ABSTRACT

H. Dean Smith, A COMPARISON OF NON-TENURE TRACK FACULTY CULTURE WITH TENURED FACULTY CULTURE AT THE DEPARTMENTAL LEVEL AT A FOUR YEAR PUBLIC INSTITUTION (Under the direction of Dr. David Siegel). Department of Educational Leadership, November 2017.

Today, non-tenure track faculty (NTTF) make up the majority of those teaching in higher education. Yet, very little is known about what constitutes the culture of the group. Most research focuses on the group as outsiders, or on the group's ability, or inability, to teach effectively. While there are many reasons a group or individual can feel like an outsider one possible reason is competing values. It is possible that NTTF and tenured faculty (TF) possess fundamentally different cultures.

What this study discovered was that TF and NTTF at the institution studied did not possess fundamentally different cultures. In fact, the cultures of TF and NTTF both in the current and preferred state as measured by the OCAI, were nearly identical. Once again, this does not mean that NTTF studied do not feel like outsiders for reasons other than culture, but it does call into question the idea that cultural differences account for this perception, and self-perception. This led to a broader question of what variables do create significant differences in faculty culture. What was discovered was that gender, and to a lesser degree race, was significant in predicting differences in culture.

A COMPARISON OF NON-TENURE TRACK FACULTY CULTURE WITH TENURED

FACULTY CULTURE AT THE DEPARTMENTAL

LEVEL AT A FOUR YEAR PUBLIC INSTITUTION

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Background

The Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) defines contingent workers as "persons who do not expect their jobs to last or who reported their jobs as temporary" (BLS, 2015, p. 1). Traditionally, contingent labor is meant to be a small portion of a workforce that is often a short-term solution to immediate staffing shortages (Sullivan, 2002). Sullivan (2002) states that contingent workers should comprise between 5% and 25% of an organization's workforce. Despite this, the BLS (2015) reports that the utilization of contingent workers has expanded tremendously in recent years. While this phenomenon has affected all sectors of the workforce, higher education has seen a transition from the majority of instructors being tenured or tenure track to the majority of instructors being non-tenure track faculty, or NTTF (Curtis, 2014).

In 1975, 37% of people teaching in higher education were fulltime tenured faculty (TF), 20% were on the tenure track, 13% were fulltime non-tenure track faculty (NTTF), and 30% were part-time (PT) faculty. By 2011, only 21% of those teaching in higher education were tenured professors; 9% were on the tenure track, 19% were fulltime NTTF, and 51% were part-time (Curtis, 2014). These part-time employees who compose the majority of those teaching in higher education are often NTTF, and are employed on a per-course or yearly-contract basis, usually without benefits and earning far less pay than tenured professors (Eisenberg, 2010). Nationally, higher education employs more than 580,000 part-time faculty members and 230,000 fulltime adjuncts (Eisenberg, 2010). As these numbers indicate, the utilization of both fulltime and part-time NTTF has grown over the past 40 years from a minority to a majority of faculty.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is two-fold: (1) to determine the cultural congruence among tenured faculty (TF) and NTTF and (2) to determine the relationship, if any, between variables, such as age, gender, race/ethnicity, years of service, fulltime (FT) versus part-time (PT) status, administrative responsibilities, and academic discipline.

There is a significant amount of research on what faculty culture is and what drives it. Kuh and Whitt (1988) state that faculty culture is defined by four distinct but interdependent cultures, which are the culture of the disciple, academic profession, institution, and the overarching culture of higher education. Kuh and Whitt (1988) go on to say that that there are two predominant perspectives of faculty culture. The first is the idea of a homogenous profession that shares values such as academic freedom, autonomy, collegial governance and truth seeking. The second perspective is that academics are fragmented into a number of sub professions that are strongly driven by fragmentation and specialization. Becher (1992) argues that faculty culture is fragmented along the lines of academic discipline, tenure, and research.

By contrast, very little is known about NTTF culture. In fact, most of what has been studied about NTTF falls into two broad categories: NTTF as outsiders in higher education, and NTTF quality of instruction (Dolan, 2011; Meixner, Kruck, & Madden, 2010). The question of interest in this study is the extent to which NTTF and TF cultures are different, and what causes these differences? Hypothesis One examines the differences between TF and NTTF. Hypothesis Two examines variables that could influence the perception and self-perception of NTTF and PT faculty as outsiders. While the possible causes of what creates feelings of outsider status in any group are infinite, there are some clues from previous research as to how faculty culture, and faculty interaction, influences this.

One possibility is discrimination. Becher (1992) describes faculty culture as one that can be indifferent or even hostile to those who do not belong to the culture and that becoming a member of faculty culture is difficult. Becher (1992) states that tacit knowledge, or knowledge that can only be gained through personal interaction, can only be accessed through cultural acceptance by tenured faculty. Becher's (1992) view of faculty culture is one in which we would expect a high degree of discrimination based upon the insular nature of faculty culture, and one in which a group would know the current and ideal states of the department's culture – tacit knowledge – only if the group had been accepted by tenured faculty. If discrimination on the basis of tenure or PT status exists at the institution studied, there would be significant cultural differences between NTTF and TF, and between FT and PT faculty. If the cultural differences do not exist, one could infer that significant discrimination based on these variables does not exist.

Discrimination has been shown to exist in faculty culture due to other variables. The "Undergraduate Teaching Faculty: The 2010-2011 HERI Faculty Survey" discovered that women and minorities – two historically marginalized groups – experience feelings of discrimination as faculty. Lesch (2000) states that if a group perceives itself to be outsiders, this can have distinct cultural influences. If it holds true that outsider status influences culture, then there would likely be differences in the culture based on the variables of gender and race. By extension of this logic, NTTF and PT faculty would also demonstrate cultural differences from TF and FT faculty if the groups were experiencing discrimination.

Another possible source of outsider status is to be found in resource allocation. There is research to support this. NTTF and PT faculty have expressed frustration due to a lack of resources, and TF and FT faculty have questioned the quality of instruction of NTTF and PT faculty, both of which have been linked to a lack of resources (Bettinger & Long, 2004). The

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degree to which this creates feelings of outsider status is unknown. If resource allocation is affecting feelings of outsider status, and outsider status can affect culture, a significant degree of difference in resource allocation between groups would create differences in culture between the groups. If the cultures between the groups are similar despite significant differences in resource allocation, it is likely that resource allocation is not creating a significant degree of feelings of outsider status.

In conclusion, Martin (1992), in describing culture in general, puts forth the proposition that culture can be pluralist and heterogeneous, and that organizations are often composed of many different subcultures. Becher (1987) concludes that faculty culture is fragmented and that to belong as faculty in higher education means to be a member of a small and close-knit community. NTTF are often viewed as outsiders in higher education (Dolan, 2011). The highly fragmented and insular nature of faculty culture, combined with the popular perception of NTTF as outsiders, along with the influence this can have on culture (Lesch, 2000), would almost presuppose the expectation of significant differences in culture of NTTF and TF. This is not known. It is likely that that the extent to which NTTF are culturally similar or dissimilar to their tenured faculty counterparts varies based upon as yet undetermined variables.

Research Question

This study is guided by one overarching research question: What is the degree to which NTTF and TF cultures are different, and what causes these differences? It is likely that there are a many variables that influence culture based on previous research (Becher, 1992; Martin, 1992).

Hypothesis One

There is a statistically significant difference between TF and NTTF as displayed by quadrant of the Competing Values Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI). This hypothesis used a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) to test the hypothesis that the means of both TF and NTTF are equal to each other.

Hypothesis Two

There is statistically significant difference between faculty, as displayed by the quadrant of the Competing Values OCAI based on age, gender, race/ethnicity, years of service, fulltime versus part-time status, administrative responsibilities, and academic discipline. This hypothesis used a MANOVA to test the hypothesis that the means of faculty are equal to each other on the before mentioned variables.

<p align="center">**Significance of the Study**</p>

Ravitch and Riggan (2012) states that a study demonstrates significance in different ways. It addresses a real world problem. A problem is "any question or matter involving doubt, uncertainty, or difficulty" (Retrieved from www.dictionary.com). It has the potential to have a significant impact on practice or change the way in which a group, or idea, is perceived. Finally, it has the potential to start research in an entirely new area (Ravitch & Riggan, 2012).

NTTF constitute a problem in so much as the topic is one that is controversial, complex, and characterized by a significant degree of uncertainty. The current study is, by no means, laboring under the delusion that it can offer a definitive and permanent solution to this problem. What it can do, however, is reframe the problem, which had the potential to change practice and the way in which NTTF are perceived. Reframing the problem requires a questioning of current perceptions of NTTF and of what drives faculty culture. What if the assumptions of this research

are fundamentally wrong? What if there is no identifiable faculty culture? That finding

challenges long standing research that asserts that faculty as a group possess defining social

norms and it would provide a roadmap for further research opportunities.

Limitations

The one major limitation is that data were obtained from a single public doctorate-

granting university in the southeastern United States. Research conducted across multiple

institutions or institutions of a different type as defined by the Carnegie Classification might

yield different results. Additionally, the research is based on participants' perspectives, which is

self-reported through a survey. An individual's perspective might not be entirely accurate.

Theoretical Framework

The principal theoretical framework used for this research is the Competing Values

Framework (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). A theoretical framework is a logically constructed

representation of the concepts, variables and relationships in a study that identifies what is to be

explored, examined, or described (Maxwell, 2004). Conceptually, the Organizational Culture

Assessment Instrument is used to identify culture. The present study is based upon research that

supports that faculty culture exists. It questions the assumption that outsider status cultural

differences between NTTF than TF. Rather, NTTF and tenured faculty most likely share some

aspects of faculty culture. It is also possible that feelings of being an outsider, or that of being

perceived as an outsider is the product of competing values, which is examined through the

OCAI. It is also possible that faculty culture exists today in a way that is influenced both by

more traditional factors, such as tenure, research, and academic discipline; other variables such

as age, gender, race/ethnicity, years of service, and fulltime versus part-time status may also

influence culture. Examining culture across multiple academic disciplines can help to create a

more balanced perspective of faculty culture. Overall, this research is exploring the question of what constitutes faculty culture today, and what influences it? The Competing Values Framework is the theoretical framework used to evaluate faculty culture (see Figure 1).

