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Angela Farmer, Editor
Mississippi State University

Tom Hisiro, SRCEA President
Marshall University

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Analyze the Followers: A Phase II Analysis of MBTI

Angela Farmer
Mississippi State University

Abstract

Intuition is a predilection to anticipate a given outcome. While, some are said to have better intuitive capacity than others, much is attributable to skill. Research has shown that intuitions work best when two conditions are met: a regular environment with repeating patterns and patterns encountered with enough frequency that rapid feedback is received (Coates, 2102). Athletics is one environment in which both conditions are met with regularity. Therefore, analyzing one's innate personality type, in this case Myers-Briggs Type Inventory (MBTI) affords a researcher the opportunity to predict the respondent's likelihood to acclimate well within a given team set. The first study in this series examined how a leader, (in this case a collegiate coach's MBTI) impacted variability in the selection of staff, coaches and players on the team in a Southeastern Conference university from that of a normal sample population. Outcomes were published in the *Southeast Journal of Educational Administration* in 2016 as *Follow the Leader: A Team Approach to MBT*. In phase two, the study examines how the intensity of the personality types identified in the initial study either continue as identified, vary toward a different team type, or produces an entirely different pattern of randomness.

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Analyze the Followers:
A Phase II Analysis of MBTI

In order to either introduce the audience to the phase one MBTI research conducted or to remind them of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator or MBTI used, the following provides a general background set for comprehension of the tool used in both phases of the study. MBTI is a personality inventory which adopts the theory of types first described by Dr. Carl Jung, and applies it to people's lives. The tool seeks to allow one to better understand how seemingly random variability in one's behavior is instead rather predictable and orderly. The behaviors are primarily due to innate differences in the ways in which individuals use their perception and judgment (Briggs Myers, McCaulley, Quenk, & Hammer, 2009).

It was the author's intent that this analysis of type dynamics of a unique subgroup of athletes and coaches in a defined setting would lend clarity to the concept of team dynamics as it relates to type and the influence that an effective leader has upon a group's effective functionality. After realizing the extreme polarity with which the 2015 team aligned itself compared to a random population sample, additional study was both warranted and welcomed to allow better insight into the team personality as well as to provide a means to maximize team strengths and minimize weaknesses which could, indirectly, affect team performance.

According to Hunter (2006), assessment of psychological type allows "attention to student characteristics, needs, behaviors, and experiences." For student-athletes to begin and maintain a successful career as both a student and an athlete, understanding themselves and others around them more fully is viewed as a positive action toward enhancing individual and team dynamics. As Coach Mike Krzyzewski, Coach of Duke University Men's Basketball once stated, "Talent is important. But the single most important ingredient after you get the talent is the internal leadership."

Perhaps a link may be discovered that will help unveil why teams chosen by certain MBTI personalities may be heavily influenced by those individual types in order to be productive and effective dynamic presences on and off the field. Fortunately, sports participation allows for a plethora of "psychological, social, and development opportunities like learning to perform under pressure, dealing with adversity, developing self-confidence and decision-making strategies, and learning communication skills" (Williams & Krane, 2013).

The underlying premise of Myers-Briggs Type Inventory is to recognize that while individuals have unique processes for consistent daily life, they typically follow predictable "polar configurations" (Sanborn, 2013). In referencing type theory, credits are to Carl Jung's theory, interpreted by Isabel Myers and Katharine Briggs as the MBTI personality inventory (Briggs Myers, McCaulley, Quenk, & Hammer, 2009) whereby personality types are divested based on functional pairs.

These include one's preference for Introversion or Extraversion (I vs E). The four basic mental functions detailed by MBTI scholars are Sensing (S) and its opposite, Intuition (N); and Thinking (T) and its opposite preference of Feeling (F).

The final inventory is to select between Perception (P) and Judgment (J). Individuals are assessed via a personality tool called, Form M (Briggs & Briggs Myers, 1998), administered by a certified MBTI trainer under controlled conditions, allowing the participants to select from a series of questions traits or characteristics which best describe their personality. At the end of the survey, the participants quantitatively assess their strengths, arriving at a four lettered Type, aligned with one of the 16 MBTI Personality Types.

Individuals who prefer Introversion draw energy from the environment and internalize the experience, allowing them to focus on the internal state and think about things before discussing them. Conversely, individuals who prefer Extraversion are compelled to objects and individuals in the environment and prefer to "talk things out" (Briggs Myers, McCaulley, Quenk, & Hammer, 2009).

The perception types, Sensing and Intuition, are differentiated by Jung's work as follows: Sensing preferences prefer to focus on the immediate experiences available to their five senses while Intuitive types prefer to perceive what is beyond immediately perceptible to the senses and include possible future opportunities. The judgment paradigm focuses on whether individuals prefer linking ideas together via logical connections, Thinking, or arriving at decisions based on values and merits of the decision, Feeling (Briggs Myers, McCaulley, Quenk, & Hammer, 2009).

The final dichotomy reflects how participants prefer to orient themselves to the Outer World, rather as Judging or Perceiving. However, its analysis and evolution is the work of Katharine Briggs not Carl Jung. Its incorporation into Type Theory classification is essential to fully appreciate one's orientation toward the Outer World. Judgment types are seen as individuals who prefer seeing closure, planning operations or organizing activities. Perceiving types, conversely, are acclimated to incoming information upon which they may modify or change their opinion or resulting action (Briggs Myers, McCaulley, Quenk, & Hammer, 2009).

To fully explain type dynamics for each of the 16 MBTI Personality Types is a work into itself; however, a general insight into the types is provided on Table 1.

Table 1
Contributions by Type (Briggs Myers, McCaulley, Quenk, & Hammer, 2009, p. 38)

		SENSING with:		INTUITIVE with:	
		THINKING	FEELING	FEELING	THINKING
Introverts	Judging Types	ISTJ Concentration Fact Focused Logic Organization	ISFJ Concentration Fact Focused Warmth Organization	INFJ Concentration Possibilities Warmth Organization	INTJ Concentration Possibilities Logic Organization
	Perceiving Types	ISTP Concentration Fact Focused Logic Adaptability	ISFP Concentration Facts Focused Warmth Adaptability	INFP Concentration Possibilities Warmth Adaptability	INTP Concentration Possibilities Logic Adaptability
Extraverts	Perceiving Types	ESTP >Interests Fact Focused Logic Adaptability	ESFP >Interests Fact Focused Warmth Adaptability	ENFP >Interests Possibilities Warmth Adaptability	ENTP >Interests Possibilities Logic Adaptability
	Judging Types	ESTJ >Interests Fact Focused Logic Organization	ESFJ >Interests Fact Focused Warmth Organization	ENFJ >Interests Possibilities Warmth Organization	ENTJ >Interests Possibilities Logic Organization

Procedure

An initial, quantitative study resulted from the series of trainings conducted with the group and facets of the group over a period of four months. The Myers-Briggs instrument (Form M) was used to collect data from the participants. The participants included the following: the athletic team (comprised of 119 student-athletes and coaches) and 1 head coach was administered the MBTI. The subsequent year, the same tool was administered to the team which included both former and new players and coaches. All student-athletes and coaching staff participated, including the head coach.

The resulting types were grouped, sub-grouped and analyzed based upon their particular team functions. Further dialog and additional information was shared with each facet to ensure that an enhanced appreciation for MBTI was developed as well as tools were understood for expansion of the participants range of skills to know themselves and one another better to enhance team synergy and effectiveness. For the research interest, the types were grouped and compared to national norms to evaluate whether this unique group, directly selected by a given MBTI type, would present as significantly variant from a randomly selected population.

Observed types were compared as relevant percentages of the entire sample population as well as to the normal population percentiles. Differences were detailed as well. SRTT analyses were calculated for both years whereby the observed population's relative percentages were divided by the normal or expected population's percentages. Additionally, in phase two, the new types were compared with the former types to analyze for annual variance. The researcher suspected that the leader's profile would continue to influence the composition of the team and staff such that the types indicated would not be reflective of the typical percentages in the United States.

Results

The results showed a variety of interesting outcomes, many of which were both remarkable and unanticipated. The MBTI trainer further anticipated that, given the athletic prowess required for participation in such a challenging sport, similar types would be found among like positional assignments. For statistical references, the *Introduction to Type and Leadership* by Sharon Lebovitz Richmond, (2008) was used exclusively. It is a valuable tool for MBTI certified practitioners and part of the CPP's exclusive tool kit. The team dynamics listed below show the types preferred by the participants as a whole. It is paramount to note that the head coach reflected a MBTI of ISTJ or Introverted, Sensing, Thinking and Judging. This type is present in the average population at a percentage of 11.6% and in an executive leadership position 15.2%. The "X's" indicate individuals, when tested a second year, maintained their type preferences.

Table 2: The analysis of personality changes within the team/coaching dynamic for 2016. For clarification purposes, players/coaches whose personality type remained unchanged/unaffected have an "X" beside their type.

Table 2
2015-2016 Analysis of Type

2016 PERSONALITIES and CHANGES

ESTJ	
Coach-1	
Coach-2	
Coach-3	
Coach-4	
Coach-5	
Coach-6	
!!!X	ESTJ
!!!!X	ESTJ
	ESTJ
shift	ESTJ!/!ISTJ
	ESTJ
	ESTJ
shift	ESTJ!/!ESFJ
X	ESTJ
shift	ESTJ!/!ISTJ
	ESTJ
!!!X	ESTJ
	ESTJ
!!!X	ESTJ
shift	ESTJ!/!ESFJ
shift	ESTJ!/!ENTJ
!!X	ESTJ
	ESTJ

ESFJ	
Coach-7	
!!!!X	ESFJ
shift	ESFJ!/!ENFP
shift	ESFJ!/!ESTJ
shift	ESFJ!/!ENTJ
	ESFJ
!!!X	ESFJ

ENFP	
!!!X	ENFP
shift	ENFP!/!INFP
shift	ENFP!/!ENFJ
!!!!X	ENFP

ENTJ	
Coach-8	
!	ENTJ

ESFP	
!!!!X	ESFP
!	ESFP
!!!!X	ESFP
!	ESFP!/!INFP

ENTP	
shift	ENTP!/!ENFP

ENFJ	
shift	ENFJ!/!ISFP
shift	ENFJ!/!ESTJ
	ENFJ
	ENFJ
!!!X	ENFJ
	ENFJ

ESTP	
Coach-9	
!!!!X	ESTP
!!!!X	ESTP
	ESTP
shift	ESTP!/!ESTJ
shift	ESTP!/!ESFP
shift	ESTP!/!ESTJ
shift	ESTP!/!ENTP
	ESTP

ISFJ	
Coach-10	
Coach-11	
shift	ISFJ!/!INFJ
shift	ISFJ!/!ISFP

INFJ	
Coach-12	

ISTJ	
Coach-13*	
Coach-14	
Coach-15	
Coach-16	
Coach-17	
Coach-18	
Coach-19	
!!!!X	ISTJ
shift	ISTJ!/!INTP
shift	ISTJ!/!INFJ
shift	ISTJ!/!ESFJ
shift	ISTJ!/!ESFP
!!!!X	ISTJ
!!!X	ISTJ
shift	ISTJ!/!ESTJ
!!!X	ISTJ
!!!!X	ISTJ
!	ISTJ
!!!X	ISTJ
shift	ISTJ!/!ISTP
shift	ISTJ!/!ESTJ
!	ISTJ
shift	ISTJ!/!ISFJ
!!!!X	ISTJ
!!!!X	ISTJ
shift	ISTJ!/!ESTJ
!	ISTJ
shift	ISTJ!/!INTJ
shift	ISTJ!/!INTP

INTJ	
Coach-20	
!	INTJ
shift	INTJ!/!ESTJ

ISFP	
!	ISFP
shift	ISFP!/!ISTJ
!	ISFP
shift	ISFP!/!ESFJ
!	ISFP

INTP	
Coach-21	
Coach-22	
shift	INTP!/!ISTP
shift	INTP!/!ENTP
shift	INTP!/!ISTJ
!	INTP

INFP	
Coach-23	
!	INFP
!!!X	INFP

ISTP	
Coach-24	
Coach-25	
Coach-26	
Coach-27	
!	ISTP
!!!!X	ISTP
shift	ISTP!/!INTP
!!!X	ISTP
shift	ISTP!/!ISFP
!!!!X	ISTP
!!!X	ISTP
shift	ISTP!/!INFP
!	ISTP
shift	ISTP!/!ESTP
shift	ISTP!/!ISTJ

Table 3
Phase II Team Analysis

MBTI Type	Observed Percentage 2015	Observed Percentage 2016	Normal Population	Result
ISTJ*	17.5	23.9	11.6	Significant Increase Away
ISFJ*	05.8	03.3	13.8	Significant Decrease Away
INFJ	01.6	00.8	01.5	Decrease Away-Noisy Data
INTJ	02.5	02.4	02.1	NMV
ISTP	09.9	12.4	03.3	Significant Increase Away
ISFP	02.5	04.1	08.8	Significant Increase Toward
INFP	05.0	02.4	04.4	Significant Decrease Away
INTP	04.1	04.9	03.3	Significant Increase Away
ESTP	05.0	06.6	04.3	Significant Increase Away
ESFP	06.6	03.3	08.5	Significant Decrease Away
ENFP	05.0	03.3	12.3	Significant Decrease Away
ENTP	05.0	00.8	03.2	Significant Decrease Away
ESTJ*	17.5	19.0	08.7	Significant Increase Away
ESFJ	03.3	05.8	12.3	Significant Increase Toward
ENFJ	01.6	04.9	02.5	Significant Increase Away
ENTJ	00.8	01.6	01.8	Increase Toward-Noisy Data

