474 F.2d 928 (7th Cir. 1972), upheld the right of the institution to dismiss when conduct interfered with the proper functioning of the institution (Kaplin, 1985).

*Martin v. Parrish* 805 F.2d 583 (5th Cir, 1986), upheld the right of the institution to dismiss an instructor for using vulgar or profane language in the classroom when such language "was not germane to the subject matter in the class and had no educational function" (Kaplin, 1990).

*Lovelace v. Southeastern Massachusetts Univ.* 793 F2d 419 (1st Cir, 1986) upheld the right of the institution to determine academic standards in upholding the dismissal of a non-tenured faculty member for not lowering the academic standards he applied to the students in his classroom. The court held "the first amendment does not require that each nontenured professor be made a sovereign unto himself" (Kaplin, 1990).

*Parate v. Isibor* 868 F.2d 821 6th (Cir, 1989) Parate was dismissed for failing to follow the dean's order to change a student's grade. Although Parate's dismissal was overturned by the court, the court did affirm the right of administration to change the grade itself rather than order Parate to do so. The right of the institution to review course material and grades and to require compliance with the grading policies of the college was balanced against the faculty member's right to perform academic evaluations and exercise professional judgment in the assignment of letter grades (Bickel, 1989).

Research in academic laboratories is an academic freedom right. Academic freedom generally protects the selection of the research topic and the method of study. Unethical conduct and research fraud are not protected.

"Often called 'moral turpitude,' private misconduct must be linked in some way to a faculty member's performance as a teacher and scholar before it will serve as an appropriate basis for termination (and thus be unprotected by academic freedom)." (Olswang and Lee, 1984). "(It) generally involves private conduct that is forbidden by law, such as indecent exposure, sexual misconduct or other criminal charges involving immoral or dishonest conduct." (Olswang and Lee, 1984, p. 16).

*Korf v. Ball State University,* 726 F.2d 1222 (7th Cir. 1984), upheld the right of the institution to dismiss for unprofessional conduct related to the sexual harassment of students.

*Texton v. Hancock,* 359 So.2d 895 (First District Court of Appeals, Florida, 1978), overturned the right of the institution to dismiss for immorality, misconduct in of-

fice, and willful neglect of duty for a female teacher accused of expressing negative opinions about men in general, for using profanity in the presence of a student, for drinking beer, and for using the words "penis," "ejaculation," and "masturbation" in a child psychology class. (Bickel, 1988).

*White v. Board of Trustees of Western Wyoming Community College District*, 648 P.2d 528. (Supreme Court of Wyoming, 1982), upheld the right of the institution to dismiss a teacher for condoning alcohol consumption and drug use among students over whom he had charge (Bickel, 1988).

Institutional Academic Freedom

Wolf (1988) developed the argument that academic freedom is not just limited to the freedom of individual faculty but also applies to the institution as a whole. "The most frequently quoted passage from *Sweezy (v. New Hampshire)* in judicial discussions of academic freedom is from Justice Frankfurter's concurring opinion. In his concurrence, Justice Frankfurter laid out the institution's academic freedom by quoting from a statement of faculty members at South African universities: '. . . It is the business of a university to provide that atmosphere which is most conducive to speculation, experiment and creation. It is an atmosphere in which there prevail 'the four essential freedoms' of a university—to determine for itself on academic grounds who may teach, what may be taught, how it shall be taught, and who may be admitted to study. 354 U.S. at 263 (1957).' "

In answering the question whose freedom is it, Wolf (p.3 1988) made the distinction: "Individual faculty members invoke academic freedom to support their ability to speak, teach, research and publish as they wish and when engaged in peer review evaluation, to avoid disclosing votes, deliberations, and evaluations. Institutions invoke academic freedom to avoid having to disclose confidential peer review materials and other personal documents to civil rights and discrimination plaintiffs (and investigatory agencies). Institutions also rely on academic freedom when defending academic judgments in cases brought

by faculty members who allege improper discipline, nonrenewal, or termination and who may have invoked academic freedom to support their claims."

Summary

Academic freedom is a narrowly defined set of principles and responsibilities protected by contractual and constitutional safeguards. Tenure is a means of protecting academic freedom. Tenure is a continuing contract based upon certain conditions, and is therefore not absolute. The courts have granted faculty both substantive and procedural rights which provide additional safeguards for academic freedom. However, freedom to be critical of the institution has limits. The right of administration to substantially control curriculum, grading policy, and teaching methods and to operate the institution free from disruption is affirmed.

## Role theory

### Introduction

It is hypothesized that there is a difference between how Washington State community college administrators and Washington State community college faculty members view the meaning and purposes of tenure and academic freedom.

Why might these two groups differ in their responses? Role theory provides a construct to suggest that differences between groups that exhibit differing roles within an organization may be expected to behave and believe differently from each other (Brown, 1965). Thus, it may be hypothesized, that faculty and administrators, because they serve differing roles within the college, will respond differently from each other when surveyed about their opinions and beliefs on academic freedom and tenure.

Dickerson-Gifford (1990) reported significant differences between academic administrators and student service administrators in a study of institutional values, practices, and beliefs, lending support to the hypothesis that different subcultures within multipurpose educational institutions may have different opinions. Sobong (1975) explored the re-

lationship between high school teachers' beliefs regarding academic freedom and their professional role status.

Role theory provides a useful model for exploring anticipated differences between the faculty and administration. Role theory has been a useful construct for describing educational environments (Baird, 1978; Clouse, 1989) and for predicting faculty behavior (DeVries 1972, 1975; Wisniewski 1977).

Role theory is a very popular sociological construct showing up in at least 10% of sociological journal articles and a large number of basic social science texts (Biddle, 1986). One reason for its ubiquity may be that it is more a collection of connected models or perspectives rather than one unified and commonly agreed upon construct. Biddle (1986), in his meta-analysis of the literature on role theory to date, described role theory from five of its most common perspectives. These are summarized in Table 1.

## Biddle's Role Theory

Prior to 1979 there does not seem to exist a single integrated theory of role theory. Biddle (1979) synthesized much of the work into such a model. Therefore, Biddle's (1979) text, *Role Theory: Expectations, Identities, and Behaviors*, was chosen to provide the framework for this current study on academic freedom and tenure. Key definitions, concepts and vocabulary of Biddle's model are briefly abstracted and reviewed to utilize this framework for the discussion and interpretation of the research findings for this study. Key vocabulary is italicized for ease of reference.

Biddle (p.4) defined *role theory* as, "a science concerned with the study of behaviors that are characteristic of persons within contexts and with various processes that presumably produce, explain, or are affected by those behaviors." People's social position determine their role. However, position and role are not the same thing. Positions classify people; roles classify behaviors. *Social position* (p.5) "is an identity that designates a com-

Table 1

Five Common Role Theory Perspectives

| Perspectives | Major Contributors[a] | Major Assumptions |
|---|---|---|
| Functional Role Theory | Linton (1936)<br>Parsons (1951)<br>Parsons and Shils (1951)<br>Bates and Harvey (1975) | Roles are the "shared normative expectations that prescribe and explain . . . behaviors of persons who occupy social positions within a stable social system." |
| Symbolic Interactionist Role Theory | Mead (1934)<br>Heiss (1976, 1981)<br>Turner (1974, 1978, 1979, 1985) | "Roles . . .are thought to reflect norms, attitudes, contextual demands, negotiation, and the evolving definition of the situation as understood by the actors." |
| Structural Role Theory | Burt (1976, 1982)<br>Mandel (1983)<br>White at al (1976)<br>Winship and Mandel (1983) | Seen as a "mathematically expressed, axiomatic theory concerning structured role relationships. . . Attention is focused on 'social structures,' conceived as stable organizations of sets of persons (called 'social positions' or 'status's') who share the same, patterned behaviors ('roles') that are directed towards other sets of persons in the structure." |
| Organizational Role Theory | Gross et al (1958)<br>Kahn et al (1964)<br>van de Vliert (1979, 1981)<br>van de Vliert et al (1983) | Focuses on roles in formal organizations in which the "social systems are pre-planned, task-oriented, and hierarchical. Roles . . . are assumed to be associated with identified social positions and to be generated by normative expectations" taking into account formal and informal pressures. |
| Cognitive Role Theory | Moreno (1934)<br>Sherif (1936)<br>Rotter (1954)<br>Kelly (1955)<br>Mead (1934)<br>Piaget (1926)<br>Biddle (1979) | Focus is on " relationships between role expectations and behavior. . . (and the) social conditions that give rise to expectations . . . (and) the impact of expectations on social conduct." |

Note. From "Recent Developments in Role Theory," by B. J. Biddle, 1986, Annual Review of Sociology, V. 12.
[a] as cited in Biddle (1986)

monly recognized set of persons." Positions that exist as part of a complement of positions needed for organized activities are part of the *social structure* of that organization (p.97).

*Role* may be defined as "those behaviors characteristic of one or more persons in a context" (p. 58). While this definition of role applies to the position of a person within a given society, there may also be a role associated with a persons being a member of that society in general. This larger macro-role is referred to as *societal role* (p. 65).

Biddle summarized five underlying propositions of role theory for which there seems to be some general, albeit informal, agreement among role theorists (p. 8):

> 1. Role theorists assert that some behaviors are patterned and are characteristic of persons within contexts (i.e., for roles).
> 2. Roles are often associated with sets of persons who share common identities (i.e., who constitute social positions).
> 3. Persons are often aware of roles; to some extent roles are governed by the fact of their awareness (i.e., by expectations).
> 4. Roles persist, in part, because of their consequences (functions) and because they are imbedded within larger social systems.
> 5. Persons must be taught roles (i.e., must be socialized) and may find either joy or sorrow in the performance thereof.

Since role theory concerns itself with the study of behavior, Biddle has suggested how some behaviors may be observed, counted, and measured by using the concept of *facet*. Biddle has defined facet as "a scale or a set of categories that provides a tool for judging examples of behavior for some aspect they exhibit" (p. 27). Biddle described the use of facets in this way, "When we map a variety of behaviors into a facet, we thereby create a distribution consisting of the frequencies of behavior mappings for each category of the facet. From examining such distributions we are able to assess the modal category for a particular set of behaviors of the range of behavioral alternatives exhibited. In such fashion, the facet provides us with an operational measure of how behaviors in which we are interested stack up against the aspect we have chosen to study. . . Common scales for measuring attitudes, such as those of Guttman or Likert, constitute facets. . . Categorical systems that express variations in sex, age and race also constitute facets. " (pp. 28-30).

According to Biddle the concept of facet, "provides us with a basic tool needed for the study of behaviors" (p. 30).

In order to compare facets, Biddle defined the concepts of correspondence and differentiation. "Two or more events will be said to *correspond* if their mappings in an arbitrarily chosen set of facets are either similar or identical. . . If events do not correspond, they are said to be *differentiated*" (p. 35). These leads to the concept of *role differentiation*— "two or more roles are said to be to be differentiated if they have but few behavioral elements in common" (p. 75). When roles fit together well within a system this is called *role integration* (p. 77).

Positions, like roles, can be differentiated. One common method of differentiation is *status*. When one position has more of a characteristic that is positively sanctioned, it is generally regarded as having higher status. Prestige, wealth and authority are the most common characteristics used to determine status (p. 105). *Authority* is the degree to which others follow the dictates of position members; *Power* is the general ability to exert influence. When power comes from position it is known as authority (p. 106).

To take into account the impact that the environment has on behavior, Biddle defined the concept of *context*: " . . . any condition or state of affairs that affects behavior" (p. 52). For Biddle this included complex environments consisting of physical, behavioral, or symbolic events (p. 52).

For the non-behavioral characteristics of a set of persons, Biddle used the term *profile* (p.61). Characteristics such as gender, age, and race are considered profile characteristics. These profile variables are usually considered to be independent variables and may be ascertained from the questions asked of respondents.

Roles for Biddle, may be summarized by four aspects: (1) they are behavior; (2) they are performed by persons; (3) they are normally limited in some way by context; and

(4) they consist of those behaviors that are characteristic of a set of persons and a context (p. 58).

Why do people behave the way they do? The simple answer according to role theory is because they either conform to their own expectations or because they conform to the expectations of others. "An *expectation* is a statement that expresses a reaction about a characteristic of one or more persons" (p. 121). Persons who hold expectations are referred to as *subject persons*. Persons who the expectations are about are *object persons*. Expectations may take the form of verbal statements or *enunciations*, rewards or punishments, i.e., *conceptions*, and written statements or *inscriptions* (pp. 121-122). Common expectations that are held by several people are called *shared expectations*. (p. 123). When the expectation concerns social positions they are called *positional expectations* (p. 124). Expectations also have the feature of modality—they are prescriptive (norms, demands or rules), cathexes (preferences, assessments or appraisals) or descriptions (beliefs, assertions or representations) (p. 132). Expectations may be strong or weak in terms of modality, may be high or low in terms of the amount of characteristic desired in the position, and may be clear or ambiguous in terms of the specifics of the expectation (pp. 152-153).

This brings us to the next concept of *expected role*. "Such a role is made up of expectations that are applied to an object person or position. These expectations may either be held by subject persons or may be attributed by them to others" (p. 210). For example, expected roles are generally context driven. Expected roles for occupational positions are generally restricted to the work environment.

Expected roles are part of social systems. A *social system* is "a structured set of behavioral elements—or, in more familiar terms, a characteristic set of interdependent roles" (p. 225). Interactions occur within social systems, although certainly not exclusively. An *interaction* is "a condition existing between two or more persons such that each exhibits one or more behaviors which affects the other . . ." (p. 233). When people come together and

share one or more unique elements of structure such as behaviors, conceptions, and the use of symbols they form a *culture*. The populations of people who share that culture are called a *society*. (p. 239). When a population of people come together to share a subset of their roles at a particular location they form a *community* (p. 236).

What happens in large social systems that persist over time as individuals leave and enter the system? *Positional structure* is the concept applied that furnishes a set of characteristics to a system that provides a set of identity terms to replacement persons (p. 245). Since positions are usually associated with roles and these positions are often differentiated, then the roles are also differentiated. Within large social systems it is not uncommon that persons are assigned more than one identity term often making it difficult to determine which position(s), and therefore which role(s), a particular person may inhabit. Positional structure is also complicated by the occurrence of overlapping positions, depending on who is assigning identity terms within that system (p. 246).

Sometimes people develop stress as a result of their position or role expectations. This is called *role strain* (p. 325). If a person fails to cope with this stress, various negative consequences occur from feelings of frustration, insecurity or failure, at one end of the spectrum, to ulcers and even early death at the other end (p. 326). Some people cope by controlling their level of involvement, by distancing themselves, or by resigning (p. 326).

The elements of a social system that are structured and covert are referred to as the *conceptual structure* of the system (p. 384). Within this framework various expectations concerning roles, and the tasks and jobs of the participants are expressed. There may or may not be consensus on these conceptions (p. 255). "Such conceptions constitute explanations of the system for participants and are presumed both to reflect the ongoing structure of behaviors with the system and to influence participants by providing them with orientation and motivation to participate" (p. 256).

Beliefs, norms, and preferences constitute the essential elements of conceptual structure. They help establish the role expectations. Behavior may or may not be congruent with those role expectations. When expectations are present and accurate and there is frequent interaction between people there may be greater congruence between role expectation and behavior. This is easier to do in smaller social systems. Often in larger social systems some role expectations are missing, and therefore there is commonly the subset of persons who "fail to get the word." In addition role expectations may be distorted (p. 257).

Biddle, (p. 257) has explained the impact this has on larger social systems:

> . . . it seems unlikely that role expectations (or other structured conceptions) will be held consensually throughout a complex social system. Rather *we should conceive of most role expectations as concepts that are shared among small sets of persons in the system* (emphasis added), whereas the total structure of expectations will consist of partially overlapping fields of beliefs, norms and preferences. . . As a rule, structured expectations are characteristic of their systems not because they are consensually held, but rather because they persist in identifiable form over time. *Usually, that form involves overlapping fields of partial consensus* (emphasis added), but some social systems also feature nonconsensual or even conflicting role expectations . . .

Structuring of these role expectations usually occurs in three ways: *folkways*—traditions that are described; *mores*—traditions that involve the cathectic or prescriptive modalities, and are therefore felt more strongly than folkways; and *laws*—which involve sanctions. Laws may be *customary*, i.e., not written down or *enacted*, i.e. recorded (p. 258). These norms may be formal or informal and are usually both. Often they are not homogeneous (p. 259).

One particular type of social system is the organization. "An *organization* consists of an identified social system that is conducted for one or more tasks in the external environment" (p. 266). "*Tasks* are the shared intentions for activity that occur within the system" (p. 261). They are prescriptive in nature and may apply to the system as a whole or to individuals within the system (p. 261).

Within an organization (and also other social systems) positions may be related by terms of authority. Leaders have authority over followers by virtue of the positional structure of the system. This is known as the *authority structure* of the system (p. 268). The domain of authority is defined as "the range of facets expressing the follower's behavior over which the leader has authority" (p. 268). Within organizations this is usually narrow and related to tasks. However, this may not be the usual case with educational organizations. "Teachers complain that authority is exerted over them within regions that are extrinsic to the tasks set for the school—such as standards set for their behaviors when in the home or marketplace" (p. 269). Within many organizations authority positions are usually filled by persons performing satisfactorily in positions lower in the authority structure (p. 271). Unlike very structured social systems such as the army where authority is based on sanctions, within universities and colleges authority relies more heavily on charisma and loyalty (p. 275). Some organizations have complex written rules while others are more defined by shared norms.

Where do roles come from? Socialization provides one answer. *Socialization* may be defined as "changes in the behavioral or conceptual state of a person that follow from an environmental condition and lead to the greater ability of the person to participate in a social system" (p. 282). Education is a subset of socialization that is deliberate and whereby one person intends to instruct another (p. 282). Socialization conveys both role behaviors (overt) and role conceptions (covert) (p. 283).

### Summary

> Role theory provides us with a vocabulary for discussing human affairs and the way in which people think about those affairs.
>
> Biddle, 1979, p. 347

## Related Research

In the last 25 years, several published surveys of college faculty or administrators have addressed the questions of academic freedom or tenure. None of these surveys fo-

cused on the perceptions of community college administrators and faculty concerning their perceptions of the essential elements that define both academic freedom and tenure.

Cooper (1982) found significant differences between academic deans and faculty in two-year and four-year colleges in Georgia with regard to tenure. Cooper reported that academic deans had less favorable attitudes towards tenure while the faculty expressed positive attitudes. No significant differences were noted between tenured and non-tenured faculty or between two and four-year colleges. Cooper also noted that "While faculty agree that the principal value of tenure is to safeguard academic freedom, tenure as an element of job security appears to be more important to faculty than tenure as a protector of academic freedom" (p. 120).

Nikfetrat (1983) in a study of George Washington University and University of Maryland faculty found that "tenure, status, sex, and rank significantly and favorably influenced faculty attitudes towards tenure." Specifically Nikfetrat reported that more favorable attitudes towards tenure were held by tenured rather than non-tenured faculty, full-time rather than part-time faculty, male rather than female faculty, and full professors followed in order by associate professors, assistant professors and instructors. Nikfetrat did not find a difference between the faculty of the two universities studied.

Paver (1984) found "strong and pervasive differences in perceptions of tenure" among members of the executive branch of Washington State government, members of the Washington State legislature, Washington State college faculty, and Washington State college administrators.

Newman (1986) conducted a survey of administrators and faculty at Dowling College in New York, noting differences between the two. Newman(1986) administered a 38 question survey on academic freedom to the faculty and top three administrators at Dowling College. To provide a larger sample of administrators, questionnaires were also sent to the top three administrators at 12 other Long Island colleges. Although Newman computed the

mean response of each group for each question, the question of statistically significant difference was not addressed.

Ambrose (1988, 1989, 1990) conducted a survey of administrators and faculty in the Georgia public higher education system, noting several differences between the two. Ambrose found significant differences among administrators, faculty members, and department chairs on three out of four factor scales in which respondents were asked to determine if academic freedom was a factor in each of sixteen case studies. Although Ambrose collected a variety of demographic data, he did not analyze for possible interaction effects of any intervening variables.

McCart (1991) in a study of the faculty at Pennsylvania State University failed to find a significant difference between liberal arts faculty and engineering faculty on attitudes towards academic freedom. As a result of a series of structured interviews, she reported very strong support for academic freedom.

Johnson (1991) conducted a survey of tenure attitudes of faculty members in Florida's community colleges. She found differences related to the tenure status and rank of the faculty but no differences related to gender, years of employment, or age.

Zito (1993) found little difference between faculty and department chairs in her study on academic freedom court cases. Zito (1993) surveyed department chairs and faculty in the natural science and social science departments from private colleges and universities in the North Central Association on their knowledge of academic freedom litigation as it pertained to private colleges and universities. Zito concluded from her data that there were very little differences between chairs and faculty members and between departments in their responses. Respondents were asked 20 *yes* or *no* questions concerning academic freedom. One possible explanation as to the finding of very little difference may be due to the limited variation that dichotomous answers provide. A questionnaire which provides respondents

with a greater range of responses such as are inherent in a Likert-type scale is more likely to pick up subtle differences if they exist.

## Summary

The history of academic freedom and tenure is a history of defining two interdependent positions on university and college campuses—the position of administrator and the position of faculty member. The principles of academic freedom and the safeguards of tenure are an attempt by both parties to help define the boundaries, limits and overlaps of their two interrelated positions. Since academic freedom and tenure tends to structure the roles of administrator and faculty member, the study of these principles is also a study of their respective roles.

Role theory is an important sociological tool for examining and explaining complex social systems. It is especially useful in viewing how and why people may exhibit differing sets of characteristic behaviors. The related literature suggests that administrators and faculty have shown differences in their measured opinions on academic freedom and tenure. Role theory, therefore, will provide a model for exploring and understanding some of the nature of the similarities and differences between administrators and faculty members.