There are four cultures within the Competing Values Framework: Hierarchy, Market, Clan and Adhocracy (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Horizontally, the Competing Values Framework focuses on the degree to which the organization is focused inward or outward. An organization that is largely internally focused would reside on the left side of the dimensions map, whereas an organization that is largely externally focused would reside on the right side of the map. The vertical axis focuses on decision making. At the bottom of the chart, decisions are controlled by managers, whereas at the upper end of the chart employees have the power to self-direct their activities (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

Hierarchy

The hierarchal organization is a traditional organization model similar to that described by Max Weber. Leaders focus on monitoring, coordinating, and organizing. The organizational culture is partially defined by respect for position, rules, and power. This organization has well-defined laws, rules, policies and procedures with a clearly defined hierarchy, as represented on the organizational chart. Problems are solved through application of rules, a clear delineation of individual duties and responsibilities, and a strict adherence to authority. A typical example of this organization type would be a manufacturer where quality control is a high priority (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

Market

The Market organization also possesses a strong focus on control but rather than being internally focused, it is more externally focused. Leadership focuses on outcomes. The culture

Culture Type: CLAN

Orientation: COLLABORATE

Leader Type: Facilitator
Mentor
Teambuilder

Value Drivers: Commitment
Communication
Development

Theory of Effectiveness: Human development and high commitment produce effectiveness

Culture Type: ADHOCRACY

Orientation: CREATE

Leader Type: Innovator
Entrepreneur
Visionary

Value Drivers: Innovative outputs
Transformation
Agility

Theory of Effectiveness: Innovativeness, vision, and constant change produce effectiveness

Culture Type: HIERARCHY

Orientation: CONTROL

Leader Type: Coordinator
Monitor
Organizer

Value Drivers: Efficiency
Timeliness
Consistency & Uniformity

Theory of Effectiveness: Control and efficiency with capable processes produce effectiveness

Culture Type: MARKET

Orientation: COMPETE

Leader Type: Hard-driver
Competitor
Producer

Value Drivers: Market share
Goal achievement
Profitability

Theory of Effectiveness: Aggressively competing and customer focus produce effectiveness

Individuality Flexibility

Stability Control

Internal Maintenance

External Positioning

Long-term Change

New Change

Incremental Change

Fast Change

Note. (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

Figure 1. Competing Values Framework.

places a high value on results and competition. Market organizations do not focus on marketing but rather frame interactions with constituents as a market transaction. Transactions are viewed as exchanges of value, where value flows between the organization and stakeholders. There is an expectation that actions are undertaken as efficiently as possible, while simultaneously maximizing profitability. Individuals are expected to solve problems through a combination of personal ingenuity and standing rules. An example of this organization type would be an investment firm that focuses heavily on individual sales while still needing to balance sales with regulatory requirements (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

Clan

The Clan organization has less focus on control than it does on flexibility. Leadership focuses on facilitation and support of its members that may be almost parental in nature. The culture places a high value on vision, values, goals, and outcomes but rather than achieving this through strict rules as the Hierarchy organization does, the Clan relies on an inward focus that espouses the values of loyalty and a shared vision. Rules exist, but the rules may not be written down and are often communicated verbally through close social interaction. This team approach often has a flat organizational structure with teams allowed to act autonomously. Problem solving is often a group activity that places a heavy focuses on organizational values. A typical example of this organization type could be a nonprofit or philanthropic organization, but any organization driven by a charismatic leader and a strongly-held belief system could fit this model (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

Adhocracy

The Adhocracy organization focuses heavily on independence and flexibility. Leaders are often visionaries with a high level of risk tolerance willing to take substantial risk for the

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possibility of significant gains. This culture places a high value on speed, adaptability and rapid change. This organization focuses on success through innovation in what is often a rapidly changing external environment. Problems are solved by teams that may be rapidly assembled and disassembled as environmental factors change. An example of this could be a technology startup in the earliest stages of its development (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

Kessler (2013) asserts that the Competing Values Framework or CVF "had been labeled as one of the most influential models ever developed in organizational studies" (p. 121). Data collected from the CVF can be applied in any number of ways. Specific to this study, it can also be used as a sense making device and a source of new ideas, as it helps to explain how different elements of the same organization can function in harmony or conflict by identifying congruent and contradictive perspectives. Additionally, the framework is academically versatile, which is important as this dissertation spans a number of academic disciplines. Between 2000 and 2009, CVF was used in more than 50 journal articles and 59 dissertations in academic disciplines as diverse as agriculture, education, military, sports, and medicine (Kessler, 2013). It is the combination of utility, versatility, and validity, together with the hypothesis that conflicts among NTTF, tenured faculty, and administrators, could stem from competing values that support the choice of the CVF as the primary theoretical model of this research.

Operational Definitions

A central theme in the literature review is a lack of clear definitions in previous research conducted on faculty and NTTF. For example, to date, research on tenured faculty had grouped both chairs and faculty together. This is a logical grouping as department chairs are tenured faculty; however, department chairs are not just tenured faculty. This group acts as both administrators and as tenured faculty. As department chairs most often hire NTTF, as an example

of the administrative responsibilities of the position, it is reasonable to question the assumption that a chair's perception might be substantially different than that of other tenured faculty in the department. In the private sector, mid-level managers, hiring managers, and senior managers often have "a slightly different lens" as to why the organization hired temporary employees (Barley & Kunda, 2004, p. 40). This gives credence to the current research identifying department chairs separately in the research versus lumping this position in with tenured faculty. Moreover, Kezar (2013) and Becher's (1992) research supports the identification of the group, as they both assert that the department chair had a strong influence on faculty culture. While department chairs are believed to drive culture, it is also important to note that a significant disparity between the culture of the department chair and the culture of the staff that the person oversees can create conflict, disillusionment, and discord that can impede organizational effectiveness (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

There are many definitions of culture. For the purpose of this research, culture relates to "behaviors and values that are learned, shared, and exhibited by a group of people" (Yosso, 2006, p. 75). What is faculty culture? This research does not assert that there is a clear-cut definition that can capture all of the nuances of what it means to be faculty. Rather, it asserts that there are some general characteristics that are shared among faculty that help to define faculty culture. Some of these characteristics are specific to the profession as a whole, whereas other themes are likely specific to that institution. It asserts that there is a shared history among faculty; that there are characteristics more common to certain academic disciplines than to others; and that contractual labor shares some common cultural characteristics.

Universities, for the purpose of this research, are large public Doctorate-Granting Research Universities (DRUs). The rationale for this is that most of what had been previously

studied about NTTF was explored at community colleges, due to the fact that historically the majority of hiring of NTTF occurred in community colleges. Today, NTTF have "now become more prevalent across all institutional types and within almost all fields" (Kezar & Maxey, 2014, p. 5). Due to the fact that institutional type may influence culture, the culture of a department at a four-year public institution may be different than community colleges, or the elite institutions studied by Becher (1992).

In a report entitled "Contingent Appointments and the Academic Profession" submitted by the Committee on Contingent Faculty and the Profession in 2003, the American Association of University Professors (AAUP) defined contingent faculty to "include both part-time and full-time faculty who are appointed off the tenured track" (p. 98). For the purpose of this research, the term non-tenure track faculty or NTTF will mirror the AAUP definition of contingent faculty. Between 1970 and 2003, part-time faculty in higher education grew by 422.1%, whereas fulltime faculty increased by 70.7% (Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006). While the use of part-time faculty had grown considerably the present study examines the question of whether there are cultural differences between fulltime and part-time NTTF by identifying these sub-groups. It is possible that part-time NTTF experience and shape their culture in ways that are different from fulltime NTTF (Kezar, 2013).

For purposes of this research, the terms "leader" and "manager" are used interchangeably. The reason for this is that the relevance of either role as it relates to this research is to be able to determine, respond to, and manage the culture of the organization. It takes both a manager and a leader to accomplish this goal (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

Organization of the Dissertation

Chapter 1 makes a case for studying faculty culture inclusive of both tenured and non-tenure track faculty. As such, the purpose of this study is two-fold: (1) to determine the congruence between tenured faculty and NTTF and (2) to determine the relationship, if any, among the variables such as age, gender, race/ethnicity, years of service, fulltime versus part-time status, TF versus NTTF, administrative responsibilities, and academic discipline. Chapter 2 reviews the current literature on NTTF and tenured faculty culture. As studies of NTTF culture are new, the literature review also attempts to draw parallels with what is known about contractual labor in the private sector, as this may help to explain some of the culture of NTTF. Additionally, it examines the history of cultural and economic forces that have influenced both NTTF and tenured faculty; it explains the role of NTTF in higher education today; and it explores research on both women and minority faculty that, similar to NTTF, have dealt with feelings of inequity and isolation as faculty. Finally, it pulls from studies conducted on NTTF by tenured faculty, as such studies both help to describe NTTF while also providing some glimpse into how tenured faculty view NTTF. Chapter 3 describes the methodology. Chapter 4 outlines the findings of this study. Chapter 5 draws conclusions from the research findings.

CHAPTER 2: LITERTURE REVIEW

The literature review begins with a brief review of culture in general before examining elements more specific to the culture of faculty. As a way of categorizing and making sense of these factors, the literature review is divided into two broad subsections. The first subsection titled "Section One: Potential Drivers of Cultural Similarities" focuses on theories and ideas that may create some degree of cultural uniformity across the department. The second section titled "Section Two: Potential Drivers of Cultural Dissimilarities" categorizes theories that might lead to cultural dissimilarities between NTTF and tenured faculty. The literature review will end with a review of the Competing Values Framework.

Section One: Potential Drivers of Cultural Similarities

Culture: A General Overview

The unit of analysis for this research is culture. This research asserts that organizational units that have a significant history have most likely developed a work culture. Understanding culture, in the general sense, can help to identify these elements in the academic department being studied. Also, an underlying assumption of this research is that faculty, in both the general sense and specific to academic discipline, have cultural elements that are prevalent throughout higher education. Furthermore, it is important to note that faculty culture is by no means a clearly-defined, finely-articulated, subject matter. Still, there is research that supports the idea that while not entirely uniform, there are elements that are consistent in what it means to be faculty (Becher, 1992). As such, the purpose of this section is not to provide clear definitions of what it means to be faculty. Rather, it is meant to provide guidance in identifying elements that may or may not be present in the members of the departments studied.

Culture refers to "behaviors and values that are learned, shared, and exhibited by a group of people" (Yosso, 2006, p. 75). Therefore, culture influences how society is organized. Culture is not static but a set of characteristics that are constantly changing and adapting to new information and influences (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Shafritz, Ott, and Jang (2009) define culture as "intangible items such as values, beliefs, assumptions, perceptions, norms, artifacts and patterns of behavior, providing meaning, direction, and mobilization" (p. 338). Fetterman (2010) defines culture as a set of shared attitudes, values, goals, and practices that characterize an institution, organization, or group. Martin (1992) believed that since culture is often a matter of individual perspective, organizations often have many subcultures and culture is best understood by speaking to people within that culture.

Martin (1992) describes three scientific perspectives that attempt to explain organizational culture: integration, differentiation, and fragmentation. Integration had three defining characteristics: (1) cultural manifestations consistently reinforce the same themes; (2) members in the organization "share in an organization-wide consensus"; and (3) what the culture is for the organization is clear to its members (Martin, 1992, p. 12). Differentiation, by contrast, states that cultural manifestations are inconsistent because this "consensus occurs only within the boundaries of subcultures" (Martin, 1992, p. 12). This consensus aids organizational members in dealing with the ambiguity and inconsistency of organizational culture as a whole. Fragmentation, by contrast, focuses on "ambiguity as the essence of organizational culture" (Martin, 1992, p. 12). It states that consensus can only be reached on specific issues, and therefore, organizational culture is in a constant state of flux as it is defined and redefined as specific circumstances dictate the necessity of consensus. Martin (1992) argues that none of these perspectives are absolute in nature but are "subjectively perceived ideal types rather than

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objective descriptions of particular cultural realities" (p. 13). Metaphorically, Martin (1992) argues that none of these perspectives are prescriptive glasses where only one pair gives a researcher an accurate view of organizational culture, rather they are three distinctive sets of glasses that members in organizations slip on to help them define organizational culture as the necessity of a particular circumstance dictates. These theories do not compete but rather complement each other. It is the combination of these three perspectives that creates an organizational culture.

Shafritz et al. (2009) state that culture is not the product of rational thought, but "predetermined by a pattern of basic assumptions held by the members of the organization" (p. 339). Once culture becomes ingrained, the original assumptions or rationale slowly drop out of conscious thought and decision-making. While some people may recall the rationale for the behavior, it is not unusual for a member of that culture to not remember why the organization does what it does. Becher and Kogan (1992) assert that there is a distinction to be made between what individuals or groups do—defined as the operational mode—and what individuals or organizations believe in terms of morals, ethics, and values—which is defined as the normative mode—and helps to inform judgment. These two states are interdependent. The task carried out by an individual or organization can help to form judgment, while judgment can help to decide how to carry out a task. It is also possible for these two states to be incongruent. A group can have a set of stated values while simultaneously acting in a way that conflicts with its values.