Table 4
2015 SRTT Analysis and Comparatives

MBTI Type	Observed 2015 Population Percentage	Expected Population Percentage	Percentage Difference: O-E	SRTT: O/E
ISTJ	**17.5**	**11.6**	**+5.9**	**1.50**
ISFJ	05.8	13.8	-8.0	0.42
INFJ	01.6	01.5	+0.1	1.07
INTJ	02.5	02.1	+0.4	1.19
ISTP	**09.9**	**03.3**	**+6.6**	**3.00**
ISFP	02.5	08.8	-6.3	0.28
INFP	05.0	04.4	+0.6	1.14
INTP	04.1	03.3	+0.8	1.24
ESTP	05.0	04.3	+0.7	1.16
ESFP	06.6	08.5	-1.9	0.78
ENFP	05.0	12.3	-7.3	0.41
ENTP	**05.0**	**03.2**	**+1.8**	**1.60**
ESTJ	**17.5**	**08.7**	**+8.8**	**2.00**
ESFJ	03.3	12.3	-9.0	0.27
ENFJ	01.6	02.5	-0.9	0.64
ENTJ	00.8	01.8	-1.0	0.46

Table 5
2016 SRTT Analysis and Comparatives

MBTI Type	Observed 2016 Population Percentage	Expected Population Percentage	Percentage Difference: O-E	SRTT: O/E
ISTJ	**23.9**	**11.6**	**+12.3**	**2.06**
ISFJ	03.3	13.8	-10.5	0.24
INFJ	00.8	01.5	-00.7	0.53
INTJ	02.4	02.1	+0.3	1.14
ISTP	**12.4**	**03.3**	**+9.1**	**3.75**
ISFP	04.1	08.8	-4.7	0.47
INFP	02.4	04.4	-2.0	0.55
INTP	04.9	03.3	+1.6	1.48
ESTP	**06.6**	**04.3**	**+2.3**	**1.53**
ESFP	03.3	08.5	-5.2	0.39
ENFP	03.3	12.3	-9.0	0.14
ENTP	00.8	03.2	-2.4	0.25
ESTJ	**19.9**	**08.7**	**+11.2**	**2.29**
ESFJ	05.8	12.3	-6.5	0.47
ENFJ	**04.9**	**02.5**	**+2.4**	**1.96**
ENTJ	01.6	01.8	-0.2	0.89

In order to better appreciate the impact that the quantitative values represent, Table 3 was designed to allow the reader to note how the data has trended from 2015 to 2016. Tables 4 and 5 detail the following: differences in Myers-Briggs preferences for the group versus the typical population, as well as SRTT analysis whereby the percentage of the sample population is divided by the percentage of the normal population.

For the sake of both consistency and simplicity, the type analysis was ordered in congruence with the order in which the types were presented in Tables 1 through 5.

ISTJ analysis revealed the following: 2015 sample population showed 1.5 times the preferences for ISTJ compared to the normal population. This figure escalated to 2.0 times the normal population one year later, as shown in Tables 4 and 5. This provided evidence that the team began in 2015 as significantly above the norm for ISTJ. However, perhaps more important, is the fact that, in 2016, this increase continued its sharp trajectory of variance away from the norm. What began as an ISTJ type population 1.5 times that of the norm evolved into a population 2 times the average population in just one calendar year.

ISFJ sample data provided the following information. It revealed a significant variation away from the norm of 13.8 percent of the population, moving from 5.8 to 3.3 percent of the sample population in one year. Furthermore, its SRTT ratio provided evidence of a representation of less than 25% of ISFJ's than one would expect in a typical population sample.

INFJ evaluation provided subtle variation away from the norm over time; however, the data shift was so minor that there would be difficulty not attributing this adjustment to noisy data whereby the sample adjustment is too small to consider valid. The SRTT analysis shown in Tables 4 and 5 show INFJ to have adjusted from just over 7% of what would have been expected from a normal sample to just over half, 53% of what one would expect. While this data is notable, it is limited in its usefulness.

INTJ revealed no measurable variance, see Table 3, from one year to the next nor from what one would have expected from the average population. This is the only subset type which showed this characteristic. SRTT data showed data products of 1.19 and 1.14.

ISTP type group was a most notable type which showed significant variance away from the normal population which expanded the gap over time. In 2015, the sample population revealed 3 times the number of members one would have expected in a typical population. This number magnified to 3.75, nearly 4 times what would have been expected.

ISFP type presented as the only of the 16 types in this study which varied over time toward the average population percentage. It adjusted from an observed population percentage of 2.5 to 4.1 from 2015 to 2016. With an expected normal population percentage of 8.8, while the adjustment is still less than half of what one would expect, it does appear to have subtly adjusted in that direction.

INFP analysis revealed an adjusted sample population value of 5 percent in 2015 to 2.4 percent in 2016. While this is a small adjustment, it is interesting as it varies away from the norm in the opposite direction of the original sample population. With an expected percentage of 4.4, the movement toward a near nonexistent sample percentage is notable.

INTP data showed an increase away from and in excess of the typical population. The expected percentage of INTP is 3.3; however, the 2015 data of 4.1 escalated to 4.9 in 2016, clearly moving to tilt the data more toward INTP than the normal population, even if only in a subtle manner.

ESTP type data revealed a significant presence in excess of the average population expectation in 2015, a trend which continued to advance in 2016 where the percentages increased from 5 to 6.6, respectively. Therefore, the resulting type preference in 2016 showed ESTP to be present in greater than a one and one-half times the normal population, as evidenced in Table 5.

ESFP type presence in the sample population provided momentum away from the typical population with significance. From 2015 to 2016, it went from being represented at 78% of the

normal population to 39% of the normal population. This is also reflected in the percentage drop of ESFP from 6.6% of the sample population to 3.3% in one year.

ENFP analysis presented with a significant decrease away from what one would expect within an average population where 12.3 percent of individuals should select this type. 2015 sample group data showed only 5 percent of the team/coaching unit to identify with ENFP, followed by 2016 data which further separated from the norm with only 3.3 percent represented. Reinforcing this dramatic separation, the SRTT analysis showed only 41 percent in 2015 and decreased to 14 percent of types in the sample in 2016 where a normal sample would result in a score of 1.0.

ENTP identified types were present in 5 and 0.8 percent sample concentrations for 2015 and 2016, respectively, in a type category where the expected population would be 3.2 percent. What was most interesting in this type category was the abrupt shift in SRTT values. In 2015, ENTP represented 5 percent for a type with which the average population would identify with on a frequency of 3.2 percent. However, in the subsequent year, the ENTP population dropped to 0.8, resulting in an SRTT value of only 0.25 or one quarter of what would have been expected in a normal population. Clearly, this type represented the most dramatic change in presentation even though it was still only reflected in a few individuals.

ESTJ consistently presented as a dominant type in the group analysis with 2015 data identifying 17.5 percent of the sample population followed by 2016 which elevated the subpopulation to 19 percent in a category which, in a normal population, would only represent 8.7 of individuals. ESTJ's representation was a dominant actor in 2015, producing a SRTT analysis of 2.0 or double the anticipated population. This trend continued in 2016 where 2.29 or well over double the expected population identified with ESTJ.

ESFJ was a type significantly underrepresented in both 2015 and 2016 sample groups. While there was a slight increase from 3.3 to 5.8 percent of the observed population, neither sample year produced data close to the typical population's expectation. SRTT analyses reported only 27 percent and 47 percent, respectively, of what one would have expected in a normal population.

ENFJ type presence was found to represent only 1.6 percent of the 2015 sample or observed population where one would have expected 2.5 percent of the typical population to identify with this type. Worthy of notice, however, was the data from 2016 which identified 4.9 percent of the sample population to identify with ENFJ, this represents nearly double, 1.96 times, the expected population percentage. This was definitely outlier behavior as the sample data provided definitive under and then over representation among the observed population.

ENTJ was found to increase from 0.80 percent in 2015 to 1.6 percent in 2016 such that it provided very close alignment with expected representation in a typical population of 1.8 percent.

Table 6A
MBI National Averages vs. Sample Population Data, 2015-16

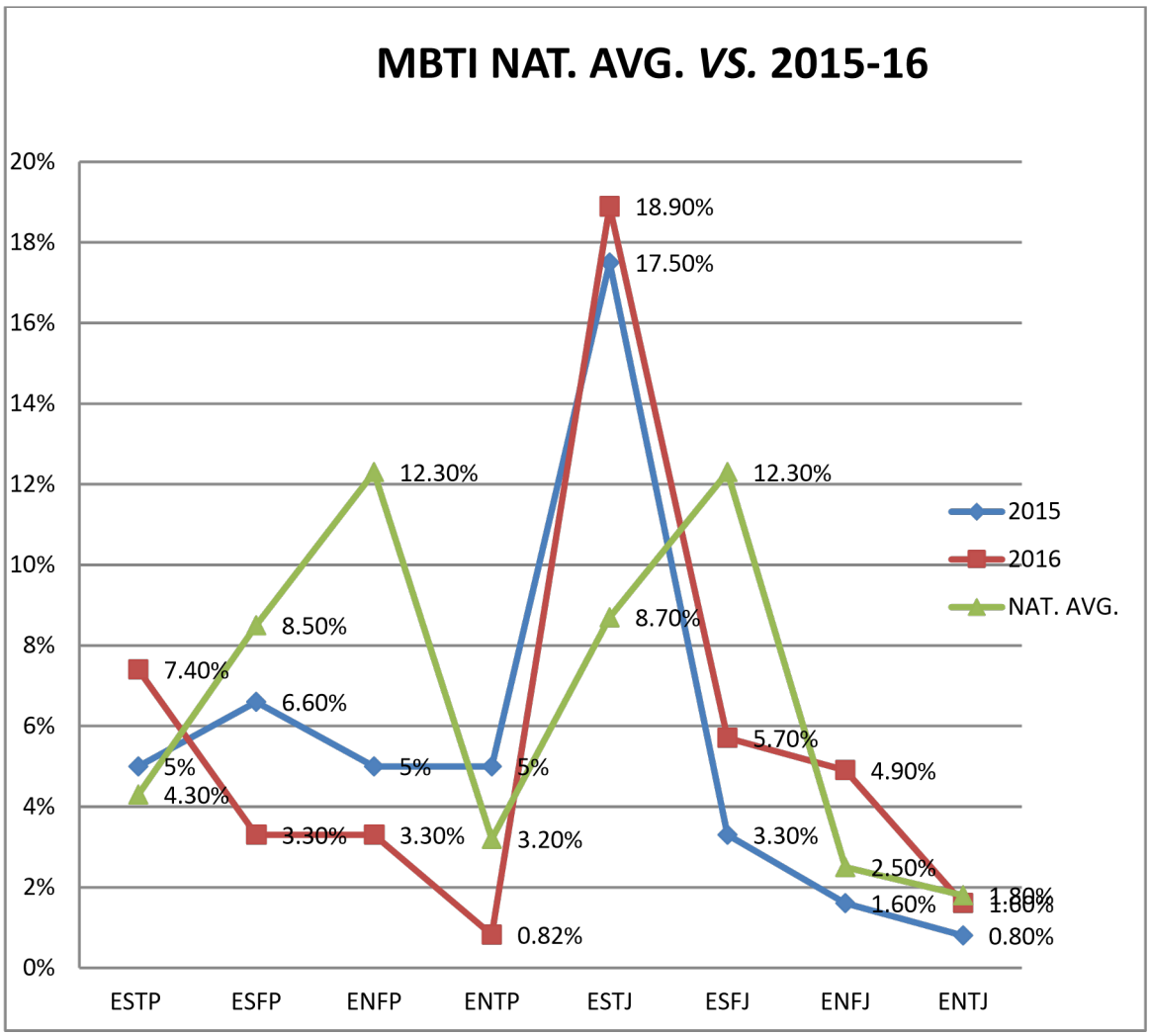
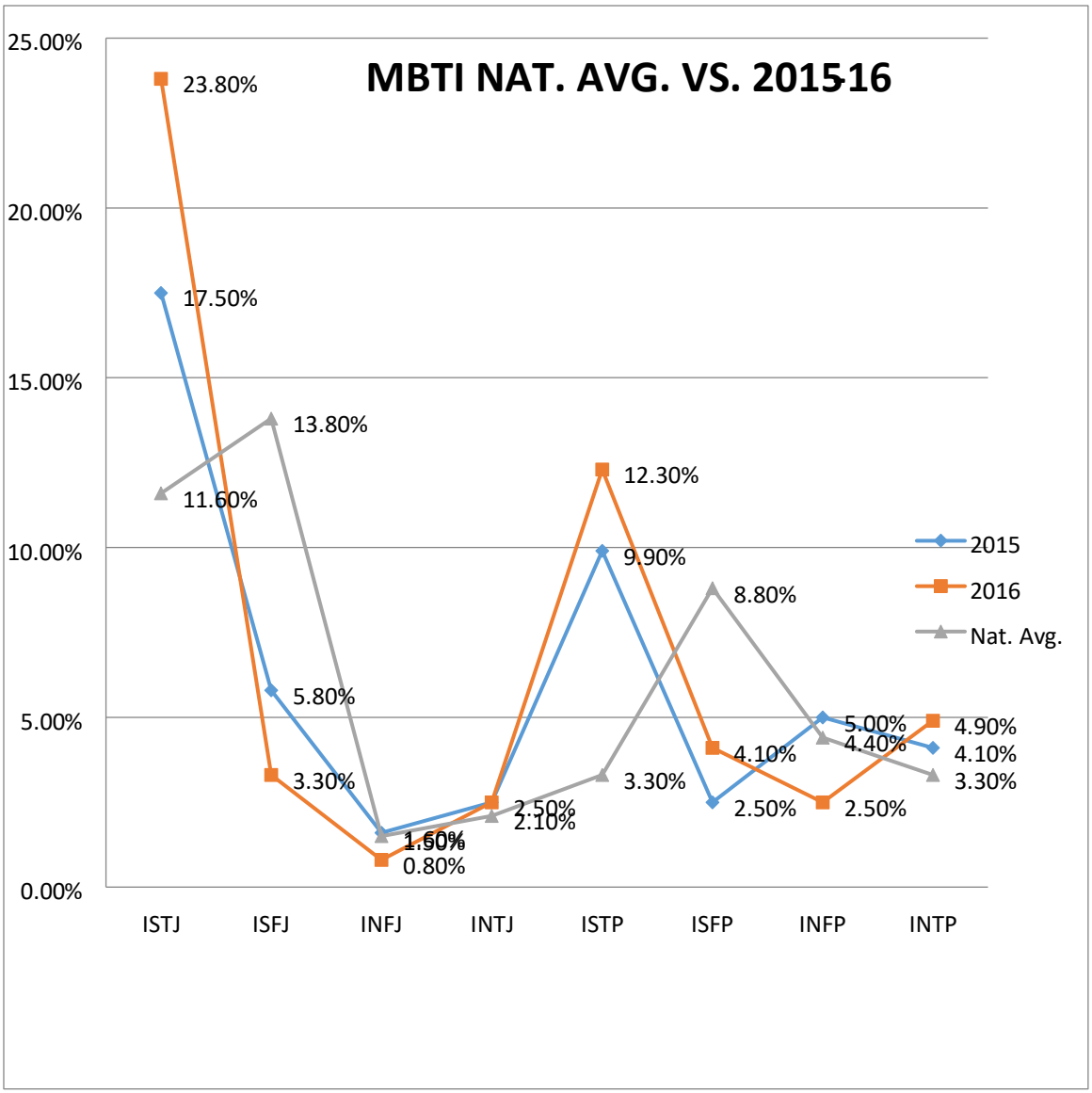


Table 6B
MBTI National Averages vs. Sample Population Data, 2015-16



Conclusions

From the longitudinal data, there were a variety of conclusions that could be inferred. They are detailed in the same manner in which the results were generated for ease of reference for future comparison and discussion.