# CHAPTER 3

# METHODOLOGY

## Research Design

This is a cross-sectional survey of a systematic sample with a random start of faculty and administrators in Washington State community colleges to examine their opinions about academic freedom and tenure. The purpose of the survey is to examine the relationship between responses to survey items and job category, i.e., administrator or faculty. Independent variables of race/ethnicity and gender were analyzed for interaction effects. The survey used a mailed self-administered questionnaire.

The questionnaire items are based upon research of the literature and experiences of the researcher. Approximately one half of the items are based upon traditional definitions of academic freedom and tenure. Additional items come from areas of controversy and dispute.

The questionnaire was pre-tested using Highline Community College, the researcher's home school. Several focus groups were used for the pre-test. Comments on item construction were solicited. Items were re-written as required. Highline Community College was not be used in the study due to the possibility of any contamination effect from being used for the pre-test.

## Population

The population for this study was the set of faculty and administrators in Washington State community colleges who were employed in their current role, i.e., administrator or faculty, at the same community college for at least the three period prior to completing the survey. The frame for this study was the 1995-1996 database of Washington State community college employees maintained by the Office of the State Board for Community and Technical Colleges located in Olympia Washington. This frame was selected because it provided the most convenient source for the most current and accurate listing of adminis-

trators and faculty available. This database was provided through the courtesy and work of Dr. Loretta Seppanen, Manager, Research and Analysis, and her staff.

The database did not contain information about the number of years of employment. Since one of the criteria for inclusion in this study was that an administrator or faculty member must have been employed at their current position for at least three years, the population was oversampled by the percentage of probable error in the database. Based upon Dr. Seppanen's experience with the database she suggested that a 10 percent over-sampling would allow sufficient latitude in providing the desired minimum number of responses that should be included in the study (Seppanen, personal correspondence, 1996). Question 33 in the questionnaire, "How many years have you served in your current position at your current institution?" was used to exclude from the study respondents who served less than three years at their current position at their current institution.

## Measurements

The survey instrument was a self-administered questionnaire formatted as a 8 1/2" x 7", 8 page booklet that incorporated a cover letter (Appendix A).

Questions 1 - 17 surveyed opinions about academic freedom. Questions 18 - 29 surveyed opinions about tenure. For Questions 1 - 29 the respondents were asked to indicate their level or agreement or disagreement using a five point Likert-type scale:

-2 Strongly Disagree

-1 Somewhat Disagree

0 Undecided

1 Somewhat Agree

2 Strongly Agree

These 29 questions served as the dependent variables for the study. Questions 30 - 38 asked for demographic data and served as the independent variables for the study. Q39

asked for additional comments and was open ended. The survey instrument is reproduced in its entirety in Appendix A.

## Pretesting

Pretesting is considered to be an essential part of questionnaire design (Babbie, 1990; Salant, 1994). The questionnaire was pretested prior to mailing. This pretesting was conducted to check each question for clarity and lack of ambiguity and to check the overall look and feel of the questionnaire design for readability and ease of use. In addition the pretest checked for understandability of the instructions, including how to mail back the questionnaire.

The pretest was conducted at Highline Community College during a period from February 27, 1996 through March 8, 1996. Because the pretest was conducted at Highline, Highline was eliminated from the sample of community colleges used in the survey in order to eliminate contamination of results because of the pretest and resulting discussions.

Twenty-two people participated in the pretest. People were asked to volunteer for the pretest and self selected. There was no attempt to scientifically sample the population at Highline. 15 members of the administrative group participated as well as 7 members of the faculty. 14 were male; 8 were female.

Each person was given the questionnaire inside an envelope exactly like the one to be used for the mailing. A business reply envelope was also included.

The pretests were conducted in small group settings in which each person was easily observed by the researcher. A discussion of the questionnaire followed. No instructions were given to the participants other than "Please respond to this survey just as if you had received it in the mail." Participants were timed through folding the complete survey and placing it in the business reply envelope.

The range of times needed to complete the survey was five minutes to ten minutes. Ten participants completed the survey in seven minutes or less; Twelve participants com-

pleted the survey in between eight to ten minutes. The distribution was bimodal with five participants each completing in seven minutes and ten minutes.

After completing the surveys, the participants were asked a series of questions about the questionnaire and were invited to make general comments.

The letter on page 2 of the survey includes the sentence, "I have coded each questionnaire to help me track and maximize return rates by reminding those not returning the questionnaire." The code was placed either on the top of the front cover or the bottom of the last page in an evenly divided sample of questionnaires. No attempt was made to disguise the code, which was printed in black ink in approximately 14 point type, The first question posed to the pretest participants was, "Did you notice the code?" The purpose of this question was to determine if coding the questionnaire was a distracter. No participants reported noticing the code. After pointing out the code to the participants, they were asked, "What do you think now that you have noticed the code?" No participants reported they were bothered by the use of a code.

Participants were next asked to comment on the "Dear Colleague" cover letter on page 2 of the questionnaire. There were no unfavorable comments. The letter was reported to be "clear," "short and to the point," straightforward," and "unbiased."

The next question asked was, "What was your impression of the overall layout, design, readability and flow of the survey?" Again there were no unfavorable comments. The questionnaire was reported to be, " great," "easy," "perfect," "good layout," "a 'ten,'" "not crowded," "easy to understand," "really good," "short," and "not too long." In addition, several participants reported they liked the use of the Likert style bar graphic on the top of each page.

The next question was in two parts, "Was there anything about the survey that would make you more likely, or less likely, to complete it in comparison to other surveys you usually see?" Most participants said "no" to both. Of the participants who said they

might be more likely to complete this survey, its shortness and small physical size were the two characteristics mentioned. The use of several negatives in the wording of some of the questions was the only characteristic mentioned that might make some respondents less likely to complete the survey.

Participants were next invited to make general comments about the questions themselves. The intent of this section was to check for poorly worded or ambiguous questions. In addition each completed questionnaire was checked for completeness and written comments.

Question 4, originally worded as, "Academic freedom is no longer a relevant principle to the protection of faculty rights," was consider by several participants to be awkward since the question contained the imbedded assumption that at one time academic freedom was a relevant principle to the protection of faculty rights. This question was reworded in the final questionnaire to read as, "Academic freedom is not a relevant principle to the protection of faculty rights."

Question 9, originally worded as, "The principle of academic freedom expects faculty to refrain from teaching controversial matter that has no relationship to the subject matter or content of the course," was also problematic to a few participants. The phrase "no relationship" was considered to be too absolute and left in doubt how participants who considered matter that had little relationship to the subject matter might answer the question. The question was reworded in the final questionnaire to read as, "The principle of academic freedom expects faculty to refrain from teaching controversial matter that is not related to the subject matter or content of the course."

Three participants reported that they were not always sure if they should be answering the questions based upon the principles involved or the actual practices. Since the intent of the study is to measure respondents' understanding of the principles of academic freedom and tenure, this was the most important observation of the pretest.

Accordingly, several changes were made in the final questionnaire. The original instructions included the statement, "Listed below is a series of statements about the principles and practices of academic freedom as applied to public institutions of higher education." This statement was changed to, "Listed below is a series of statements about the principles of academic freedom and the principles of tenure as applied to public institutions of higher education." In addition the phrase "the principles" which appears twice in the sentence was italicized and made bold for additional emphasis.

In addition, in the final questionnaire, the phrase "the principle" or the phrase "in principle" was added to questions 21 through 29 to further clarify that respondents were to consider the principle rather than the practice of tenure. These phrases had already been incorporated into the questions on academic freedom in the pretest version of the questionnaire.

In the pretest several respondents who were not officially administrators checked the category, "full-time administrator" on question 30. These respondents were professional staff whose category was "non-administrative exempt." In the State of Washington community college system the position of non-administrative exempt is used for professional level employees who are not faculty but do not have administrative rank. Therefore the category "Full-time non-administrative exempt" was added to question 30 in the final questionnaire.

Each participant was observed throughout the process of completing the survey. Only two participants skipped questions to which they later returned. Only one participant skipped a question and did not return to it. Participants were observed to move through the questionnaire in an easy manner. No obvious facial or body behaviors which might be interpreted as confusion, annoyance, frustration or similar emotional states were observed. Participants were observed to exhibit facial and body behaviors usually interpreted as being relaxed, calm, focused, diligent and contemplative.

The pretest phase of the process for designing the questionnaire enhanced the overall readability and clarity of the questionnaire.

## Data Collection

A systematic sample with a random start was utilized to select which faculty and administrators were to be mailed questionnaires. A confidence interval of ±5% was predetermined as the desired level of accuracy along with a confidence level of 95%. To provide an initial estimate of the sample size required to provide the desired values for the confidence interval and confidence level, the population of administrators and the population of faculty was set equal to the number of each in the frame. The population of administrators was 480; the population of faculty was 2833. To be conservative, and thus increase the desired sample size to its mathematical maximum, it was assumed that the population proportion (p) would be maximally varied at a 50 - 50 split. The standard formula for selecting a sample size when the population is small was utilized to calculate the desired sample (Rea, 1992 p. 131):

$$n = \frac{Z_\alpha^2[p(1-p)]N}{Z_\alpha^2[p(1-p)] + (N-1)C_p^2}$$

where

$n$ = sample size

$Z_\alpha$ = Z score for level of confidence $\alpha$ = 1.96

$p$ = true population proportion = .5

$N$ = population size

$C_p$ = confidence interval = .05

The application of this formula to the population of administrators (N = 480) yielded an n of 214. Similarly, the formula as applied to the population of faculty (N = 2833) yielded an n of 338.

A worst case of no more than 50 percent usable data, i.e., returned surveys with no missing data, was next assumed. Therefore, in order to ensure the minimum sample size for each group, the number of questionnaires to be mailed was doubled. Thus the number of questionnaires to be mailed to administrators was calculated as 428 and the number of questionnaires to be mailed to faculty was calculated as 676. The assumption that up to 10 percent of the field might not meet the minimum criteria to be included in the study, i.e., neither faculty or administrator with at least three years employment at the same institution, was then applied. Therefore, each mailing was increased by this 10 percent adjustment. As a result of these assumptions, and the related calculations, the initial mailing for administrators was calculated as 471. Since 471 was only 9 less than the population, the entire population of administrators of 480 was mailed questionnaires. The number of faculty mailed questionnaires was 744.

Survey packets were mailed mid April. Survey packets consisted of the questionnaire and an addressed postage metered return envelope. The questionnaire contained a cover letter printed on its page 2. Each cover letter was individually signed by the researcher (Appendix A). Each questionnaire was coded for follow-up purposes. Approximately two to three weeks later a reminder postcard, also individually signed, was mailed (Appendix B) to those subjects who had not yet responded. The third and final mailing was an individually signed reminder letter with another copy of the questionnaire together with a return addressed postage metered envelope (Appendix C) to all subjects who had not yet responded. This final mailing occurred approximately two to three weeks after the reminder postcard was mailed.

To assist in maintaining confidentiality, returned questionnaires were opened by an assistant who then tracked respondents for follow up purposes. The data were entered into a statistical database using case numbers different from the original coding on the question-

naire. After all respondents had been given sufficient time to reply, the code book linking respondent names with the coding on the questionnaires was destroyed.

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to code responses and perform statistical analyses. A frequency count for each coded variable was performed to check for coding accuracy.

## Data Analysis

The purpose of this study was to determine:

1. To what extent do administrators and faculty in Washington State community colleges differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

2. Is there a two-way interaction effect of race/ethnicity with job category, i.e., administrator or faculty position?

3. Is there a two-way interaction effect of gender with job category, i.e., administrator or faculty position?

4. Is there a two-way interaction effect of race/ethnicity with gender?

5. Is there a three-way interaction effect of race/ethnicity with gender and with job category?

6. To what extent do minorities and whites who are employed as administrators and faculty in Washington State community colleges differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

7. To what extent do females and males who are employed as administrators and faculty in Washington State community colleges differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

To analyze each of these research questions a two step process was utilized:

1. A factor analysis was performed on the twenty-nine dependent variables to reduce and simplify the data.

2. A three-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was performed on each of the resultant factors.

The following null hypotheses were tested at the .05 significance level using the ANOVA:

1. There is no significant difference between administrators and faculty in the way they responded to the survey questions on academic freedom and tenure.

2. There is no significant two-way interaction effect of race/ethnicity with job category, i.e., administrator or faculty position.

3. There is no significant two-way interaction effect of gender with job category, i.e., administrator or faculty position.

4. There is no significant interaction effect of race/ethnicity with gender.

5. There is no significant three-way interaction effect of race/ethnicity with gender and with job category.

6. There is no significant difference between minorities and whites in the way they responded to the survey questions on academic freedom and tenure.

7. There is no significant difference between females and males in the way they responded to the survey questions on academic freedom and tenure.

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used on a Macintosh platform to perform the desired analyses.

# CHAPTER 4

# RESULTS

This chapter is divided into two sections: (1) Respondent Data and (2) Data Analysis.

## Respondent Data

A total of 1224 surveys were mailed. Of these 1224, 480 were mailed to administrators; 744 were mailed to faculty. 914 surveys were returned. This results in a return rate of 74.7%.

### Threshold Analysis

The threshold condition for inclusion in the study is that a respondent must have self-reported as either a full time administrator or a full time tenured or tenure track faculty member and also have self reported as having served in their current position at their current institution for at least three years. Questions 30 and 33 were used to establish this threshold. Respondents were included in this study if they checked either the category "Full-time administrator" or the category "Full-time tenured or tenure track faculty" for Q30 and also checked any category other than "less than 3 years" for Q33. Respondents who failed to answer either question were excluded from the study.

Of the 914 surveys that were returned, 357 respondents identified themselves as full-time administrators; 474 identified themselves as full-time faculty, 14 identified themselves as full-time non-administrative exempt; 66 identified themselves as other and 3 failed to identify themselves in any job title category.

Of the 914 surveys that were returned, 707 respondents identified themselves as having served in their current position at their current institution for at least 3 years. 13 failed to identify any category.

A total of 661 cases, or 72.3% of the total cases, met the combined criteria for inclusion in the study and were therefore selected for further analyses. 253 cases, or 27.7% of the total cases, were excluded. Of the 661 included cases, 265 are full time administra-

tors who had served in their current position at their current location for at least 3 years and 396 are full time tenured or tenure track faculty who had served in their current position at their current location for at least three years.

## Missing Data Analysis

The next analysis determined those respondents who answered every dependent variable, i.e. Q1 through Q29. In order to minimize error caused by failure to answer one or more of the dependent variables, only respondents who answered every dependent variable were included in the final set of cases for statistical analysis. Any respondent who failed to answer one or more of these questions was excluded from this set. 56 respondents were eliminated on this basis. This conservative approach attempts to control for missing data error caused by a respondent's failure to answer a survey question for some possibly strong, but unmeasured, opinion or attitude related to the content of the survey question left blank. It also controls for respondents who simply overlooked a set of questions in their answering the survey.

Of the 56 respondents eliminated from the study for failing to answer one or more of the dependent variable questions, 42 failed to answer only one question, 10 failed to answer 2 questions, 1 failed to answer 3 questions, 1 failed to answer 4 questions, 1 failed to answer 6 questions and 1 failed to answer 7 questions.

Cases were next analyzed for respondents who failed to answer one or more of the key independent variables related to this study, i.e., Q30 - Job Description, Q 35 - Race/Ethnic and Q36 - Gender. Respondents who failed to answer Q30 - Job Description or who failed to answer Q33 years served in current position at current institution were already eliminated by the threshold conditions for being included in the study. Thirteen respondents failed to answer the demographic Q35 Race/Ethnic. Five of these cases were previously eliminated on the basis of not having answered one or more of Q1 through Q29 leaving 8 additional cases eliminated for failure to answer Q35. Five respondents failed to

answer the demographic question Q36 Gender. None of these respondents failed to answer Q1 through Q29. However, each of these respondents also failed to answer Q35 Race/Ethnic and were previously eliminated on that basis. Therefore, no additional cases were eliminated for failure to answer Q36.

A total of eight additional cases were eliminated for not providing key demographic data. These eight cases were added to the 56 cases eliminated for failing to answer one ore more of Q1 through 29 resulting in a grand total of 64 cases eliminated from the study for missing data. 597 cases were included for further statistical analysis.

Confidence Level

597 cases survived. 243 respondents are full time administrators and 354 are full time tenure or tenure track faculty. 214 administrators and 338 faculty are needed to provide a confidence interval of ±5% with a confidence level of 95%. Each category has more respondents than the minimum number required to provide this desired level of confidence. See Table 2.

Table 2

Confidence Levels

| Category | Minimum n required for 95% confidence ± 5% | Actual n included in the study |
|---|---|---|
| Full-time administrator | 214 | 243 |
| Full-time faculty | 338 | 354 |

Recoding Race/Ethnic Data

Variable Q35 - Race/Ethnic is collapsed to a new variable Q35A - Collapsed Race/Ethnic to provide sufficient n for later analysis. In Q35 respondents self identified racial or ethnic heritage as shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Question 35 - Frequency

| Racial or Ethnic Heritage | Frequency | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| Native American | 13 | 2.2 |
| Asian/Pacific Islander | 28 | 4.7 |
| Black or African American | 19 | 3.2 |
| Latino/Hispanic | 16 | 2.7 |
| White/Caucasian | 521 | 87.3 |
| Total | 597 | 100.0 |

Categories Native American, Asian/Pacific Islander, Black or African American, and Latino/Hispanic were collapsed into the new category Minority. White/Caucasian was not collapsed. The data in Q35 were collapsed into a new variable Q35A as shown in Table 4.

Table 4

Question 35A - Frequency

| Racial or Ethnic Heritage | Frequency | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| Minority | 76 | 12.7 |
| White/Caucasian | 521 | 87.3 |
| Total | 597 | 100.0 |

Comparison of Cases Eliminated Because of Missing Data

The next analysis compares key demographic data of cases selected for inclusion in the study with key demographic data of those cases deleted from the study because of missing data. The key demographic data used for this comparison were variables Q30 - Job Description, Q35A - Collapsed Racial/Ethnic and Q36 Gender. These variables were selected since these are the variables to be analyzed by the ANOVA. These results are reported in Table 5.

To test the hypothesis that selection or elimination is independent of job description, or racial/ethnic heritage, or gender, the Pearson chi-square test was performed. The Pearson chi-square for each of these variables is reported in Table 6.

Table 5

Missing Data Analysis

| Demographics | Selected Cases | | Deleted Cases | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency | Valid % | Frequency | Valid % |
| Q30 - Job Description | | | | |
| Administrator | 243 | 40.7 | 22 | 34.4 |
| Faculty | 354 | 59.3 | 42 | 65.6 |
| Q35A - Collapsed Racial/Ethnic | | | | |
| Minority | 76 | 12.7 | 8 | 12.5 |
| White/Caucasian | 521 | 87.3 | 43 | 84.3 |
| Unknown | | | 13 | |
| Q36 - Gender | | | | |
| Female | 245 | 41.0 | 23 | 39.0 |
| Male | 352 | 59.0 | 36 | 61.0 |
| Unknown | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 |

Table 6

Selection Bias

| Variable | Pearson chi-square |
|---|---|
| Q30 - Job Description | .32621 |
| Q35A - Collapsed Racial/Ethnic | .54636 |
| Q36 - Gender | .75930 |

The hypothesis that selection into the study is independent of job description fails rejection at the .05 significance level as does the hypothesis that selection is independent of race/ethnicity as does the hypotheses that selection is independent of gender. The Pearson chi-squares indicate that there is approximately a 33 percent probability that the differences observed for job description are due to chance; a 55 percent probability that the differences due to racial/ethnic heritage are due to chance; and a 76 percent probability that the differences due to gender are based on chance. Therefore it seems unlikely that respondents who failed to answer the survey completely on key variables differ significantly in terms of job description, race/ethnicity and gender from respondents who answered all those variables. Simply stated, a person's job category, racial/ethnic heritage, or gender does not seem to

predict whether that person was either more likely or less likely to complete the survey. Selected cases match eliminated cases in terms of job category, racial/ethnic heritage, and gender.

## Demographic Comparisons

Administrators and faculty are compared on a percentage basis on the following demographic data: Experience in opposite job category, experience in current position at current institution, total experience in higher education, racial/ethnic heritage, gender, age and highest degree held.

### Experience In Opposite Job Category

Forty percent of administrators reported previous experience as faculty while only 6.2 percent of the faculty reported previous administrative experience. The relatively high proportion of administrators with previous faculty experience may produce a history effect. A history effect exists if respondents have some previous experience that, in addition to their current job category or role, may have influenced their current perceptions of academic freedom and tenure. Previous experience in the opposite job category may be such a history effect.

Therefore, although not included in the original research questions, the possibility of a history effect suggests the following additional research questions: To what extent do administrators with previous faculty experience and administrators without previous faculty experience in Washington State community colleges differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure? To what extent do faculty with previous administrative experience and faculty without previous administrative experience in Washington State community colleges differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure? To what extent do administrators with previous faculty experience and faculty with previous administrative experience in Washington State community colleges differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure? To what extent do administrators without previous faculty experience and faculty

without previous administrative experience in Washington State community colleges differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

Current Experience

In general, administrators reported having fewer years of experience in their current position at their current institution than did faculty (see Figure 1). The Pearson chi-square significance was <.001, meaning that there is less than a .1 percent probability that the difference in current level of experience between administrators and faculty is due to chance alone.