Bolman and Deal (1991) put forth the idea of the "shared myth" within a culture, which provides a "symbolic frame" for "bring[ing] meaning out of chaos, clarity out of confusion, and predictability out of mystery" (p. 253). Interestingly enough, truth can be irrelevant when it comes to culture or as the Thomas theorem states, "If men define situations as real, they are real

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in consequences" (Merton, 1995, pp. 379-424). That is to say that people often act on the basis of their subjective interpretation of a situation versus an objective reality. For example, there is a perception of NTTF as providing poor quality of instruction. This had been studied extensively. These studies conclude that NTTF, when provided with the same resources as tenured faculty, are no worse, and in some instances, perhaps even better instructors than tenured faculty (Bettinger & Long, 2004). Regardless of the truth of the matter, or what is causing it, the perception alone could influence how NTTF are perceived and how they see themselves.

Leadership and Culture

A strong culture can serve as a sense-making device that allows stakeholders a means by which to make sense of internal and external occurrences (Fralinger & Olson, 2007). It reduces uncertainty and ambiguity, can help to facilitate effective communication, and aid in decision making at all levels of the organization. Therefore, an effective university culture is one where leadership teaches and exhibits desired behaviors, motivates staff, and manages the means by which information is processed (ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report, 2003). To do this, university leadership must be aware of the customs and traditions, history, educational philosophy, language, myths, norms, values, assumptions, and both internal and external political structures that help to form the university's culture (ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report, 2003).

How does a leader manage culture? Cameron and Quinn (2011) assert that leadership has an obligation to identify the organization's overarching culture as well as any subcultures that exist within the organization. The Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) serves as a means to accomplish this. The OCAI identifies both the current and preferred future culture so as to aid leadership in determining any significant differences between the ideal and the

perceived reality of the organization. The instrument identifies six attributes of organizational culture, which are management style, strategic plans, climate, rewards system, leadership, and overarching values of the organization (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

The second obligation of the leadership is to assess the culture (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). To do this a leader has to understand that the effect of culture on an organization has to do with congruency. For example, is the organization's culture in alignment with the demands of the external environment? Is the leadership of the organization in alignment with employee culture? Is the present culture aligned with what is considered to be the ideal culture? How does the cultural profile of the organization align with what is known about other similar organizations? Do subcultures exist? At this stage the leader is simply looking for significant differences between the two variables (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). OCAI can help to define this mathematically, but it also should be defined within the desired culture of the organization as determined by the organization's leaders (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

Once incongruent data is identified, the leader then has to decide whether or not to address it. Incongruent data, such as number of subcultures existing within the organization that may be quite dissimilar from the overarching culture, is not necessarily something that needs to be changed. For example, an accounting department that exists firmly in the Hierarchy quadrant within an organization that is predominately an Adhocracy could be a healthy component that helps to keep the creative nature of the organization in check. Furthermore, the ethos of what it means to be a successful accountant is quite different than the ethos of what it means to be an artist or writer. For the organization itself to be successful, each entity must be successful within its own right. What is important for a leader to recognize is that incongruence can create conflict, distrust and misunderstanding between two subcultures or between a subculture and an

overarching culture. Feelings of isolation might occur that, if left unmanaged, could cause a subculture to drift away from the organization ethos (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

Once leadership determines what needs to be changed, it can implement a plan to change the overarching culture of the organization to the desired state. That is no easy endeavor. Leadership in higher education has always been difficult due to the sheer numbers of internal and external stakeholders. This difficulty is confounded by the fact that universities are in an era of rapid change. Bartell (2003) states that during the last two decades, universities worldwide are under ever-increasing pressure to adapt to rapidly changing technology, political forces, economic realities, and social change. In a study on the changing role of the academic middle manager in higher education, Hellawell and Hancock (2001) discovered that the department heads interviewed felt that change is happening at an ever-increasing pace in higher education. Most managers felt that the pace of change would continue to increase and that managers had to become more adept at keeping up with the change. A variety of factors are influencing this change, including decreased state support combined with not only an increased demand for higher education but also the expectation of an education that is delivered through both traditional and non-traditional means. Rapid change in external demand requires adaptation and institutional change (Bartell, 2003). The vast complexity of university culture, combined with increased demand from external stakeholders, has led to leadership that is struggling to keep up (Bartell, 2003).

University Culture

University culture can be defined as the values and beliefs of the university's stakeholders, which include administrators, faculty, students, alumni, community partners, board members, and employees (Bartell, 2003). The values and beliefs at a university are thought to

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greatly influence decision-making and behaviors (Bartell, 2003). These behaviors are conveyed through institutional norms, special language, and stories. The culture of the university can also be observed through architecture, campus grounds, student and faculty attire, and as any number of other physical manifestations of the overarching culture (Sporn, 1999).

Universities have distinctive characteristics. First, unlike many private sector businesses, universities' goals are often unclear and difficult to measure (Bartell, 2003; Sporn, 1999). Both internal and external stakeholders are extremely diverse and include foreign students and domestic students, graduates and undergraduates, fulltime and part-time students, faculty, staff, the surrounding community, unions, accrediting bodies, and local, state, and national political interests (Bartell, 2003; Sporn, 1999). Due to the variety of stakeholders and the subsequent variety of goals, internal conflicts within a university are not uncommon. For example, the idea of dual governance is unique to higher education. This can cause conflict as the faculty often focuses on academic freedom and autonomy, whereas administrators focus on controls and processes (ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report, 2003). Universities can also have internal boundaries that can impede a leader's ability to govern and communicate effectively. For example, a board of trustees that is elected by the governor may not be familiar with the university culture. A parent who has not attended college may be overwhelmed by its bureaucratic complexity. Overall, a leader seeks to create a culture based on coordination, communication, trust and competence, which helps to make these boundaries permeable and manageable (ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report, 2003).

Bartell (2003) states that the role of the university leader is to link and manage the various stakeholders' interests. Leaders work to increase cross-boundary communication, so as to get stakeholders to agree upon shared values and goals. Unlike a traditional Hierarchy,

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leadership at all levels helps to maintain this web through shared decision making, shared responsibilities, and continual communication. Universities are believed to function best when the culture supports group cooperation and individual achievement (ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report, 2003). On the other hand, university cultures that encourage competition over internal cooperation can lead to internal conflicts, alienation, confusion, and disorganization (ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report, 2003). However, even in the best of circumstances, universities can be slow to adapt to changes in either the internal or external environment. Slaughter and Rhoades (2004) state that "colleges and universities are difficult change and whatever changes take place are largely located on the margins of a relatively unchanging core" (p. 7). In the worst of circumstances, universities become mired in internal conflict while making little to no progress towards achievement of any tangible goals (ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report, 2003).

At a university, culture is communicated through a variety of means (Fralinger & Olson, 2007). First, university leadership shares it verbally. To do this effectively, leadership must be aware of the culture of the institution. Second, the bylaws and handbooks of the university help to communicate culture. Third, it is communicated through artifacts. Various physical manifestations from architecture, grounds, and types and styles of classrooms, down to particulars such as how faculty, staff, and students dress, can all serve to indicate culture (Fralinger & Olson, 2007).

Tenured Faculty Culture

It is possible that tenured faculty culture is a dominant cultural influence at the departmental level and university level. This makes this subject worthy of examination, as it may influence tenured faculty and NTTF. In the seminal work on faculty culture, Biglan (1973a)

defined culture by academic discipline in higher education. This research showed that all academic disciplines share three common factors, which are paradigms (hard vs. soft), practical application (pure vs. applied), and concerns with life systems (life systems vs. non-life systems). Each of these factors can be viewed on a scale with each academic discipline placing more or less value on each variable. For example, "hard" sciences, such as physics, rely on established paradigms, whereas "soft" sciences, such as education, possess less clearly defined paradigms but instead focus more on practical application. Concerns with life systems, by contrast, distinguish fields of study that deal with inanimate objects from those that deal with biological and social areas. This concept is important because understanding faculty culture within a particular area of study can be measured within the context of what that discipline most values— such as the intellectual impact of the work of disciplines strongly driven by paradigms, such as theoretical physics, the practical impact of more effective teachers in the classroom in education, and the concerns with life system of a biologist studying the environmental impact of pollution. The cognitive styles of each discipline, while distinct, provide a useful model by which to both understand the culture of each discipline and to measure the degree to which faculty are socially connected (Biglan, 1973a).

In later research, Biglan (1973b) proposed that academic disciplines with a strong paradigm, such as hard sciences, provide "greater social connectedness among scholars, particularly on their research" due to the cohesiveness of their views (p. 210). Since each scholar understands, and agrees, with a basic premise, work is easier to subdivide and the meaning of language is more congruent within the discipline, which makes cooperation particularly beneficial. By contrast, Biglan (1973b) states that in soft areas, where paradigms are not often clearly defined " the scholar must describe and justify the assumptions on which his work is

based, delimit his method or approach to the problem, and establish criteria for evaluating his own response to the problem" (p. 211). Biglan (1973b) also concluded that commitment to graduate student work is also affected by the paradigm. In hard sciences, students must be indoctrinated in the language and paradigms of the science, which often results in greater support for graduate student research. By contrast, soft sciences research is more idiosyncratic and independent by nature. As such, graduate students tend to be left to figure things out on their own to a far greater degree. The degree of practical application of the discipline correlates with commitment to social and service activities with practical academic disciplines tending to value and participate in social and service activities to a far greater degree than non-practical disciplines. Therefore, Biglan (1973b) asserts that scholars in applied areas spend more time on social aspects and less time on research as a general rule. When they do publish, they tend to publish more technical reports than their pure science colleagues. Applied disciplines also like to work together on research, perhaps reflecting their greater socialization overall, as compared to than the pure discipline academics. In terms of being socially engaged, the scholars within the hard sciences are more actively engaged with other scholars in their expertise, whereas the scholars in the applied sciences spend more time engaging with outside agencies as the technical reports they publish are often for the agencies consumption. Socialization in disciplines that place a high value on life systems is often reported as a desire to work with colleagues in teaching activities. This is perhaps due to the fact that life systems academics tend to like teaching less than non-life peers, so the task of teaching is often shared. By contrast, in non-life areas, socialization means working closely with graduate students (Biglan, 1973b). Overall, this research emphasizes the importance of identifying the academic discipline in which the faculty works, as tenured faculty culture would most likely differ among disciplines.

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Becher (1992) built upon the work of Biglan (1973a) in "Academic Tribes and Territories: Intellectual Enquiry and the Cultures of Academic Disciplines," and his work is foundational to this research in a number of ways. Becher (1992) states academic disciplines tend to be both insular and parochial. As such, members of an academic discipline can be indifferent and even hostile to those who do not belong to the culture. Each culture had idols (e.g. Albert Einstein, William Shakespeare, etc.) and shared artifacts (e.g. the periodic table prominently displayed, hastily written numbers on a white board, a collection of hard copy books, a globe, etc.). Language "plays a key role in establishing its cultural identity" (Becher, 1992, p. 24). Due to the limited means by which one can learn the jargon of an academic discipline, language serves dual roles. First, it is a way to identify a member of the group. Second, it serves to exclude outsiders. With hundreds of academic disciplines, and the parsing of those academic disciplines into multiple sub-disciplines, it is nearly impossible for an outsider to gain admission into the group (Becher, 1992).