ISTJ continued to be a dominant personality type for the sample population. Increasing from an SRTT value of 1.5 to 2.0 from consecutive years, clearly indicates that ISTJ is a dominant type. Further, given that it represents nearly one quarter of the entire sample population, it would be difficult to negate its impact upon the entire group.

ISFJ, decreasing over time in a manner that produced a significant variance away from the normal population, would lead one to infer that this type was not only nondominant but rarely witnessed on within the group.

INFJ also decreased from 2015 to 2016 further away from the normal population; however, the small sample size makes its inferences difficult to postulate primarily due to what one would call noisy data.

INTJ produced percentages that hovered close to an average population percentage for INTJ; however, the sample sizes for this type were so very small that it was only reasonable to conclude that the data produced o measurable variance around the norm.

ISTP sample data indicated a dramatic surge beyond the significant data expected, which allowed one to interpret this type as both a dominant type within the sample population as well as over time. The expected population percentage, while it exceeded by the 2015 data producing an SRTT value of 3 times the normal population, was completely diminished by the 2016 data which generated an SRTT value of 3.75 times or nearly 4 times the normal population. Clearly, this type has a strong presence within the observed population.

ISFP, while increasing its SRTT value from 0.28 to 0.47 from 2015 to 2016, still failed to close the gap toward what one would have expected in a random population.

INFP observed data revealed a decrease in SRTT values from subtly over what would have been expected in a random population to about half, 55percent, of what would have been expected. This generated a clear deviation away from the norm which was exaggerated by the longitudinal data. It is transparent from this data that INFP types have little presence among the sample set.

INTP type preferences elevated from 2015 to 2016 from 4.1 percent of the select population to 4.9 percent. While this was not a dramatic surge, it definitely provided evidence of an elevated type when compared to the average population where one would have expected only 3.3 percent to display this preference. Reviewing this data set using the SRTT analysis provided clarity as to the increased presence of this type within the population as its presence is 1.48 or nearly on and one half times what would typically be expected.

ESTP data for the sample group, too, unveiled a significantly elevated presence compared to the normal population which would have expected approximately 4.3 percent to have displayed ESTP preferences. The observed group not only exceeded the random concentration, it continued to exceed the pattern with fidelity. The 2015-2016 group migrated from 5 percent to 6.6 percent, a resultant percentage greater than one and one half times what would be expected in a typical population.

ESFP results presented a variance from the pattern seen with ESTP. In 2015 the group ESFP population was 6.6 percent compared to the typical population's representation of 8.8 percent. In 2016, however, there was a definite change of tone to the group. ESFP in 2016 represented only 3.3 or half of the group seen in 2015. This variance away from the norm and

from the earlier group data, certainly provided some clarity for the identity forming with the 2016 team.

ENFP data also provided data to show that over time, from 2015 to 2016, that the team dynamic continued to pull away from the norm. With declining numbers of the group identifying with ENFP, 5 percent down to 3.3 percent, it was clear that this would not become a significant presence within the observed population's team personality. The 2016 data reported ENFP to have an SRTT value of only 0.14 or 14 percent of what would be seen within a random population.

ENTP type preferences also presented a declining identity within the team dynamic from 2015 to 2016, where its presence collapsed from 5 percent down to 0.8 percent at the end of the 2016 study. With an average population harboring an ENTP preferences of 3.3 percent, the decline is certainly noticeable. In 2016, only 25 percent of a normal population's concentration were present in the observed population, evidenced by an SRTT value of 0.25.

ESTJ data revealed a most dominant presence on the sample group as it began in 2015 with 17.5 percent of the sample population displaying this preference. In 2016, that percentage continued to climb to 19 percent. This represents over two and one-fourth times (2.29) the expected concentration of ESTJ personas within a random sample group. This definitely represented another dominant and expanding grouping within he observed population.

ESFJ presented an increase in participant identification from 2015 to 2016, from 3.3 to 5.8 percent of the population. While this was considered a significant increase, it only elevated the comparison data to reflect a presence of 0.47 or less than half of what would be expected within a typical population.

ENFJ type preferences also showed a significant increase from 2015 to 2016 in the sample group, elevating from 1.6 percent of the population to 4.9 percent. While below the expected concentration in 2015, the sample data exceeded the normal population in 2016. The resulting SRTT data revealed a concentration of 1.96 times the average population.

ENTJ results showed an increase in concentration data from 2015 to 2016, rising from 0.8 to 1.6 percent of the population. While 1.8 percent was the normal value for ENTJ's and the 0.89 SRTT value hovered close to that concentration, there was some concern that the data was too noisy to conclusively state that the increase was a valid alignment.

While there were a number of type preferences which showed elevated presence within the sample population; however, only a few were considered dominant for the group persona or dynamic. For example, ISTJ, ISTP, ESTP, ESTJ and ENFJ all finished the second year study with SRTT values greater than one and one-half times that of the normal population. However, given that ESTP with a population concentration of 1.53 times the average population still only represented 6.6 percent of the observed component, it holds minimal sway to the group. Similarly, ENFJ, while holding an SRTT value of 1.96, nearly twice the anticipated population, still only represents 4.9 percent of the sample composite.

What remained were three, dominant personality type preferences, ISTJ, ISTP, and ESTJ. They represented 23.9, 12.4. and 19.9 percent of the team, respectively and collectively. 56.2 percent of the group was held within these 3 types of the MBTI preferences, leaving the other half of the team to be parceled among the remaining 13 types.

Furthermore, while dominant types in and of themselves, ISTJ, ISTP and ESTJ have some notable common threads. These three types, holding sway over much of the sample population, also shared a common dichotomy in their ST pairings. ST facets represent personalities which prefer order and linearity, choosing to take action based pre-existing actions and outcomes learned. ST pairings also respond and take action based on logic and reasoning, not to be led by their emotional response. If one were to look back at the composite of types, ST is also held by ESTP with a preference of 1.53 times the normal population. This would account for 62.8 percent of the population who share a ST preference.

The sample population of 120 participants reflected a unique group personality. When the original sample research was conducted, there was little doubt that the leader's personality preference of ISTJ strongly influenced the individuals selected to make up the group composite. Evaluating the data over time, however, provide a clearer composite of the actual influence. While his personality was definitely aligned with 23.9 percent of the group, the largest sect, there were other subgroups which also aligned based on the driving facets of the leader's personality. For example, the ST proved to be the most critical component of the ISTJ complex. Participants with this dichotomy thrived escalating from 49.9 in 2015 to 62.9 in 2016.

"Follow the Leader" in 2015 evolved into "Analyze the Followers" in 2016. While the research was initially designed to hyper analyze the why's of an individual's executive leadership, the longitudinal nature of the study provided a much more in-depth analysis. This data allowed a full investigation into the observed group's operational mechanism. What was learned in Phase I was that the leader's personality type definitively impacted his selection of group participants. What was discovered in Phase II, however, was that the nucleus behind the leader's selection of participants was actually driven by the ST dichotomy.

Leadership is paramount for success, but in order to lead effectively, one must be able to select participants who respond to the leader's stimulus in a consistent and productive manner, as time spent unpacking the leader's message is time lost in production. Selecting a majority of followers who innately are aligned with the leader's personality type preferences, saves time and effort and avoids many of the conflicts arising when messages are misunderstood by differing type preferences. Leadership involves a complex process, laden with a matrix of messages, communicated both verbally and nonverbally from the sender and receiver at each interaction. By maximizing the synergy established between like types, it is clear that the leader's effectiveness is maximized and his group dynamic harmonized for the benefit of the organization.

Further research into additional team preferences with different coaches and in various sports has the potential to be most validating in further exploring the likelihood that a coach's Myers-Briggs Personality Inventory influences who he views as the best fit for his game and best

suited to following his lead. Furthermore, as this study was limited by the actors all being male, it will be most productive to analyze a group, athletic unit where participants are of a female gender to enhance the understanding of gender's influence on leadership dynamics.

Much gratitude is due to the coaches and athletes for their patience and cooperation in this multi-phase analysis of group dynamics, which allowed the researcher to once again invade their operational space to learn the mechanics behind effective leadership and to provide feedback regarding the opportunities available to improve synergy. As with many a great investigation, the rewards continued to be found, not in the inception or the presentation but rather in the exploration of type with a remarkable audience.

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Ed.D. and Ph.D. Programs in Education Leadership in the Southern Region of the United States: Twins or Kissing Cousins?

Jessica Hanna
Marshall University
Michael Cunningham
Marshall University

Abstract

This study examined the current status of doctoral programs in Education Leadership in order to provide a cross-sectional view of the nature and design of 21st century programs. A sampling of current doctoral programs' websites from public and private institutions within the 15 states that make up the Southern Regional Council on Educational Administration's (SRCEA) territory were examined to ascertain if there were any clear distinctions in the required curriculum. A one-way ANOVA test compared the number of administration courses, research courses, theory courses, number of required courses, required electives, and total number of courses in the Ed.D. programs to those in the Ph.D. programs. The researchers concluded that there were no significant statistical differences in the composition of Ed.D. and Ph.D. education leadership programs in terms of the number of required administration, theory, and research courses.

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Ed.D. and Ph.D. Programs in Education Leadership

As the gateway to the terminal degree in a given field, doctoral programs serve to develop scholars and practitioners who can efficiently discover, disseminate and apply new knowledge (Shulman, Golde, Bueschel & Garabedian, 2006; Gardner, 2009). This study examines the current status of these doctoral programs in Education Leadership in order to provide a cross-sectional view of the nature and design of 21st century programs.

There are currently three classifications of doctorates available in the United States. The first is the professional doctorate, consisting of degrees similar to and including the Medical Doctor (MD), Juris Doctor (JD), and Doctor of Psychology (PsyD) (Gardner, 2009). These professional doctorates are characterized by no formal thesis or dissertation; instead requiring extensive assessments and internships (Gardner, 2009). The second classification is that of the professional research doctorate and includes the Doctor of Education (Ed.D.) and the Doctor of Business Administration (D.B.A.) (Gardner, 2009). Professional research doctorates are designed and intended for practicing professionals (Gardner, 2009). The final classification is the traditional research doctorate and consists of the Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) and the Doctor of Theology (Th.D.) (Gardner, 2009). Traditional research doctorates, according to Gardner (2009), are the most extensive, requiring three phases of learning: coursework, assessment of skills, and independent research.

Within the field of education, two of Gardner's doctoral program classifications are available: professional research doctorates (Ed.D.) and traditional research doctorates (Ph.D.). The history of these two educational doctorates goes back to 1893 when the first Ph.D. in education was granted by Columbia University (Shulman et al., 2006). Twenty-seven years later, in 1920, in an effort by education faculty to break away from the strict requirements imposed by the Arts and Sciences Department, education faculty at Harvard University developed the first Ed.D. (Perry, 2012).

This action by Harvard ignited a movement in the field of education. In 1934, Teachers College responded by establishing an Ed.D. program that focused on training education workers to deal with issues common to their field (Perry, 2012). From 1934 to 1940, several other institutions, including the University of California, Berkeley, and Stanford, also began offering Ed.D. options (Perry, 2012). The justifications included breaking free of stringent arts and sciences rules, preparing better educational professionals, and preparing students for entrance into Ivy League programs (Perry, 2012).

While this movement resulted in a new classification of educational doctorate, it also created confusion about the purpose of the degree. Some universities saw the Ed.D. as a Ph.D. lite; preparing students for the rigors of a professional research doctorate program (Perry, 2012). Other universities created Ed.D. programs that surpassed Ph.D. requirements in an effort to create a more stringent degree (Perry, 2012 & Shulman, 2006). With no clear guidelines, the new Ed.D. programs had a vague purpose that haphazardly blended theoretical knowledge with practical application (Perry, 2012).

Despite this confusion, the popularity of Ed.D. programs continued to grow. From 1920 to 1950, Ed.D. programs actually excelled academically, and were regarded as more desirable than the Ph.D. (Brown, 1990). It was not until the 1960s that academia began to suspect that there were no clear distinctions between the two degrees (Brown, 1990). It was during this time period when researchers began to look at the rigor and requirements of the Ph.D. and Ed.D. programs, and several studies emerged that tried to explain the purpose of each program type (Brown, 1990; Shulman et al., 2006). From these studies, researchers agreed that theoretically, Ph.D. programs were more research oriented and intended to prepare scholars and researchers, while Ed.D. programs were practitioner oriented and should target current teachers and educational leaders (Brown, 1990; Nelson & Coorough, 1994, Shulman et al., 2006). With these loosely defined distinctions, Ed.D. and Ph.D. programs continued to be developed separately until the 1990s when researchers again began to compare the two program types (Brown, 1990; Nelson & Coorough, 1994).