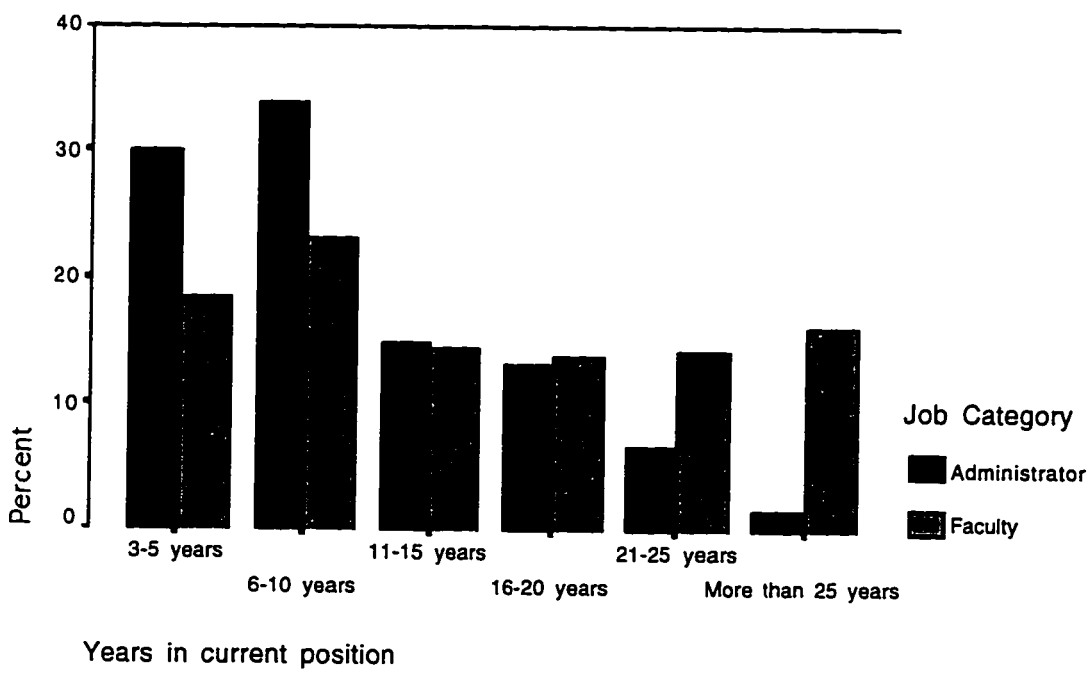


Figure 1

Current Experience

The level of experience in respondents' current job category at their current institution may be seen as a maturation effect. If respondents with differing levels of experience in their current job category at their current institution differ significantly on their re-

sponses, then a maturation effect due to current level of experience needs to be cited as a limitation of the study.

The additional research question to measure this effect becomes: To what extent do respondents with differing levels of experience in their current job category at their current institution differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

Total Experience

In general administrators report having more years of total experience in higher education than do the faculty (see Figure 2). The Pearson chi-square significance was <.001, meaning that there is less than a .1 percent probability that the differences in total level of experience between administrators and faculty are due to chance alone. This level of probability is considered significant.

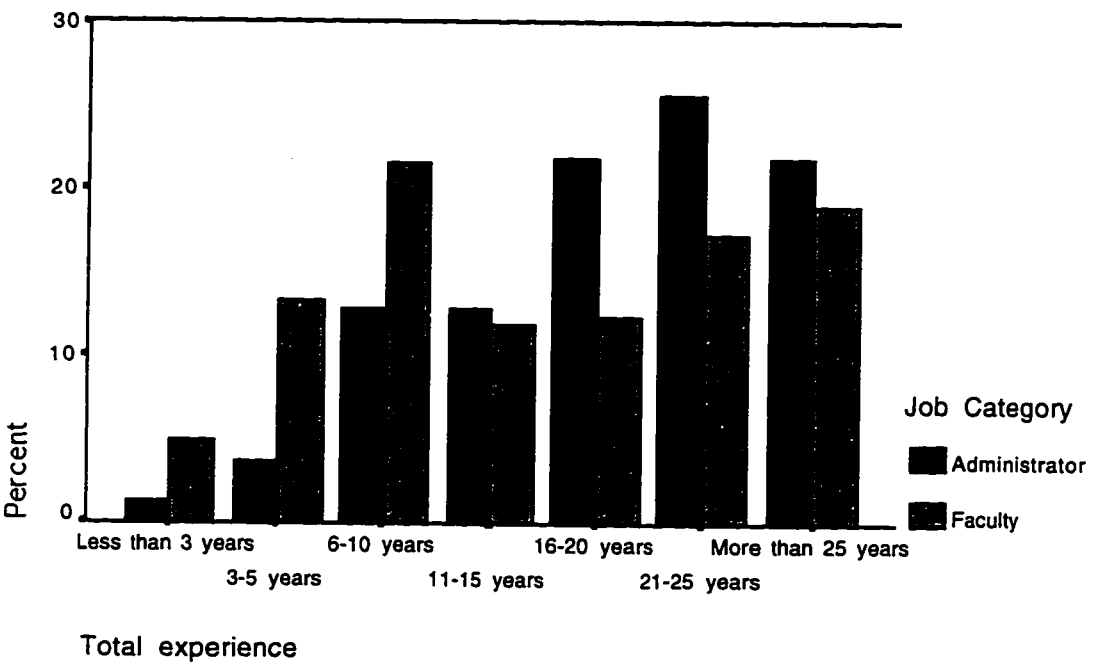


Figure 2

Total Experience

Total level of experience in higher education may be seen as a combined history-maturation effect. If respondents with differing levels of total experience in higher education differ significantly on their responses, then a combined history-maturation effect due to total level of experience in higher education needs to be cited as a limitation of the study.

The additional research question to measure this effect becomes: To what extent do respondents with differing levels of total experience in higher education differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

Racial/Ethnic Heritage:

The overwhelming preponderance of both administrators and faculty were white see Figure 3). Minorities were slightly better represented among administrators than among faculty. 15.6 percent of the administrators are minority while 10.7 percent of the faculty are

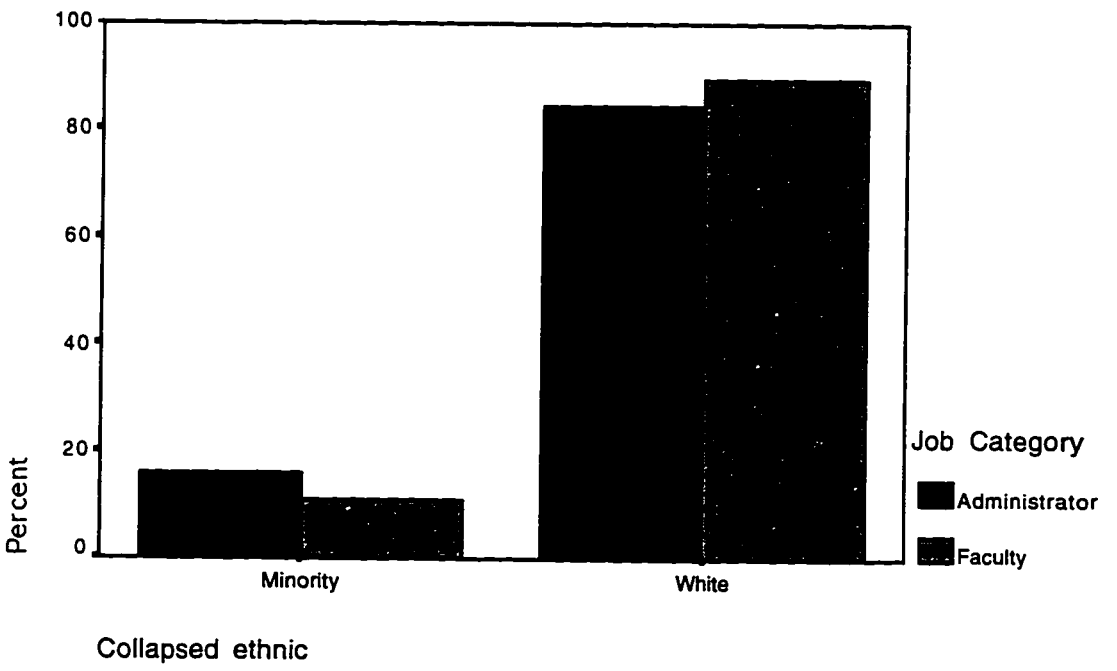


Figure 3

Racial/Ethnic Heritage

minority. The Pearson chi-square significance is .077, meaning that there is a 7.7 percent probability that the difference in minority population between administrators and faculty is due to chance alone. This level of probability is not considered significant. Differences between how minorities and whites responded to survey questions are part of the original research questions.

Gender

There is a greater percentage of females among faculty than among administrators. 43.5 percent of the faculty are female while 37.4 percent of the administrators are female (see Figure 4). The Pearson chi-square significance is .140, meaning that there is a 14.0 percent probability that the difference in gender distribution between administrators and faculty is due to chance alone. This level of probability is not considered significant.

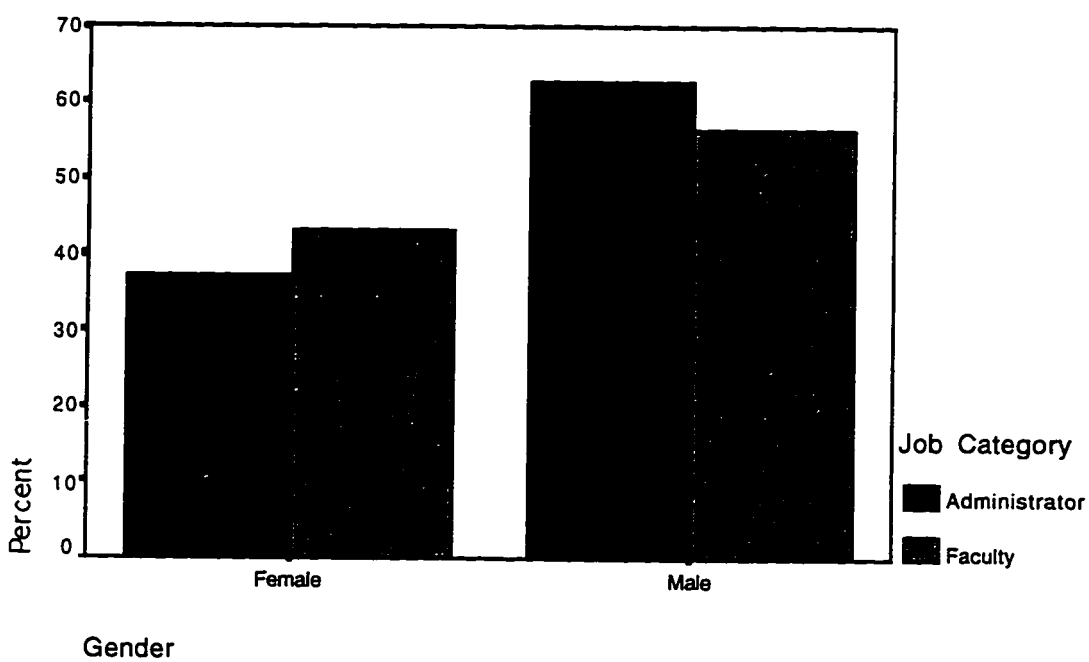


Figure 4

Gender

Differences between how females and males responded to survey questions are part of the original research questions.

Age

Administrators in general are older than faculty (see Figure 5). The Pearson chi-square significance was .003, meaning that there is less than a .3 percent probability that the differences in age between administrators and faculty are due to chance alone. This level of probability is considered significant.

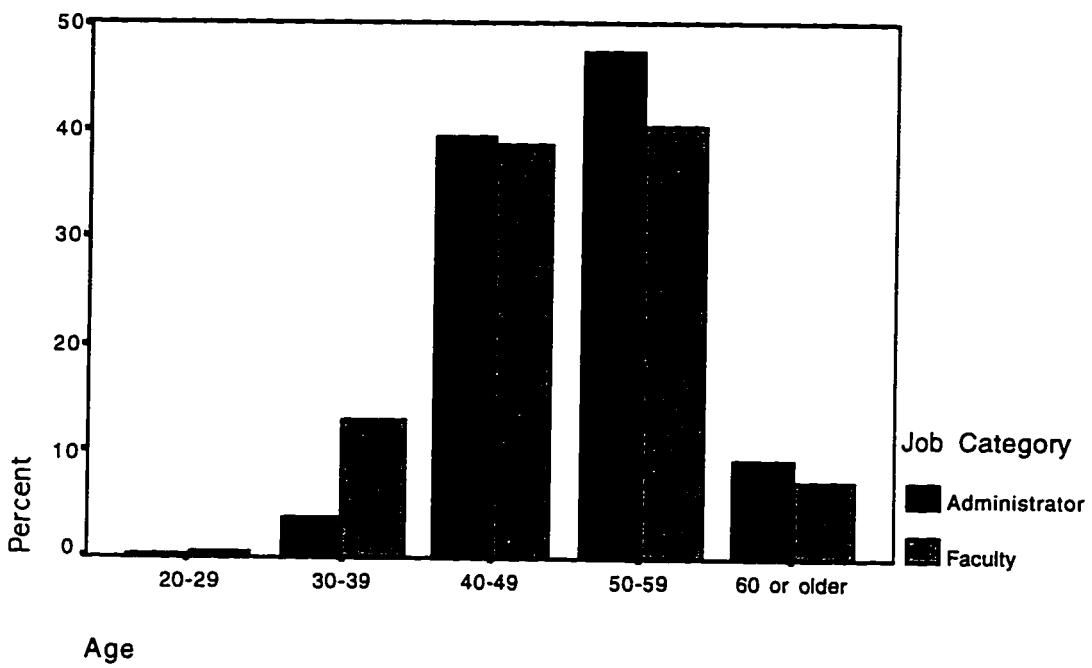


Figure 5

Age

Age may be seen as a selection-maturation effect. If respondents with differing ages differ significantly on their responses, then a selection-maturation effect due to age needs to be cited as a limitation of the study.

The additional research question to measure this effect becomes: To what extent do respondents with differing ages differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

Level of Education

Administrators and faculty differ (See Figure 6). 30.2 percent of administrators hold a doctorate while 14.8 percent of the faculty hold a doctorate. 56.6 percent of administrators hold a master's degree as their highest degree while 71.9 percent of the faculty do. The Pearson chi-square significance was <.001, meaning that there is less than a .1 percent probability that the differences in level of education between administrators and faculty are due to chance alone. This level of probability is considered significant.

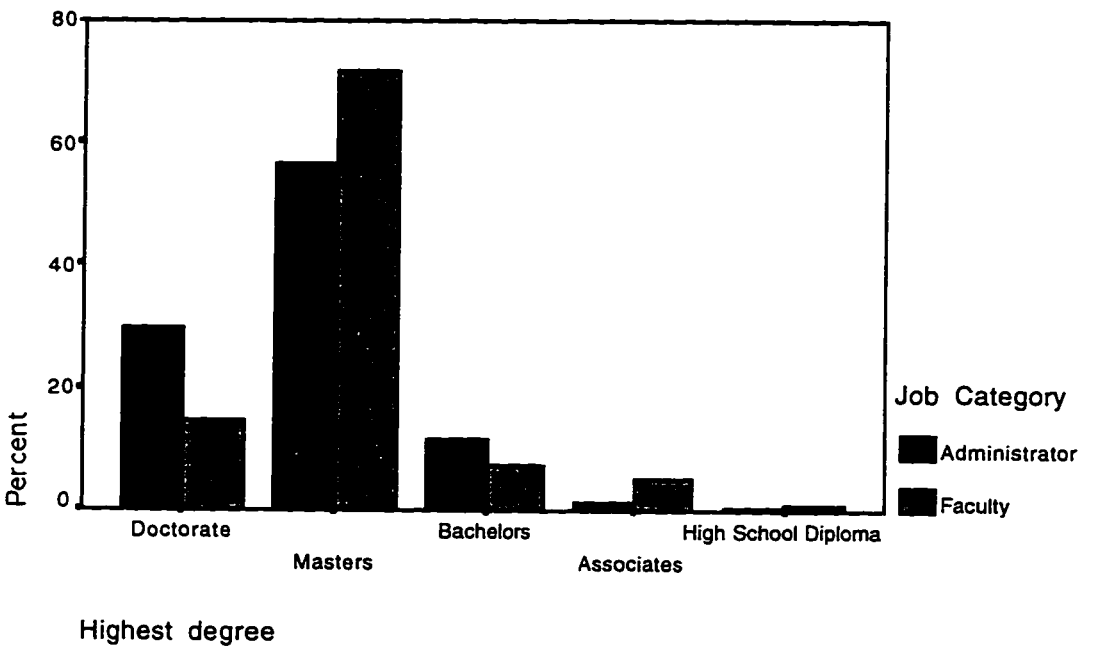


Figure 6

Level of Education

The level of education may be seen as a combined history-maturation effect. If respondents with differing levels of education differ significantly on their responses, then a

combined history-maturation effect due to level of education needs to be cited as a limitation of the study.

The additional research question to measure this effect becomes: To what extent do respondents with differing levels of education differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

Additional Research Questions

The above review of demographic variables indicates the possibility of a set of effects that might influence the way respondents answered the survey. Although not included in the original set of research questions, these additional questions might help interpret observed differences. These additional research questions are added to the original list of research questions and are labeled as:

8. To what extent do administrators with previous faculty experience and administrators without previous faculty experience in Washington State community colleges differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

9. To what extent do faculty with previous administrative experience and faculty without previous administrative experience in Washington State community colleges differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

10. To what extent do administrators with previous faculty experience and faculty with previous administrative experience in Washington State community colleges differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

11. To what extent do administrators without previous faculty experience and faculty without previous administrative experience in Washington State community colleges differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

12. To what extent do respondents with differing levels of experience in their current job category at their current institution differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

13. To what extent do respondents with differing levels of total experience in higher education differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

14. To what extent do respondents with differing age levels differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

15. To what extent do respondents with differing levels of education differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

## Data Analysis

To analyze each of the seven original research questions a two step process was utilized:

1. A factor analysis was performed on the twenty-nine dependent variables to reduce and simplify the data.

2. A three-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was performed on each of the resultant factors.

To analyze each of the eight additional research questions a series of one-way Analysis of Variances (ANOVAs) was performed on each of the resultant factors.

### Factor Analysis

A factor analysis was performed on the dependent variables Q01 through Q29. These are the questions in the survey that report a subject's responses to attitudes and opinions about academic freedom and tenure. The purpose of performing the factor analysis is to simplify the data by searching for underlying factors or constructs that might account for a respondent's pattern of answers.

A principle components analysis was performed using a varimax rotation. Factors with eigenvalues of greater than 1 were retained. Variables that loaded with a coefficient of less than .40 were rejected. Variables that loaded with .40 or above into two or more factors with a difference of more that .05 between the loadings were assigned to the factor with the highest loading.

Variables Q03, Q22, and Q24 initially loaded with negative coefficients. To simplify interpretation, these variables were recoded with inverse values. In each of these three variables the value -2 was substituted for 2, -1 was substituted for 1, 0 was retained as 0, 1 was substituted for -1, and 2 was substituted for -2. The new variables were labeled Q03A, Q22A and Q24A respectively.

The factor analysis was re-run using the same parameters as the initial factor analysis except that the recoded variables Q03A, Q 22A and Q24A were substituted for their counterparts in the original factor analysis.

Q17 loaded into Factor 4 with a coefficient of .49107 and into factor 6 with a coefficient of .55223. Since the difference is greater than .05, Q17 was grouped with factor 6 and deleted from factor 4. Similarly Q13 loaded into factor 6 with a coefficient of .46285 and into factor 8 with a coefficient of .51655. Q13 was grouped with factor 8 and deleted from factor 6. Q26 loaded into factor 6 with a coefficient of .46877 and into factor 7 with a coefficient of .51436. Although the difference is only .046, Q26 was dropped from factor 6 and retained with factor 7 based on the question's face validity with the construct in factor 7 and its lack of face validity with the construct in factor 6. Q21 "The principle of tenure provides an unconditional guarantee of lifetime employment between the granting institution and the faculty member" failed to load into any factor and was therefore dropped from further analyses.

The underlying construct of each factor was determined on the basis of the face validity of the questions related to each of the factors. These constructs are identified with each of the factor names respectively in Table 7.

The five questions that group together for inclusion in Factor 1 - Importance and Impact, may have as their basis the perceived importance of the general principles of academic freedom and tenure. Each of the variables is a negatively stated belief or attitude

about the overall importance or impact of these principles as a whole on faculty and academic life.

Table 7

Factor Names

| Factor Number | Factor Name |
|---|---|
| Factor 1 | Importance and Impact |
| Factor 2 | Understandability |
| Factor 3 | Professional Autonomy |
| Factor 4 | Classroom Autonomy |
| Factor 5 | Dismissal for Wrongful Behavior |
| Factor 6 | General Freedom of Speech |
| Factor 7 | Dismissal for Cause |
| Factor 8 | Student Rights |
| Factor 9 | Academic Speech |

The four questions that group together for inclusion in Factor 2 - Understandability, may have as their basis the perceived understandability of the general principles of academic freedom and tenure by both administrators and faculty. Each of the variables is a positive statement about the number of administrators or faculty who are perceived as understanding the concepts of academic freedom and tenure.

The four questions that group together for inclusion in Factor 3 - Professional Autonomy, may have as their basis the perceived limits that academic freedom places on college administration or other faculty for controlling individual faculty behavior outside the classroom itself. Each of the four variables is a positive statement on setting limits on what might be perceived as interference from either administrators or other faculty with individual faculty rights outside the classroom proper.

The two questions that group together for inclusion in Factor 4 - Classroom Autonomy, may have as their basis the perceived limits that academic freedom places on college administrators or other faculty for controlling individual faculty within the classroom. Each of the two variables is a positive statement on setting limits on what might be perceived as

interference from either administrators or other faculty with individual faculty rights inside the classroom proper.

The two questions that group together for inclusion in Factor 5 - Dismissal for Wrongful Behavior, may have as their basis dismissal for cause based upon behavior that is considered wrong, either morally or ethically. Each of the two variables is a positive statement that permits the dismissal of faculty for improper behavior. The almost exact wording of each of these questions, along with the probable overlap in definitions between moral and ethical behavior in the minds of many, may account for the close grouping of these two variables.

The three questions that group together for inclusion in Factor 6 - General Freedom of Speech, may have as their basis the perceived protections that academic freedom and tenure give to faculty on general first amendment freedom of speech issues. Each of the three questions is a positive statement containing the idea of protecting or safeguarding what may be perceived as general free speech practices.

The three questions that group together for inclusion in Factor 7 - Dismissal for Cause, may have as their basis generally understand concepts related to the dismissal of tenured faculty for cause. Each of the three variables are negative statements placing limits on the dismissal of faculty for behavior.