Becher (1992) claims that academic disciplines expect "loyalty" and "strict adherence to their norms" (p. 24). These norms are indoctrinated into initiates into the field throughout undergraduate and postgraduate work, due to the fact that an academic discipline is not just a gathering of a specific body of knowledge, but also a shared ideological perspective. The perspectives of what is or is not culturally acceptable are shared in a number of ways. The heroes of a discipline are not only a collection of dates, names, and contributions to academia, but also a representation of desired attributes as defined by that culture. These myths and legends teach both valuable academic and social lessons. When combined with language, these myths, heroes and legends create knowledge specific to members of the group. Culture is also taught through shared experiences, as well as practical knowledge or competencies that those not initiated into

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the academic discipline would not know. Long hours in a lab, for example, can help to build camaraderie through the shared experience and the struggles that accompanied it. The ability to successfully obtain research grants, or get published, might seem secondary in importance to an outsider, but within the group there may exist an implicit understanding of the importance of this competency. Becher (1992) posits that tacit knowledge (knowledge that could only be gained through personal interaction) could only be accessed through cultural acceptance.

Of particular interest to this research is that Becher (1992) states tenured faculty can be cold, indifferent, and even hostile towards other tenured faculty who do not belong to the same academic discipline, but the degree to which this is true most likely varies by academic discipline. Though neither Biglan (1973a) nor Becher (1992) studied NTTF, the present study is built upon the conclusion drawn by them that there are cultural differences among academic disciplines. There is research that supports the idea that different academic disciplines interact with NTTF in different ways. For example, some research concluded that the problems NTTF face in terms of organizational support are isolated to the humanities and that other academic disciplines are far more accepting and supportive of NTTF (Lee, 2004). Gappa and Leslie (1993) determined that the professional fields are more apt to include NTTF in departmental activities and to treat them more as equals to tenured faculty. This included those fields that possessed a need to bring practical experience to the classroom, such as education and business, but also those that had longer histories hiring NTTF such as the arts (Gappa & Leslie, 1993).

By contrast, recent research has not determine any clear pattern in culture by academic discipline, but rather that "differences in departmental culture seemed related to the leadership by the chair" (Kezar, 2013, p. 163). This speaks to the importance of examining the chair as a subgroup, as this individual likely had some influence on the culture of the department. This

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current research focuses on a regional, public doctorate-granting university, and attempts to address a weakness in the work of Becher (1992). Becher (1992) focused on elite institutions while conceding that "had the programme of interviews included non-elite institutions, the pattern of response might have been different" (p. 3). There is evidence to support this. Kezar (2013) focuses on Master 1 Carnegie schools due to the fact that there are "significant differences between community colleges, research universities, liberal arts colleges, masters-granting institutions, and comprehensive institutions" (p. 160). Kezar (2013) noted no difference among academic disciplines on how NTTF are treated and she posits that at institutions where faculty are more egalitarian, academic discipline might play a lesser role in defining culture.

Becher (1992) discovered that academic departments often have little contact with other departments or the institution. As departments are most often founded around academic disciplines the department does a great deal to influence the culture. Kezar (2013) draws a similar conclusion stating that the department is "the most important organizational level for defining institutional values, norms, and expectations, particularly for NTTF that have very little relationship to the overall institution" (Kezar, 2013, p. 158). Kezar (2013) posits that "The department chair typically influences departmental culture—playing a leadership role and creating, enacting, and altering policies" and that "long-time, tenured-track faculty also shape the culture because of their opportunity over time to have input on policies and practices that shape values, through their connections with other colleagues and networks, and through their resultant social clout" (p. 159). The leadership of the department chair is also important when considering that faculty within a department often have limited interactions with each other (Tierney, 2006). Whether an individual is tenured or NTTF the individual most likely is highly autonomous planning lessons, writing syllabi, teaching courses, and grading work alone in most instances.

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This is significant because the work environment of someone teaching in higher education offers few opportunities to build shared values through interaction with other people in the department. A department chair can create opportunities for increased social and work interaction among the department through a variety of means both physical and electronic.

Kezar's (2013) research focuses specifically on how NTTF perceived the culture of the department for which they worked, specific to policy, rules, and procedures, which in turn affected the individual's willingness, capacity, and opportunity to perform. Kezar (2013) determined that there are four different types of departmental cultures—destructive, neutral, inclusive, and learning—with the neutral department being the most common by a wide margin. Kezar (2013) concluded that "the primary values driving the destructive culture are of active disrespect for NTTF members" (p. 164). In neutral cultures NTTF are "mostly ignored" (Kezar, 2013, p. 168), whereas in the inclusive culture "they are likely to be respected and treated as colleagues" (Kezar, 2013, p. 172). Finally, in the learning culture in addition to being accepted and respected, chairs and tenured faculty thought about support for NTTF, not just as an issue of equity but rather "tied the support to a commitment to students and the goals of the institution around learning" (Kezar, 2013, p. 175). As a final contributing aspect to the culture of NTTF, Kezar (2013) asserts that "contract type shapes NTTF experience" and that sampling both full-time and part-time NTTF reflects a more comprehensive understanding of perspectives (p. 161). Kezar (2013) goes on to state that while fulltime and part-time NTTF generally agree on the overall perspective of culture, "some full-time NTTF had built relationships that shielded them from the more negative aspects" of the culture (p. 163). As shall be shown in the section on contractual labor, a similar conclusion is drawn by Barley and Kunda (2004), who studied contractual labor in the private sector.

Thus, a review of the literature indicates several drivers of faculty culture, which are academic discipline, institutional type, departmental chair, NTTF or tenured faculty status, and part-time or fulltime employment. Fundamental to the question of NTTF culture is Kezar (2013), who states that "Privileged or marginalized groups may experience an organizational culture differently from each other but may have a shared sense of reality within group" (p. 158). That reality, as defined by Becher (1992), focuses on paradigms of a distinct culture with common language and literature, use of artifacts, "deities" or those people considered sacred to the profession, symbolism, agreed upon meanings, myths and stories, and "tribalism" (p. 24).

Historical Context

A review of the history of faculty provides an introduction to what helped to form faculty culture as it exists today. In "The Shaping of American Higher Education," Cohen and Kisker (2010) stated that in the 1800s, faculty culture had "developed its own internal hierarchy" that focused on "research and scholarship," as well as "autonomy" (p. 92). Faculty oversaw the "responsibility for appointing professors" and "deciding on curriculum," but "never the power to appropriate funds, manage the institution, or even have the final word on students to be admitted" (Cohen & Kisker, 2010, p. 93). Newfield (2007) asserts that there are two developments in faculty culture during this time. First, the "publish or perish" mentality grew from faculty's focus on scholarship. This is the idea that faculty are measured largely on both the quantity and quality of research. Second, is the idea of dual governance wherein colleges and universities are governed by both faculty and administrators.

Historically, the "distinguishing ear-marks of an American university are its moral purpose, its scientific aim, its unselfish public service, its inspiration to all men in all noble things, and its incorruptibility by commercialism" (Newfield, 2007, p. 349). While the previous

quote illustrates an idealistic state, this ideal helps to create a culture that Tierney (2006) describes as generally inward-looking and monastic for fear that outside influences could corrupt the pursuit of knowledge. Tierney (2006) also states that the "culture of colleges and universities had traditionally been defined partly by the concept of the 'ivory tower'" (p. 1).

For the first half of the 1900s, average tuition rates at public colleges were rather inexpensive at around $100 per year (Selingo, 2013). The advent of the GI Bill after World War II changed the landscape of higher education and precipitated the "greatest expansion of higher education in the history of the universities since the twelfth century (Perkins, 2007, p. 30). Enrollment increased from 1.5 million students before World War II to more than two million students (Selingo, 2013). Selingo (2013) states that the increased demand increased the cost of operating a university, but throughout the 1950s state and federal financial contributions remained high which allowed tuition to remain low. The 1960s saw another spike in enrollment with the baby boomers and to keep up, college and universities spent large amounts of money on new buildings and faculty. To cover these costs, between 1964 and 1972, the average cost of a four-year college increased by 44% (Selingo, 2013).

Beginning in the 1970s the public, through elected officials, began demanding greater accountability as the rising cost of education was gaining both political and public attention due to an increasing portion of the burden being placed on the student (Selingo, 2013). Beginning in the 1980s, a number of trends began to emerge in organizations (Barley & Kunda, 2004). First, organizations began to get flatter in some cases, removing entire layers of middle management. Second, organizations began to outsource activities that historically the organization had performed for itself. This outsourcing extends beyond the non-essential functions of the organization, such as janitorial and food services, to support of essential products and services.

Third, the combination of fewer fulltime employees and more reliance on outsourcing combined to create a greater overall reliance on firms outside of the organization. This creates the need for business alliances. Fourth, organizations began to focus more on organizing around project teams versus the traditional organization structure around functions or divisions. Finally, organizations began to use contingent labor as permanent replacements for fulltime employees (Barley & Kunda, 2004). Mallon and Duberley (2000) noted that between 1982 and 1992, contingent labor employment increased by 250%, whereas total employment increased by only 20%. According to D'Amico and Judy (1997), in "Workforce 2020," a study conducted by Oxford Economics and sponsored by System Applications Products (SAP), 83% of executives indicated that they are steadily increasing the employment of contingent workers in lieu of permanent employees.

As of the last study conducted by the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) in 2005, it is estimated that 5.7 million workers or 4% of the total employment in the United State is contingent, with the top three industries employing contingent labor being education and health services (27.1%), professional and business services (18.2%) and construction (12.3%) (BLS, 2005). As shown in Figure 2 pulled from the BLS (2005) study, contingent workers between the ages of 25 and 64 years occupy both ends of the socioeconomic spectrum. On one end of the socioeconomic spectrum, contingent workers are less likely than non-contingent workers to have a high school degree (9% vs. 16%), whereas on the other end of the spectrum contingent workers are more likely to hold at least a bachelor's degree versus non-contingent workers (37% vs. 33%). Among this group there exists a considerable economic disparity between the day worker on a construction site, for example, and the technical expert for hire.

The social contract between employer and employee for lifetime employment is a relatively new concept that began with the New Deal and later gained strength with labor law,

Employed contingent and noncontingent workers, age 25 to 64 years, percent distribution by educational attainment, February 2005
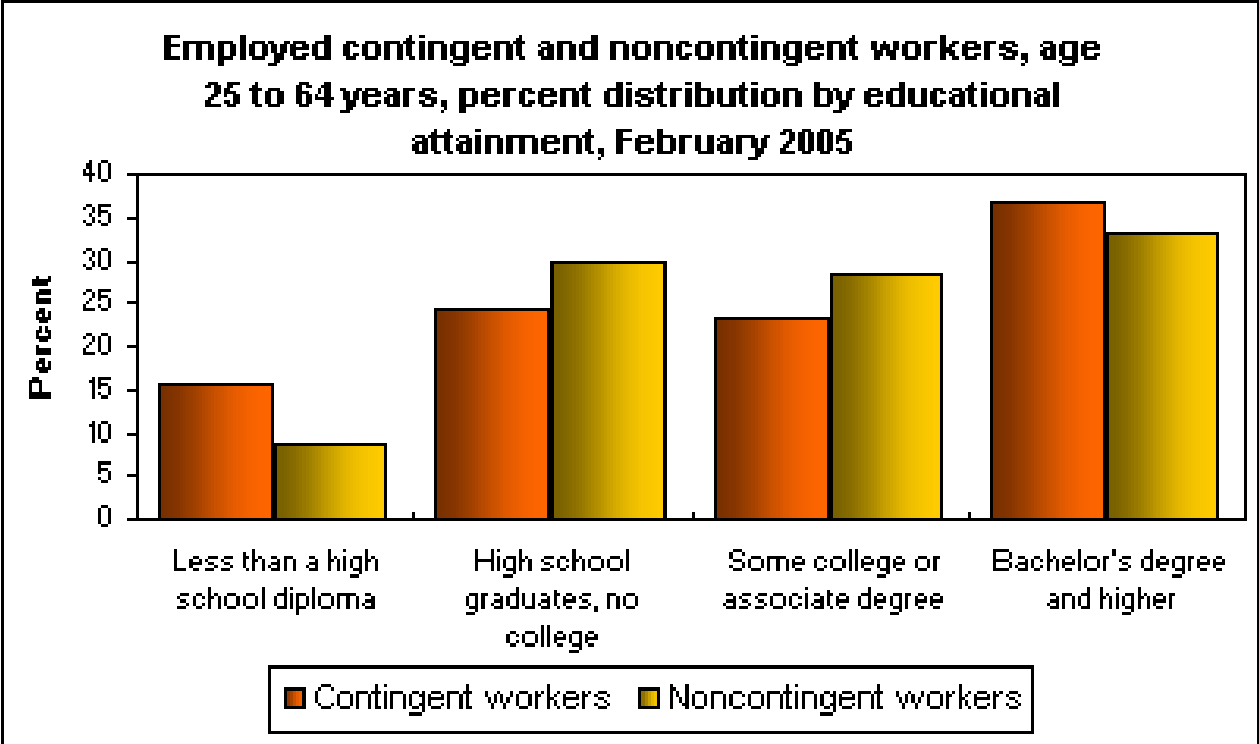
Note. (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2005).