The 1990 study by Brown was conceived in response to a statement by Frank Freeman in 1931 that declared the Ed.D. and Ph.D. degrees were virtually identical. Brown (1990) took this statement and devised a study to compare the two types of programs based on foundation and cognates requirements. He determined that while there were no significant differences between the two, Ed.D. programs were slightly more structured due to their additional foundation and cognates requirements (Brown, 1990).

Radford (2001) added to the Ed.D. and Ph.D. research base with his study on the challenges of distinguishing Ph.D. programs from other types of doctorates. He concluded that there were three main reasons for a lack of change in Ph.D. programs (Radford, 2001). First, inertia was already in effect; meaning it would be very hard to change things that are already in motion (Radford, 2001). Second, such a high importance was placed on research that it had become the only acceptable criterion for measuring academic worth (Radford, 2001). Lastly, he blamed national policy; declaring that less funding was allocated, but schools were expected to usher in dramatic change (Radford, 2001). With these three roadblocks, Radford (2001) concluded that distinguishing the Ph.D. from other degrees was almost impossible.

Another study by Shulman (2006) investigated 27,000 awarded doctorates, including 6,500 granted in the field of education, to determine how practitioners' degrees differed from research degrees. The study proclaimed "The problems of education doctorates are chronic and crippling. The purposes of preparing scholars and practitioners are confused; as a result, neither is done well" (Shulman et al., 2006, p. 1). Shulman (2006) concluded that the methods other doctorate programs use cannot be applied to education doctorates because the intended outcomes are vastly different. Shulman (2006) argues that due to the confusion between Ph.D. and Ed.D. programs, they should be combined to make way for a new type of degree. He proposed that Ph.D. programs should subsume Ed.D. programs in education and focus on research that is linked to actual practice (Shulman, et al., 2006). In addition, a new type of degree should be created that is concerned solely with developing a scholarly base (Shulman et al., 2006).

Given the current lack of funding in education and the confusion over what constitutes a research doctorate and a professional research doctorate in education, Schulman's recommendations seem to be too extreme for most universities. However, Shulman's findings

accurately illustrate the problems of the education doctorates. To further explore this, it is important to go back to a 1994 study of Ed.D. and Ph.D. dissertations by Nelson and Coorough. The study compared 1,007 Ph.D. degrees in education to 960 Ed.D. degrees over a 40-year period (Nelson & Coorough, 1994). They compared types of research, research design, statistical analysis, results significance, and target populations for both types of degrees (Nelson & Coorough, 1994). They concluded that, while the similarities between Ph.D. and Ed.D. degrees were growing, there was still some identifying characteristics (Nelson & Coorough, 1994):

Doctor of Education (Ed.D.)

- The Doctor of Education degree (Ed.D.) was intended to be a practitioner's degree that focuses more on educational administration and scholarly practice.
- University administrations, faculty, and students tend to believe that the Ed.D. is inferior, regardless of program quality.
- Ed.D. programs typically use more descriptive research, with frequencies and percentages being the primary statistical analysis employed.
- Ed.D. programs are usually comprised of more courses related to educational administration and policy of practice.
- Ed.D. students often pursue research topics that only affect local or state schools and school systems.

Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.)

- The Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) was intended to prepare researchers and scholars; therefore, it focuses heavily on research.
- The Ph.D. has become more popular in all fields except educational administration.
- Ph.D. programs typically emphasize a greater understanding of theory and research methods by using a hybrid design of experimental and descriptive research.
- Ph.D. programs are usually comprised of more research courses.
- Students who pursue the Ph.D. in Education typically want to become researchers who affect nationwide or international outcomes.

Despite these findings, and an additional ten years of research, the role and function of Ph.D. and Ed.D. programs remains murky and consensus in the field is small to non-existent. Therefore, it is important to conduct this study to determine the status of doctoral programs in education leadership to provide information for the higher education faculty as they revise and update programs, and for potential students as they choose where to invest their scarce resources.

Research Questions

1. What are the differences, if any, between the focus on administration in Ed.D. and Ph.D. education leadership programs?
2. What are the differences, if any, between the focus on research in Ed.D. and Ph.D. education leadership programs?

3. What are the differences, if any, between the focus on theory in Ed.D. and Ph.D. education leadership programs?

Methods

This study examined a sampling of current doctoral programs' websites to ascertain if there were any clear distinctions in the required curriculum based on Nelson and Coorough's listing. Public and private higher education institutions located within the 15 states that make up the Southern Regional Council on Educational Administration's (SRCEA) territory were the focus of the study.

Information from the National Center for Education Statistics (NECS) provided a list of institutions within the SRCEA area that-offer doctoral-level programs. From that list, each institution's website was examined to determine if, and how many, doctorates in education leadership were offered. Of the 158 reported institutions, 97 offered doctorate programs in education leadership; however, only 74 provided online access to the necessary information. Within these 74 institutions, 107 unique education leadership doctorate programs were identified. Twenty-four of the identified institutions offered more than one doctorate in education leadership, which caused the number of offered doctorate programs to be greater than the number of institutions.

Information from each of the 107 programs was arrayed by the Nelson and Coorough's defined features of Ed.D. and Ph.D. programs in education. The number of courses in theory, research, and administration courses, including dissertation work, were determined for each institution.

Types of Courses

Theory courses.

Theory courses are designed to teach students to predict and control a phenomenon (Borg & Gall, 1989). These theory courses provide tools, based on theoretical principles and ideas, that attempt to predict or control people, settings, or events.

Research courses.

Research courses in the field of education leadership encompasses research design, measurement, and analysis with the intent to contribute information to an ever-increasing body of knowledge (Borg & Gall, 1989). Education leadership research courses uses measurement, research design, or analysis to teach students how to properly describe, predict, improve, or explain phenomena within the field of education.

Administration Courses.

Administration is synonymous with management, and includes all the activities required to successfully manage an organization (Galford & Seibold-Drapeau, 2003). Educational

administration courses increase skills needed for management that help leaders develop trust at the personal, organizational, and strategic levels.

Categorizing Courses

In order to accurately classify courses for each education leadership program, the institutions' websites were consulted. The program of study for the Ed.D. or Ph.D. program was found and the course descriptions were obtained from the most recent online course catalogs. Based on these descriptions, each required course was categorized as either theory, research, or administration; no class was placed in more than one category. In addition to the number of each type of course, the total number of courses, number of required courses, and number of electives was also recorded for each program. The Carnegie Classification, public or private status, and state location of each institution was also documented.

Limitations

This study was limited by the following:

- the study was restricted to programs that had sufficient information online
- the accuracy of the information published on each institution's website
- data gathering was restricted to higher education institutions in the southern region of the United States

Population and Sample Size

The population for this study was all of the public and private higher education institutions that offer doctorate programs in education leadership, located within the Southern Regional Council on Educational Administration (SRCEA) territory within the United States, as identified by the National Center for Education Statistics, and provided access to detailed plans of study and course descriptions on their websites (NCES, 2014). According to the NCES, there are 97 institutions within this geographic classification; however, only 74 provided access to the required information online (NCES, 2014). From these 74 institutions, 107 unique doctorate programs in education leadership were offered. Due to this limited size, the entire population ($N = 107$) was examined.

Results

Data were collected from the 107 education leadership doctorate programs and was classified as Ph.D. or Ed.D. programs. There were 25 Ph.D. programs and 82 Ed.D. programs in the two groups. A one-way ANOVA test compared the number of administration courses, research courses, theory courses, number of required courses, required electives, and total number of courses in the Ed.D. programs to those in the Ph.D. programs. It was determined that there was no significance in the number of administration, theory, or research courses between the two types of program. However, there was significance found at the $p < .05$ level between the programs with the number of required electives and the total number of courses. Due to the unequal group sizes that can skew significance scores, a Welch t-test confirmed that size differences between the Ph.D. and Ed.D. groups did not affect the ANOVA findings.

Since no statistical significance was found between Ed.D. and Ph.D. programs in regards to the type of courses, the mean number of courses for the entire population was examined. It was discovered that mean number of administration courses required were 5, theory courses were 4, and research courses were 7. The mean number of required courses was 16.

Statistically significant differences were discovered in both the number of required electives and the total number of courses required in the programs studied, prompting an examination of the means for each program. The Ph.D. program's mean number of required electives was 6 and a mean total number of courses of 22 while the Ed.D. programs had a mean number of required electives of 2, and a mean total number of courses of 19. Table 1 displays this information.

Clearly, the Ph.D. programs tend to require more overall courses than the Ed.D. programs; however, the additional courses are electives and chosen at the discretion of the student. Further study would be needed to determine if the courses selected as electives tended to be administration, research, or theory courses.

Table 1
Types of Courses Required in Ed.D. and Ph.D. Programs ANOVA

	Mean			
	Ph.D.	Ed.D.	*F*	Sig
Number of Administration Courses	4.24	5.54	3.392	.068
Number of Research Courses	7.32	6.66	1.797	.183
Number of Theory Courses	3.92	4.07	.111	.740
Number of Required Courses	15.48	16.27	.543	.463
Number of Required Electives	6.16	2.34	25.204	.0005*
Total Number of Courses	21.64	18.61	8.212	.005*

Note. Significance found at $p < .05$

Finally, in terms of Ed.D. and Ph.D. programs, a partial correlation analysis was performed, controlling for type of program (Ed.D./Ph.D.). The results indicated a significant, positive correlation between the number of required courses and the number of administrative courses. The *r*-statistic was .742 with a significance of .0005, thus the effect size was 55 percent. With the mediator factors accounting for more than half of the total variance, it indicates that as the number of required courses increase, the number of administrative courses also increase.

While there was statistical significance indicated in several of the other correlations, these relationships were omitted due to *r*-statistic values of less than .70, indicating an effect size smaller than 50 percent.

The researchers then turned their attention to the differences among the Carnegie Classifications. Of the institutions used for this study, the Carnegie Classifications of Bac/Diverse, Master's S, Master's M, Master's L, DRU, RU/H, and RU/VH were included. When a one-way ANOVA analysis was applied to this data to determine differences among the number of administration, theory, research, required elective, and total number of courses required by the various Carnegie groups, it was discovered that there was a significant statistical

difference in the number of required administration courses and required elective courses. The ANOVA significances reported were .003 and .005 for the number of administration courses and number of required electives, respectively. Upon further examination, it was discovered that the Research Universities--High Research Activity (RU/H) Carnegie classification required the most electives with a mean of 6 and the Baccalaureate Colleges—Diverse Fields (Bac/Diverse) classification the minimum electives with a mean of 0 (zero). Conversely, the Bac/Diverse Carnegie classification required the most administrative courses with a mean of 14, and the RU/H classification the minimum electives with a mean of 4.

As a side observation, the researchers also noted that one of the surprising findings was that approximately one-fourth of institutions that offer doctorate programs in education leadership do not provide online access to course descriptions and plans of study. In an era dominated by online advertising and marketing, this surprised the researchers. This trend occurred in both Ph.D. and Ed.D. programs with approximately 26% of Ph.D. and 25% of Ed.D. programs not providing information online.

Conclusions

From the data analyzed for this study, the researchers concluded that there were no significant statistical differences in the composition of Ed.D. and Ph.D. education leadership programs in terms of the number of required administration, theory, and research courses. Therefore, the typical program characteristics as defined by Nelson and Coorough may no longer be accurate. Overall, the idea that Ed.D. programs are professional research doctorates designed for practitioners, while Ph.D. programs are traditional research doctorates intended to prepare scholars and researchers, may no longer hold true. The distinction between the function of each degree that began in the twentieth century has resulted in two types of doctorate programs that are more similar than different and are attempting to achieve the same goal: to develop scholars and practitioners who can efficiently discover, disseminate, and apply new knowledge. Indeed, the Ed.D. and Ph.D. programs offered in the Southern Region of the U.S. are more like twins than kissing cousins.

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Education Reform in West Virginia and the Effect of District Takeover

Michael Cunningham
Marshall University
Eugenia Damron
Marshall University
Jessica Hanna
Marshall University

Abstract

The original purpose of this venture was to provide a tool for West Virginia county school board members to perform a mandated annual self-assessment on board effectiveness and to provide appropriate feedback to them. This tool was in the form of a survey instrument that captured both quantitative and qualitative data. A one-way ANOVA analysis, along with descriptive statistics, and an emergent category analysis were performed to interpret the data and provide the needed feedback to the school boards. However, a post-hoc analysis of this state-wide data (55 districts) revealed differences in the data between autonomous districts and those that had been taken-over by the West Virginia Board of Education. Specifically, board members in takeover districts were more negative in their views about the effectiveness of their boards' functioning.

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The Study

In order to provide a tool for West Virginia's 55 school boards to conduct the self-assessment required in WV §18-5-1c, Marshall University faculty and staff designed the 2013 West Virginia School Board Effectiveness Survey to gather the information required by West Virginia Code. Respondents were to assess the effectiveness of their own school board using a Likert-type scale on a number of items related to their perception of their own board's effectiveness. The Likert-type scale for each item ranged from the most effective score equaling a numerical 1 and the least effective equaling a score of 4. Additionally, the instrument provided an opportunity for comments for each survey item. This study examined the opinions and attitudes of those elected school board members in districts that were taken over by the West Virginia Board of Education as compared with autonomously functioning boards.

Methods

This mixed methods study explored the self-assessed effectiveness of West Virginia school boards and members' comments about local board and state board interaction. The entire population of school board members was sampled (55 districts x 5 members) ($N = 275$) using an electronic survey instrument developed to meet the WV §18-5-1c requirements. Each survey question asked local board members to rate their board's effectiveness on a specific issue and to provide written comments. Data was prepared for each district indicating the ratings and comments from the members of that district board. All reported information was in aggregated form and any identifying references were scrubbed from qualitative comments. Additional analysis not required by WV §18-5-1c was performed to ascertain any differences based on demographic factors.