The three questions that group together for inclusion in Factor 8 - Student Rights, may have as their basis the perceived impact that faculty behavior may have directly on students. Each of the three variables are positive statements protecting faculty when there is a perceived difference between faculty behavior and student expectancies for that behavior.

Lastly, the two questions that group together for Factor 9 - Academic Speech, may have as their basis some very general and somewhat nebulous concepts of permissible faculty speech in and out of the classroom. Both variables are positive statements placing limits on faculty speech. The concepts of "controversial matter" and "appropriate restraint"

may share a common ground of not being easy to define and may further account for this grouping.

These factor groupings are listed in Table 8.

Table 8

Factor Groupings

| Factor 1 - Importance and Impact | | Eigenvalue = 4.07080 |
|---|---|---|
| Variable | Question | Coefficient |
| Q20 | Tenure is an outmoded concept with little justification for continuance. | .80342 |
| Q22A | The principle of tenure does not provide a valuable tool for attracting and retaining high caliber teachers to higher education. | .67166 |
| Q25 | The principle of tenure protects incompetent faculty from dismissal. | .64680 |
| Q04 | Academic freedom is not a relevant principle to the protection of faculty rights. | .55904 |
| Q03A | Academic freedom is not a principle vital to the mission of higher education. | .50825 |
| Factor 2 - Understandability | | Eigenvalue = 2.96111 |
| Variable | Question | Coefficient |
| Q19 | Most administrators on my campus have a clear understanding of the meaning of tenure. | .80317 |
| Q18 | Most faculty on my campus have a clear understanding of the meaning of tenure. | .79382 |
| Q02 | Most administrators on my campus have a clear understanding of the meaning of academic freedom. | .78308 |
| Q01 | Most faculty on my campus have a clear understanding of the meaning of academic freedom. | .74472 |

Table 8 (Continued)

| Factor 3 - Professional Autonomy | | Eigenvalue =2.55716 |
|---|---|---|
| Variable | Question | Coefficient |
| Q06 | The principle of academic freedom prohibits administration from changing a student's final grade in a course without the concurrence of the faculty member who originally assigned the grade. | .74225 |
| Q07 | The principle of academic freedom allows individual faculty to select the textbooks for their own courses. | .68438 |
| Q05 | The principle of academic freedom prohibits the institution from placing restrictions on a faculty member's off-campus teaching or consulting activities. | .64816 |
| Q12 | The principle of academic freedom permits individual faculty to determine which courses they will teach. | .42095 |
| Factor 4 - Classroom Autonomy | | Eigenvalue = 1.88185 |
| Variable | Question | Coefficient |
| Q15 | The principle of academic freedom permits individual teachers to use their own teaching methods, even if such methods are at variance with college rules and regulations. | .81571 |
| Q16 | The principle of academic freedom permits individual teachers to use their own grading system, even if such methods are at variance with college rules and regulations. | .77617 |
| Factor 5 - Dismissal for Wrongful Behavior | | Eigenvalue = 1.40446 |
| Variable | Question | Coefficient |
| Q29 | In principle, faculty with tenure may be dismissed for unethical behavior. | .89684 |
| Q28 | In principle, faculty with tenure may be dismissed for immoral behavior. | .87398 |

Table 8 (Continued)

| Factor 6 - General Freedom of Speech | | Eigenvalue = 1.18004 |
|---|---|---|
| Variable | Question | Coefficient |
| Q14 | The principle of academic freedom protects faculty who publicly criticize their institutions when speaking as private citizens on matters of public concern. | .60364 |
| Q23 | The primary purpose of the principle of tenure is to safeguard the principles and practices of academic freedom | .56734 |
| Q17 | The principle of academic freedom protects faculty freedom of speech even if such speech substantially disrupts the operations of the institution. | .55223 |
| Factor 7 - Dismissal for Cause | | Eigenvalue = 1.11391 |
| Variable | Question | Coefficient |
| Q27 | In principle, neglect of duty is not sufficient grounds for dismissing a tenured member of the faculty. | .68718 |
| Q24A | In principle, faculty with tenure may not be dismissed for just cause. | .67753 |
| Q26 | In principle, insubordination is not sufficient grounds for dismissing a tenured member of the faculty. | .51436 |
| Factor 8 - Student Rights | | Eigenvalue = 1.07656 |
| Variable | Question | Coefficient |
| Q08 | The principle of academic freedom prevents administration from disciplining faculty who are found to be orally abusive to students. | .78667 |
| Q11 | The principle of academic freedom prevents administration from requiring faculty to modify how they give examinations to accommodate disabled students. | .61165 |
| Q13 | The principle of academic freedom protects faculty who use profane or vulgar language in the classroom as part of their teaching style. | .51655 |

Table 8 (Continued)

| Factor 9 - Academic Speech | | Eigenvalue = 1.03179 |
|---|---|---|
| Variable | Question | Coefficient |
| Q09 | The principle of academic freedom expects faculty to refrain from teaching controversial matter that is not related to the subject matter or content of the course. | .78798 |
| Q10 | The principle of academic freedom expects faculty to exercise appropriate restraint in off-campus speech. | .69143 |

These nine factors account for a total of 59.7 percent of the variability.

## Analysis of Variance

This analysis attempts to answer research questions 1 through 7:

1. To what extent do administrators and faculty in Washington State community colleges differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

2. Is there a two-way interaction effect of race/ethnicity with job category, i.e., administrator or faculty position?

3. Is there a two-way interaction effect of gender with job category, i.e., administrator or faculty position?

4. Is there a two-way interaction effect of race/ethnicity with gender?

5. Is there a three-way interaction effect of race/ethnicity with gender and with job category?

6. To what extent do minorities and whites who are employed as administrators and faculty in Washington State community colleges differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

7. To what extent do females and males who are employed as administrators and faculty in Washington State community colleges differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

The three-way ANOVA was chosen to examine the interaction effects of the variables race/ethnicity and gender with job category and with each other. Babbie (1990) refers to this process as an elaboration analysis. Before concluding that the difference in job category, i.e. administrator versus faculty, accounts for any observed differences, it is important to understand the possible impact of other common variables that might also account for these differences. Therefore an elaboration analysis that introduces the variables of race/ethnicity and gender is built into the study. Babbie (1990, p. 272) suggested the value of elaboration analysis in this manner, "Having observed an empirical relationship between two variables, you seek to understand the nature of the relationship through the effects produced by introducing other variables."

For each factor several questions are of interest: Does job category relate to the mean scores of the factor? Does race/ethnicity relate to the mean scores of the factor? Does gender relate to the mean scores of the factor? Is there an interaction between job category and race/ethnicity? Is there an interaction between job category and gender? Is there an interaction between race/ethnicity and gender? Is there an interaction among job category, race/ethnicity and gender?

The null hypotheses that there is no difference between how administrators and faculty answered questions about academic freedom and tenure on the survey is tested. Additionally, the null hypotheses that there is no difference between how minorities and whites responded and that there is no difference between how females and males responded are also tested. Also, the null hypothesis that there is no interaction effects of race/ethnicity and gender with each other and with job category are tested. A 3-way factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA) is used to test for these effects.

The mean and standard deviation for each factor are reported in Tables 9, 10 and 11.

Table 9

Factor Means - Job Category

| Factor | Administrators | | | Faculty | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N | Mean | Std Dev | N | Mean | Std Dev |
| Factor 1 | 243 | .49 | .98 | 354 | -.34 | .87 |
| Factor 2 | 243 | .03 | 1.07 | 354 | -.02 | .95 |
| Factor 3 | 243 | -.44 | .99 | 354 | .30 | .89 |
| Factor 4 | 243 | -.25 | .98 | 354 | .17 | .98 |
| Factor 5 | 243 | -.03 | 1.00 | 354 | .02 | 1.00 |
| Factor 6 | 243 | -.10 | .95 | 354 | .07 | 1.03 |
| Factor 7 | 243 | -.07 | 1.03 | 354 | .05 | .98 |
| Factor 8 | 243 | -.11 | 1.10 | 354 | .08 | .92 |
| Factor 9 | 243 | .03 | 1.04 | 354 | -.02 | .97 |

Table 10

Factor Means - Race/Ethnicity

| Factor | Minorities | | | Whites | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N | Mean | Std Dev | N | Mean | Std Dev |
| Factor 1 | 76 | .18 | 1.08 | 521 | -.03 | .99 |
| Factor 2 | 76 | .10 | 1.02 | 521 | -.01 | 1.00 |
| Factor 3 | 76 | .14 | 1.00 | 521 | -.02 | 1.00 |
| Factor 4 | 76 | .24 | 1.02 | 521 | -.04 | .99 |
| Factor 5 | 76 | .09 | 1.00 | 521 | -.01 | 1.00 |
| Factor 6 | 76 | -.16 | .97 | 521 | .02 | 1.00 |
| Factor 7 | 76 | .22 | 1.08 | 521 | -.03 | .99 |
| Factor 8 | 76 | .12 | 1.16 | 521 | -.02 | .97 |
| Factor 9 | 76 | -.17 | .98 | 521 | .03 | 1.00 |

Table 11

Factor Means - Gender

| Factor | Females | | | Males | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N | Mean | Std Dev | N | Mean | Std Dev |
| Factor 1 | 245 | .04 | 1.00 | 352 | -.03 | 1.00 |
| Factor 2 | 245 | .02 | .98 | 352 | -.02 | 1.02 |
| Factor 3 | 245 | .12 | 1.00 | 352 | -.09 | .99 |
| Factor 4 | 245 | -.02 | 1.03 | 352 | .01 | .98 |
| Factor 5 | 245 | -.01 | 1.05 | 352 | .01 | .97 |
| Factor 6 | 245 | -.12 | 1.01 | 352 | .08 | .99 |
| Factor 7 | 245 | .14 | 1.09 | 352 | -.10 | .92 |
| Factor 8 | 245 | .12 | .93 | 352 | .08 | 1.04 |
| Factor 9 | 245 | .02 | 1.29 | 352 | .01 | 1.00 |

Degrees of freedom and F ratios are summarized for the main effects, 2-way interactions and 3-way interactions for each of the nine factors in Table 12.

Table 12

Summary of Results of 3-Way ANOVA

| Factor 1 - Importance and Impact | df | F |
|---|---|---|
| Main Effects | 3 | 20.650** |
| Job Category | 1 | 60.507*** |
| Race/Ethnicity | 1 | 1.137 |
| Gender | 1 | .446 |
| 2-way Interactions | 3 | .287 |
| Job Category vs. Race/Ethnicity | 1 | .797 |
| Job Category vs. Gender | 1 | .002 |
| Race/Ethnicity vs. Gender | 1 | .022 |
| 3-way Interactions | 1 | .909 |
| Job Category vs. Race/Ethnicity vs. Gender | 1 | .909 |

| Factor 2 - Understandability | df | F |
|---|---|---|
| Main Effects | 3 | .516 |
| Job Category | 1 | .127 |
| Race/Ethnicity | 1 | 1.010 |
| Gender | 1 | .575 |
| 2-way Interactions | 3 | .230 |
| Job Category vs. Race/Ethnicity | 1 | .008 |
| Job Category vs. Gender | 1 | .053 |
| Race/Ethnicity vs. Gender | 1 | .639 |
| 3-way Interactions | 1 | .320 |
| Job Category vs. Race/Ethnicity vs. Gender | 1 | .320 |

| Factor 3 - Professional Autonomy | df | F |
|---|---|---|
| Main Effects | 3 | 16.627*** |
| Job Category | 1 | 44.353*** |
| Race/Ethnicity | 1 | 4.104* |
| Gender | 1 | 1.326 |
| 2-way Interactions | 3 | .058 |
| Job Category vs. Race/Ethnicity | 1 | .040 |
| Job Category vs. Gender | 1 | .133 |
| Race/Ethnicity vs. Gender | 1 | .016 |
| 3-way Interactions | 1 | .098 |
| Job Category vs. Race/Ethnicity vs. Gender | 1 | .098 |

Table 12 (Continued)

| Factor 4 - Classroom Autonomy | df | F |
|---|---|---|
| Main Effects | 3 | 6.041*** |
| Job Category | 1 | 11.132*** |
| Race/Ethnicity | 1 | 7.245** |
| Gender | 1 | .093 |
| 2-way Interactions | 3 | .152 |
| Job Category vs. Race/Ethnicity | 1 | .001 |
| Job Category vs. Gender | 1 | .073 |
| Race/Ethnicity vs. Gender | 1 | .370 |
| 3-way Interactions | 1 | 2.338 |
| Job Category vs. Race/Ethnicity vs. Gender | 1 | 2.338 |

| Factor 5 - Dismissal for Wrongful Behavior | df | F |
|---|---|---|
| Main Effects | 3 | .859 |
| Job Category | 1 | 1.264 |
| Race/Ethnicity | 1 | .843 |
| Gender | 1 | .536 |
| 2-way Interactions | 3 | .808 |
| Job Category vs. Race/Ethnicity | 1 | 1.273 |
| Job Category vs. Gender | 1 | .039 |
| Race/Ethnicity vs. Gender | 1 | .889 |
| 3-way Interactions | 1 | .879 |
| Job Category vs. Race/Ethnicity vs. Gender | 1 | .879 |

| Factor 6 - General Freedom of Speech | df | F |
|---|---|---|
| Main Effects | 3 | 2.579 |
| Job Category | 1 | 4.655* |
| Race/Ethnicity | 1 | 1.761 |
| Gender | 1 | 1.907 |
| 2-way Interactions | 3 | .713 |
| Job Category vs. Race/Ethnicity | 1 | 1.652 |
| Job Category vs. Gender | 1 | .249 |
| Race/Ethnicity vs. Gender | 1 | .031 |
| 3-way Interactions | 1 | .310 |
| Job Category vs. Race/Ethnicity vs. Gender | 1 | .310 |

Table 12 (Continued)

| Factor 7 - Dismissal for Cause | df | F |
|---|---|---|
| Main Effects | 3 | 2.885* |
| Job Category | 1 | .011 |
| Race/Ethnicity | 1 | 4.837* |
| Gender | 1 | 4.761* |
| 2-way Interactions | 3 | .632 |
| Job Category vs. Race/Ethnicity | 1 | 1.759 |
| Job Category vs. Gender | 1 | .025 |
| Race/Ethnicity vs. Gender | 1 | .091 |
| 3-way Interactions | 1 | .173 |
| Job Category vs. Race/Ethnicity vs. Gender | 1 | .173 |

| Factor 8 - Student Rights | df | F |
|---|---|---|
| Main Effects | 3 | 2.025 |
| Job Category | 1 | 1.567 |
| Race/Ethnicity | 1 | 2.205 |
| Gender | 1 | 2.084 |
| 2-way Interactions | 3 | .342 |
| Job Category vs. Race/Ethnicity | 1 | .585 |
| Job Category vs. Gender | 1 | .031 |
| Race/Ethnicity vs. Gender | 1 | .492 |
| 3-way Interactions | 1 | 1.319 |
| Job Category vs. Race/Ethnicity vs. Gender | 1 | 1.319 |

| Factor 9 - Academic Speech | df | F |
|---|---|---|
| Main Effects | 3 | 1.294 |
| Job Category | 1 | .053 |
| Race/Ethnicity | 1 | 3.174 |
| Gender | 1 | .983 |
| 2-way Interactions | 3 | .290 |
| Job Category vs. Race/Ethnicity | 1 | .058 |
| Job Category vs. Gender | 1 | .007 |
| Race/Ethnicity vs. Gender | 1 | .831 |
| 3-way Interactions | 1 | .091 |
| Job Category vs. Race/Ethnicity vs. Gender | 1 | .091 |

* $p < .05$ Level of Significance
** $p < .01$ Level of Significance
*** $p < .001$ Level of Significance

The results of the 3-way ANOVAs for research questions 1 - 7 are summarized as follows:

Factor 1 - Importance and Impact

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means of administrators and faculty is rejected ($p = <.001$).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means of minorities and whites fails to be rejected ($p = .287$).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means of females and males fails to be rejected ($p = .505$).

The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effect between job category and race/ethnicity fails to be rejected ($p = .372$).

The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effect between job category and gender fails to be rejected ($p = .963$).

The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effect between race/ethnicity and gender fails to be rejected ($p = .881$).

The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effects among job category, race/ethnicity and gender fails to be rejected ($p = .341$).

Factor 2 - Understandability

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means of administrators and faculty fails to be rejected ($p = .721$).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means of minorities and whites fails to be rejected ($p = .315$).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means of females and males fails to be rejected ($p = .448$).

The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effect between job category and race/ethnicity fails to be rejected ($p = .930$).

The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effect between job category and gender fails to be rejected ($p = .818$).

The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effect between race/ethnicity and gender fails to be rejected ($p = .424$).

The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effects among job category, race/ethnicity and gender fails to be rejected ($p = .572$).

Factor 3 - Professional Autonomy

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means of administrators and faculty is rejected ($p = <.001$).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means of minorities and whites is rejected ($p = .043$).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means of females and males fails to be rejected ($p = .250$).

The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effect between job category and race/ethnicity fails to be rejected ($p = .842$).

The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effect between job category and gender fails to be rejected ($p = .716$).

The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effect between race/ethnicity and gender fails to be rejected ($p = .900$).

The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effects among job category, race/ethnicity and gender fails to be rejected ($p = .754$).

Factor 4 - Classroom Autonomy

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means of administrators and faculty is rejected ($p = .001$).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means of minorities and whites fails is rejected ($p = .007$).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means of females and males fails to be rejected ($p = .760$).

The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effect between job category and race/ethnicity fails to be rejected ($p = .982$).

The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effect between job category and gender fails to be rejected ($p = .787$).

The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effect between race/ethnicity and gender fails to be rejected ($p = .543$).

The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effects among job category, race/ethnicity and gender fails to be rejected ($p = .127$).

Factor 5 - Dismissal for Wrongful Behavior

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means of administrators and faculty fails to be rejected ($p = .261$).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means of minorities and whites fails to be rejected ($p = .359$).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means of females and males fails to be rejected ($p = .464$).

The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effect between job category and race/ethnicity fails to be rejected ($p = .260$).

The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effect between job category and gender fails to be rejected ($p = .844$).

The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effect between race/ethnicity and gender fails to be rejected ($p = .346$).

The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effects among job category, race/ethnicity and gender fails to be rejected ($p = .349$).

Factor 6 - General Freedom of Speech

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means of administrators and faculty is rejected ($p = .031$).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means of minorities and whites fails to be rejected ($p = .185$).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means of females and males fails to be rejected ($p = .168$).

The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effect between job category and race/ethnicity fails to be rejected ($p = .199$).

The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effect between job category and gender fails to be rejected ($p = .618$).

The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effect between race/ethnicity and gender fails to be rejected ($p = .861$).

The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effects among job category, race/ethnicity and gender fails to be rejected ($p = .578$).

Factor 7 - Dismissal for Cause

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means of administrators and faculty fails to be rejected ($p = .918$).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means of minorities and whites is rejected ($p = .028$).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means of females and males fails is rejected ($p = .030$).

The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effect between job category and race/ethnicity fails to be rejected ($p = .185$).

The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effect between job category and gender fails to be rejected ($p = .875$).

The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effect between race/ethnicity and gender fails to be rejected ($p = .763$).

The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effects among job category, race/ethnicity and gender fails to be rejected ($p = .678$).

Factor 8 - Student Rights

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means of administrators and faculty fails to be rejected ($p = .211$).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means of minorities and whites fails to be rejected ($p = .138$).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means of females and males fails to be rejected ($p = .149$).

The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effect between job category and race/ethnicity fails to be rejected ($p = .445$).

The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effect between job category and gender fails to be rejected ($p = .859$).

The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effect between race/ethnicity and gender fails to be rejected ($p = .483$).

The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effects among job category, race/ethnicity and gender fails to be rejected ($p = .251$).

Factor 9 - Academic Speech

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means of administrators and faculty fails to be rejected ($p = .817$).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means of minorities and whites fails to be rejected ($p = .075$).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means of females and males fails to be rejected ($p = .322$).

The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effect between job category and race/ethnicity fails to be rejected ($p = .811$).

The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effect between job category and gender fails to be rejected ($p = .934$).

The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effect between race/ethnicity and gender fails to be rejected ($p = .362$).

The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effects among job category, race/ethnicity and gender fails to be rejected ($p = .763$).

History and Maturation Effects

Analysis for Previous Experience

This analysis attempts to answer research questions 8, 9, 10 and 11:

8. To what extent do administrators with previous faculty experience and administrators without previous faculty experience in Washington State community colleges differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

9. To what extent do faculty with previous administrative experience and faculty without previous administrative experience in Washington State community colleges differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

10. To what extent do administrators with previous faculty experience and faculty with previous administrative experience in Washington State community colleges differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

11. To what extent do administrators without previous faculty experience and faculty without previous administrative experience in Washington State community colleges differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

Research questions 8, 9, 10 and 11 may be viewed as a simple 2 by 2 matrix. ANOVAs were performed down the columns for research questions 8 and 9 and across the rows for research questions 10 and 11 (see Table 13).

Table 13

Research Question Matrix

| | Research question 8 | Research question 9 |
|---|---|---|
| Research question 10 | Administrator with previous faculty experience | Faculty with previous administrative experience |
| Research question 11 | Administrator without previous faculty experience | Faculty without previous administrator experience |

97 out of the 243 or 40 percent of the administrators reported having previous experience as a faculty member. 22 out of the 348 faculty members or 6.2 percent of the faculty reported previous experience as administrators. Thus, 119 respondents out of 591 total respondents reported having been previously employed in opposite roles. This resulted in 20.1 percent of respondents who experienced both roles. Even though a threshold of three years in current position at current institution was imposed to control for history effects, this relatively large proportion of respondents who were exposed to multiple roles brings into question the possibility of significant cross contamination from their history of previous experience in opposite roles.