Figure 2. Contingent and alternative employment arrangements.

unionization and collective bargaining (Barley & Kunda, 2004). Since the 1970s, massive layoffs in the private sector, and outsourcing of jobs overseas, have weakened this ideal in the minds of many Americans (Barley & Kunda, 2004). Selingo (2013) pointed out that it is not by happenstance that the rise of higher education in the 20th century began in earnest with this social contract, nor is it coincidental that the preeminence of higher education began to decline as the social contract itself began to unravel. A college degree between roughly 1945 and 1975 provided an opportunity at a secure white-collared job with the expectation of lifetime employment. The rising cost of education combined with the decline in lifetime employment placed higher education in a conundrum. How could the industry change and adapt quickly to rising student populations, especially non-traditional student populations, while keeping costs manageable? In the 1970s, NTTF numbers began to grow as the group was hired to teach large freshmen classes - which affects retention - and night and weekend classes - which affect accessibility - at a fraction of the cost of tenured faculty. Unlike tenured faculty, this workforce can be added or removed with ease (Selingo, 2013).

In conclusion, the university environment is rapidly changing. Some of the demands facing university leadership include a reduction in state funding, demands for distance education, increasing and decreasing enrollments, rising cost of attendance, and an overarching increase in the demand for higher education by the general populace (Bartell, 2003). These demands influence institutional effectiveness, and have placed an increased strain on internal systems, internal and external relationships, and academic programs (Bartell, 2003).

Section Two: Potential Drivers of Cultural Dissimilarities

Contingent Labor Theory

As NTTF are often contingent labor, it is worth examining two perspectives of contingent labor theory: Institutionalism and Free Agency. Barley and Kunda (2004) state that Institutionalists divide the labor market into a primary and secondary sector. A primary labor market provides stable employment, adequate wages, and benefits, while the secondary sector is less stable with lower wages. Institutionalists do not view the market as being naturally efficient or acting independent of social forces. Rather, markets "are shaped by legal, social, cultural, and historical processes" that "inject power and privilege into markets," thereby making equity impossible; therefore markets "cannot and should not be trusted to create social equity" (Barley & Kunda, 2004, p. 293). An example of this is that minorities compose a significant portion of the secondary sector. Institutionalists believe that this represents, in part, racism; therefore, growth in this sector creates social injustice and acts as a destabilizing force on society. Only through outside intervention can a market be expected to change the inequity of power.

Studies have shown that among low-skilled workers, the negative aspects of secondary employment are significant. These factors share a striking similarity with many of the criticisms by NTTF, such as low wages, poor working conditions, feelings of insecurity as to long term employment, and conflict with permanent employees (Barley & Kunda, 2004). That being said, Barley and Kunda (2004) state that a primary weakness of this position is that the secondary market research ignores the skilled contingent employee's perspective, while focusing almost exclusively on the unskilled worker from a social justice perspective. This indicates another difference in the private sector versus higher education. NTTF are not unskilled laborers, but a recurring theme is that NTTF appear to be treated in a similar vein as the unskilled laborer in the

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secondary sector in terms of having low wages, poor working conditions, feelings of insecurity, and conflicts with tenured faculty (Dolan, 2011; Eisenberg, 2010; Meixner et al., 2010).

Free agency rejects the social contract of the lifetime employee, viewing it as idealistic and unsustainable. The free agency perspective also rejects fulltime employment, viewing the corporation as a highly political and often irrational entity to which fulltime employees are tethered. Free agency embraces an entrepreneurial spirit—a skill for hire mentality, which it believes creates an advantage to employees in the form of independence. A person can work for whom they want, when they want, and get paid for the work done. Free agency is also based upon the notion of a highly efficient market that operates largely independently of the culture in which it resides and that markets, due to self-interest, behave in a rational manner. One weakness of this position is that it glorifies the skilled contingent laborer while giving little consideration to the unskilled worker whose employment options are often much more limited. Another weakness is the notion that markets are rational in part because this theory asserts that people operate independent of culture (Barley & Kunda, 2004).

Barley and Kunda (2004) state that the reasons organizations hire contractual laborers vary, but most decisions can be categorized in three ways. First, Barley and Kunda (2004) assert that employers want to reduce indirect costs; for example, not having to pay benefits can create a cost savings. It is important to note that cost savings is perhaps a less accurate term than cost transference. For example, while a business hiring a contractual employee may not have to pay for health insurance, this does not reduce or eliminate the cost but rather transfers the cost to the employee. The second reason is flexibility. Flexibility can be divided into three categories: employers have more control over wages (wage flexibility), more control over the size of the workforce (numerical flexibility), and more control over the mix of employees to meet changing

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needs (functional flexibility) (Barley & Kunda, 2004). Wage flexibility is important because managers often have a fixed budget. Numerical flexibility helps meet the managerial constraint of the number of fulltime employees an area or project is allowed to have on staff. Whereas wage and numerical flexibility is used to address limiting factors, functional flexibility allows an organization to enter a new function without having to invest in fulltime labor (Barley & Kunda, 2004). Within the context of the present study an example of functional flexibility is a department chair adding a section of a class without having to hire a fulltime professor. If this section is successful, it can continue to be staffed by the NTTF or become a rationale for hiring a fulltime employee. If it fails, the NTTF contract is not renewed.

Contractual employees bring needed knowledge into an organization but with the risk of a contractor moving from competing firm to competing firm, thereby providing a competitor with information about a previous employer (Harrison & Kelly, 2001). In terms of the information that contingent labor brings to the organization, this can be categorized as either expertise needed by the organization or training of permanent employees by temporary employees (Barley & Kunda, 2004). Finally, contractual employees can be hired to do undesirable work (Barley & Kunda, 2004) such as NTTF who often teach classes that tenured faculty consider to be undesirable such as on-line classes, night and weekend classes, and large freshmen classes (Dolan, 2011; Meixner et al., 2010). It is important to note that undesirable work does not equate to unimportant or unskilled work as on-line classes, night and weekend classes, and large freshmen classes affect both retention and accessibility.

Contractual Employee Culture

Barley and Kunda (2004) assert that contractual employees can be divided into unskilled and expert employees. Unskilled employees are often hired for short-term, seasonal needs.

Farms, for example, often utilize unskilled temporary labor, as do retail businesses during peak season. The expert contractual employee, while historically not as common as the unskilled contractual employee, is not new. The stonemasons who built the great cathedrals of Europe were considered experts who moved from job to job when the work on that particular cathedral no longer required the expertise of that individual. What has changed, beginning in the mid-1970s, is an increase in use of the expert contractual employee. The expert contractual employee has been shown to have some distinct cultural characteristics.

There exists among technical contractors an ethos of "rationality based on logic, reason, and practicality" that causes a considerable amount of discontent at the political, bureaucratic, and irrational nature of corporations (Barley & Kunda, 2004, p. 63). Additionally, technical contractors show disdain for incompetence—especially incompetence in middle management that is overlooked by upper management. There exists an expectation that organizations work like machines—logical, precise, a clear purpose—and that broken/inefficient parts, such as incompetent managers, be removed and replaced as soon as the problem is identified (Morgan, 1992.

Despite the disdain for politics and incompetence, the catalyst for becoming a contractor for 41% of the people interviewed is either being laid off or leaving before an anticipated lay off. Another 12% of people became contractual employees because they wanted to work for a specific firm that would only hire them as contingent laborers (Barley & Kunda, 2004, p. 61). While contractors are often successful in "avoiding the politics, incompetence, and inequities of organizational life," many contractors discover that the market itself is a social network that had to be managed to be successful (Barley & Kunda, 2004, p. 291). It is not well understood if NTTF or tenured faculty possess a similar disdain for office politics or the degree to which each

group desires a more rational workplace. What can be contrasted is the perspectives of tenured faculty with NTTF as to the political, bureaucratic, and sometimes irrational nature of the department, university, and higher education in general.

Private sector contracting is looked at as an escape from these negative aspects of fulltime employment that grant the contractor autonomy, flexibility, and control over work. One item in particular that contractors tend to espouse is control over time. Contractors control the amount of time taken between contracts and, through contract negotiations, also control how time is spent on the job. The downside of time management for contractors is that contractors do not necessarily control the time between contracts. If opportunities are available, a contractor can choose when to work. Inevitably, there are times between contracts that exist solely because of a lack of opportunity of a new contract (Barley & Kunda, 2004). Because of this, contractors often began actively searching for a new contract while still employed. Yet other contractors minimized downtime between contracts by working multiple contracts.

As is often the case with culture, the ideal and the reality differ. While contractors love the freedom of contracting in terms of time off between contracts, many work continuously with little to no vacation. A fear of being unemployed seems to outweigh the value of temporal freedom that contracts could allow. While many enjoy time management options while on a contract, such as shorter workweeks, flexible hours, and the ability to work from home, many contractors are very cognizant of "billable and non-billable hours" (Barley & Kunda, 2004, p. 235). Billable hours are hours that the contractor can charge the firm. Non-billable hours come in two types. The first is time spent on personal activities. The second are hours spent working on some aspect of the job that the individual felt could not be billed. For example, if the company expected a task to be completed in 10 hours and the contractor took 20 hours to do it, many

contractors would only bill for 10 hours. This is done in an effort to generate goodwill with the company. Many contractors make sure the manager knows that they are working however many hours it takes to get the job done but charging for less than this. How do contractors reconcile the value of temporal freedom that can come with contracting with the reality that many contractors work non-stop with workweeks that can often average 80 hours? It boils down to choice. Contractors making the choice to work this hard are viewed as much more acceptable than when the choice is being made for a fulltime employee by management. Ironically, contractors often allow themselves less temporal freedom than might be allowed for a fulltime employee.

Job security in the private sector is interpreted differently between contractors and fulltime employees. Contractors view job security as the ability to obtain a new contract when the current contract ends, whereas fulltime employees view job security as "the ability to maintain a job" (Barley & Kunda, 2004, p. 264). Contractors see relationships as the basis for job security, so contractors work diligently to not only develop technical skills but to also develop social networks. To be clear, fulltime employees develop social networks both internal and external to the organization. Due to the tenuous nature of contractual labor, contractors tend to view social capital as a particularly salient subject. Contractors also tend to develop more extensive networks than fulltime employees, due the sheer number of times contractors change employment.