Background

School District Takeover

As the push for accountability in American schools has increased with federal influence, many states have reacted by passing legislation that allows for the government takeover of school districts deemed to be performing unsatisfactorily. Generally, takeovers occur after a team of experts or specifically trained personnel attempt to collaborate with school districts on their weaknesses. These "take over teams" focus on specific reasons a school or county is targeted and work towards ameliorating those deficiencies. More specifically, 24 states practice some kind of government or department of education takeover as the ultimate sanction due to a myriad of issues such as: a history of poor financial management, ineffective leadership, academic difficulties, failing infrastructure, and political interference (Brookover, 2010; Hammer, 2005; Institute on Education, n.d.; Low-Performing Schools, 2004; Wong & Shen, 2001, 2002). Proponents of these state takeovers argue that it is a necessary step that allows local and state agencies to combine resources under an experienced staff (Institute on Education, n.d.; Low-Performing Schools, 2004; Wong & Shen, 2001, 2002). Opponents of state takeovers claim the process results in friction between state department of education and local school board officials, drains resources, negatively affects community morale, and creates community resentment (Institute on Education, n.d.; Low-Performing Schools, 2004; Hammer, 2005). In addition, they

claim that takeovers erroneously assume that states can run schools more effectively than local communities.

Research indicates that districts taken over by their state departments of education are disproportionately located in underprivileged areas, have inadequate facilities, and are unable to attract quality teachers (Low-Performing Schools, 2004). An analysis of 54 takeover districts across the nation from 1988 to 2004 demonstrates that takeovers frequently occurred due to low student achievement; however, they resulted in only changing financial and administrative performance (Hammer, 2005).

A study by West Virginia University, entitled the Lighthouse Inquiry (Rice et al., 2000), determined that a positive school board/superintendent relationship was a key for district success. The study indicated that the poorest performing districts were ones with friction between the school board and the central office (Rice et al., 2000). Furthermore, a strong belief that the board could not create positive change and that circumstances were beyond their control greatly affected effectiveness (Rice et al., 2000).

A national study by Wong and Shen (2001), examining school districts from all 24 states that allow takeovers, concluded that while takeovers may be beneficial in some circumstances, political or administrative turmoil will greatly impede the results. Furthermore, in another study, Wong and Shen (2002) indicated that the main challenges to takeover success are from antagonistic relationships between the local school board members and state officials.

Ziebarth (2002) concluded that negative relationships between local and state officials will damage local board members' self-esteem, and it is these negative relationships that lead to local board members' resentment and obstructive practices that impede the takeover process.

A recent study of West Virginia's superintendents by Chapman, Fierstein, and Jones (2013) seems to support these findings. The study suggested that school board relations were the third most important facet in building successful school leadership (Chapman, Fierstein & Jones, 2013). These researchers concluded that successful schools have effective school boards that are stable, professional, and supportive (Chapman, Fierstein & Jones, 2013).

West Virginia School Districts

West Virginia state code provides for what the state Department of Education calls "intervention" and the local district citizenry generally call "state takeover" or worse. West Virginia is demographically rural, with few areas considered suburban and even fewer being urban. The state is divided into 55 counties and each county is a school district governed by an elected five-member board who serve four-year terms. This county board appoints a Superintendent of Schools, elects a board president, and oversees the educational process and finances of the school district. School boards must ensure that federal and state mandates are met, both funded and unfunded, and that they manage finances while adhering to state personnel policies. In addition to the day-to-day administration of schools, they deal with issues of consolidation, bond levies, and a state school governance structure which poses many challenges and barriers.

Although West Virginia is divided into 55 countywide school districts, the education system in the state is highly controlled by the entities of the West Virginia State Board of Education, most notably the West Virginia Department of Education, which hires a State Superintendent of Schools. One example of this top-down management is a requirement in state code for county boards to assess themselves. According to the West Virginia State Code (Organization of board, 1941, 2003):

> §18-5-1c.
> (b)Annually, each county board shall assess its own performance using an instrument approved by the state board. In developing or making determinations on approving evaluation instruments, the state board may consult with the West Virginia school board association or other appropriate organizations. The evaluation instrument selected shall focus on the effectiveness of the county board in the following areas:
>
> (1) Dealing with its various constituency groups and with the general public;
> (2) Providing a proper framework and the governance strategies necessary to monitor and approve student achievement on a continuing basis; and
> (3) Enhancing the effective utilization of the policy approach to governance.

While this requirement for self-assessment seems to be a rather minor annoyance, there are far larger issues that often come with serious penalties for non-compliance. The most controversial of the control issues is the aforementioned ability of the state board of education to actually take over a county district. In West Virginia, this can happen if county districts are determined to lack leadership, have financial misuse, poor performance on achievement tests, personnel or technological issues, or do not adhere to policies (O'Donoghu, 2013). Because county board members are elected officials, the state cannot replace them; however, they do replace the superintendent and usurp the county board authority to make significant decisions.

Currently, 7 of the 55 West Virginia county school districts are under this system of state takeover, in which the State Department of Education has provided funds and trainings to bring about district change Once the West Virginia Board of Education takes over a county, they appoint a new superintendent, oversee all finances, regulate any policy development, manage instructional programs, make personnel decisions, and take care of facility issues. County boards of education lose their control and authority, but still remain in practice (Gregory, 2011).

As part of the takeover process, the state offers technical assistance to counties by providing leadership, monies for professional development / curricular changes, and oversight to ensure policies and laws are followed.

Findings and Discussion

The online survey was comprised of 17 Likert-type items and 17 open-ended questions that asked each school board member to assess his or her board on the effectiveness standards identified by WV §18-5-1c. The survey was administered from March to September 2013 to the entire population of 275 county board members ($N = 275$), of which 229 responded.

The survey data revealed that the mean years of experience for all board members statewide was 7.37 years. The mean years of experience for board members in takeover counties was 5.88 years while it was 7.56 years in autonomous (non-takeover) counties. Overall, the respondents rated their own boards very high on effectiveness in all but two areas: establishing standards and procedures for selecting a superintendent, and establishing procedures for self-assessment and feedback. However, when takeover counties were compared to autonomous counties a one-way ANOVA analysis revealed significant differences in 10 of the 17 areas. In each of these 10 areas, the takeover counties assessed themselves significantly less effective than autonomous counties (see Table 1).

Table 1
*Mean Self-Assessment Effectiveness Score of Takeover and Non-Takeover Counties**

Effectiveness Standard	District Status	Mean	*F* Statistic	*p* Value
Seeks Information	Autonomous	1.14	5.973	.015
	Takeover	1.39		
Advocates Efficient Education	Autonomous	1.10	.156	.693
	Takeover	1.13		
Sets High Expectations for Teaching	Autonomous	1.19	7.759	.006
	Takeover	1.52		
Engages Parents and Local Community	Autonomous	1.74	.579	.447
	Takeover	1.87		
Creates Conditions for Staff and Student Success	Autonomous	1.17	8.370	.004
	Takeover	1.48		
Holds Administration Accountable for Student Achievement Goals	Autonomous	1.34	10.368	.001
	Takeover	1.83		
Allocates Time, Personnel & Finance Support	Autonomous	1.19	26.929	.000
	Takeover	1.83		
Reviews and Revises Policy	Autonomous	1.40	7.950	.005
	Takeover	1.83		
Delegates Responsibility for Policy Implementation to Superintendent	Autonomous	1.17	.242	.624
	Takeover	1.22		
Uses Data to Measure Results	Autonomous	1.36	6.364	.012
	Takeover	1.70		
Flexible & Adjusts to Assure Goal Attainment	Autonomous	1.27	13.084	.000
	Takeover	1.78		
Encourages All Board Members to Participate	Autonomous	1.20	1.267	.262
	Takeover	1.35		
Establishes Standards & Procedures for Selecting Superintendent	Autonomous	2.00	19.425	.000
	Takeover	3.43		
Distinguishes Policy from Administrative Responsibilities	Autonomous	1.34	2.862	.092
	Takeover	1.57		
Establishes Procedures for Self-Assessment & Feedback	Autonomous	1.74	13.290	.000
	Takeover	2.35		
Establishes Clear Expectations for Board Member Conduct	Autonomous	1.31	.394	.531
	Takeover	1.39		

**Likert-Type Scale: 1 indicates most effective and 4 indicates least effective*

An examination of the data after statistical analysis revealed that the board members in those counties that had been "taken-over" had statistically different opinions of their own board functioning than the others that were operating autonomously. In addition, an emergent categorical analysis revealed that the comments from takeover counties were more negative toward their relationship with the West Virginia Board of Education than autonomous counties.

The qualitative data provides a more insightful view of the perceptions of district board members. An emergent category analysis performed on the 283 responses to the open-ended items revealed that 153 (54%) were categorized as representing negative opinions of their local school boards' effectiveness. Of these 153 negative comments, 73 (48%) originated from board members in takeover counties; that is 7 of the 55 West Virginia districts account for almost half of the total negative comments collected. This relationship holds up when examining qualitative data from only takeover counties and reveals that 90% of their total responses were negative, as opposed to 40% from autonomous counties. This suggests that board members in takeover districts have a more negative view of their ability to be effective.

Conclusions

Data drawn from the 2013 West Virginia School Board Effectiveness Survey indicates that takeover counties have a negative outlook about their ability to be effective and create positive change. This erodes the relationship between the local school board and state officials. Given the importance of effective school boards, expressed by superintendents in Chapman, Fierstein, and Jones (2013), the findings in the Lighthouse Inquiry (Rice et al., 2000), research studies by Wong and Shen (2001, 2002), and conclusions by Ziebarth (2002), taking over county school districts may actually be hobbling reform efforts. It would only seem prudent to perform more in-depth studies in takeover districts to examine the shroud of anger, distrust, and frustration expressed by takeover district board members in the comments of the current study. It is quite possible that the very actions that are designed to bolster school districts may be impeding their success.

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More than Tuition and Fees: The Real Costs of Going Away to College

Mark Fincher
Mississippi State University

Abstract

Going off to college is a wonderful experience of learning and growth for many people. Many in higher education ask why students skip this experience to attend a community college. The direct, indirect, and social costs of going off to college can far exceed the cost of tuition and fees for many students. The purpose of this study is to fully measure the costs that are avoided by forgoing a move and a community college.

More Than Tuition and Fees: The Real Costs of Going Away to College

Going off to college is a wonderful experience of learning and growth for many people. It is seen by many as a rite of passage into adulthood. The very phrase, going off to college, implies leaving one portion of life for another in both a literal and figurative sense. Most universities see themselves as a destination for students to go to for this experience. For many students, however, the act of going is a very costly endeavor. For those in certain circumstances this cost is higher than for others. This cost can be prohibitive. For these students, there is a clear need for geographically dispersed higher education opportunities that do not require going away from home. The purpose of this paper is to measure the real costs that are incurred through going off to college and to therefore measure the value of offering geographically dispersed education through multi-campus systems.

Literature Review

Higher education has been focused on residential educational experiences since its creation (Geiger, 2014; Owens, 2011). This focus can be easily seen in an examination of the history of higher education in the United States. The institution that would eventually become Harvard University was founded in 1636, but the serious examination of non-residential undergraduate students did not even begin until the 1970's (American College Personnel Association, 2004). This foundational focus on residential students who moved far from home to study was logical considering the historical student body of American higher education. Higher education was only seen to be appropriate for a small number of the sons of elite, Caucasian families and had little connection with economic opportunity (Geiger, 2014). These boys and young men were well-prepared, single wealthy, and intended to become prepared to be the leading men of society, first in the colonies and late in the United States (Owens, 2011). People of different ages, different ethnicities, and poor economic circumstances, simply did not attend college and there needs were not given any consideration. Consequently, going away to a residential college was seen as a privilege rather than a hardship.

Societal expectations of who should go to college have shifted markedly over time. Where higher education was once considered appropriate for only the elite Caucasian male, it is now considered to be an economic necessity throughout the industrialized world (Altbach, Bergdahl, & Gumport, 2005; Fincher, 2007). This expanding definition of an appropriate student body includes many students for whom the process of going off to college is both a privilege and a hardship (Hefling, 2014). This hardship creates a situation where many people who are in need of advanced education may not be willing or able to incur the cost of going off to college.

Costs of Going Off to College

Costs are incurred in most activities. Costs are the tangible and intangible resources that are expended in any activity (Investopedia, 2016; Weiler, 1952). As consumers of higher education, students are bound by the rules of consumer economics. Consumer economics theory dictates that consumers make decisions to use limited resources through a viewpoint of bounded rationality (McConnell, 1984). As consumers, students must make decisions that are logical within their own situation. Costs of deciding to attend an institution come in a variety of forms.

The costs incurred by a student going off to college can be understood in three categories. These categories are Direct Costs, Indirect Costs, and Social Costs.

Direct Costs

Direct costs of higher education are well known. These are the charges that are directly paid due to the decision to attend an institution (McConnell, 1984). These costs come principally in the form of tuition, fees, and room and board. In the United States commonality of these three expenses is that they have been rising rapidly in recent years (College Board, 2011). Tuition and fees generally cannot be economized upon without the selection of a different type of institution. However, the cost of room and board varies markedly according to the specific situation of the student. For some traditional students, room and board is the primary form of support that is offered by family (Baum & Payea, 2004; Christi, Munro, & Retig, 2001). Going away to college can eliminate that benefit and replace it with a substantial expense. For non-traditional students, where on-campus living may not be a viable option, alternative costs are incurred. Moving an actual household with a spouse and children requires a substantial cost incursion. Whether the student is a renter or a homeowner, the cost of changing residences is substantial (Williams, 2014). Consequently, the direct cost of going off to college may greater for some than others.