To test for differences down each column a simple one-way ANOVA was performed comparing administrators with no previous faculty experience with administrators with previous faculty experience (Research question 8). Similarly, a simple one-way ANOVA was performed comparing faculty with no previous administrative experience with faculty with previous administrative experience (Research question 9). Each of these ANOVAs was performed on each of the 9 factors. For each factor respectively, the ANOVA tested the null hypothesis that there is no difference between respondents who did not have previous experience in the opposite job category with respondents who had previous experience in the opposite job category. The factor means and standard deviations for administrators are reported in Table 14; the factors means and standard deviations for fac-

ulty are reported in Table 15. The summary of results of the one-way ANOVA are reported in Table 16.

Table 14

Factor Means - Administrators

| Factor | Administrators with no faculty experience | | | Administrators with faculty experience | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N | Mean | Std Dev | N | Mean | Std Dev |
| Factor 1 | 146 | .6590 | .9639 | 97 | .2430 | .9510 |
| Factor 2 | 146 | .1575 | 1.0032 | 97 | -.1527 | 1.1429 |
| Factor 3 | 146 | -.4215 | .9895 | 97 | -.4660 | .9875 |
| Factor 4 | 146 | -.1673 | .9851 | 97 | -.3727 | .9613 |
| Factor 5 | 146 | -.0952 | .9754 | 97 | .0632 | 1.0272 |
| Factor 6 | 146 | -.0946 | .9792 | 97 | -.1088 | .9043 |
| Factor 7 | 146 | .0563 | 1.0367 | 97 | -.2537 | .9961 |
| Factor 8 | 146 | -.0097 | 1.2240 | 97 | -.2607 | .8559 |
| Factor 9 | 146 | -.1219 | 1.0714 | 97 | .2588 | .9522 |

Table 15

Factor Means - Faculty

| Factor | Faculty with no administrative experience | | | Faculty with administrative experience | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N | Mean | Std Dev | N | Mean | Std Dev |
| Factor 1 | 326 | -.3528 | .8541 | 22 | -.2357 | .9954 |
| Factor 2 | 326 | -.0476 | .9544 | 22 | .3876 | .7812 |
| Factor 3 | 326 | .3338 | .8693 | 22 | -.1155 | 1.0829 |
| Factor 4 | 326 | .1931 | .9761 | 22 | -.1330 | 1.0305 |
| Factor 5 | 326 | .0214 | 1.0067 | 22 | .0028 | 1.0391 |
| Factor 6 | 326 | .0825 | 1.0455 | 22 | -.0131 | .8148 |
| Factor 7 | 326 | .0552 | .9824 | 22 | .0154 | 1.0305 |
| Factor 8 | 326 | .0956 | .9353 | 22 | -.0658 | .6784 |
| Factor 9 | 326 | -.0302 | .9611 | 22 | -.0805 | 1.0285 |

Table 16

Summary of ANOVAs - History Effect for Previous Cross-Role Experience

| Factor | Administrators with opposite experience vs. Administrators with no opposite experience | | Faculty with Opposite experience vs. Faculty with no opposite experience | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | F | Sig. of F | F | Sig. of F |
| Factor 1 | 10.9755** | .0011** | .3792 | .5384 |
| Factor 2 | 4.9814* | .0265* | 4.3738* | .0372* |
| Factor 3 | .1177 | .7319 | 5.3267* | .0216* |
| Factor 4 | 2.5833 | .1093 | 2.2828 | .1317 |
| Factor 5 | 1.4726 | .2261 | .0070 | .9335 |
| Factor 6 | .0131 | .9090 | .1765 | .6746 |
| Factor 7 | 5.3763* | .0212* | .0337 | .8545 |
| Factor 8 | 3.0793 | .0806 | .6322 | .4271 |
| Factor 9 | 8.0283** | .0050** | .0561 | .8128 |

* $p < .05$ Level of Significance
** $p < .01$ Level of Significance

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the means between respondents with cross role experience and respondents without cross role experience was rejected for administrators for factors 1, 2, 7, and 9 and for faculty for factors 2 and 3. Thus, for one-third of the factors it may be reasonable to assume that cross role contamination due to a history in opposite role may affect further analyses. This means that some of the variance in total administrator responses and in total faculty responses may be due to the subset of administrators and faculty with previous cross-role experience whose responses are not necessarily typical of their current job category. To better understand the level and impact of this possible influence, a one way ANOVA for research questions 10 and 11 was next performed.

To test for differences between rows, a simple one-way ANOVA was performed comparing administrators with previous faculty experience with faculty with previous administrative experience (research question 10). Similarly, a simple one-way ANOVA was performed comparing administrators with no previous faculty experience with faculty with no previous administrative experience (Research question 11). Each of these ANOVAs was

performed on each of the 9 factors. For each factor respectively the ANOVAs tested the null hypothesis that there is no difference between administrators with previous faculty experience and faculty with previous administrative experience, and the null hypothesis that there is no difference between administrators with no previous faculty experience with faculty with no previous administrative experience The factor means and standard deviations for administrators and faculty with opposite experience are reported in Table 17; the factors means and standard deviations for faculty and administrators with no opposite experience are reported in Table 18. The summary of results of the one-way ANOVAs for administrators and faculty with opposite experience and for administrators and faculty with no opposite experience are reported in Table 19.

Table 17

Factor Means - Job Category With Opposite Experience

| Factor | Administrators with opposite experience | | | Faculty with opposite experience | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N | Mean | Std Dev | N | Mean | Std Dev |
| Factor 1 | 97 | .2430 | .9910 | 22 | -.2357 | .9954 |
| Factor 2 | 97 | -.1527 | 1.1429 | 22 | .3876 | .7812 |
| Factor 3 | 97 | -.4660 | .9875 | 22 | -.1155 | 1.0829 |
| Factor 4 | 97 | -.3727 | .9613 | 22 | -1.3201 | 1.0305 |
| Factor 5 | 97 | .0632 | 1.0272 | 22 | .0028 | 1.0391 |
| Factor 6 | 97 | -.1088 | .9043 | 22 | -.0131 | .8148 |
| Factor 7 | 97 | -.2537 | .9961 | 22 | .0154 | 1.0305 |
| Factor 8 | 97 | -.2607 | .8559 | 22 | -.0658 | .6784 |
| Factor 9 | 97 | .2588 | .9522 | 22 | -.0805 | 1.0285 |

Table 18

Factor Means - Job Category No Opposite Experience

| Factor | Administrators with no opposite experience | | | Faculty with no opposite experience | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N | Mean | Std Dev | N | Mean | Std Dev |
| Factor 1 | 146 | .6590 | .9639 | 326 | -.3528 | .8541 |
| Factor 2 | 146 | .1575 | 1.0032 | 326 | -.0476 | .9544 |
| Factor 3 | 146 | -.4215 | .9895 | 326 | .3338 | .8693 |
| Factor 4 | 146 | -.1673 | .9851 | 326 | .1931 | .9761 |
| Factor 5 | 146 | -.0952 | .9754 | 326 | .0214 | 1.0067 |
| Factor 6 | 146 | -.0946 | .9792 | 326 | .0825 | 1.0455 |
| Factor 7 | 146 | .0563 | 1.0367 | 326 | .0552 | .9824 |
| Factor 8 | 146 | -.0097 | 1.2240 | 326 | .0956 | .9353 |
| Factor 9 | 146 | -.1219 | 1.0714 | 326 | -.0302 | .9611 |

Table 19

Summary of ANOVAs - Comparisons Of Administrators And Faculty With And Without Previous Opposite Experience

| Factor | Administrators with opposite experience vs. faculty with opposite experience | | Administrators with no opposite experience vs. faculty with no opposite experience | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | F | Sig. of F | F | Sig. of F |
| Factor 1 | 4.4655* | .0367* | 130.5091*** | < .0001*** |
| Factor 2 | 4.4314* | .0374* | 4.5131* | .0342* |
| Factor 3 | 2.1798 | .1425 | 69.7743*** | <.0001*** |
| Factor 4 | 1.0862 | .2995 | 13.6618*** | .0002*** |
| Factor 5 | .0616 | .8044 | 1.3787 | .2409 |
| Factor 6 | .2081 | .6491 | 3.0081 | .0835 |
| Factor 7 | 1.2928 | .2579 | .0001 | .9915 |
| Factor 8 | .9965 | .3202 | 1.0471 | .3067 |
| Factor 9 | 2.2111 | .1397 | .8544 | .3558 |

* $p < .05$ Level of Significance
** $p < .01$ Level of Significance
*** $p < .001$ Level of Significance

The results of the simple ANOVAs for research questions 8 - 11 are summarized as follows:

Factor 1 - Importance and Impact.

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means for administrators with previous faculty experience and administrators without previous faculty experience is rejected. ($p$ = .0011).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means for faculty with previous administrator experience and faculty without previous administrator experience fails to be rejected. ($p$ = .5384).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means for administrators with previous faculty experience and faculty with previous administrator experience is rejected. ($p$ = .0367).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means for administrators without previous faculty experience and faculty without previous administrator experience is rejected. ($p$ = <.0001).

Factor 2 - Understandability.

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means for administrators with previous faculty experience and administrators without previous faculty experience is rejected. ($p$ = .0265).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means for faculty with previous administrator experience and faculty without previous administrator experience is rejected. ($p$ = .0372).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means for administrators with previous faculty experience and faculty with previous administrator experience is rejected. ($p$ = .0374).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means for administrators without previous faculty experience and faculty without previous administrator experience is rejected. ($p$ = .0342).

Factor 3 - Professional Autonomy.

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means for administrators with previous faculty experience and administrators without previous faculty experience fails to be rejected. ($p$ = .7319).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means for faculty with previous administrator experience and faculty without previous administrator experience is rejected. ($p$ = .0616).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means for administrators with previous faculty experience and faculty with previous administrator experience fails to be rejected. ($p$ = .1425).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means for administrators without previous faculty experience and faculty without previous administrator experience is rejected. ($p$ = .<.0001).

Factor 4 - Classroom Autonomy.

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means for administrators with previous faculty experience and administrators without previous faculty experience fails to be rejected. ($p$ = .1093).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means for faculty with previous administrator experience and faculty without previous administrator experience fails to be rejected. ($p$ = .1317).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means for administrators with previous faculty experience and faculty with previous administrator experience fails to be rejected. ($p$ = .2995).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means for administrators without previous faculty experience and faculty without previous administrator experience is rejected. ($p = .0002$).

Factor 5 - Dismissal for Wrongful Behavior.

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means for administrators with previous faculty experience and administrators without previous faculty experience fails to be rejected. ($p = .2261$).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means for faculty with previous administrator experience and faculty without previous administrator experience fails to be rejected. ($p = .9355$).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means for administrators with previous faculty experience and faculty with previous administrator experience fails to be rejected. ($p = .8044$).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means for administrators without previous faculty experience and faculty without previous administrator experience fails to be rejected. ($p = .2409$).

Factor 6 - General Freedom of Speech.

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means for administrators with previous faculty experience and administrators without previous faculty experience fails to be rejected. ($p = .9090$).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means for faculty with previous administrator experience and faculty without previous administrator experience fails to be rejected. ($p = .6746$).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means for administrators with previous faculty experience and faculty with previous administrator experience fails to be rejected. ($p = .6491$).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means for administrators without previous faculty experience and faculty without previous administrator experience fails to be rejected. ($p = .0835$).

Factor 7 - Dismissal for Cause.

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means for administrators with previous faculty experience and administrators without previous faculty experience is rejected. ($p = .0212$).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means for faculty with previous administrator experience and faculty without previous administrator experience fails to be rejected. ($p = .8545$).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means for administrators with previous faculty experience and faculty with previous administrator experience fails to be rejected. ($p = .2579$).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means for administrators without previous faculty experience and faculty without previous administrator experience fails to be rejected. ($p = .9915$).

Factor 8 - Student Rights.

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means for administrators with previous faculty experience and administrators without previous faculty experience fails to be rejected. ($p = .0806$).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means for faculty with previous administrator experience and faculty without previous administrator experience fails to be rejected. ($p = .4271$).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means for administrators with previous faculty experience and faculty with previous administrator experience fails to be rejected. ($p = .3202$).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means for administrators without previous faculty experience and faculty without previous administrator experience fails to be rejected. ($p$ = .3067).

Factor 9 - Academic Speech.

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means for administrators with previous faculty experience and administrators without previous faculty experience is rejected. ($p$ = .0050).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means for faculty with previous administrator experience and faculty without previous administrator experience fails to be rejected. ($p$ = .8128).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means for administrators with previous faculty experience and faculty with previous administrator experience fails to be rejected. ($p$ = .1397).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the factor means for administrators without previous faculty experience and faculty without previous administrator experience fails to be rejected. ($p$ = .3558).

Current Experience

The level of experience in respondents' current job category at their current institution may be seen as a maturation effect. If respondents with differing levels of experience in their current job category at their current institution differ significantly on their responses, then a maturation effect due to current level of experience needs to be cited as a limitation of the study.

A simple one-way ANOVA with a Scheffe post hoc multiple comparison test was performed to study research question 12: To what extent do respondents with differing levels of experience in their current job category at their current institution differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure? The ANOVA tested the null hypothesis that there

is no difference in opinions about academic freedom and tenure for respondents with differing levels of experience in their current job category at their current institution. See Table 20 for means and Table 21 for summary of ANOVAs.

Table 20

Factor Means - Current Experience

| | 3-5 years | 6-10 years | 11-15 years | 16-20 years | 21-25 years | > 25 years |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| N | 138 | 164 | 87 | 81 | 66 | 61 |
| Factor 1 | .3292 | .0236 | .1132 | -.0721 | -.2762 | -.5750 |
| Factor 2 | -.0760 | -.0614 | .0513 | .2596 | -.1239 | .0533 |
| Factor 3 | -.0194 | -.0332 | -.0291 | -.1379 | .0534 | .2998 |
| Factor 4 | .0186 | .0067 | -.0570 | -.0886 | .0792 | .0532 |
| Factor 5 | .0183 | -.0378 | -.065 | -.0469 | .1635 | .0263 |
| Factor 6 | .0191 | -.0224 | -.0561 | .0531 | -.0479 | .0785 |
| Factor 7 | -.0007 | .1355 | .1649 | -.1796 | -.2707 | -.0667 |
| Factor 8 | -.0506 | .0260 | -.1630 | .0959 | .0352 | .1116 |
| Factor 9 | -.0904 | .0024 | .0836 | .0266 | -.0124 | .0568 |

Table 21

Summary of ANOVAs - Current Experience

| Factor | F | Sig. of F |
|---|---|---|
| Factor 1 | 8.9105*** | <.0001*** |
| Factor 2 | 1.6671 | .1405 |
| Factor 3 | 1.5098 | .1847 |
| Factor 4 | .3102 | .9069 |
| Factor 5 | .5065 | .7715 |
| Factor 6 | .2310 | .9489 |
| Factor 7 | 2.6558* | .0219* |
| Factor 8 | .8714 | .4999 |
| Factor 9 | .3980 | .8503 |

* $p < .05$ Level of Significance
** $p < .01$ Level of Significance
*** $p < .001$ Level of Significance

For Factor 1 the Scheffe post hoc comparison test indicates significant differences at the .05 level between:

the 3-5 year level and the more than 25 year level;

the 6-10 year level and the more than 25 year level;

the 11-15 year level and the more than 25 year level; and

the 3-5 year level and the 21 - 25 year level

For the remaining factor the Scheffe post hoc comparison test failed to indicate any significant difference at the .05 level.

Total Experience

Total level of experience in higher education may be seen as a combined history-maturation effect. If respondents with differing levels of total experience in higher education differ significantly on their responses, then a combined history-maturation effect due to total level of experience in higher education needs to be cited as a limitation of the study.

A simple one-way ANOVA with a Scheffe post hoc multiple comparison test was performed to study research question 13: To what extent do respondents with differing levels of total experience in higher education differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure? The ANOVA tested the null hypothesis that there is no difference in opinions about academic freedom and tenure for respondents with differing levels of total experience in higher education. See Table 22 for means and Table 23 for summary of ANOVAs.

For Factor 7 the Scheffe post hoc comparison test indicates significant differences at the .05 level between:

the 6-10 year level and the more than 25 year level;

the 6-10 year level and the 21 - 25 year level

For remaining factors the Scheffe post hoc comparison test failed to indicate any significant difference at the .05 level.

Table 22

Factor Means - Total Experience

| | < 3 years | 3-5 years | 6-10 years | 11-15 years | 16-20 years | 21-25 years | > 25 years |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| N | 20 | 55 | 106 | 72 | 96 | 122 | 119 |
| Factor 1 | -.3296 | .0855 | .0148 | .0715 | .2871 | -.0791 | -.1815 |
| Factor 2 | .2038 | -.0630 | .0306 | -.1950 | -.0847 | .0906 | .0568 |
| Factor 3 | .1506 | .3825 | .2521 | -.0620 | -.1257 | -.1504 | -.0984 |
| Factor 4 | .5181 | .2353 | .1376 | .1092 | -.0653 | -.2058 | -.1377 |
| Factor 5 | -.0814 | .0922 | -.0833 | -.0836 | -.0733 | .0418 | .0834 |
| Factor 6 | -.0894 | .3772 | -.1067 | .1269 | .0143 | -.0490 | -.0727 |
| Factor 7 | .1827 | -.1112 | .3430 | .1913 | .0082 | -.2402 | -.1994 |
| Factor 8 | .3407 | .0366 | .0812 | -.0895 | -.1433 | -.1553 | .0991 |
| Factor 9 | -.1285 | -.1483 | -.0822 | .2025 | -.0005 | -.0749 | .1177 |

Table 23

Summary of ANOVAs - Total Experience

| Factor | F | Sig. of F |
|---|---|---|
| Factor 1 | 2.6295* | .0159* |
| Factor 2 | .9881 | .4323 |
| Factor 3 | 3.5852** | .0017** |
| Factor 4 | 3.2932** | .0034** |
| Factor 5 | .5579 | .7639 |
| Factor 6 | 1.9055 | .0778 |
| Factor 7 | 4.8529*** | .0001*** |
| Factor 8 | 1.6697 | .1260 |
| Factor 9 | 1.2515 | .2782 |

* $p < .05$ Level of Significance
** $p < .01$ Level of Significance
*** $p < .001$ Level of Significance

Age

Age may be seen as a selection-maturation effect. If respondents with differing ages differ significantly on their responses, then a selection-maturation effect due to age needs to be cited as a limitation of the study.

A simple one-way ANOVA with a Scheffe post hoc multiple comparison test was performed to study research question 14: To what extent do respondents with differing age

levels differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure? The ANOVA tested the null hypothesis that there is no difference in opinions about academic freedom and tenure for respondents with differing age levels. See Table 24 for means and Table 25 for summary of ANOVAs.

Table 24

Factor Means - Age

| | 20-29 years | 30-39 years | 40-49 years | 50-59 years | 60+ years |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| N | 3 | 55 | 232 | 258 | 48 |
| Factor 1 | -.1555 | -.1743 | .0844 | .0058 | -.2059 |
| Factor 2 | -.5221 | -.2271 | .0034 | .0476 | .0146 |
| Factor 3 | -.3014 | .1152 | .0993 | -.1169 | .0372 |
| Factor 4 | .7337 | .3249 | .1044 | -.1312 | -.2013 |
| Factor 5 | -.2735 | -.1867 | -.0525 | .0894 | -.0153 |
| Factor 6 | -.0309 | -.1274 | .1155 | -.0782 | .0006 |
| Factor 7 | -.8267 | .2689 | .0474 | -.1316 | .2371 |
| Factor 8 | -.5932 | .1886 | .0577 | -.0611 | -.1118 |
| Factor 9 | .0275 | -.0299 | -.1153 | .0837 | .1322 |

Table 25

Summary of ANOVAs - Age

| Factor | F | Sig. of F |
|---|---|---|
| Factor 1 | 1.3630 | .2454 |
| Factor 2 | 1.0618 | .3746 |
| Factor 3 | 1.7261 | .1426 |
| Factor 4 | 4.1674** | .0025** |
| Factor 5 | 1.2139 | .3037 |
| Factor 6 | 1.3930 | .2349 |
| Factor 7 | 3.4827** | .0080** |
| Factor 8 | 1.3388 | .2542 |
| Factor 9 | 1.4479 | .2167 |

* $p < .05$ Level of Significance
** $p < .01$ Level of Significance

For Factor 4 the Scheffe post hoc comparison test indicates significant differences at the .05 level between the 30-39 age level and the 50-59 age level.

For remaining factors the Scheffe post hoc comparison test failed to indicate any significant difference at the .05 level.

Level of Education

The level of education may be seen as a combined history-maturation effect. If respondents with differing levels of education differ significantly on their responses, then a combined history-maturation effect due to level of education needs to be cited as a limitation of the study.

A simple one-way ANOVA with a Scheffe post hoc multiple comparison test was performed to study research question 15: To what extent do respondents with differing levels of education differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure? The ANOVA tested the null hypothesis that there is no difference in opinions about academic freedom and tenure for respondents with differing levels. See Table 26 for means and Table 27 for summary of ANOVAs.

Table 26

Factor Means - Level Of Education

| | Doctorate | Masters | Bachelors | Associates | High school |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| N | 125 | 390 | 54 | 21 | 4 |
| Factor 1 | .0405 | -.0521 | .3538 | -.1033 | .1831 |
| Factor 2 | -.1850 | .0261 | .2635 | .1466 | -.5972 |
| Factor 3 | -.1294 | .0247 | .0587 | .2355 | .6460 |
| Factor 4 | -.1238 | .0298 | -.1615 | .5346 | .2636 |
| Factor 5 | .0771 | -.0192 | -.0935 | .0855 | .1431 |
| Factor 6 | .0825 | .0212 | -.0812 | -.5631 | -.3393 |
| Factor 7 | -.0917 | .0278 | .0367 | -.2964 | 1.0161 |
| Factor 8 | -.0450 | -.0040 | .0793 | .1120 | .5738 |
| Factor 9 | .0592 | -.0312 | .0015 | .1394 | -.0908 |

Table 27

Summary of ANOVAs - Level Of Education

| Factor | F | Sig. of F |
|---|---|---|
| Factor 1 | 2.1061 | .0786 |
| Factor 2 | 2.5636 | .0374* |
| Factor 3 | 1.3536 | .2488 |
| Factor 4 | 2.5139 | .0406* |
| Factor 5 | .3949 | .8123 |
| Factor 6 | 2.1325 | .0754 |
| Factor 7 | 1.8525 | .1173 |
| Factor 8 | .5401 | .7063 |
| Factor 9 | .3111 | .8706 |

* $p < .05$ Level of Significance
** $p < .01$ Level of Significance

For all factors the Scheffe post hoc comparison test failed to indicate any significant difference at the .05 level.