Padgett (2001) speaks to an often-competing paradigm in organizations, which had to do with interpersonal relationships versus bureaucracy. Historically, interpersonal relationships created the foundation for a successful organization, which often had close familial, ethnic, and physical ties to members of the profession as well as to those of supporting professions. In the 20th century this was largely supplanted by bureaucracy, which is meant to provide a means by

which to combat the inherent inequities of organizations based on relationships. Suddenly, what was done or not done became less about the relationship with the person and more about the law, rule, or regulation that governed it. Contractors do not have many of the explicit or implicit protections of fulltime employees, and this necessitates the need for strong interpersonal relationships (Barley & Kunda, 2004). With no guarantee of continuous income, having a network of people by which to find the next job becomes important. Being dependent more on relationships and less on bureaucracy can make a contractor vulnerable to mistreatment. If such mistreatment occurs, free markets are not likely to self-regulate on matters that would cost the organization money. Rather, outside institutions are created to help with employee inequities or existing organizations respond by expanding the scope of the organization.

Social Capital

As contract labor has few of the protections of fulltime employees, social capital becomes a central means by which to gain and maintain employment. Social capital is belonging to a group for which there is a general trust in other members of the group (Olneck, 2001). These groups are built around language, customs, traditions, behaviors, and any knowledge developed as a result of shared experiences (Olneck, 2001). Social capital exists among both dominant social groups and subgroups. Portes (2014)) refers to the knowledge controlled by the dominant social group as legitimate knowledge. This knowledge is referred to as legitimate knowledge because demonstrating this knowledge legitimizes the individual as a member of the dominant group. Social capital, at its best, forms cohesive groups and creates community, while trust created allows for ease of transactions. At its worst, social capital can create homogeneous groups with excessive in-group trust.

Delpit (1995) focused on K12 education and states that if those outside of the dominant group want to attain power, individuals find it much easier if they have access to legitimate knowledge. When access to information is not equal, this leads to social oppression. This creates group-based disparities, such in income, wealth, employment, and health care. Hardiman, Jackson, and Griffin (2007) state that social oppression is "an interlocking system that involves domination and control of the social ideology, as well as of the social institutions and resources of the society" (p. 36). Within this context, the perception of NTTF as outsiders becomes much more than an innocuous complaint. If NTTF are outsiders, then tenured faculty could prevent NTTF from learning legitimate knowledge. If tenured faculty control the social ideology of what it means to be faculty, then this could help to explain, the NTTF perspective of social oppression (Dolan, 2011; Meixner et al., 2010).

Psychological theories as to why people discriminate tend to focus on personality, individual values, and individual information processing (Sidanius & Pratto, 2001). In some cases, discrimination is believed to come from displaced aggression. If an individual is frustrated at not having achieved desired goals, anger is taken out on the less powerful. Subgroups can be particularly vulnerable to displaced aggression from the dominant social group. If NTTF are perceived by tenured faculty as a threat to the social dominance of the group, discrimination could occur as a result of misplaced aggression.

Discrimination can also be viewed from the lens of authoritarian personality theory. In seminal work, Adorno, Frekkel-Bruswik, Levinson, and Sanford (1950) posited that raising a child in a subjugating environment would predispose the child to think of human relations in terms of dominance and submission, which would cause the individual to place a high value on hierarchy—to glorify the strong and powerful—all while vilifying those viewed as weak or those

deviating from the social hierarchy. What was later discovered is that there exists among some cultures a generalized ethnocentrism or a desire to denigrate outsiders. This tendency seems to be particularly prevalent in conservative groups. These findings correlate with the findings of Becher (1992), who found tenured faculty culture to be particularly rigorous in the expectation of group norms while largely ignoring or denigrating those viewed as outsiders. In support of this conclusion, Galinsky and Schweitzer (2015) stated that in order to succeed, "we cooperate within our group in order to compete effectively with other groups" (p. 155). By doing so, human beings develop trust with other members of the group. What is interesting is that Galinsky and Schweitzer (2015) declare that the stronger the affiliation a person feels towards the group, the more hostile and distrustful the person tends to be towards outsiders. A person who is viewed as extremely friendly and cooperative within the group can simultaneously be a person who is cold and/or hostile towards outsiders. This is especially true if the individual views the outsider as a threat to the group (Galinsky & Schweitzer, 2015). If NTTF are viewed by some tenured faculty as a threat to the group, this could help to explain some of the hostility and outsider status experienced by NTTF (Dolan, 2011; Meixner et al., 2010).

Sidanius and Pratto (2001) assert that denigration of a less powerful group is often rationalized through illusory correlation. Illusory correlation is a bias where people tend to assume more negative traits about outsiders. These negative stereotypes, once created, tend to perpetuate within the group. Interactions with outsiders, or exposure to a stimulus that relates to the outsider, creates a facile, automatic response based on the preformed bias (Sidanius & Pratto, 2001). If illusory correlation manifests itself in a dominant group, it is particularly problematic, as powerful individuals tend to rely more on stereotypes than on taking the time to get to know an outsider, thereby causing the dominant group to treat the subgroup in interpersonally distant

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ways. The lack of access to the resources of the dominant group lead to underperformance by the subgroup, which in turn perpetuates the negative bias. Sidanius and Pratto (2001) describe this as a "communicable social virus, getting the organisms they infect to replicate the virus and spread it to others" (p. 14). In time, these prejudices can become part of the language and thought or, in other words, the culture that binds the group. It is widely acknowledged that this makes it extremely difficult to get the dominant group to capitulate negative stereotypes. If tenured faculty view NTTF within a negative stereotype, this could serve as a rationalization for being interpersonally distant and for not providing NTTF with the resources needed to be successful which in turn could serve to perpetuate the myth of NTTF as outsiders (Dolan, 2011; Meixner et al., 2010).

Barley and Kunda (2004) state that social capital for private sector contractors is defined in terms of reach, reputation, and reciprocity. Reach is the size and diversity of the contractor's social network. Reputation is the currency of social capital from which opportunities arose. Reputation arises from two perceptions of the contractor. The first is technical expertise. The second is based on personality: Is the person a hard worker, a team player, or any number of other personal qualities that are seen as adding value over and above pure technical skill? Reciprocity is the "exchange of favors and resources" (Barley & Kunda, 2004, p. 273). Reciprocity is nurtured by the contractor with other contractors. Contractors sometimes subcontract to colleagues or refer business to other contractors with the idea that the favor will be returned at a future date. Contractors actively develop relationships with the contract manager, who can be used as a reference for the next job. Contractors go through an intentional cycle of using each new job as a way to build new relationships, while also working to nurture their current social network.

Barley and Kunda (2004) assert that there are some differences between the fulltime employees and private contractors in terms of relationships. One of the most obvious differences is that contractor relationships tend to go through short periods of intense interaction with long periods of little to no interaction, whereas fulltime employee relationships with one another are more temporally stable. Second, relationships of fulltime employees in organizations are often built around power, conflict, and competition (Barley & Kunda, 2004). By contrast, contractors often build relationships with other contractors as social equals. Third, because contractors do change organizations so often, contractors tend to have much larger professional networks than fulltime employees. The work of Barley and Kunda (2004) often presents contractor and fulltime employee positions as a binary argument of belonging to one group or the other group. While understanding these extremes helps to provide reference points for understanding culture, this current research posits that NTTF exist culturally somewhere on this spectrum. It is unknown whether NTTF behave more like permanent employees in this regard or more like private sector contract employees.

Finally, Burt (1995), in studying social networking, developed the idea of structural holes. These are people within an individual's social network who have no connection to the other members of the individual's network. This creates informational asymmetry where information is not shared throughout the network but only between two people. As such, structural holes create an advantage for the people at the center of the social network, allowing access to information other members in the social network do not have. Contractors tend to have structural holes in their social network to a far greater extent than fulltime employees (Barley & Kunda, 2004). Structural holes is an intriguing concept, as they relate to both tenured faculty and NTTF, due to the advantage they provide the employee.

Outsider Status: NTTF

A common theme of both NTTF and private contractual labor is the perception of being an outsider (Dolan, 2011; Meixner et al., 2010). There are a number of things that can indicate outsider status such as symbols (Martin, 1992). Within corporate America, one symbol of outsider status is the name badge (Barley & Kunda, 2004). Name badges, especially in highly technical fields, allow access to certain areas and can announce the employee's status. It had been shown that nametags change how fulltime employees interact with other employees (Barley & Kunda, 2004). Some employees admit to being friendlier to more powerful employees while ignoring less powerful employees. Nametags draw some parallel to titles within higher education, which also designate a social hierarchy. How this affects interaction between tenured faculty and NTTF is not well understood.

Lesch (2000) claims that groups that occupy the margins of society do not always want to enter the mainstream culture. Rather, these groups attempt to develop a cultural identity that intentionally distinguishes the group from the dominant culture. What these groups desire is a way by which to minimize the negative effects of hegemony by raising awareness of social inequity (Lesch, 2000). Making others aware of social inequity does not necessarily imply a desire to be, in all ways, similar to the dominant group. Rather, the group may take on some elements of a mutually shared culture, while also maintaining a distinct cultural identity. As one possible example of this, research has shown that tenured faculty culture strongly align with the research function (Becher, 1992). By contrast, NTTF strongly align with student engagement and a love of teaching (Cassebaum, 2000; Dolan, 2011; Meixner, Kruck, & Madden, 2010).

Another example of this is that the outsider persona is not viewed by private sector contractors as being entirely negative. In one study, private sector contractor self-identified as

"hired gun who ride into town, do their work quickly and efficiently, and leave quietly during the night with their saddlebags full of cash" (Barley & Kunda, 2004, p. 187). Private sector contractors take great pride in knowing that they are being hired because they possess some skill that the organization does not possess. Another distinction from fulltime employees is not being included in meetings or receiving the same perks as fulltime employees, ranging from items as mundane as t-shirts to those as important as retirement packages. Once again, the contractors in this study did not necessarily view these inequities as negatives (Barley & Kunda, 2004). Private contractor salaries tend to be higher than fulltime salaries, which allows the contractor to purchase what the organization does not provide. By contrast, the most commonly accepted vestige of the NTTF is low wages. Both NTTF and private contractors report feelings of being treated as an outsider because of being left out of meetings (Dolan, 2011; Meixner et al., 2010). An alternative opinion among private sector contractors is that being left out of meetings is one of the benefits of being a contractor, as private sector contractors like not having to deal with the minutia of fulltime employment.

An attitude of respect towards contractors from management exists in private sector contracting for a number of reasons. Contractors can eschew politics, giving answers to problems that are "honest, straightforward, and up-front" (Barley & Kunda, 2004, p. 199). Barley and Kunda (2004) discovered that many managers enjoy honest answers with no political agenda. The role of the contractor as the outsider also causes some managers to treat contractors as confidants with whom they can have frank, honest conversations without worrying about the political ramifications. The pure logic and impartiality of contractors can add to credibility. Additionally, respect exists for contractors, due to the fact that simply to be hired speaks to the

individual's expertise extending beyond that of fulltime employees. For all of these reasons, it is not unusual for offers of fulltime employment to happen at the end of the contract.

By contrast, NTTF are seen as valuable in terms of what is brought to the classroom due to nonacademic work experience. NTTF bring "professional skills, experience, and contacts from their [previous or current] nonacademic employment that are valuable to their students" (American Association of University Professors [AAUP], 2007). Furthermore, Kezar (2013) notes that "NTTF demonstrated a strong professionalism and willingness to do their best even when *not* treated as professionals and when constrained in their capacity and opportunity to work by negative cultures" but that destructive and neutral cultures "made the opportunity to perform extremely difficult" (p. 179).