Indirect Costs

Indirect costs, also referred to as ancillary costs, are those that are incurred as an indirect result of a decision (McConnell, 1984). Such are costs that must be logically assumed to follow a course of action. These costs can generally be seen in terms of increased expenses and diminished income. Many expenses remain the same after a move. However, expenses that vary based on location, social relationships and familial support can change markedly. Childcare is a major expense that would often change based on a move. A family that is established in an area can often benefit from familial and social connections in terms of childcare (Guillory & Wolverton, 2008). A household move can therefore be expected to lead to increased childcare expenditures for many families. This type of increased expense can be expected in any area where families or individuals receive benefits or advantages from social or familial connections.

Earnings differentials created by a move are another indirect cost of going away to college. A person moving from one location to another for a purpose other than maintaining employment will likely suffer a break in employment (Varelas, 2013). This break in employment will generally lead to a cessation of earnings during the break and an increase in expenses due to the cessation of employee benefits. It is generally expected that higher paying employment will take longer find than lower paying employment (Varelas, 2013). During this time of lost earnings, it should also be expected that additional costs for benefits like health insurance will increase. An additional area of loss may also be seen in the differences of economic conditions between locations. Many universities are in areas with limited industrial activity and may suffer from lower wages than areas with significant industrial activity.

Cultural Costs

Going off to college is a highly valued experience in the United States (Geiger, 2014). It is seen as an opportunity for the student to grow and mature as an individual and to become their own person free from the restrictions of the home and community they grew up in. This creates a situation where students can rise above the limitations of their upbringing and find their own path in the world. Such an experience has a clear value and the results are especially prized by the culture of the United States

The precise value of the experience of going off to college, however, varies sharply by subculture (Hofstede, 1980). The United States is both blessed and cursed by being a conglomeration of sub-cultures rather than a single unified culture. The American way of doing things is not perfectly aligned with the view of each sub-culture (Hofstede, 1983). Consequently, the perceived costs and benefits of certain activities will vary across sub-cultures. To better understand this phenomenon and to see it in the context of the cost of going off to college it is helpful to explore the concept of cultural dimensions.

Hofstede's Dimensions of Culture

The differences between the cultures of nations and people groups has fascinated and frustrated many for years. The use of the word foreign to describe things that are different and unfamiliar indicates the impact of these cultural differences that we find in foreign lands. International corporations in the for-profit business sector have long struggled with managing employees and serving customers across national lines (Ohmae, 1990). This struggle has led to substantial research on cultures. A strand of this research that is of particular value to the discussion of going off to college is the Hofstede Dimensions of Culture.

Geert Hofstede is a social psychologist from the Netherlands. He is best known for his work on the different dimensions of culture that can be seen across many different countries and cultures (Hofstede & Bond, 1984). His foundational work, based on an analysis of questionnaires from IBM employees across 70 countries, established four dimensions of culture where each of the countries varied along a continuum (Hofstede, 1980). These cultural dimensions are Individualism, Uncertainty Avoidance, Power Distance, and Masculinity (Hofstede, 1983). While the people of each nation see their culture as normal in all of these areas, this is not the reality (Hofstede, 1980). There is not a right or optimal combination of cultural dimensions, however, each combination should be seen as having advantages and disadvantages (Hofstede, 1980).

Of particular interest to the consumer choice of going off to college are the dimensions of Individualism and Uncertainty Avoidance. Individualism and its opposing side of collectivism are a measure of the willingness of people to go out on their own and be judged on their merit as individuals as opposed to those who are committed to the greater good of the collective (Tapanes, Smith, & White, 2009). Both of these extremes have value in that the individualistic culture produces people who strive to be the best that they can be and the collectivist culture that produces people who work together for the greater good (Hofstede, 1980). The United States, as a whole, is highly individualistic and its higher education system is an extreme example of an

individualistic orientation. Higher education in the U.S. touts removing the student from the home environment and increasing the growth and earning potential of the individual (Margonis, 2011). Becoming fully engaged and integrated into the citadel of learning that is provided by an institution is considered to be critical for success. It is commonly seen as advantageous for colleges and universities to keep students on campus to facilitate engagement (Ku, Kinzie, Buckley, Bridges & Hayek, 2006). This is a perfectly reasonable philosophy when only the overriding culture is considered in that the United States, as a whole, has the most individualistic culture in the world (Hofstede, 1983).

The overriding culture of the United States also has a somewhat low level of uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede, 1980). This characteristic provides an environment where risk is acceptable when it may provide some result of great value (Hofstede & Bond, 1984). People in the U.S., in comparison to those of many countries, are comfortable with risking failure to have a chance for success (Hofstede, 1983). Consequently, many of the great business and political heroes in the United State are people who have tried and failed, but kept trying until they succeeded (Khwaja, 2011). This comfort with risk is reflected in the higher education philosophies of the United States. Colleges and universities in the United States expect students to fully invest themselves in the pursuit of their educations. This investment is often expected to include the exclusion of other priorities and the taking on of high levels of debt. In a society where the potential gain of success is seen to outweigh the damage of failure, this makes it reasonable in certain circumstances for students to make the consumer decision to attend.

The United States, however, is not a monolithic entity when it comes to culture and the Hofstede Cultural Dimensions. The common analogy of cultural melting pot that is commonly used to describe the culture of the United States is a bit of misconception in that cultures of the people groups who have come here seldom truly melted. These sub-cultures still exist in an Americanized form within the greater whole of the United States culture (Smith & Vellani, 1999; Branigan,1998). For the purposes of examining higher education access, the analogy of a cultural stew is more appropriate (Smith & Vellani, 1999; Branigan,1998). In the United States the sub-cultures are incorporated into the greater whole without losing most of their individual characteristics. Consequently, people from subcultures with substantially different views from the U.S. as a whole on either or both of Hofstede dimensions of Individualism or Uncertainty Avoidance should be expected respond differently to situations relying on that norm.

Individualism and Higher Education

With the United States having the most individualistic culture in the world, it is not surprising that most other cultures diverge sharply from the American norm. The various cultures within Latin America, southern Asia, and Western Africa generally diverge sharply from the culture of the United States on the cultural dimension of Individualism (Hofstede, 1980). The culture of Mexico, for example, is among the more Collectivist cultures in the world even though it is one of the more Individualistic cultures in Latin America (Hofstede, 1984). Similarly, India is in the more collectivist half of the world's cultures even though it has one of the most Individualist cultures in southern Asia (Hofstede & Bond, 1984). Like many of the national cultures in these regions, the culture of Mexico places the value of the collective far above the value of the individual and the decisions that its individual members make are influenced by this

perspective (Hofstede, 1991). Collectivist cultures, however, should not be seen as hostile to the individual pursuit of higher education. A well-educated person can be very valuable to a collective. The sacrifices that seem appropriate in the pursuit of an advanced education for a member of a collectivist may be far different from the sacrifices that would seem appropriate for a person from an individualistic culture (Hofstede & Bond, 1984).

Uncertainty Avoidance and Higher Education

The over-riding culture United States is far less extreme on the dimension of Uncertainty Avoidance than it is on Individualism (Hofstede, 1980). Changes in the United States approach to providing higher education access may be causing smaller differences in an individual's view of risk to drive the consumer decision on attendance. Educational funding and access policies in the U.S. shifted substantially toward limiting the risk to an individual who chose to pursue an advanced education. People with limited earnings could afford to attend college with relatively low net out-of-pocket costs (Kennamer, Katsinas, & Hardy, 2010). This created a situation where the primary resources being put at risk for students were time and effort. Time and effort have a high value in that they could applied to other applied to other productive activities such as working for wages or starting a business (DeVoe & Pfeffer, 2007; DeVoe & Pfeffer, 2010). This level of sacrifice, however, is easy to justify as the pursuit of an advanced education often the greatest long-term productivity of the ways that people can invest their time. The increasingly high prices of tuition and fees, along with the corresponding increase in the use of debt financing for higher education have drastically increased the risk or uncertainty that comes with the pursuit of a college degree (Hofstede & Bond, 1984; Smit, 2015).

National cultures vary sharply on the dimension of Uncertainty Avoidance (Hofstede, 1980). The over-riding culture of the United States is on the low side of the middle on this dimension in comparison to the culture of other countries (Hofstede, 1983). Continuing with the example of Mexico, its culture has one of the higher measures in the world on Uncertainty Avoidance even though this measure is lower than some other Latin American cultures (Hofstede, 1980). The culture of Greece is often considered to have the highest level of Uncertainty Avoidance but the cultures of Japan, Portugal, Uruguay, and Belgium are very similar (Hofstede & Bond, 1984). People from cultures that measure high on the cultural dimension of Uncertainty Avoidance are likely to have a greater aversion to taking on debt in the pursuit of long-term gain than those from cultures that are lower in terms of Uncertainty Avoidance (Hofstede, 1980).

There are three major categories of rising costs that have a powerful influence on the consumer choice to attend college. The potential for increased direct, indirect, and social costs associated with the decision to pursue an advanced to deter a potential student is of importance to policy makers (Fincher, 2007). To better understand the relationship of these three costs on the consumer choice of going off to college, it is helpful to examine the impact of these forces on model common students.

Methods

Model students are hypothetical examples that can be used to represent students with similar characteristics in real life. The consumer decision-making conditions of these model students can be useful to higher education strategists and policy makers in predicting the likely outcomes of different courses of action. The forces influencing the direct and indirect costs related to a going off to college move will be calculated in a formula encompassing the potential cost increases of tuition and fee increases, room and board cost increases, lost wages, increased insurance costs, and increased childcare. The likely conditions of each of the model students on each of these five categories will be represented by nationally representative measures. The outcome of this formula will represent to relative increase in the cost of going off to college in comparison to the decision to pursue educational opportunities that are available near a current home. This dollar figure of cost will then be combined with social cost of the decision to go off to college.

Model Students

Three model students are used in this study. They are 1) An unmarried, 18 year-old high school graduate, 2) An unmarried, 30 year-old custodial parent of one child who has full-time employment, and 3) A married, 35 year-old parent of 2 who has full-time employment. Each of these model students will be evaluated under the assumption of both the over-riding culture of the United States and the culture of Mexico. The United States culture is used due it appropriately being the primary decision-making point of view in the U.S. and that of Mexico due to it being a large single-country subculture that is largely dissimilar to the U.S. culture according to the Hofstede cultural Dimensions.

Formula

The monetary costs of the choice to go off to college are expressed as following:
Direct (Tuition and Fees Increase <T&FI> +Room and Board Increase <R&BI> +Moving Exp<MOV>) + Indirect (Lost Wages <LW> +Added Insurance Costs <AIC> + Increased Childcare Costs <ICC>

= Total Cost of a Going Off to College Move <TC>

or

$$T\&FI(A) + R\&BI(B) + MOV(C) + LW(D) + AIC(E) + ICC(F) = TC.$$

Data

Tuition and Fees

Tuition and Fees Increase (T&FI) will be taken from national averages of the price differential between the average cost of four years at a university and the average cost of two years at a public university combined with two years at a public community college. In-state and in-district tuition and fees averages are used. This amount will be the same for each model student as the cost will not be impacted by their particular circumstances. With the national average for public in-state tuition being *$9,410* and the national average for public in-district

community college tuition and fees being *$3,435*, the amount of difference over the total four years between those two figures is *$11,950* (U.S. Department of Education, 2012). This can be seen in the comparison of $9,410 x 4 = $37,640 and $9,410 (2) - $3,435 (2) = $11,950.

A = $11,950 for all model students

Room and Board

Room and board expenses should vary sharply based on the specific circumstances of the student involved. The provision of room and board by family members is somewhat common but not universal for the 18 year-old recent high school graduate. Such as a provision is, however, very uncommon for older students. While a traditional age student may be forgoing the provision of room and board and therefore adding that expense. Non-traditional aged students probably do not have that option. Consequently, the cost of room and board for the 18 year-old new high school grad will be the full national average cost of room and board of $10,138 (U.S. Department of Education, 2012) times the four years of attendance for a total of $40,552. This can be seen in the calculation of $10,138 x 4 = $40,552. The room and board increase for the 30 and 35 year-old model students will be set at $0.

18 year-old B = $40,552
or
30 and 35 year-old B = 0

Moving Expenses

The cost of going off to college includes the cost of the physical of a household from one place to another. This cost is often overlooked due to the minimal cost of moving for a traditional student. Moving into a dormitory for a new college graduate is often accomplished by the carload. Consequently, an estimate of only $50 is assigned to the cost of moving for the 18 year-old model student. Moving a larger and more established household tends to be far more expensive. Moving costs vary sharply from one situation to another, but the national average for an intrastate move has been estimated at $1,170 (Williams, 2014). This amount is used for both the 30 year-old model student and the 35 year-old model student.

18 year-old C = $50
or
30 and 35 year-old C = $1,170

Lost Wages

The change in wage earning varies markedly by individual. The 18 year-old model student, on average, has lower earning potential than 30 and 35 year-old model students (National Center For Education Statistics, 2015). Additionally, lower paying jobs generally take less time to find than higher paying jobs (Varelas, 2013). Using a standard assumption of it taking 1 month to find a job for each $10,000 in annual salary, and an expectation of a national average minimum wage of $8.12 per hour on a 20 hour per week job for an 18 year-old. This

produces an annual earnings of $8,445 per year with an expected 0.8 months of job search and corresponding lost wages of $563. For the 30 and 35 year-old model students, however, the time of unemployment and corresponding lost wages is much higher. An average 30 year-old student would earn $30,000 per year with an expected 3 month job search time (U.S. Department of Commerce, 2014). This would lead to a 3 month job search with a loss of $7,500. Similarly, an average 35 year-old student would earn $37,500 per year (U.S. Department of Commerce, 2014), with an expected 3 .75month job search time. This would lead to a 3.75 month job search with a loss of $11,719, per employed person in the household. There are likely to be two employed adults in the 35 year-old model student's household so the likely cost would be doubled at $23,438.