Summary of Results

The results of the simple ANOVAs for research questions 12 - 15 are summarized as follows:

Factor 1 - Importance and Impact.

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the factor means for respondents with differing levels of experience in their current job category at their current institution is rejected. ($p < .0001$).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the factor means for respondents with differing levels of experience in higher education is rejected. ($p = .0159$).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the factor means for respondents with differing age levels fails to be rejected. ($p = .2454$).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the factor means for respondents with differing levels of education fails to be rejected. ($p = .0786$).

Factor 2 - Understandability.

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the factor means for respondents with differing levels of experience in their current job category at their current institution fails to be rejected. ($p$ = .1405).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the factor means for respondents with differing levels of experience in higher education fails to be rejected. ($p$ = .4323).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the factor means for respondents with differing age levels fails to be rejected. ($p$ = .3746).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the factor means for respondents with differing levels of education is rejected. ($p$ = .0374).

Factor 3 - Professional Autonomy.

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the factor means for respondents with differing levels of experience in their current job category at their current institution fails to be rejected. ($p$ = .1847).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the factor means for respondents with differing levels of experience in higher education is rejected. ($p$ = .0017).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the factor means for respondents with differing age levels fails to be rejected. ($p$ = .1426).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the factor means for respondents with differing levels of education fails to be rejected. ($p$ = .2488).

Factor 4 - Classroom Autonomy.

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the factor means for respondents with differing levels of experience in their current job category at their current institution fails to be rejected. ($p$ = .9069).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the factor means for respondents with differing levels of experience in higher education is rejected. ($p$ = .0034).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the factor means for respondents with differing age levels is rejected. ($p$ = .0025).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the factor means for respondents with differing levels of education is rejected. ($p$ = .0406).

Factor 5 - Dismissal for Wrongful Behavior.

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the factor means for respondents with differing levels of experience in their current job category at their current institution fails to be rejected. ($p$ = .7715).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the factor means for respondents with differing levels of experience in higher education fails to be rejected. ($p$ = .7639).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the factor means for respondents with differing age levels fails to be rejected. ($p$ = .3037).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the factor means for respondents with differing levels of education fails to be rejected. ($p$ = .8123).

Factor 6 - General Freedom of Speech.

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the factor means for respondents with differing levels of experience in their current job category at their current institution fails to be rejected. ($p$ = .9489).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the factor means for respondents with differing levels of experience in higher education fails to be rejected. ($p$ = .0778).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the factor means for respondents with differing age levels fails to be rejected. ($p$ = .2349).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the factor means for respondents with differing levels of education fails to be rejected. ($p$ = .0754).

Factor 7 - Dismissal for Cause.

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the factor means for respondents with differing levels of experience in their current job category at their current institution is rejected. ($p$ = .0219).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the factor means for respondents with differing levels of experience in higher education is rejected. ($p$ = .0001).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the factor means for respondents with differing age levels is rejected. ($p$ = .0080).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the factor means for respondents with differing levels of education fails to be rejected. ($p$ = .1173).

Factor 8 - Student Rights.

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the factor means for respondents with differing levels of experience in their current job category at their current institution fails to be rejected. ($p$ = .4999).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the factor means for respondents with differing levels of experience in higher education fails to be rejected. ($p$ = .1260).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the factor means for respondents with differing age levels fails to be rejected. ($p$ = . 2524).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the factor means for respondents with differing levels of education fails to be rejected. ($p$ = . 7063).

Factor 9 - Academic Speech.

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the factor means for respondents with differing levels of experience in their current job category at their current institution fails to be rejected. ($p$ = .8503).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the factor means for respondents with differing levels of experience in higher education fails to be rejected. ($p$ = .2782).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the factor means for respondents with differing age levels fails to be rejected. ($p = .2167$).

The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the factor means for respondents with differing levels of education fails to be rejected. ($p = .8706$).

# CHAPTER 5

# SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, & RECOMMENDATIONS

## Summary

This study uses the concepts and vocabulary of Biddle's role theory to examine findings on 15 separate research questions. Each of these 15 questions was applied to each of nine factors derived from administrator's and faculty member's responses to a questionnaire about the principles of academic freedom and tenure.

The major research finding for this study suggests that the set of administrators with and without previous faculty experience disagree with the set of faculty members with and without previous administrator experience on factors related to the importance and impact of academic freedom, professional autonomy, and classroom autonomy. This disagreement is similarly evident between administrators without previous faculty experience when compared with faculty without previous administrator experience.

Faculty believe academic freedom and tenure are important principles while administrators do not believe they are important. Faculty believe they have rights that prevent administration from controlling curriculum, grades, and off-campus teaching and consultation activities while administrators do not believe faculty members have these rights. Faculty members believe they have rights that prevent administration from controlling teaching methods and grading polices while administrators do not believe faculty members have these rights.

As shown in Table 28 on page 103, administrators as a whole differ from faculty as a whole on four factors related to academic freedom and tenure. Administrators with no previous faculty experience differ from administrators with previous faculty experience on four factors. Faculty with no previous administrator experience differ from faculty with previous administrator experience on two such factors. Administrators with previous faculty experience differ from faculty with previous administrator experience on two factors.

Administrators with no previous faculty experience differ from faculty with no previous administrator experience on four factors.

Minorities differ from whites on three factors; females differ from males on one factor. No interaction effects were observed between any combination or permutation of job category with race or ethnic heritage, or with gender.

Maturation and/or history effects were noted for: current experience at current institution on two factors; total experience in higher education on four factors; age on two factors; and level of education on two factors.

The application of the 15 research questions to the nine factors of academic freedom and tenure resulted in a 9 by 15 matrix of findings and is reported in Table 28. *No* indicates that no significant difference was found.

The questions and factors are listed for ease of reference:

Major research questions:

1. To what extent do administrators and faculty in Washington State community colleges differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

2. Is there a two-way interaction effect of race/ethnicity with job category, i.e., administrator or faculty position?

3. Is there a two-way interaction effect of gender with job category, i.e., administrator or faculty position?

4. Is there a two-way interaction effect of race/ethnicity with gender?

5. Is there a three-way interaction effect of race/ethnicity with gender and with job category?

Subsidiary research questions:

6. To what extent do minorities and whites who are employed as administrators and faculty in Washington State community colleges differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

Table 28

Summary of Research Findings

| | 1 Importance & impact | 2 Under-stand-ability | 3 Profes-sional autonomy | 4 Classroom autonomy | 5 Dismissal for wrongful behavior | 6 General freedom of speech | 7 Dismissal for cause | 8 Student rights | 9 Academic speech |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Q1 - Administrator vs. faculty | Yes | No | Yes | Yes | No | Yes | No | No | No |
| Q2 - Interaction: job category vs. race | No | No | No | No | No | No | No | No | No |
| Q3 - Interaction: job category vs. gender | No | No | No | No | No | No | No | No | No |
| Q4 - Interaction: race vs. gender | No | No | No | No | No | No | No | No | No |
| Q5-Interaction: Job category vs. race. vs. gender | No | No | No | No | No | No | No | No | No |
| Q6-Minorities vs. whites | No | No | Yes | Yes | No | No | Yes | No | No |
| Q7-Females vs. males | No | No | No | No | No | No | Yes | No | No |
| Q8-Admin with no faculty exp vs. admin with faculty exp | Yes | Yes | No | No | No | No | Yes | No | Yes |

Table 28 (Continued)

| | 1 Importance & impact | 2 Under-stand-ability | 3 Profes-sional autonomy | 4 Classroom autonomy | 5 Dismissal for wrongful behavior | 6 General freedom of speech | 7 Dismissal for cause | 8 Student rights | 9 Academic speech |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Q9-Faculty with no previous admin exp vs. faculty with previous admin exp | No | Yes | Yes | No | No | No | No | No | No |
| Q10-Admin with previous fac exp vs. faculty with previous admin exp | Yes | Yes | No | No | No | No | No | No | No |
| Q11-Admin with no previous faculty exp vs. faculty with no previous admin exp. | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | No | No | No | No | No |
| Q12-Effect of current experience | Yes | No | No | No | No | No | Yes | No | No |
| Q13-Effect of total experience | Yes | No | Yes | Yes | No | No | Yes | No | No |
| Q14-Effect of age | No | No | No | Yes | No | No | Yes | No | No |
| Q15 Effect of education | No | Yes | No | Yes | No | No | No | No | No |

7. To what extent do females and males who are employed as administrators and faculty in Washington State community colleges differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

Additional research questions:

8. To what extent do administrators with previous faculty experience and administrators without previous faculty experience in Washington State community colleges differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

9. To what extent do faculty with previous administrative experience and faculty without previous administrative experience in Washington State community colleges differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

10. To what extent do administrators with previous faculty experience and faculty with previous administrative experience in Washington State community colleges differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

11. To what extent do administrators without previous faculty experience and faculty without previous administrative experience in Washington State community colleges differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

12. To what extent do respondents with differing levels of experience in their current job category at their current institution differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

13. To what extent do respondents with differing levels of total experience in higher education differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

14. To what extent do respondents with differing age levels differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

15. To what extent do respondents with differing levels of education differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

Factors:

Factor 1 - Importance and Impact: Academic freedom and tenure are *not* important principles.

Factor 2 - Understandability: Administrators and faculty understand the principles of academic freedom and tenure.

Factor 3 - Professional Autonomy: Faculty have rights that prevent administration from controlling curriculum, grades and off-campus teaching and consultation activities.

Factor 4 - Classroom Autonomy: Faculty have rights that prevent administration from controlling teaching methods and grading policies.

Factor 5 - Dismissal for Wrongful Behavior: Faculty may be dismissed for wrongful behavior.

Factor 6 - General Freedom of Speech: Faculty have rights that prevent administration from placing limits on critical or disruptive speech.

Factor 7 - Dismissal for Cause: Faculty may *not* be dismissed for failure to follow college rules.

Factor 8 - Student Rights: Faculty have rights that prevent administration from controlling how they treat students.

Factor 9 - Academic Speech: Faculty have rights that prevent administration from placing limits on what they say both in and out of the classroom.

## Conclusions

The purpose of this section is to integrate Biddle's role theory with the findings of the study. Biddle's theory is first applied to administrators and faculty in general who are employed in the Washington State community college system and then the resulting concepts are applied to the specific findings of this study.

Administrators and faculty are structural positions within the community college social system and as such are associated with a set of interdependent roles. These roles are

characteristic for each structural position. Role theory predicts that each position will have a set of characteristic behaviors or roles associated with the persons who inhabit each of those positions.

In addition, the interdependence of administrators and faculty is further related by an authority structure in which some formal leadership and management tasks are assigned by the president and board of trustees to administrators, thereby establishing what Biddle (p. 268, 1979) refers to as a "leader-follower" relationship with faculty. The culture of most colleges suggests that this relationship is less formal than in very structured organizations and relies more on traits of charisma and loyalty rather than formal sanctioning. In addition, it is important to note that on most campuses leadership is a shared responsibility among both administrators and the faculty. Formal teaching tasks, on the other hand, are formally assigned to faculty, along with some formally and some less formally assigned and sometimes ambiguous leadership and management tasks.

This interdependent relationship establishes a role differentiation between administrators and faculty. Each of these roles has a set of behaviors associated with it. These behaviors contain facets. Facets are subsets of behavior that can be observed and rated. The use of a Likert type scale to measure belief systems, i.e., internal expectations, is one method of counting, measuring, and observing selected facets of role behavior.

Academic freedom and tenure are principles that may be used to assist in exploring Biddles's (1979) concept of authority structure within the community college setting. The principle of academic freedom establishes limits and a set of rights and responsibilities for both administrators and faculty members in the exercise of their tasks. The principle of tenure provides limits on the exercise of formal sanctioning over the faculty on the part of administrators—it limits their authority to dismiss faculty. Thus these two principles, in many respects, help define the essence of the authority structure of a college.

When either faculty members or administrators are not clear about the rights, responsibilities, and limits of their roles and the roles of each other, role ambiguity may result and role strain may develop. When people are not clear about their expectations for themselves, the expectations that others have for them, or the expectations they have for others, both individual stress and organizational stress may result.

This study attempts to elicit the belief systems that administrators and faculty members have about their roles, and in particular about the portion of their roles that help define Biddle's (1979) concept of authority structure of the institution.

Roles are determined by expectations. These may be the expectations people have about themselves and/or may be the expectations that come from others. Structuring of these role expectations usually occurs in three ways: laws, folkways, and mores.

Academic freedom and tenure are most probably defined in the minds of many, if not most, administrators and faculty by a combination of all three of these traditional ways in which expectations are communicated. While the literature that prescribes the principles of academic freedom and tenure can been defined by the role concept of law, the expectations that form the facets of behavior exhibited by most administrators and faculty may very well be determined by folkways and mores. Credence to this speculation may be arrived at by examining the responses of the administrators and faculty in this study with the commonly accepted laws (in the role theory sense of the word, i.e., formal written prescriptions that may or may not include statutes, regulations, and common law) that articulate the principles of both academic freedom and tenure.

If the survey had been designed as a true false test of knowledge of these formal inscriptions of the "laws" of academic freedom and tenure, questions 5 through 17 would have served as a test about academic freedom and question 21 and questions 23 through 29 would have served as a test about tenure.

At this point it might be interesting to timidly wade into deep water and provide an "answer key" based upon the currently and generally understood written prescriptive principles, i.e., "laws" about academic freedom as reported in the literature. Of course any such answer key is subject to interpretation and argument, but if we don the life preserver of defining "true" as meaning "generally more true than not," and false as meaning, "generally more false than not," then we might proceed into the deep water a little less timidly.

Academic Freedom:

F Q5. The principle of academic freedom prohibits the institution from placing restrictions on a faculty member's off-campus teaching or consulting activities.

F Q6. The principle of academic freedom prohibits administration from changing a student's final grade in a course without the concurrence of the faculty member who originally assigned the grade.

F Q7. The principle of academic freedom allows individual faculty to select the textbooks for their own courses.

F Q8. The principle of academic freedom prevents administration from disciplining faculty who are found to be orally abusive to students.

T Q9. The principle of academic freedom expects faculty to refrain from teaching controversial matter that is not related to the subject matter or content of the course.

T Q10. The principle of academic freedom expects faculty to exercise appropriate restraint in off-campus speech.

F Q11. The principle of academic freedom prevents administration from requiring faculty to modify how they give examinations to accommodate disabled students.

F Q12. The principle of academic freedom permits individual faculty to determine which courses they will teach.

F Q13. The principle of academic freedom protects faculty who use profane or vulgar language in the classroom as part of their teaching style.

T Q14. The principle of academic freedom protects faculty who publicly criticize their institutions when speaking as private citizens on matters of public concern.

F Q15. The principle of academic freedom permits individual teachers to use their own teaching methods, even if such methods are at variance with college rules and regulations.

F. Q16. The principle of academic freedom permits individual teachers to use their own grading system, even if such methods are at variance with college rules and regulations.

F Q17. The principle of academic freedom protects faculty freedom of speech even if such speech substantially disrupts the operations of the institution.

Tenure:

F Q21. The principle of tenure provides an unconditional guarantee of lifetime employment between the granting institution and the faculty member.

T Q23. The primary purpose of the principle of tenure is to safeguard the principles and practices of academic freedom.

T Q24. In principle, faculty with tenure may be dismissed for just cause.

F Q25. The principle of tenure protects incompetent faculty from dismissal.

F Q26. In principle, insubordination is not sufficient grounds for dismissing a tenured member of the faculty.

F Q27. In principle, neglect of duty is not sufficient grounds for dismissing a tenured member of the faculty.

T Q28. In principle, faculty with tenure may be dismissed for immoral behavior.

T Q29. In principle, faculty with tenure may be dismissed for unethical behavior.

Reducing these questions into the factors in which they load, and remembering that questions 3, 22 and 24 were transformed into their opposite equivalents and that question 21 failed to load into any factor we now have an "answer key" for factors 3 through 9:

F Factor 3 - Professional Autonomy: Faculty members have rights that prevent administration from controlling curriculum, grades and off-campus teaching and consultation activities.

F Factor 4 - Classroom Autonomy: Faculty have rights that prevent administration from controlling teaching methods and grading policies.

T Factor 5 - Dismissal for Wrongful Behavior: Faculty may be dismissed for wrongful behavior.

T or F Factor 6 - General Freedom of Speech: Faculty have rights that prevent administration from placing limits on critical or disruptive speech.

F Factor 7 - Dismissal for Cause: Faculty may *not* be dismissed for failure to follow college rules.

F Factor 8 - Student Rights: Faculty have rights that prevent administration from controlling how they treat students.

F Factor 9 - Academic Speech: Faculty have rights that prevent administration from placing limits on what they say both in and out of the classroom.

It is important to note that the factor 6 statement is partially true and partially false. Factor 6 subsumes question 14, "The principle of academic freedom protects faculty who publicly criticize their institutions when speaking as private citizens on matters of public concern." This is generally held to be true in the literature. However, factor 6 also subsumes question 17, "The principle of academic freedom protects faculty freedom of speech

even if such speech substantially disrupts the operations of the institution." This position is generally held to be false in the literature.

Factor analysis trades precision for simplicity. Thus each of these factors is somewhat more vague than the questions they subsume. Therefore it may be easier to find limited cases or narrowly defined exceptions for which the general factor statements may not apply. However, in the aggregate, the "answer key" most likely provides a more correct response than not for the underlying principles of each of the factors—at least when compared to the formal literature.

Forgetting for the moment whether differences between administrators and faculty had statistically significant differences and only looking at administrators as a whole and faculty as a whole, lets see how our respondents did on the "test". Positive mean scores are assigned a value of "true"; negative mean scores are assigned a value of "false" (see Table 29).

Table 29

Answer Key

| Factor | Answer key | Administrators | | | Faculty | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | N | Mean | T/F | N | Mean | T/F |
| Factor 3 | F | 243 | -.44 | F | 354 | .30 | T |
| Factor 4 | F | 243 | -.25 | F | 354 | .17 | T |
| Factor 5 | T | 243 | -.03 | F | 354 | .02 | T |
| Factor 6 | T or F | 243 | -.10 | F | 354 | .07 | T |
| Factor 7 | F | 243 | -.07 | F | 354 | .05 | T |
| Factor 8 | F | 243 | -.11 | F | 354 | .08 | T |
| Factor 9 | F | 243 | .03 | T | 354 | -.02 | F |

As shown in Table 29, out of the twelve possible categories in which there are generally held positions supported by the literature (factor 6 not being included because it is both true and false), six of those categories reported responses at variance with the formal

written literature on academic freedom and tenure. What, then, accounts for this set of differing beliefs?

We return again to role theory. What we have measured with our Likert-type scale is a facet of behavior. In this case, the behavior is how respondents answered questions on a self-administered questionnaire concerning academic freedom and tenure. This facet of behavior is one of many facets that make up the characteristic set of behaviors of administrators and faculty members. This set of characteristic behaviors is known as role. The response on the questionnaire is assumed to be an overt manifestation linked to a covert conception known as belief or opinion that is internally held by the respondent and constitutes that respondent's expectations about his or her role and the roles of others. We have already reviewed that these expectations are formed on the basis of laws, folkways, and mores. Since a comparison of these beliefs with the commonly available laws of academic freedom and tenure shows a marked variance with those laws, it is reasonable to assume that folkways and mores have as much, if not more, to do with the formation of those beliefs than do laws.

Folkways are traditional beliefs that are descriptive in nature. Descriptive expectations are simple objective statements about a characteristic. Folkways tend to describe what is. They take the form of beliefs, assertions, or representations Mores, on the other hand, generally have a prescriptive as well as a cathectic or emotional element. They generally take the form of norms, demands, or rules as part of their prescriptive nature, and assessments or appraisals as part of their cathectic nature. As such, they are likely to be deeply held because of the feeling component and are also likely to be sanctioned through informal processes such as peer pressure.

Because of the lack of correspondence between many respondents' answers and the views expressed on the formal literature, it may be assumed that very little formal education about academic freedom and tenure is conducted with administrators and faculty members,

either at their institution or as part of their formal schooling. If this is the case, then it makes sense that the informal mechanisms for the transmittal of expectations have more of an opening, therefore leaving the development of expectations to observations, common and past practices, anecdotes and stories, conversations, and assumptions—the conveyances of folkways and mores. Thus the common day experiences of each group within the organization may have as much to do, if not more, with the formation of expectations about academic freedom and tenure than the formal literature.

Since folkways and mores are not as structured as laws, it may also be reasonable to assume that the expectations conveyed may be more ambiguous than expectations conveyed through more formal methods. The combination of expectations derived from laws, with expectations derived from folkways and mores is therefore more likely to produce dissensus.

Indeed this is what we tend to see in our findings. Administrators and faculty are not likely to share absolutely similar experiences with the institution. They are more likely to associate with others in their position than with people outside their position. As such, they are probably exposed to somewhat different folkways and mores, thereby accounting for differences in expectations and therefore differences in roles. Additionally, there are people within the administration and within the faculty who have experienced each other's roles. Given these factors it would not seem unlikely that administrators differ from faculty, i.e. have dissensual roles and that subsets of administrators differ from other subsets of administrators as do faculty subsets differ with each other.

Let's take a look at each of the findings in relation to role theory.

1. To what extent do administrators and faculty in Washington State community colleges differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

Significant differences were found for four of the nine factors: factor 1, factor 3, factor 4 and factor 6.