There is some acknowledgement among researchers that NTTF bringing real world experience into the classroom that is of value to their students (Gappa & Leslie, 1993). There also is a sense among researchers that NTTF are dedicated teachers (Kezar, 2014). When private sector research on contractual labor is compared to NTTF research, what becomes apparent is that NTTF research tends to focus solely on the perspective of the NTTF and not on the perspective of the department chair who hired the NTTF. One of the reasons to identify department chairs during the survey is to better understand what department chairs value?

Office space and furnishings can be indicators of status within an organization. Private sector contractors are often designated to space that had been repurposed or the furniture and equipment is substandard, especially when compared to that available to fulltime employees (Barley & Kunda, 2004). Most often, contractors have access to the same equipment as fulltime employees. By contrast, Duncan (1998) claims that NTTF typically have "no campus offices, mailboxes, or telephones" (p. 527). As a parallel to NTTF, Barley and Kunda (2004) found a

sense of a social stratification where private sector contractors "participated in the work but did not belong" and were "viewed as outsiders" (p. 187).

Duncan (1998) describes NTTF as an isolated role in which meaningful social or professional contact is limited or non-existent. Ballantyne, Berret, and Harst (2010) discovered that NTTF are often not included in the governing process. Burk (2000) states that part-time faculty suffer due to a lack of respect in the department and she describes an overarching sentiment of "disconnect," whether physical in terms of a lack of office space, mailbox, parking, etc. or a lack of connection with fulltime faculty (p. 146). In a recent article that demonstrates the consistency of this trend, Dolan (2011) notes that "educational administrators often appear to concentrate solely on the accomplishments of tasks, disregarding the importance of nurturing relational, social, and personal ties with telecommuting staff" (p. 63). Furthermore, Dolan (2011) views the lack of a support system as being counterproductive noting that NTTF suffer from a "sense of isolation from management and peers" (p. 65). Additionally, Dolan (2011) found common themes of unhappiness with compensation and feeling undervalued. Management failed to "request instructors input on matters of academic concern" (Dolan, 2011, p. 70). In a similar light, Cassebaum (2001) and Fagan-Wilen, Springer, Ambrosino, and White (2006) found that NTTF feel a sense of invisibility.

One possible explanation for this is that managers sometimes view contractual employees as commodities—interchangeable with any other like person hired to satisfy a specific want or need (Barley & Kunda, 2004). A value-added aspect of contractors is the expectation that the contractor requires less management than a fulltime employee. Contractors are hired by managers with a "sink or swim mentality" (Barley & Kunda, 2004, p. 177). If the person is not already fully proficient, and fails to meet the needs of the organization, the contract is

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terminated. This would appear to be similar to how NTTF are hired. Dissimilar to NTTF, contractors within the IT profession often meet with the manager to set base expectations. Contractors within this profession also have some control over the content of the contract. A contractor might set base expectations through negotiations or negotiate a higher salary. Most contractors report having little to no interaction with the manager during the contract, often only speaking to them at the end of the contract about contract renewal. Exceptions to this include the contractor violating the terms of the contractor, behavioral problems, and the organizational culture that might encourage or discourage interaction (Barley & Kunda, 2004).

While the before mentioned view of NTTF, and contractual labor in general, is part of the story, it is by no means the entire story. Based upon organizational culture, some organizations make the conscious choice to treat contractual labor similar to fulltime employees in terms of benefits and interaction (Barley & Kunda, 2004). Kezar (2013) noted that there are differences in departmental cultures as those departments relate to NTTF. In her research some cultures are quite open and welcoming, other cultures are neutral or indifferent, and only a relatively few cultures are negative (Kezar, 2013). What is less well understood is how this might change, dependent upon academic discipline. It is also important to note that while NTTF appear to consider teaching as a point of great pride and satisfaction, what is not understood is the degree to which tenured faculty view teaching in the same way. As academic discipline does seem to be major driver of tenured faculty culture (Becher, 1992) there are likely differences in how teaching is valued among academic disciplines. If so, it is also likely that the degree to which the academic discipline values teaching could likely affect tenured faculty perception of NTTF.

Research demonstrates that the majority of NTTF receive satisfaction from their jobs, due to their love of teaching, their love of interaction with students, their love of the field in which

they teach, and their love of the institution for which they work (AAUP, 2007; Jamieson, 2009). However, in terms of opportunities for achievement, recognition, promotion, and growth, NTTF receive little to no support in higher education. Feldman and Turnley (2001) draw a similar conclusion in that "the most positive aspects of non-tenured-track jobs involve the work itself and relationships with professional colleagues" but that " poor financial packages and lack of promotional opportunities are clearly the most dissatisfying aspects of these positions" (Feldman & Turnley, 2001, p. 12). Feldman and Turnley (2001) conclude that many adjuncts remain in their jobs because of their attachment to their profession" (Feldman & Turnley, 2001, p. 12). What this study does not articulate is the nature of these professional relationships and what defines their profession. The nature and application of relationships and profession might be very different for tenured faculty versus NTTF.

Barley and Kunda (2004) discovered that private sector contractors learn to cope with the status of being a perpetual outsider in a number of ways. First, some contractors focus solely on the letter of the contract. The criticism of this choice by fulltime employees is that it represents a mercenary approach. Other contractors take the opposite approach by going over and above what the contract demands, so as to produce a quality product. This group risks criticism if the fulltime employees feel threatened by the contractor doing work that exceeds the quality of the work done by fulltime employees. Some contractors build reputations based solely on technical skills, while other contractors recognized the importance of relationships and spend a considerable amount of time building relationships with fulltime employees, especially during the early stages of the contract. Perhaps one of the more interesting coping mechanisms for contractors is one of dissociation. Internally the contractor accepts that nothing can change his or her status as an outsider. Rather than build a sense of value around loyalty or group acceptance, contractors often

create a sense of self-worth on "being detached specialists," thereby framing the outsider status into a sense of positive worth (Barley & Kunda, 2004, p. 216).

Outsider Status: Women and Minority Faculty

While the principal focus of this research is on the statistically significant difference between tenured track faculty and NTTF, as displayed by quadrant of the Competing Values (OCAI), the second part of the overarching research question relates to variables that might also constitute outsider status. Two of these variables, gender and minority faculty status, are worthy of examination as there are certain parallels in terms of these groups' experience with the NTTF experience. As shall be shown, NTTF are not the only faculty group that experience feelings of oppression.

Vaccaro (2010) studied campus climate for female students at a predominantly White university. Vaccaro (2010) discovered in her study that female students tended to have more intergroup contacts, experienced fewer stereotypes, and longed for more in-depth diversity conversations than male students. Male students saw the absence of discussion on tolerance and acceptance to be a positive aspect of the environment. As such, males tended to avoid such conversations. In addition, males demonstrated tendencies of outright hostility towards diversity efforts, and showed signs of symbolic racism and general resentment towards the liberal bias of the university (Vaccaro, 2010).

What is important about Vaccaro's study as it relates to faculty culture, is that Vaccaro (2010) concludes that there is an overarching male culture on campus that is going through the motions of being concerned about issues of social justice and equity, but due to the general dislike of the subject makes sure that these efforts never gain any real traction. In support of this position Howard-Hamilton (2009), in a collection of essays by faculty who are women of color,

provides numerous personal examples of how this group experienced an unwelcoming climate in higher education. Keenan (2015) extrapolates upon this idea as it relates to NTTF. Keenan (2015) states that efforts to draw attention to issues of inequity, as they relate to NTTF, demonstrate that both men and women faculty are indifferent and/or hostile towards the issue. Keenan (2015) concludes that the issue is not simply one of men and women, race, or class, but rather one of an overarching culture that tends to treat issues of equity and diversity with indifference and/or hostility if the issue does not directly affect the individual. Vaccaro (2010) draws a similar conclusion in that issues of bias cannot be addressed or resolved separately. Rather, it is the superficial treatment of issues of equity and diversity on college campuses that is the problem. There is other research to support this phenomenon; LaDuke (2009), Johnson (2006), and Goodman (2001) also describe various forms of resistance to diversity efforts, which include denying that there is an issue, minimizing the problem, focusing on good intentions, and avoiding difficult issues.

Feelings of being an outsider are not without consequence. One of the things discovered in the "Undergraduate Teaching Faculty: The 2010-2011 HERI Faculty Survey," is that women faculty are more stressed than male faculty in areas such as child care, dual-career couples, and care for elderly parents. Overall, women report subtle discrimination at a rate twice as high as men. A factor shared by both women and minorities is stress over finances. In both cases, these groups feels less secure in being able to maintain employment, due to perceived discrimination. There is evidence to support this: at the time of the survey, 22.3% of women faculty had attained the rank of full professor versus 39.5% of the men surveyed. In addition, women hold the position of part-time faculty in higher numbers than men.

Another fact that is uncovered in the "Undergraduate Teaching Faculty: The 2010-2011 HERI Faculty Survey" is that minority faculty members experience stress more frequently than White faculty members, due to perceived discrimination and feelings of isolation. As to discrimination, 63.6% of Black faculty members and 42.6% of Hispanic faculty members cited subtle discrimination in this study versus only 24.7% of White faculty. In support of this conclusion, Stanley (2006) in *Faculty of Color: Teaching in Predominately White Colleges and Universities*, concluded that faculty of color are more stressed than their White colleagues, due to perceived feelings of alienation and isolation. Of the roughly 23,000 respondents of the HERI Faculty Survey, over 20,000 of them self-reported as White, whereas only 556 faculty self-reported as Black. In *Women in Academic Leadership: Professional Strategies and Personal Choices*, Ummerson (2009) states that one of the barriers women face in higher education is that it a structure created for and by White men. Women of color are especially challenged, with few women of color occupying positions of academic leadership (Ummerson, 2009). Finally, a recurring theme with Ummerson (2009) is the idea that there are negative ramifications with being outspoken on issues of race and gender equity.

Thus, there are several salient themes that very well may apply to NTTF. First, higher education culture is one that is often characterized as indifferent and/or hostile towards issues of internal equity (Vaccaro, 2010). Second, even when feelings are expressed, the feelings tend to be solely for one's group. Sociologists refer to this tendency as homophily, or the tendency of people to associate and bond with similar people (McPherson, Smith-Lovin, & Cook, 2001). According to this theory, women would support women's equity and minorities would support minority equity. This might help to explain indifference to issues of inequity with NTTF. Third, representing one's self-interest as a part of a group that feels it is being treated unfairly comes

with fears of negative repercussions. For example, a NTTF contract might not get renewed. As NTTF are particularly vulnerable in this regard, this could serve as a deterrent to complain.

NTTF: A Question of Professionalism

One way of examining culture is to pay close attention to what a group tends to value. As such, it is impossible to review the literature on NTTF without spending some time examining the question of the professionalism of NTTF. In fact, the degree to which a NTTF is professional is one of the most prevalent research topics surrounding NTTF may reveal more about the perception of tenured faculty toward NTTF than it does about the nature of NTTF professionalism. As the research will demonstrate, when provided with the same level of support, the quality of instruction provided by NTTF tends to be equal to that of tenured faculty (Curtis & Jacobe, 2006).

What is typically associated with being considered a professional is that the professional possesses a specific body of knowledge, goes through formal training programs, often is required to be licensed by some governmental agency, and belongs to professional organizations that defend the profession from encroachment by other occupations (Friedson, 1973). Each component deserves examination as it relates to faculty.

Professional organizations set professional standards that help to maintain the status of the profession. One such organization for faculty is the AAUP. In the AAUP "Statement on Professional Ethics," there are two recurring themes that combine to create the foundation of academic freedom. First, professors are responsible for the creation of knowledge through rigorous research and self-discipline (AAUP, 2009). Second, professors are responsible for the transmission of knowledge to students, peers, and society (AAUP, 2009). What is considered by the AAUP to be one of the principle underpinnings necessary for academic freedom is tenure.