18 year-old D = $563
or
30 year-old D = $7,500
or
35 year-old D = $23,438

Insurance Costs

Insurance costs related to going off to college vary sharply by age. The 18 year-old model student may not be paying for health insurance so this may be set at zero. The 30 and 35 year-old model students, however, would be assumed to have to take on insurance payments for the time of the job search plus waiting period of one month after employment prior to a new employer funded insurance plan comes into effect. Using sample figures from a state in middle portion of the United States obtained from a personal insurance provider as an example, the 30 year-old model student with one dependent would pay a monthly cost of $103 for an insurance plan with a $500 deductible (Healthcare.com, 2016). The four month cost of this arrangement would be $412. The same level of coverage for the 35 year-old model student with three dependents would cost $374 (Healthcare.com, 2016) per month. An expected five month gap in employer provided insurance would cost $1,870.

18 year-old E = $0
or
30 year-old E = $412
or
35 year-old E = $1,870

Childcare Costs

The cost of childcare can be a tremendous burden on a household budget. This can be alleviated to some extent by the use of family and social resources to provide free healthcare on some occasions. A lack of family and social network can necessitate a more comprehensive and more expensive level of childcare. This is estimated as a 20% cost premium. Applying this to a national average of $7,280 for childcare for a single child produces an additional annual cost of $1,456 (Bugby, K., 2015). Applying the 20% cost premium to the national average annual cost

of $13,884 for two children produces an additional cost of $2,777 (Bugby, K., 2015). The 18 year-old model student without children will not be burdened by childcare expense.

18 year-old F = $0
or
30 year-old F = $1,456
or
35 year-old F = $2,8777

Results

The monetary cost of the decision to go off to college is substantial for all three model students. Individual analysis of the three model students will better explain the outcome. It also provides an opportunity to incorporate the social cost of a move into the analysis.

18 Year-Old Model Student Result

The 18 year-old model student's decision to go away to college had a Total Cost on the 6 major categories of direct and indirect expenses of $53,115. This is a substantial cost that is driven largely by the loss of the valuable asset of room and board. This is particularly significant in that this may be the only support provided by the families of many new traditionally aged college students. Many types of support can be traded off for a different asset. If this asset is not used it may not be replaced with another. It is likely that this expense would be added to the level of debt that the model student would incur before the completion of the baccalaureate degree.

T&FI($11,950) + R&BI($40, 552) + MOV($50) + LW($563) + AIC($0) + ICC($0) = $53,115

30 Year-Old Student Results

The 30 year-old model student's decision to go away to college had a Total Cost on the 6 major categories of direct and indirect expenses of $22,488. This model student does not have an option of free room and board but bears a much higher cost related to employment. While the average 18 year-old has little earning potential to leave behind, the 30 year-old does. The process of leaving on job and finding another usually includes a gap in earnings. When earnings are substantial, even a brief interruption of those earnings leads to a large loss. The loss of earnings carries with it a corresponding loss of employer provided insurance benefits. This brings on an additional cos to maintain insurance coverage.

T&FI($11,950) + R&BI(0) + MOV($1,170) + LW($7,500) + AIC($412) + ICC($1,456) = $22,488

35 Year-Old Model Student

The 35 year-old model student's decision to go away to college had a Total Cost on the 6 major categories of direct and indirect expenses of $41,205. This amount is substantially higher

than the cost for the 30 year-old model students, largely due to the 35 year-old model student having a larger family. Where the younger model students have only themselves or themselves and a single child to consider, the 35 year-old model student should be expected to incur the loss related to a longer break in employment for two wage earners rather than just one. The increased and doubled cost of the employment break, along with the doubled additional childcare costs incurred by an additional child causes the financial cost of going off to college to be much higher for this model student with a larger family.

T&FI($11,950) + R&BI(0) + MOV($1,170) + LW($23,438) + AIC($1,870) + ICC($2,777) = $41,205

Conclusion

The impact of such an additional debt burden can be a great deterrent for any student considering going off to college. In the most traditional of circumstances this additional financial cost can be a decisive factor in the decision process. These financial costs will vary sharply based on the specific situation of the student in question. Many of these costs, however, are largely predictable.

The social cost, however, could be an additional deterrent for a prospective student from a culture that was both low on Individualism and high on Uncertainty Avoidance in the Hofstede Cultural Dimensions. Going off to college requires a sacrifice of family support and a reduced support of family activities. To a person from such a background, the risk of taking on such a high debt burden while abandoning family resources and responsibilities would not be a very attractive proposition.

It is important to remember that for prospective students like those represented in this study these substantial costs are on top of the high cost of basic tuition and fees. If the student does not have sufficient funds to pay for the tuition and fees of an educational experience (Baum & Payea, 2004; Hefling, 2014), then each additional dollar spent translates into an additional dollar of debt. The substantial figures of $53,115, $22,488, and $41,205 do not represent the cost to the student of gaining a baccalaureate degree for the model students in this study. These figures are the cost and consequent debt levels that are likely to be incurred by such students who choose to go off to college in addition to all of the costs and debt they incur from simply being a student. Such a debt burden is noticeable for all potential students but may be completely untenable for some students when combined with additional debt and substantial social costs incurred by going off to college.

Tuition and fees are widely seen as the measure of the cost of going off to college. This does not, however accurately reflect the reality for the student of today. The other costs, both social and financial, profoundly impact the decision of a potential student to go off to college. The weight of these costs above and beyond tuition and fees can influence where a potential student is willing and able to go to college. Where education is available can therefore determine if potential students will enroll at all. Rather than choosing the best educational experience, this high financial and social cost of going off to college causes many students to make do with the best education that they can get without moving.

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Major Policy Issue: Keeping Higher Education Affordable and Accessible

Leann Price
Marshall University
Ronald B. Childress
Marshall University

Abstract

Several bold policies have been implemented by the West Virginia Higher Education Policy Commission that seek to further economic growth and community development in West Virginia. The current Master Plan outlines several initiatives that attempt to improve access and affordability to higher education. The social and economic context behind the policy addresses the need to decrease the child poverty rate in West Virginia by increasing the number of advanced degrees to meet the demands of a diverse job market. The time for the investment in higher education has become urgent as West Virginia's economy is on the verge of transformation.

Keywords: access, higher education initiative, affordability, child poverty, West Virginia

Major Policy Issue: Keeping Higher Education Affordable and Accessible

The purpose of this research is to show the primary challenges faced by leaders in education, which is to keep the cost of a college degree affordable and relevant to the changing tides of the job market. Educational opportunities must also be accessible in terms of preparing high school students for the rigors of higher education courses as well as developing resources that enable, often the first generation of college goers, to remain enrolled full time and complete their degrees in a shorter amount of time. An Instructional Designer at Marshall University observes that, "The initial reaction might be by lawmakers (who would be politically correct), say, 'oh, yes, everybody should have access.' When it comes down to making that happen we have to have the allocations to acquire this software or tools pay a person to do these jobs, that's where the problem comes in. If we could just make more people aware that it's so important to provide education for everyone, we do it so automatically. It's so strange in a way that special education is a mandate from birth to high school and beyond that. Higher Ed isn't seen as a necessity, but an option." (P. Kaplan, personal communication, June 28, 2016) Policies to address these issues have been implemented and evaluated through several initiatives which will be discussed in the literature review. The results show modest progress but demonstrate more than ever the need for additional funding and the development of more programs that fulfill the mission of higher education and commitment to the investment of America's future. A poignant anecdote reveals a common scenario of barriers and uphill challenges many adults face while pursuing a post-secondary education in West Virginia.

> Dana decided in the fall of her senior year of high school that she would pursue her dream of becoming a veterinarian. With significant support from a local college access organization, she completed the necessary steps to apply for enrollment the following year. She was concerned about costs and loans, but was elated when she learned had been accepted to the local public university. Unbeknown to Dana, many challenges lay ahead. Between receiving her acceptance letter and fall move-in day, she had done little to prepare for her transition to college. From her perspective she had done everything she had to do, unaware that she needed a more detailed plan concerning how she would pursue her degree and career. At orientation she encountered her first obstacle, she tested into developmental mathematics. It was not until she met with her advisor that she came to fully understand what impact this would have on her future plans. Her academic schedule would have to be reconfigured in order to compensate for the non-credit course, and her new trajectory included the crowding together of significant biology and chemistry prerequisites, a situation she had hoped to avoid. Dana had not even sat in her first course yet, and already she was being told that summer school or an additional year of college were on the horizon. With the burden of financing additional time in college on her shoulders, there was no way to account for how other facets of curricular or co-curricular life would impact her success as a student moving forward. (WVHEPC: Impact, 2014, pp.1-2)

Methods

A review of literature was used to compare the findings of the link between social and economic barriers to college preparedness and degree completion rates. The literature includes: present and past policies from the West Virginia Higher Education Policy Commission and

Community and Technical College System of West Virginia, local and national news articles, interviews from university staff who work in education technology as it pertains to accessibility and affordability issues in higher education.

Literature Review

The Master Plan (2013–2018)

A five-year statewide master plan, titled "Leading the Way: Access. Success. Impact" was proposed in 2013 by the West Virginia Higher Education Policy Commission and was created to meet eight areas of specific interest; (a) economic and workforce development, (b) education access and affordability, (c) innovation, (d) student preparation, (e) degree and/or program completion, (f) intra/inter system cooperation, (g) collaboration, research, (h) teaching and learning. The plan details how the commission and institutions will work toward achieving the goals and how they will account for progress toward meeting them. The purpose behind the policy is to meet the demands of a diverse state economy and demands of both traditional and nontraditional enrollees. Many of West Virginia's students are like Dana and the current and future economic climates clearly demonstrate the need for increasing the number of advanced degrees which are vital in moving the state's workforce into the modern era. The plan also accomplishes the overall purpose of colleges and universities; which is to develop educated citizenry and train well-informed leaders who can meet the needs of and improve upon their communities. The plan also recognizes the necessity for containing the cost of tuition by seeking new sources of external funding to maintain affordability of education while collaborating across institutions, and external agencies to assess progress and determine future action.

Access to Higher Education Defined

Access to higher education is defined as students having; adequate preparation, accessible information, and feasible cost. Although current efforts allow institutions to reach a population of students who are already academically and emotionally ready for college, there are those who are potentially ready but will need some assistance in a few areas of the college enrollment process, such as completing the FAFSA and college application, and taking the necessary placement and registration tests. Another population of students, who are among the low-income and first-generation college goers, often require more comprehensive assistance; such as aspiration building, curriculum planning, and tutoring, mentoring and parental outreach. Data trends show that low-income students will comprise the largest population of in state enrollment and all that postsecondary institutions will have to compete for these students. The plan addresses access through several initiatives including GEAR UP, Degree Now, and other projects funded by West Virginia's federal College Access Challenge Grant. In addition, the Department of Education works with the Division of Academic affairs to help students adequately prepare for the academic challenges of college-level studies. Transition courses are offered in English and math to eliminate the need for developmental courses after postsecondary enrollment. Additionally, institutions have numerous opportunities to reach students beyond the admissions and financial aid processes. Some additional services that would benefit students also support higher education goals such as; providing dual enrollment courses, allowing early course scheduling and creating opportunities for students to experience campus life. Since many of the

same students attend at the local level, additional support services could start as early as middle school. Studies have shown that early outreach efforts have had a positive impact on student academic performance and involvement by local universities creates relationships with parents and communities in which they serve.

A 2012 survey found that 57% of high school seniors overestimated the cost of in state tuition at four-year institutions. The survey also found that the students were better informed about state and federal funding than they were about institutional aid programs. The Master Plan calls for better information about financial aid packages in all three phases; before, during and even after enrollment. The Commission recommends that institutions supply clear and concise information to students and families regarding the cost of tuition and information about financial awards. Any financial information should be explained in detail to avoid confusion and lift one of the biggest barriers to enrollment.

Success in Higher Education Defined

Success in Higher Education is defined by the Master Plan as progress in student retention and completion of degrees. Underrepresented groups account for historical gaps in achievement and are a focus of the WVHEPC efforts to improve equity in opportunities for minority, low income, first generation and at-risk students. Data from the *2013 Higher Education Report Card* (p. 3 Success) demonstrates the continued need to promote and support student success. For example, the average retention rate of first-time freshmen to their second year of college declined to its lowest point in five years, from 76.4 % in 2008 to 73.6 % in 2012. Currently, West Virginia is ranked last among Southern Regional Education Board (SREB) states in retention. In addition, the six-year graduation rates have also declined from 48.8 % in 2005 to 46.9 % in 2007. Existing data also correlates high school performance to success at college. For example, the shows that students who enrolled at post-secondary institutions with a high school GPA of 3.0 or higher earned an average college GPA of 2.91, compared to students with a high school GPA of 2.99 or lower who earned an average college GPA of 1.74. High school GPA also was a significant factor in student retention from the fall to spring semester. Students with a high school GPA of 3.0 or higher were retained at a rate of 94.7 %, compared to a rate of 79.5 % for students with a high school GPA of 2.99 or lower.

To address the issue of student success as it relates to retention and completion, some best practices have been implemented by the Commission, such as, bridge programs that advise and support students throughout their freshmen year, transition courses that help eliminate remedial courses and developing a plan of study for students so they will have a clear path to complete their degree. The *15 to Finish* plan encourages students to take at least 15 hours to complete a bachelor's degree in four years and an associate in two. The rationale behind this initiative is for students to begin their professional careers early and save money on tuition costs in the long run. In addition, fiscal management counseling has also been used to help students create a realistic budget and plan for their financial futures. Studies have indicated an improvement of student retention and graduation rates based on this completion plan.

The Impact of a Post-Secondary Education

The impact post-secondary graduates have in their communities is profound and can often be hard to measure. Whether it is social, cultural or economic, community leaders (many of them college graduates) often form strong bonds with area businesses, government agencies and civic organizations in order to improve and sustain communities. Many of these communities have recently emerged as stand-alone support systems during a regional crisis. For example, the recent flooding in throughout several West Virginia counties challenged community leaders to acquire and mobilize resources for their citizens. A recent story states that the affected areas have been given $72 million dollars from FEMA including low interest disaster loans from the U.S Small Business Administration (WSAZ, 2016.) However, the responsibility to rebuild homes and businesses is ultimately shouldered by the communities themselves. Without an educated, skilled population, such efforts would be nearly impossible to accomplish.