Administrators believe academic freedom and tenure are not important principles while the faculty do not believe that academic freedom and tenure are not important principles.

Administrators do not believe that faculty have rights that prevent administrators from controlling curriculum, grades, and off-campus teaching and consulting activities while faculty do believe they have these rights.

Administrators do not believe that faculty have rights that prevent administrators from controlling teaching methods and grading polices while faculty do believe they have these rights.

Administrators do not believe that faculty have rights that prevent administrators from placing limits on critical or disruptive speech while faculty do believe they have these rights.

The differences for research question 1 seem to break along traditional management-employee lines. Faculty respondents hold that academic freedom and tenure are important principles most probably because they view academic freedom and tenure as protections against the possible excesses of the authority structure of the college. Administrators as part of their role often handle student complaints in areas related to curriculum, grades, grading policies, and teaching methods. In addition, they often have the responsibility for evaluating faculty performance both in and out of the classroom and for responding to complaints about the faculty from both students and members of the community. Additionally, administrators, as part of management, often perceive a "management rights" prerogative that any unspecified right is a management right unless granted to an employee. Thus it would seem consistent with how administrators perceive their role that administrators would see themselves as having more authority in relation to the faculty than how faculty would see the administrator's role.

Faculty on the other hand, may perceive they have final authority over anything "academic." This may come from some long standing traditions among faculty, conveyed through informal transmissions of a faculty culture, i.e., folkways and mores, and possibly contributed to by a broad and ambiguous definition of the term, "academic". Thus curriculum, teaching methods, and grading policies may be perceived as falling under the broad umbrella of academic rights. Additionally, faculty members may be accustomed to a fair amount of latitude in collaborating with administration in matters related to curriculum, grading, and teaching methods. Often this latitude is extended to include "managing" the institution. Faculty may often be critical of the way institutions are run and often have forums in which they are able to input their views. Thus they may perceive a rather wide latitude also in speaking out against perceived problems within the institution and may not be aware of, or recognize, any institutional limits on such speech.

As previously noted, factor 6 is problematic in that it has both a true and false answer when related to the literature. Thus differences between groups on factor 6 are difficult to interpret.

It is interesting to note at this point, as seen in research question 11, that administrators without previous faculty experience also differ from faculty without previous administrator experience similarly on factors 1, 3 and 4. This similarity of findings for research question 1 and research question 11 on factors 1, 3, and 4 becomes the major finding of this study.

2. Is there a two-way interaction effect of race/ethnicity with job category, i.e., administrator or faculty position?

3. Is there a two-way interaction effect of gender with job category, i.e., administrator or faculty position?

4. Is there a two-way interaction effect of race/ethnicity with gender?

5. Is there a three-way interaction effect of race/ethnicity with gender and with job category?

No, for questions 2, 3, 4, and 5. There is no interaction effect for any factor for questions 2, 3, 4, and 5. This may mean that the role of administrator and the role of faculty member are particular strong roles in terms of behaviors related to the authority structure of the institution. Thus, even though there are significant differences between minorities and whites and between females and males on some factors, these differences are not strong enough to override or interfere with the differences that can be attributed to the roles of administrator and faculty. Thus the differences in each set of dichotomies may be interpreted in relationship to the roles of each of those sets rather than any combination of overlapping roles.

6. To what extent do minorities and whites who are employed as administrators and faculty in Washington State community colleges differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

Significant differences were found for three of the nine factors: factor 3, factor 4, and factor 7.

Minorities do believe that faculty have rights that prevent administrators from controlling curriculum, grades, and off-campus teaching and consulting activities while whites do not believe that faculty have these rights.

Minorities do believe that faculty have rights that prevent administrators from controlling teaching methods and grading polices while whites do not believe that faculty have these rights.

Minorities do believe that faculty may not be dismissed for failure to follow college rules while whites do not believe that faculty may not be dismissed for failure to follow college rules.

Minorities are both under-represented on campuses and have relatively few members, especially as faculty. This may make some minorities feel more vulnerable than their white counterparts to the whims of the institution. Therefore, minorities, more than whites, might find more comfort in believing that administration cannot control faculty professional and classroom activities. Of course the ultimate fear for anyone within an organization may be of dismissal. Thus minorities, more than whites, may believe that faculty may not be dismissed for failure to follow college rules as a way dealing with any felt vulnerability.

Minorities, whether administrator or faculty, tended to view factors 3, 4 and 7 more like the faculty, while whites, whether administrators or faculty, tended to view factors 3, 4 and 7 more like administrators. Although this set of contrasts were not strong enough to result in any interaction effects, the similarity of minorities with faculty and the similarity of whites with administrators does tend to suggest that minorities as a group may feel the need for more protections.

7. To what extent do females and males who are employed as administrators and faculty in Washington State community colleges differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

A significant difference was found for one of the nine factors: factor 7.

Females believe that faculty members may not be dismissed for failure to follow college rules while males do not believe that faculty members may not be dismissed for failure to follow college rules.

Males outnumber females in this study, both in administration and in the faculty. This might lead to some feelings of vulnerability among some females. The ultimate protection—that of job security— may be a comfortable belief if one feels more vulnerable than one's counterparts. Thus females might be more likely than males to find comfort in the belief that faculty may not be dismissed for failure to follow college rules. Females, unlike minorities, have far greater numbers on campus. This larger critical mass, although still

underrepresented, may allow females to feel not as vulnerable as minorities might feel when compared with whites. This might account for females not believing differently from males in other factors.

8. To what extent do administrators with previous faculty experience and administrators without previous faculty experience in Washington State community colleges differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

Significant differences were found for four of the nine factors: factor 1, factor 2, factor 7 and 9.

Administrators with previous faculty experience believe less strongly than administrators without previous faculty experience that the principles of academic freedom and tenure are not important.

Administrators with previous faculty experience do not believe that administrators and faculty understand the principles of academic freedom and tenure while administrators with no previous faculty experience believe they do.

Administrators with previous faculty experience do not believe that faculty members may not be dismissed for failure to follow college rules while administrators without previous faculty experience believe that faculty members may not be dismissed for failure to follow college rules.

Administrators with previous faculty experience believe that faculty have rights that prevent administration from placing limits on what they say both in and out of the classroom while administrators without previous faculty experience do not believe faculty have these rights.

About forty percent of the sample of administrators in this study reported having previous faculty experience. This seems like a relatively low percentage from a common sense point of view. Common experience with colleges would tend to predict that most

administrators rise from faculty ranks, and therefore it might seem reasonable to expect a much higher percentage of administrators with faculty experience.

Much of this problem may come from the definition of administrators used for this study. Respondents were allowed to self identify as an administrator. However, no other question to determine subsets of administrators was asked. Thus there may have been an equal chance that a purchasing agent, comptroller, or facilities manager may have responded as well as an academic dean, chief student affairs officer, or college president. Community colleges in the State of Washington have many such non-academic administrators. While they are still part of "the management team" they do not hire, fire, discipline, or supervise faculty.

Using this assumption, two sets of administrators can most likely be somewhat distinguished, though not conclusively so, by whether they have previous faculty experience. Administrators with previous faculty experience may be more likely to hold academic administration posts while those without previous faculty experience may hold non-academic posts. However the extent of this generalization cannot be derived from the data and therefore must be viewed as tentative and amorphous.

Holders of non-academic posts may be less familiar with the literature on academic freedom and tenure and may also be somewhat removed from faculty interaction. Thus it makes sense that these two subsets of administrators may differ significantly on several factors. Additionally, holders of non-academic posts are probably the least alike with the other three groups, i.e., their administrator counterparts and with faculty with or without previous administrative experience. Thus their experiences, their role expectations, and hence their roles are probably the most different among the set of administrators and faculty.

Another influence is the more obvious one on its face. Administrators with previous faculty experience have been exposed to both categories. They know what it is like from

both sides of the fence. In addition, some administrators may plan to return to the faculty at some time in their future. While administrators with previous faculty experience are likely to differ from faculty who remained faculty, they are probably more like faculty than administrators without previous faculty experience. If this assumption is true, then it follows that when we compare administrators with faculty experience against faculty members with previous administrative experience we should see fewer differences. And when we look at this later comparison in research question 10, indeed we find differences on only two of the nine factors.

9. To what extent do faculty with previous administrative experience and faculty without previous administrative experience in Washington State community colleges differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

Significant differences were found for two of the nine factors: factor 2, and factor 3.

Faculty with previous administrative experience believe administrators and faculty understand the principles of academic freedom and tenure while faculty with no previous administrative experience do not believe that administrators and faculty understand the principles of academic freedom and tenure.

Faculty with previous administrative experience do not believe faculty have rights that prevent administration from controlling curriculum, grades, and off-campus teaching and consultation activities while faculty with no previous administrative experience believe faculty have these rights.

The exposure to both roles is the most likely explanation for differences observed in this finding.

10. To what extent do administrators with previous faculty experience and faculty with previous administrative experience in Washington State community colleges differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

Significant differences were found for two of the nine factors: factor 1, and factor 2.

Administrators with previous faculty experience believe that academic freedom and tenure are not important principles while faculty with previous administrative experience do not believe that academic freedom and tenure are not important principles.

Administrators with previous faculty experience do not believe administrators and faculty understand the principles of academic freedom and tenure while faculty with previous administrator experience do believe that administrators and faculty understand the principles of academic freedom and tenure.

Of the various comparisons between sets and subsets of administrators and faculty, the findings for research question 10 may be the most curious and most difficult to interpret. On the factors that relate to the principles of academic freedom and tenure that are objective, i.e., can be supported by references to the literature, administrators with faculty experience and faculty with administrators experience show no significant differences. On the two factors that are more subjective, i.e., not anchored to an independent reality, these two groups differ.

Part of the reason that these two groups do not differ on the objective questions may be that these two groups are the most similar of any of the various subsets of administrators and faculty. As previous noted, administrators with previous faculty experience are most likely the holders of academic administrative posts. It is also a likely assumption that administrators who returned to faculty positions probably held previous academic administration posts. Both these groups may have more similar experiences than different experiences. Then what about the differences on factors 1 and 2?

Is it possible that in some way these two factors may touch on whatever set of other factors cause a faculty member to change roles and become an administrator and vice versa? Administrators with previous faculty experience differed from administrators with no pre-

vious faculty experience on both these factors, and faculty members with previous administrators experience differed from faculty with no previous administrator experience differences on one of these factors (factor 2). Maybe differing with one's own peers on the subjective evaluations of academic freedom and tenure is a sufficient dissonance to cause people to shift roles. It may be part of an administrator's role to differ with the faculty but not differ with other administrators in core beliefs such as the importance of academic freedom and tenure. Similarly, it may be part of a faculty member's role to differ with administrators but not differ with other faculty in core beliefs. Of course these speculations must be viewed as highly tentative at this point and require further study.

11. To what extent do administrators without previous faculty experience and faculty without previous administrative experience in Washington State community colleges differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

Significant differences were found for four of the nine factors: factor 1, factor 2, factor 3, and factor 4.

Administrators without previous faculty experience believe academic freedom and tenure are not important principles while faculty members without previous administrative experience do not believe that academic freedom and tenure are not important principles.

Administrators without previous faculty experience believe that administrators and faculty members understand the principles of academic freedom and tenure while faculty members without previous administrator experience do not believe that administrators and faculty understand the principles of academic freedom and tenure.

Administrators without previous faculty experience do not believe that faculty members have rights that prevent administrators from controlling curriculum, grades, and off-campus teaching and consulting activities while faculty members with no administrative experience do believe that faculty have these rights.

Administrators without previous faculty experience do not believe that faculty members have rights that prevent administration from controlling teaching methods and grading policies while faculty members without previous administrative experience do believe that faculty have these rights.

This research question may approach the "purest" comparison between administrator and faculty roles in that no cross role contamination is likely to be present. Administrators who have never been faculty are compared with faculty who have never been administrators. However, because of the structure of administration in Washington State community colleges, as has previously been discussed, many administrators without faculty experience are probably administrators who do not have a management relationship with faculty. They are likely to be administrators in non academic posts. The structure of the current study does not allow this possibility to be controlled for. Thus differences in this research finding must be viewed tentatively.

Three of the four factors in which there is a significant difference for this set of findings are the same as for the findings in research question 1 that compare the set of all administrators with the set of all faculty. These factors are 1, 3 and 4. In research question 1, administrators and faculty members differed on factor 6, which we have already discussed as being problematic since it is both a true and false statement. In research question 11, administrators with no previous faculty experience differed from faculty members with no previous administrator experience on factor 2, a factor that administrators and faculty disagreed on within themselves. This makes any meaningful interpretation of the difference on factor 2 difficult for this research finding.

This similarity of findings on factors 1, 3 and 4 with administrators as a whole and faculty as a whole as found in research question 1 is noted. This commonality serves as the basis for the major research finding of this study.

12. To what extent do respondents with differing levels of experience in their current job category at their current institution differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

Significant differences were found for two of the nine factors: factor 1, and factor 7.

In general the set of administrators and faculty with 15 years or less of experience in their current job category at their current location believed that academic freedom and tenure are not important principles while the set of administrators and faculty members with more than 15 years of experience in the current job at their current institution did not believe that academic freedom and tenure are not important principles.

Although there was a significant difference in the overall mean scores for factor 7—Faculty members may not be dismissed for failure to follow college rules,—no pattern emerged to establish a trend for the set of administrators and faculty members in the number of years of experience in their current job category at their current institution.

As people, whether administrators or faculty, remain in their current position at their current institution they tended to shift their opinion about the importance of the principles academic freedom and tenure. Less experience was equated with less importance.

Since there was noted a significant difference in the distribution of current experience in current position between administrators and faculty, this maturation effect is cited as a possible limitation of the study. However, since this effect appeared in only two of the nine factors, the impact of this effect, if present, is assumed to be minimal.

13. To what extent do respondents with differing levels of total experience in higher education differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

Significant differences were found for four of the nine factors: factor 1, factor 3, factor 4 and factor 7.

The set of administrators and faculty members with very little total experience in higher education, i.e. less than 3 years and with lots of total experience in higher education, i.e., 21 years or more tended not believe that academic freedom and tenure are not important principles while the set of administrators and faculty members with total experience in higher education of between 3 and 20 years tended to believe that academic freedom and tenure were not important principles. No particular experience category differed significantly from any other experience category although overall the difference was significant.

The set of administrators and faculty members with ten years or less of total experience in higher education tended to believe that the faculty has rights that prevent administration from controlling curriculum, grades, and off-campus teaching and consultation activities while the set of administrators and faculty members with 11 years or more of total experience in higher education tended not to believe that the faculty has these rights. No particular experience category differed significantly from any other experience category although overall the difference was significant.

The set of administrators and faculty members with 15 years or less of total experience in higher education tended to believe that faculty have rights that prevent administration from controlling teaching methods and grading systems while the set of administrators and faculty members with 16 years or more of total experience in higher education tended not to believe that faculty have these rights. No particular experience category differed significantly from any other experience category although overall the difference was significant.

The set of administrators and faculty members with 6-10 years of total experience in higher education tended to believe that faculty members may not be dismissed for failure to follow college rules while the set of administrators and faculty members with 21 years or more of total experience in higher education tended not to believe that faculty members may not be dismissed for failure to follow college rules.

The total years of experience within higher education is both a history effect and a maturation effect. Since significant differences in the distribution of total experience in higher education were noted between administrators and faculty members, this history/maturation effect is cited as a possible limitation to the study. Since four of the nine factors are impacted, this possible limitation, if present, may have some influence on the findings.

It is interesting to note that, in general, while administrators and faculty with more total experience tend to believe that administration has control over such matters as curriculum, grading, teaching methods, and outside teaching and consulting and faculty assignment, they also tend to believe that faculty members are protected from dismissal for failure to follow college rules. The side by side belief of these contradictory beliefs may be one source of role strain within the institution. On one hand, the more experienced administrators and faculty believe that there are institutional limits on some faculty behavior, while on the other hand they may feel helpless in being able to enforce those limits through dismissal proceedings.

14. To what extent do respondents with differing age levels differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

Significant differences were found for two of the nine factors: factor 4, and factor 7.

The set of administrators and faculty members with ages of 49 or less tended to believe that faculty have rights that prevent administration from controlling teaching methods and grading polices while the set of administrators and faculty members with ages of 50 or more tended not to believe that faculty have these rights.

Although there was a significant difference in the overall mean scores for factor 7—Faculty may not be dismissed for failure to follow college rules,—no pattern emerged to establish a trend for the set of administrators and faculty according to age level.

Age may be an overlapping effect with experience, either current experience or total experience. Obviously, most of the people with the most experience are likely to be older in age. Since the distribution of age between faculty members and administration was significantly different, age as a maturation effect is cited as a possible limitation of the study. However, because age affects only two factors and because on its face it appears to overlap with experience effects, age by itself, is not likely to have a strong influence on the findings.

15. To what extent do respondents with differing levels of education differ in their opinions about academic freedom and tenure?

Significant differences were found for two of the nine factors: factor 2, and factor 4.

Although there was a significant difference in the overall mean scores for factor 2—administrators and faculty members understand the principles of academic freedom and tenure—no pattern emerged to establish a trend for the set of administrators and faculty members according to level of education.

Similarly, although there was a significant difference in the overall mean scores for factor 4—faculty have rights that prevent administration from controlling teaching methods and grading policies—no pattern emerged to establish a trend for the set of administrators and faculty according to level of education.

Differences were noted for level of education but no clear pattern emerged. Since significant differences do exist between administrators and the faculty in level of education, level of education is cited as a possible limitation of the study. The lack of clarity or pattern and the fact that only two factors were impacted suggests that if level of education does impact the findings that impact most likely is slight and unpredictable.

Before concluding the general discussion of findings it may be important to point out one additional source of possible error. The pre-test of the questionnaire suggested that

some respondents had difficulty in differentiating between the principles of academic freedom and tenure and the practices of how those principles are applied. Although the instructions and questionnaires were worded to focus on the principles only, it is possible that some respondents continued to answer based upon their experience with how they perceive these principles to be actually applied. Thus some respondents may believe that faculty members can be dismissed for failure to follow college rules, but may have answered questions to the contrary because they are not aware of any cases in which this has actually happened. They may even be aware of cases in which, from their point of view, it should have happened but it did not. Further research into these differences would be fruitful.

In summary, the major research finding for this study suggests that the set of administrators with and without previous faculty experience disagree with the set of faculty members with and without previous administrator experience on factors related to the importance and impact of academic freedom, professional autonomy, and classroom autonomy. This disagreement is similarly evident between administrators without previous faculty experience when compared with faculty without previous administrator experience.

Administrators as a whole differ from faculty as a whole on four factors related to academic freedom and tenure. Administrators with no faculty experience differ from administrators with faculty experience on four factors. Faculty with no previous administrator experience differ from faculty with previous administrator experience on two such factors. Administrators with previous faculty experience differ from faculty with previous administrator experience on two factors. Administrators with no previous faculty experience differ with faculty with no previous administrator experience on four factors.

Thus Biddle's (1979, p 257) hypothesis that role expectations are unlikely to be held consensually throughout a complex social system and that there may be overlapping fields of consensus along with dissensus or even conflicting role expectations tends to be confirmed.

The history of academic freedom has been filled with challenge. It will probably continue to be challenged. More consensus between and among administrators and the faculty will help to better define the principles of academic freedom and tenure. Vigilance, court action, and above all responsible exercise of the right of academic freedom and the protections of tenure are the best safeguards for a set precious rights that serve the faculty, the institution, and the general good.

## Comparisons With Related Studies

There are relatively few published studies comparing the opinions and attitudes of administrators and faculty members on the subject of academic freedom and tenure.

Cooper (1982) found significant differences between academic deans and faculty in two-year and four-year colleges in Georgia with regard to tenure. Cooper reported that academic deans had less favorable attitudes towards tenure while the faculty expressed positive attitudes. These results appear similar to the findings of this current study. Administrators in Washington State community colleges also had significantly less favorable attitudes toward tenure (and academic freedom) than did the faculty.

Nikfetrat (1983) in a study at George Washington University and the University of Maryland reported that more favorable attitudes towards tenure were held by tenured rather than non-tenured faculty, full-time rather than part-time faculty, male rather than female faculty, and full professors followed in order by associate professors, assistant professors and instructors. The current study does not address differences between tenured and non-tenured faculty, or full-time versus part-time faculty. In terms of gender however, the current study analyzed for differences between male administrators and male faculty members as a group, compared with female administrators and female faculty members as a group. A significant gender difference was noted on only one factor, Factor 7 - Dismissal for Cause. A second finding of the current study indicates that administrators and faculty as a group with more experience in current job category at their current institution have more favorable

opinions towards tenure (and academic freedom) than administrators and faculty as a group with less experience. This finding seems to parallel Nikfretrat's findings related faculty rank.

Newman (1986) conducted a survey of administrators and faculty at Dowling College in New York, noting differences between the two. However, it is important to note, that Dowling College was in the midst of significant internal turmoil at the time of the study. Thus a significant history effect is presumed to exist which makes generalizability of this particular study difficult. Although Newman computed the mean response of each group for each question, the question of statistically significant differences was not addressed. Thus a meaningful comparison with the findings of the current study is not possible.

Ambrose (1988, 1989, 1990) conducted a survey of administrators and faculty in the Georgia public higher education system, and found significant differences among administrators, faculty members, and department chairs on three out of four factor scales: academic personnel decisions, freedom of expression, and rights of instruction. Ambrose did not find a significant difference on a fourth factor: research information disclosure nor did he find a significant difference on a separate scale: goodness/merit (of academic freedom).

The factor on academic personnel decisions related to cases dealing with institutional income policies, leave policies, internal transfers and collective bargaining. There is no parallel factor in the current study. The factor on freedom of expression related to cases dealing with profanity in the classroom, protest marches, scientific inquiry, and the distribution of political materials on campus. Although Factor 8 - Student Rights in the current study addresses the issue of profanity in the classroom, there does not appear to be sufficient overlap on its face to hypothesize these factors as parallel. The factor on rights of instruction related to cases dealing with content of lecture materials, nontraditional fields of study and pedagogical methods. In the current study, Factor 4 - Classroom Autonomy includes concepts related to teaching and grading methods and therefore, on its face, appears to be

somewhat parallel to Ambrose's factor on rights of instruction. Lastly, Ambrose's scale on goodness/merit also appears on its face to be similar to Factor 1 - Importance and Impact.

The Ambrose study did not find any significant difference between administrators and faculty members on goodness/merit while the current study does find a significant difference on the parallel construct of Importance and Impact. The Ambrose study found that faculty were more concerned about academic freedom issues related to rights of instruction more so than administrators. In the current study, a parallel finding seems to exist, namely, faculty believe that they have more rights under this concept than administrators believe they do.

Johnson (1991) conducted a survey of tenure attitudes of faculty members in Florida's community colleges. She found differences related to the tenure status of the faculty and rank but no differences related to gender, years of employment, or age. The current study examined each of these variables but in relationship to the group of administrators plus faculty rather than faculty alone. The current study found a difference only on Factor 7 for gender; differences on Factors 4 and 7 for age; differences on Factors 1 and 7 for current experience and differences on Factors 1, 3, 4, and 7 for total experience.

Zito (1993) found little difference between faculty and department chairs in her study on academic freedom court cases. Zito (1993) surveyed department chairs and faculty in the natural science and social science departments from private colleges and universities in the North Central Association on their knowledge of academic freedom litigation as it pertained to private colleges and universities. Respondents were asked 20 *yes* or *no* questions concerning academic freedom. The differences noted in the current study may be due to the use of Likert-type scales which may have picked up more subtle differences by spreading respondent's answers over a broader continuum than the simple yes no scale used by Zito. Additionally, the current study compares administrators with faculty rather than department chairs, who presumably hold faculty rank, with other faculty.

Effect of Collective Bargaining on Generalizing the Study

Tenure in Washington State community colleges is covered by state statute and collective bargaining agreements. Faculty and administrators employed within a system that has both state statute and collective bargaining agreements establishing the parameters of its tenure system may have significantly different opinions about tenure, and perhaps academic freedom, than faculty and administrators who are employed within systems that have only one or the other, or neither. State statutes and collective bargaining agreements provide a set of law that may differ from state to state and institution to institution.

Generalizability from community colleges to other institutions of higher education may, therefore, be problematic. Cohen and Brawer (1989) traced some of the numbers associated with collective bargaining in community colleges. Half of the states in 1980 had legislation authorizing collective bargaining. By the mid 1980s two thirds of the faculty and 60 percent of the colleges were covered by collective bargaining agreements. Swift (1979) noted that community colleges "have proven to be the most fertile ground for collective bargaining" (p.9). He attributed this to the close historical ties that community colleges have with high schools and also the large number of vocational faculty. The ideas of unionization and collective bargaining are more likely to be acceptable, therefore at the community college than at the universities with their traditions of shared governance.

Metzler (1977) suggested several reasons for some of the early rush to collective bargaining on the part of community college faculty: "low salaries, unilateral decisions by trustees and administrators, lack of communication between administration and faculty, and a general feeling of being treated as high school teachers rather than as members of a college faculty" (p.5).

The National Center for the Study of Collective Bargaining in Higher Education and the Professions Newsletter (Nov.-Dec. 1987) provided some data about the scope of unionization in community colleges. 307 (45%) community college faculties are represented

by certified bargaining agents; Only 21% of four year colleges are unionized; 58% of all unionized campuses are community colleges; only 16 of the 590 community colleges unionized are private. 171 community colleges are represented by NEA, 92 by AFT, 32 by independents and, 4 by the AAUP.

Chandler and Julius (1985) conducted a comprehensive analysis of 184 two-year collective bargaining agreements. "Unlike many four-year institutions, in two-year colleges the management, not the faculty, has historically been responsible for appointment, promotion, nonrenewal and tenure decisions. Traditions involving peer judgment and professional autonomy clearly are not strong in the two-year sector. For example, nearly 40 percent of contracts studied did not contain language on appointment; roughly one-third had no language on promotion or nonrenewal and almost 47 percent, nearly half, did not have language on tenure" (p.32).

In Washington State community colleges tenure may be awarded after a series of three one-year contracts which constitute a three-year probationary period. Cohen and Brawer (1989) described how tenure differs in community colleges from tenure processes in the rest of higher education. "Tenure patterns in community colleges more closely resemble those in the lower schools than they do the procedures in universities. Tenure is awarded after a single year or, in many cases, after a probation of two to three years; the practice rarely approximates the seven-year standard common in universities. Although tenure rules vary from state to state, in some states tenure is awarded simultaneously with the award of a full time teaching contract. That is, after a one-year contract has been tendered and the instructor has fulfilled his or her responsibilities, a contract for the succeeding year can be demanded unless the institution can show cause that the instructor is not deserving of it. Often, unless it is included in the state laws governing community colleges, tenure becomes a negotiable item in contract bargaining" (pp. 73-74).

Because of differences in collective bargaining and tenure awarding practices, this study is likely to be more generalizable to other community colleges covered by either state statutes or collective bargaining agreements than to senior institutions covered by neither.

## Recommendations for Further Study

This study on academic freedom and tenure has raised more questions than it has answered. Further research is required to understand better what administrators and faculty believe about academic freedom and tenure, where these beliefs come from, and how these beliefs are applied. Specific recommendations for further study on academic freedom and tenure are:

1. How administrators and faculty members differ from each other in:
    a. other community college systems
    b. technical colleges
    c. research universities
    d non-research four-year colleges
    e. colleges with collective bargaining versus similar colleges without collective bargaining

2. How are these studies affected when a tighter definition of "administrator" is used? A suggested definition would be: Administrator—Any full-time college employee who self-identifies as holding administrative rank and who therefore is presumed to hold an administrative contract and represents the Board of Trustees and the college president (CEO) in carrying out the management functions of the institution. An administrator for the purpose of this study has the ability to hire, fire, or discipline a member of the faculty or make effective recommendations in that regard. The administrator is not eligible to be a member of the faculty bargaining unit if one exists or should come to exist.

3. How do faculty members and administrators learn their roles with respect to academic freedom and tenure? Is there formal or informal study of the literature? What role

expectations are conveyed in this manner? In what ways are the mores and folkways passed on? What role expectations are conveyed in this manner? What and how are sanctions applied for dissensus within groups? Between groups?

4. How do faculty members and administrators differ in their beliefs about the principles of academic freedom and tenure and how do they perceive the application of those principles on their campuses?

5. What differences are there between faculty members who become administrators and administrators who become faculty? What are the predisposing factors? What about administrators and faculty members who cross roles and then return to their original roles?

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# Appendix A

# SURVEY INSTRUMENT

*Opinions on*

# Academic Freedom & Tenure

***A Survey of Washington State Community College Faculty and Administrators***

Please return your completed questionnaire
in the enclosed stamped envelope to:

Michael J. Grubiak, Dean of Students MS 6-11
Highline Community College
P.O. Box 98000
Des Moines, Washington 98198-9800

Dear Colleague,

I am asking you for your assistance.

I assume the principles of academic freedom and tenure are as important to you as they are to me. Community college faculty and administrators need to have their voices heard on these two important topics. For my doctoral dissertation at the University of Washington, I am conducting systematic research to find out more about community college faculty and administrator opinions and attitudes on these subjects. Sharing your opinions is perhaps the most valuable contribution you can make to increasing the understanding of academic freedom and tenure as they are perceived in community colleges. I appreciate your assistance with this important study.

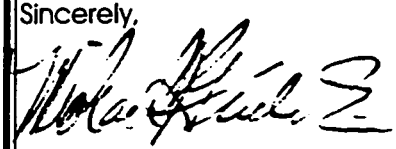
You are part of a small random sample of faculty and administrators from Washington state community colleges selected to answer a few questions about academic freedom and tenure. **The small sample makes your response critical to the value of the study.** Your response is confidential. I have coded each questionnaire to help me track and maximize return rates by reminding those not returning the questionnaire. Your name, of course, would never be connected to your individual answers.

I have enclosed a stamped and addressed envelop for your convenience. Please fold the questionnaire and return it in this envelope.

I greatly appreciate your assistance. Your thoughtful and quick response will add our community college voice to the higher education conversation on academic freedom and tenure.

Thank you.

Sincerely,



Michael J. Grubiak
Dean of Students
Highline Community College

**INSTRUCTIONS:**

Listed below is a series of statements about ***the principles*** of academic freedom and ***the principles*** of tenure as applied to public institutions of higher education. Circle the response number that most closely matches your current level of agreement or disagreement with each statement. The range of the scale is:

| | |
|---|---|
| -2 | Strongly Disagree |
| -1 | Somewhat Disagree |
| 0 | Undecided |
| +1 | Somewhat Agree |
| +2 | Strongly Agree |


**ACADEMIC FREEDOM:**

**Q1.** Most faculty on my campus have a clear understanding of the meaning of academic freedom.

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

**Q2.** Most administrators on my campus have a clear understanding of the meaning of academic freedom.

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

**Q3.** Academic freedom is a principle vital to the mission of higher education.

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

**Q4.** Academic freedom is not a relevant principle to the protection of faculty rights.

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

**Q5.** The principle of academic freedom prohibits the institution from placing restrictions on a faculty member's off-campus teaching or consulting activities.

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

**PLEASE TURN THE PAGE AND CONTINUE**

| -2 | -1 | 0 | +1 | +2 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Disagreement | | Undecided | | Agreement |

**Q6.** The principle of academic freedom prohibits administration from changing a student's final grade in a course without the concurrence of the faculty member who originally assigned the grade.

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

**Q7.** The principle of academic freedom allows individual faculty to select the textbooks for their own courses.

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

**Q8.** The principle of academic freedom prevents administration from disciplining faculty who are orally abusive to students in their classroom.

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

**Q9.** The principle of academic freedom expects faculty to refrain from teaching controversial matter that is not related to the subject matter or content of the course.

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

**Q10.** The principle of academic freedom expects faculty to exercise appropriate restraint in off-campus speech.

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

**Q11.** The principle of academic freedom prevents administration from requiring faculty to modify how they give examinations to accommodate disabled students.

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

**Q12.** The principle of academic freedom permits individual faculty to determine which courses they will teach.

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

**Q13.** The principle of academic freedom protects faculty who use profane or vulgar language in the classroom as part of their personal teaching style.

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

**PLEASE CONTINUE ON THE NEXT PAGE**

-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Disagreement Undecided Agreement

**Q14.** The principle of academic freedom protects faculty who publicly criticize their institutions when speaking as private citizens on matters of public concern.

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

**Q15.** The principle of academic freedom permits individual faculty to use their own teaching methods, even if such methods are at variance with college rules and regulations.

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

**Q16.** The principle of academic freedom permits individual faculty to use their own grading system, even if such methods are at variance with college rules and regulations.

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

**Q17.** The principle of academic freedom protects faculty freedom of speech even if such speech substantially disrupts the operations of the institution.

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

**TENURE:**

**Q18.** Most faculty on my campus have a clear understanding of the meaning of tenure.

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

**Q19.** Most administrators on my campus have a clear understanding of the meaning of tenure.

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

**Q20.** Tenure is an outmoded concept with little justification for continuance.

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

**PLEASE TURN THE PAGE AND CONTINUE**

| -2 | -1 | 0 | +1 | +2 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Disagreement | | Undecided | | Agreement |

**Q21.** The principle of tenure provides an unconditional guarantee of lifetime employment between the granting institution and the faculty member.

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

**Q22.** The principle of tenure provides a valuable tool for attracting and retaining high calibre faculty to higher education.

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

**Q23.** The primary purpose of the principle of tenure is to safeguard the principles and practices of academic freedom.

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

**Q24.** In principle, faculty with tenure may be dismissed for just cause.

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

**Q25.** The principle of tenure protects incompetent faculty from dismissal.

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

**Q26.** In principle, insubordination is not sufficient grounds for dismissing tenured faculty.

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

**Q27.** In principle, neglect of duty is not sufficient grounds for dismissing tenured faculty.

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

**Q28.** In principle, faculty with tenure may be dismissed for immoral behavior.

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

**Q29.** In principle, faculty with tenure may be dismissed for unethical behavior.

-2 -1 0 +1 +2

**PLEASE CONTINUE ON THE NEXT PAGE**

**DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION:**

**Q30.** Please check the best description of your current position:

- ❑ Full-time administrator (**Go to Q31**)
- ❑ Full-time tenured or tenure-track faculty (**Go to Q32**)
- ❑ Full-time non-administrative exempt (**Go to Q33**)
- ❑ Other: Please specify _____ _____ (**Go to Q33**)

**Q31.** If you checked "full-time administrator" in Q30, have you ever been a full time tenured faculty member at any institution of higher education?

- ❑ Yes
- ❑ No

**Skip Q32 and Go to Q33**

**Q32.** If you checked "full-time tenured or tenure-track faculty" in Q30, have you ever been a full-time administrator at any institution of higher education?

- ❑ Yes
- ❑ No

**Q33.** How many years have you served in your current position at your current institution?

- ❑ less than 3 years
- ❑ 3 - 5 years
- ❑ 6 - 10 years
- ❑ 11 - 15 years
- ❑ 16 - 20 years
- ❑ 21 - 25 years
- ❑ more than 25 years

**Q34.** How many total years administrative and/or tenured faculty experience do you have in all of your higher education career?

- ❑ less than 3 years
- ❑ 3 - 5 years
- ❑ 6 - 10 years
- ❑ 11 - 15 years
- ❑ 16 - 20 years
- ❑ 21 - 25 years
- ❑ more than 25 years

**PLEASE TURN THE PAGE AND CONTINUE**

**Q35.** Please check the box that most closely matches how you define your racial or ethnic heritage.

- ❑ Native American: American Indian, Eskimo, Aleut, Alaskan
- ❑ Asian/Pacific Islander
- ❑ Black or African American
- ❑ Latino/Hispanic
- ❑ White/Caucasian

**Q36.** Gender:

- ❑ Female
- ❑ Male

**Q37.** What is your age?

- ❑ 20 - 29
- ❑ 30 - 39
- ❑ 40 - 49
- ❑ 50 - 59
- ❑ 60 or older

**Q38.** Highest degree held:

- ❑ Doctorate
- ❑ Masters
- ❑ Bachelors
- ❑ Associates

**Q39.** If you have any additional comments, please include them here:

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

**THANK YOU FOR COMPLETING THE SURVEY**

Appendix B

FOLLOW UP CARD

Last week I mailed you a questionnaire on Academic Freedom and Tenure. You are part of a relatively small sample of randomly chosen community college faculty and administrators in Washington State. Because of this small sample your response is critical.

If you have already completed and returned the questionnaire, please accept my sincere thanks. I am especially grateful for your help because I believe your response will be very useful to the community college conversation on academic freedom and tenure.

If you did not receive a questionnaire, or if it was misplaced, please call me at (206) 878-3710, extension 3599 and I will get another one out to you today.

Sincerely

Michael J. Grubiak
Dean of Students
Highline Community College
Des Moines, WA 98198-9800

Appendix C

FOLLOW UP LETTER

April 29, 1996

Michael J. Grubiak, Dean of Students
Highline Community College
PO Box 98000
Des Moines, WA 98198-9800

«Firstname» «Initial» «Lastname»
«College»
«Address»
«Cityzip»

Dear «Firstname»

About one month ago, I wrote you seeking your opinion about issues related to academic freedom and tenure. *As of today, I have not received your completed questionnaire.* I realize that you may not have had time to complete it. However, I would genuinely appreciate hearing from you.

The study is being conducted so that community college educational professionals like yourself can affect policies related to academic freedom and tenure. I am writing to you again because the study's usefulness depends on my receiving a questionnaire from each respondent. Your name was selected through a scientific sampling process. In order for information from the study to be truly representative, it is essential that each person in the sample return their questionnaire.

In the event that your questionnaire has been misplaced, a replacement is enclosed. I would be happy to answer any questions you have about the study. Please write or call me at (206) 878-3710, extension 3599.

Sincerely,

Michael J. Grubiak
Dean of Students

Appendix D

SURVEY QUESTIONS: FREQUENCY OF RESPONSES, STANDARD DEVIATION, AND MEANS

Table D1

Survey Questions - Frequency of Responses, Standard Deviations, and Means by Job Category

| Qs | Administration (N = 243) | | | | | | | Faculty (N = 354) | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Responses | | | | | Summary | | Responses | | | | | Summary | |
| | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | Std. Dev. | Mean | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | Std. Dev. | Mean |
| Q1. | 17 | 56 | 27 | 110 | 33 | 1.178 | .354 | 11 | 53 | 51 | 187 | 52 | 1.010 | .610 |
| Q2 | 9 | 38 | 27 | 122 | 47 | 1.073 | .658 | 23 | 65 | 69 | 148 | 49 | 1.128 | .381 |
| Q3 | 3 | 14 | 21 | 85 | 120 | .927 | 1.255 | 1 | 2 | 5 | 78 | 268 | .545 | 1.723 |
| Q4 | 88 | 86 | 29 | 30 | 10 | 1.155 | -.872 | 237 | 71 | 19 | 13 | 14 | 1.024 | -1.424 |
| Q5 | 83 | 67 | 39 | 38 | 16 | 1.272 | -.671 | 55 | 67 | 71 | 61 | 100 | 1.436 | .237 |
| Q6 | 38 | 44 | 18 | 50 | 93 | 1.525 | .477 | 17 | 23 | 21 | 52 | 241 | 1.147 | 1.347 |
| Q7 | 16 | 41 | 14 | 91 | 81 | 1.264 | .741 | 9 | 19 | 14 | 82 | 230 | .976 | 1.427 |
| Q8 | 187 | 38 | 2 | 13 | 3 | .851 | -1.617 | 239 | 88 | 18 | 7 | 2 | .731 | -1.568 |
| Q9 | 36 | 48 | 24 | 78 | 57 | 1.403 | .296 | 57 | 68 | 65 | 101 | 63 | 1.350 | .127 |
| Q10 | 77 | 71 | 21 | 52 | 22 | 1.364 | -.531 | 115 | 96 | 47 | 63 | 33 | 1.348 | -.556 |
| Q11 | 164 | 54 | 9 | 12 | 4 | .906 | -1.490 | 148 | 109 | 40 | 32 | 25 | 1.235 | -.912 |
| Q12 | 172 | 49 | 9 | 6 | 7 | .906 | -1.535 | 122 | 103 | 38 | 61 | 30 | 1.334 | -.638 |
| Q13 | 139 | 66 | 14 | 18 | 6 | 1.033 | -1.292 | 172 | 83 | 38 | 42 | 19 | 1.247 | -.980 |

Table D1 (Continued)

| Qs | Administration (N = 243) | | | | | | | Faculty (N = 354) | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Responses | | | | | Summary | | Responses | | | | | Summary | |
| | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | Std. Dev. | Mean | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | Std. Dev. | Mean |
| Q14 | 59 | 40 | 25 | 57 | 62 | 1.547 | .095 | 63 | 52 | 45 | 74 | 120 | 1.511 | .384 |
| Q15 | 83 | 77 | 27 | 36 | 20 | 1.302 | -.687 | 59 | 115 | 51 | 91 | 38 | 1.284 | -.186 |
| Q16 | 117 | 81 | 14 | 27 | 4 | 1.055 | -1.152 | 93 | 105 | 43 | 85 | 28 | 1.315 | -.424 |
| Q17 | 104 | 65 | 21 | 29 | 24 | 1.360 | -.807 | 95 | 90 | 53 | 71 | 45 | 1.389 | -.336 |
| Q18 | 10 | 27 | 13 | 94 | 99 | 1.132 | 1.008 | 6 | 36 | 35 | 156 | 121 | 1.001 | .989 |
| Q19 | 8 | 18 | 9 | 95 | 113 | 1.033 | 1.181 | 10 | 34 | 33 | 140 | 137 | 1.059 | 1.017 |
| Q20 | 21 | 38 | 36 | 68 | 80 | 1.317 | .609 | 164 | 83 | 29 | 49 | 29 | 1.350 | -.859 |
| Q21 | 136 | 51 | 2 | 32 | 22 | 1.385 | -1.016 | 188 | 103 | 9 | 37 | 17 | 1.178 | -1.153 |
| Q22 | 30 | 51 | 34 | 84 | 44 | 1.311 | .251 | 21 | 37 | 21 | 116 | 159 | 1.210 | 1.003 |
| Q23 | 24 | 47 | 26 | 91 | 55 | 1.298 | .436 | 18 | 39 | 35 | 120 | 142 | 1.182 | .929 |
| Q24 | 3 | 10 | 3 | 75 | 152 | .820 | 1.494 | 8 | 7 | 4 | 134 | 201 | .813 | 1.449 |
| Q25 | 60 | 40 | 9 | 87 | 47 | 1.512 | .086 | 112 | 84 | 24 | 88 | 46 | 1.465 | -.362 |
| Q26 | 49 | 65 | 29 | 73 | 27 | 1.343 | -.148 | 37 | 47 | 64 | 140 | 66 | 1.231 | .427 |

Table D1 (Continued)

| Qs | Administration (N = 243) | | | | | | | Faculty (N = 354) | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Responses | | | | | Summary | | Responses | | | | | Summary | |
| | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | Std. Dev. | Mean | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | Std. Dev. | Mean |
| Q27 | 121 | 77 | 13 | 24 | 8 | 1.107 | -1.148 | 148 | 144 | 26 | 27 | 9 | 1.007 | -1.116 |
| Q28 | 12 | 41 | 28 | 65 | 97 | 1.265 | .798 | 32 | 38 | 60 | 95 | 129 | 1.303 | .709 |
| Q29 | 16 | 40 | 15 | 85 | 87 | 1.275 | .770 | 25 | 34 | 59 | 127 | 109 | 1.196 | .737 |

# VITA

Michael J. Grubiak

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1996 | Ed.D. | University of Washington |
| 1975 | M. Ed. | University of Puget Sound |
| 1968 | B.S. | Manhattan College |