Research

Underlying Social Problem

From an historic standpoint, the Appalachian region has been publicized by travel writers as backward, simple, and lacking any education or refinement. Many of them saw it as a country of its own because the population had their own language, dress and lifestyle. The mountains, although beautiful, had created an isolating barrier that few outsiders had an interest in crossing. Due to the popularity of travel journals, Americans living in the diverse and populated cities of the early 1900s were learning for the first time of a people who seemed to be out of step with progress and many felt the need to come to West Virginia to provide a "proper American education" and improve the lives of the "unfortunate and uncivilized people." When these newcomers arrived, they were shocked by the squalid living conditions, widespread alcoholism and unattended children. In their opinion, all that was needed to help these people out were a "few good schools and churches" (Puelle, 2013, pp. 22-24).

Since the early 1900s, the culture of Appalachia had been thought of as distinct and worth preserving because it was not as affected by industrial or commercial development as other areas in the nation. These preservation efforts have left intact the positive aspects of Appalachian culture that promote festivals of Blue Grass and Folk music, homemade goods and agriculture, but in general, West Virginia is still associated more with producing coal rather than scholars. Since the decline of the coal industry, however, policy makers have sought ways to replace the mining industry jobs that have been lost with new jobs that require a post-secondary education and advanced technical training. A prevailing social problem that many higher education programs have attempted to eradicate is the overwhelming child poverty rates in West Virginia.

According to the West Virginia Center on Budget & Policy's research on child poverty (Boetter & Frazier, 2013), more than one in four children in West Virginia lives below the federal poverty line, which is the 13th highest national rate. The research also indicates that 25.8 % of West Virginia children (N = 94,852) under the age of 18 lived in poverty, compared with 22.2 % of U.S. children. Other studies have shown that children are more adversely affected than adults in poverty because they have higher risk for physical, cognitive, social, emotional and

behavioral problems. As they mature into adults, they have higher rates of poverty, crime and poor health than children who did not live in poverty. The educational attainment can also play a part in whether a child is living in poverty. More than six of every 10 children whose parents never finished high school live in poor families, compared to 16 % of children whose parents have education beyond high school. Compared to the rest of the country, West Virginia has low levels of educational attainment: approximately 17.4 % of West Virginians over the age of 25 lacks a high school degree compared to 14.6 % nationally. The rationale behind the policies for improving access and affordability for higher education is to make West Virginia more marketable to outside businesses by educating its citizens. It also seeks to improve the quality of life within the state by decreasing the poverty rate among young children and adults. Demand for the policy stems from the historical gaps in achievement for underrepresented groups and adult learners who require geographical access to college campuses. The need for the policy also is evident in the struggling economy—which is a result of massive layoffs from the steel and coal industries. Many of the actors in the formation of the policy include but are not limited to: The West Virginia Higher Education Policy Commission, all public colleges and universities and the Council for Community and Technical College Education.

Past Policy: Charting the Future

This 2008 plan gathered data relating to the higher education system, job market and obtained feedback from various stakeholders throughout the state. The Commission sought to renew the best aspects of the old policy into the Master Plan but identified changes that should be made and problems that could be reframed and revisited. Like the Master Plan, the former policy explores how state institutions could serve the needs of the state rather than how the state can serve the needs of the intuitions, which may have possibly been the focus of past policies. One notable difference between the two is that the *Charting the Future* plan includes several innovation indicators (p. 12) compared by institution. Marshall University and West Virginia University are listed in the report with information pertaining to the number of invention disclosures, US patent applications filed, license agreements, and the numbers of startup companies are included in the original master policy. The new plan narrowed the focus to accessibility and affordability.

Contemporary Politics

In February 2015, Vermont Senator and then presidential candidate, Bernie Sanders, addressed the issue of Higher education in America, a view which has resonated throughout the nation and has made him a popular political figure. He commented that accessibility for our nation's citizens "should be a right." Sanders also directed comments toward government spending and higher education affordability;

> If the federal government were to invest $18 billion a year, with a dollar-for-dollar match from state governments, we would slash college tuition in the United States by more than half. If we were to reduce the proposed increase in military spending by less than half, and instead invest that money in educational opportunities for today's college students, we could cut tuition by 55 %. So I challenge all of you; ask yourselves, where should our priorities lie? (Wright, 2016)

The political climate West Virginia has been said to tell the story of shifting politics throughout the nation. According to Gonyea (2015) Democrats have gained support from the growing minority population of Hispanic and African American voters while Republicans are gaining ground among white, working-class voters, a group that was once dominated by Democrats. In the current climate, white, working-class Democrats in West Virginia are abandoning the party over environmental issues such as coal, gun rights and abortion. There has been a similar shift nationally in the Republican Party. The principals behind the initiative, however, seem to reflect the political ideology of the New Democrats because they emphasize the values of economic growth and fraternity. (Fowler, 2012.) Educators believe that progress toward realizing these values are a key factor to achieving greater social and economic equality in the United States. For example, the Clinton era in the 1990s was an administration that strongly influenced education and put forth policy agendas consistent with their beliefs. They were also interested in improved vocational and technical education as a way to stimulate economic growth. Since Hillary Clinton is the Democratic nominee in this year's primary election, it could be reasonably speculated that support for these educational agendas will continue if she wins the election. One of the taglines from Democratic National Convention speech was, "When any barrier falls in America, for anyone, it clears the way for everyone. When there are no ceilings, the sky's the limit." (New York Times, 2016)

Economic Factors

According to The National Conference of State Legislatures, as of May 2016, the unemployment rate in West Virginia is 6.2% (which ranks 47th in the nation). Supporters of the initiative believe that each award attained through the policy represents mastery of a set of skills and body of knowledge that is valuable in the West Virginia labor market. However, based on the high unemployment rate (which could be seen as the impact left by the mining industry) it appears the economic gap has not yet been completely filled by the initiative, although the Commission reports a promising 8.5 percent five year increase of degrees and credentials conferred from 12,543 to 13,613. (WVHEPC, 2015, p. 41)

Stakeholders

The stakeholders who would benefit from the success of the policy include, but are not limited to: businesses—can expect to hire a more educated population, universities—can profit (& offer more courses) from the increased enrollment and retention of students and faculty, communities and citizens-will have educated, informed citizens who are capable of leading struggling districts out of poverty by recruiting private companies to the area.

Analysis

The 2015 data collected by the WVHEPC indicates that the initiatives have been successful in meeting some of its objectives within the last five years, but others remain unmet. The report contains the following information related to the original goals.

1. Increased the college-going rate (among recent high school graduates who begin the following fall semester) The college going rate for this population of students has

decreased overall by 4.2 percentage points since 2010. However, over a five-year span from 2010 to 2014, two of the eight institutions with available data saw increases in adult credit enrollment while six had decreased. The largest gain was within the adult population (25-44) which was 37.2 % at Blue Ridge Community and Technical College. (p. 82)

2. Improved student retention- First-time, full-time retention rates have remained steady at four-year public institutions at 74.7 % for both the 2012 and 2013 cohorts. The largest gain from 2012 to 2013 was at West Liberty University, with an increase of 4.4 percentage points. The largest gain over the five-year period was at WVU Institute of Technology, with an increase of 5 percentage points. From 2009 to 2013 seven of the eleven four-year public institutions experienced decreases in their retention rates with the largest of 8.3 percentage points at Potomac State College of WVU. (p. 31)
3. Advanced degree completion- Baccalaureate degree production is the largest degree category at each of West Virginia's public four-year institutions (with the exception of Potomac State College of WVU and West Virginia School of Osteopathic Medicine). Overall, the total number of bachelor's degrees produced increased by 10.3 % over the five-year period. The number of post-master's certificate and doctor's - professional practice granting programs has remained the same since 2010; the number of master's and doctor's degrees awarded in research and scholarship programs has shown some modest increase over the past five years. (p. 46)
4. Affordability of public higher education- The average undergraduate tuition for in-state students increased 6.6 %, from $5,827 in 2013–14 to $6,211 in 2014–2015. The five-year trend in tuition and fees shows an increase of 28.5 % for in-state students and 23.4 % for out-of-state students. The 10-year trend in tuition and fees is an increase of 67.6 % for in-state students and 59.8 % for out-of-state students, though the increase in dollars was larger for out of state students. In-state tuition has increased by $2,505 since 2005 and out-of-state tuition has increased by $5,575. (p. 23). The offset of the tuition increase was in the amount of the financial awards from 2010–2014 which do not include Federal funding. The total amount of state awarded grants and scholarships were given to recipients of the HEAPS, PROMISE, and WVHEG programs during the 2014 academic year, which was $90,683,731 (a 1.3 % decrease from $91,889,354 in funding for 2013.) The total funding for the HEAPS, PROMISE, and WVHEG programs declined 5.0, 1.5 and 0.6 % respectively. Between 2010 and 2014, awards increased for HEAPS (0.1 %) and WVHEG (9.1 %). The PROMISE Scholarship experienced the only decline at 2.8 % over the same time period. (p. 8)

Upon further analysis of the data from the 2015 Report Card, the effects of the initiative seem to have had mixed results. The implications are that tuition increases are out pacing the state's ability to provide funding for full-time students, which in turn, leads to an increased time period to complete a four-year degree or even longer to attain an advanced level of education. The West Virginia Higher Education Policy Commission has created a new campaign called "15 to Finish" in order to encourage students to earn a bachelor's degree in four years or an associate degree in two years by taking at least 15 credit hours toward the degree per semester or a total of

30 per academic year. Also, efforts have been made by the commission to streamline the credit transfer process for students who transfer from a community or technical college to a four-year university.

Discussion

Based on the data from the 2015 Report Card and the current unemployment rates, it seems that the WV Higher Education Initiative has not completely met its primary goals to provide access and affordability to West Virginia's college going population. According to the 2015 Report Card, "the percentage of underrepresented minorities has increased 1.9 % from 6,910 in 2013 to 7,044 in 2014. During the same time period, the percentage of low-income and undergraduate adult students has declined by 3.2 and 7.5 %. The at-risk student population that saw the largest five-year increase was underrepresented minorities which increased from 6,062 in 2010 to 7,044 in 2014, a 16.2 % increase. The percent of low-income students decreased 10.9% while the number of undergraduate adults declined by 19.7 %. On a national level, underserved populations such as low-income and minority students are less likely than their peers to attend and complete college. In addition, transfer, part-time, and adult student populations have become more important to institutions meeting their enrollment and completion goals." (p. 20) Although the data did reveal an overall 8.5 % increase in degree and credential attainment, experts predict that West Virginia will be unable to meet current workforce projections if success among underserved, low income populations remains unmet.

Current indicators point toward a future that will still hold challenges for West Virginia's leaders but will present opportunities for investment. For instance, despite a budget crisis and stagnant economy, the PROMISE Scholarship Program has awarded more than $548 million to more than 40,000 West Virginia students from all 55 counties since awards first began in 2002. Research has shown that PROMISE funds increase a student's likelihood of completing college and working in West Virginia at higher rates than overall graduates. One study found that 80 % of PROMISE scholars who graduated in 2003-04 were working in the state in 2012. For 2016, the PROMISE Scholarship and other financial aid programs will provide students with approximately $92 million in state funds to offset the rising costs of attending a post-secondary institution.

In contrast, state funding for institutions has actually decreased—which has impacted tuition rates. *The State Journal* (Casto, 2016) reports that Marshall University has lost $11.5 million in annual funding from the state since 2013; in response the Board of Governors unanimously approved the university's operating budget for fiscal year 2017 and set a 5 % increase to tuition and fees. Beginning with the fall 2016 semester, full-time resident undergraduate students will pay $154 more per semester, undergraduate students who live in the nearby counties of Kentucky and Ohio will pay $283 more, and non-resident undergraduate students will pay $374 more. For graduate students, tuition will increase to $160 per semester. Mary Ellen Heuton, vice president for finance and chief financial officer, presented the budget, which includes revenue of nearly $46 million in state funds and approximately $58.5 million from tuition and fees. The university received $554,000 in additional funding to help supplement Public Employees Insurance Agency (PEIA) premiums. The budget was also balanced with $3.1 million from the university's reserves, which will be earmarked for recruitment. Some areas that

might be considered during recruitment may be the promotion of online classes. When a faculty member who teaches technology management was asked about changes to online courses within the last five years, she responded:

> Well, technology has certainly changed with mobile devices. The ability for the students and faculty to use mobile devises technically is probably the biggest change. People are more comfortable using technology. Well, the faculty and students in the case of teaching. More and more faculty are starting to use online or virtual type applications. We still have those that are never going to do that. But, for the most part, younger faculty coming in, or those progressive enough to see the value in it, are using it, and certainly students love it! They enjoy sitting at home and doing it at their leisure. I teach two summer classes, and the only reason they go during the summer is because they can say, "Well, I'm going to be at the beach and I can take my class and do it from the beach." They don't have to worry about it. So I think the perception of online, being away from the TV screens that we had 30 years ago to take online classes and the mail booklets, it's come a long way. (T. Christofero, personal communication, June 22, 2016).

Conclusion

Although many positive steps have moved higher education forward, there is clearly more work to be done to keep education both accessible and affordable. Although several companies have committed to bringing jobs to West Virginia- they will require a skilled and educated workforce. As indicated by the Master Plan report and national trends, more investment in West Virginia's higher education programs is needed to supply the workers that will be needed to fill these positions, which will differ in scope and ability than the energy driven industries that have defined the economy (& culture) of West Virginia for decades. The conclusion that can be drawn from the research indicates that state agencies and universities, along with the students themselves, must be ready to meet the demands of a competitive economic and social climate.

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