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AAUP (2009) defines tenure as "an arrangement whereby faculty members, after successful completion of a period of probationary service, can be dismissed for adequate cause or other possible circumstances and only after a hearing before a faculty committee" (p. 1).

The idea that contracted employees produce subpar results is not the sole province of higher education. There also exists a negative perception of private sector contractors by both management and employees on a perceived lack of commitment to the organization (Barley & Kunda, 2004). Barley and Kunda (2004) assert that a part of the culture of white-collar employment is loyalty to the firm. It is not unusual for the individual to see the organization as part of their identity and to have an emotional connection with it. Sacrifice, in terms of long hours worked for which the employee may not be paid, is seen as an attribute of a loyal employee. This cultural bias can manifest in fulltime employees who perceive the attitude of many contractors as doing only the bare minimum, cutting corners, and sacrificing quality (Barley & Kunda, 2004). This is not dissimilar to criticism NTTF receive in higher education in terms of quality of instruction.

Kuh (2003) has written extensively on practices in higher education that aid in student learning and student retention, of which one is student-faculty interaction. Yet, Selingo (2013) stated that "colleges have been slowly diminishing this benefit by hiring more part time professors who cannot spend as much time interacting with students outside of the classroom" (p. 150). Benjamin (2002) indicates that NTTF have fewer contact hours with students outside of classes, less availability for office hours, and are often assigned lower-division courses. Furthermore, Benjamin (2002) finds that NTTF with relevant work experience may benefit students in more hands-on or vocational courses. Overall, the author concludes that the increasing numbers of NTTF are negatively influencing student experiences (Benjamin, 2002).

Contrariwise, in a book published in 2003, the author draws a different conclusion; Benjamin (2002) criticizes higher education administration for its failure to provide strong undergraduate learning environments, due to the increased hiring of NTTF that receive little support, and he concludes that there is limited evidence showing a significant detrimental effect in the classroom by using NTTF.

Eagan and Jaeger (2008) studied, over a five-year period, the likelihood of students to transfer from a community college to a four-year institution, based upon the levels of their exposure to NTTF. A strong negative correlation was discovered; students who had received the most instruction from NTTF were less likely to transfer. However, the study also noted that a potential remedy for this is the availability of part-time faculty to interact with students and encouraged community colleges to work on this issue, as well as job satisfaction of part-time faculty (Eagan & Jaeger, 2008). Eagan and Jaeger (2008) found that 60% of the students most likely to transfer are part-time students who were often being taught by part-time faculty. Therefore, part-time faculty had the greatest opportunity to impact students transferring to a four-year institution. Gross and Goldhaber (2009) drew similar conclusions; their research concluded that for every 10% increase in tenured faculty at a two-year college, there is a 4% increase in students transferring to four-year colleges or universities. Ehrenberg and Zhang (2004) studied the effects of increased proportions of part-time and fulltime NTTF on five- and six-year graduation rates at several two- and four-year institutions from 1988 to 1997. They discovered that as the proportions of part-time and fulltime NTTF increased, graduation rates decreased (Ehrenberg & Zhang, 2004). Ehrenberg and Zhang (2004) also noted that an increase in NTTF did not cause an increase in the amount of research done by tenured faculty, despite the argument that NTTF free up tenured faculty to do more research by taking on large undergraduate courses.

Harrington and Schibik (2001) studied 7,174 first-time, fulltime freshmen at a Midwestern university between 1997 and 2001. They found that increased exposure to NTTF is associated with lower second semester retention rates, the lowest grade point averages (GPAs), and fewer attempted credit hours (Harrington & Schibik, 2001). Of particular note is Harrington and Schibik's (2001) conclusion that combining NTTF with first-year students, especially with low achieving first-year students, could have a significant negative impact on student success and retention. Jacoby (2006) studied student-to-faculty ratio at community colleges. Results indicated that a high number of part-time faculty had a negative impact on student graduation. An interesting aspect of this study is that it found that when classroom size is reduced to smaller classes, there is no significant difference between part-time faculty and fulltime tenured faculty. The conclusion is that there may not be a difference in the quality of teaching from NTTF to TF; rather, part-time faculty are provided with limited resources, which negatively affected the ability to interact with students on a regular basis outside of the classroom, and when combined with the propensity of colleges to give NTTF large classes, it contributed to lower levels of student performance (Jacoby, 2006). Finally, Jaeger and Eagan (2009) studied dropout rates of students at community colleges in comparison to the students' levels of exposure to part-time faculty. Jaeger and Eagan (2009) concluded that in instances where part-time faculty taught at least half of a student's courses, there was at least a 5% decrease in the student's likelihood of graduating with an associate's degree. As had been the case with similar studies, it was concluded that administrators improving the working conditions for part-time faculty, and actively working with part-time faculty to increase their opportunities for engagement with the students outside of the classroom, could have alleviated this problem (Benjamin, 2002; Jacoby, 2006; Jaeger & Eagan, 2009).

Not all research supports the idea that NTTF negatively affect student grades, student retention and graduation rates. Most of this research centers on four-year institutions. Bettinger and Long (2004) conducted a study of 25,000 first-time freshmen at 12 public, four-year institutions in Ohio to see if there is an effect on student academic behavior, choice of major, and student success in subsequent courses. The researchers found no significant adverse effect on students who took courses taught by NTTF. Bettinger and Long (2004) found that young, inexperienced NTTF could have somewhat of a negative effect on students, but by contrast, NTTF in technical or professional fields, such as business or architecture, had a positive effect on student performance, which is due perhaps to their ability to relate real life experiences in the classroom. In a separate study in 2010, Bettinger and Long (2010) drew similar conclusions. No significant detrimental effects could be found by NTTF teaching students. While there was some variance from major to major in terms of students' performance, this research revealed a positive correlation with students being taught in professions such as business, as well as in the sciences. In 2010, Jaeger and Eagan (2010) studied six public four-year institutions and discovered that the extent of a student's exposure to NTTF negatively affected retention to the second year. By contrast, Jaeger and Eagan (2010) discovered that part-time faculty at doctoral-intensive institutions had a positive effect on retention. Upon closer examination of the cause, it was discovered that doctoral-intensive institutions are intentional in providing part-time faculty with additional support often not seen in other institutions (Jaeger & Eagan, 2010). For example, part-time faculty are invited to faculty orientation and provided extra training to help them address some of the challenges of larger class sizes. The authors concluded that when administration is intentional in its integration of part-time faculty into campus, it serves to increase student retention and student success overall (Jaeger & Eagan, 2010). In 2008, Umbach (2008) studied

how often NTTF interacted with students in a population of 20,616 faculty members, of which 16% are part-time appointments. While it varied by type of institution, this research concluded that part-time faculty spent far less time preparing for class instructions and meeting with students than tenured faculty. The conclusion drawn was that this is due primarily to a lack of institutional support (Umbach, 2008).

What are the common themes? First, research often focuses on community colleges and not four-year institutions. Second is the question of whether NTTF negatively affect student grades and retention. Tentatively, there seems to some research to indicate that NTTF do negatively affect student grades and retention (Benjamin, 2002; Jacoby, 2006; Jaeger & Eagan, 2009). This led to the third theme which is that, even in instances where there seems to be a negative correlation between the utilization of NTTF and student success, most authors conclude that the issue is structural and could be remedied with greater institutional support of NTTF and PT faculty. In fact, in instances where it is observed that NTTF and PT faculty are on an even playing field with tenured faculty in terms of institutional support, the impact on student grades, retention, and graduation is equivalent to tenured faculty (Bettinger & Long, 2004; Jaeger & Eagan, 2010; Umbach, 2008). Curtis and Jacobe (2006) conducted both qualitative and quantitative work that supports these conclusions. Their work concluded that a major impediment to student and NTTF interaction is structural. NTTF are often not provided with adequate resources by the college or university, so as to be able to frequently interact with students, despite the fact that efforts to increase students' academic engagement are considered to be a key component to improving the educational experience of students (Curtis & Jacobe, 2006).

Pivotal to this research, studies have shown that departmental culture, a lack of policies and practices, and poorly written policies can affect NTTF performance (Gappa, Austin, & Trice, 2007) and that "departmental culture plays a pivotal role in faculty performance" (Kezar, 2013, p. 154). Feldman and Turnley (2001) also concluded that there exist a number of opportunities for higher education leaders to improve classroom performance of NTTF, such as "advance notice of assignments," "better orientation at the beginning of their employment," and "more communication with their supervisors, more mentoring from senior colleagues, and greater integration into their work groups in general" (p. 13).

The Competing Values Framework

Before providing a description of the Competing Values Framework it is important to explain how this framework was selected as a result of themes that have emerged through the literature review. Culture is often studied qualitatively (Creswell, 2009; Martin, 2002). This is not necessarily the best methodology to study culture. Picking the appropriate research method requires at least a general understanding of the population being studied. Principal to this present study is the idea that higher education is composed of multiple subcultures believed to be influenced by a variety of factors. Martin (1992) refers to this paradigm as a pluralistic or fragmentation perspective. What changes from researcher to researcher is what the researcher believes to be a dominant factor(s) influencing the culture such as the role or roles of the individual as managerial, professional staff, or discipline based faculty but also more nuanced factors such as social groups of faculty and students, peer groups organized by special interest or physical proximity, and office location which among faculty is often organized by academic discipline (Tierney, 1988). Regardless of the factors determined by the researcher, or how

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influential each researcher believes the factor to be, what is consistent is the fragmented nature of higher education culture.

Qualitative research in the form of interviews requires that the study continue until the researcher begins to notice trends in repeated responses (Creswell, 2009). This can be problematic in a fragmented culture. If, for example, thirty interviews are undertaken in a university with hundreds of faculty, and possibly dozens of subcultures, many trends may be observed but with little overall consistency. If an overarching trend is discovered it is possible that all thirty individuals might represent a single subculture. Rather than try to find uniformity in responses that is representative of an overarching culture by utilizing qualitative research quantitative cultural research attempts to discover the pieces of a fragmented culture and then determine how the pieces fit together, and in some cases overlap, on both an individual and organizational level (Kuh & Whitt, 1988). Principal to the present study is the idea that tenured faculty and NTTF culture most likely overlap. The degree to which this is true is not known.

A second understanding gleaned from the literature review is that higher education culture in general, and faculty culture specifically, can be defined in terms of cultural boundaries that are both rigid and porous. These boundaries are changing. As one moves through the literature from Biglan (1973a) to Kezar (2013) a theme emerges. What begins as rigid boundaries with little connection to other subcultures begins to breakdown. Later researchers describe factors that overlap on an individual and organizational level such as institutional type or leadership style (Kezar, 2013; Kuh & Whitt, 1988). Yet another example of this broadening of culturally significant factors for faculty is evident in the work of Parker (2015) who found that people in higher education affiliate with a wide variety of groups on the basis of gender, education, age, length of employment and/or tenured, job location and job description. As the

literature review also demonstrates through an examination of the historical context, the breakdown of traditionally rigid cultural boundaries is not only happening in faculty culture but in higher education culture. Beginning in the 1970s, increased expectation of accessibility and accountability, forced higher education to engage more with the outside world then in the recent past (Selingo, 2013). Universities worldwide are under ever-increasing pressure to adapt to rapidly changing technology, political forces, economic realities, and social change (Bartell, 2003). It is a widely held belief among department chairs in higher education that change is happening at an ever-increasing pace in higher education (Hellawell & Hancock, 2001).

A theme throughout the research is that each subculture exist simultaneously as both culturally discrete and culturally interdependent with other subcultures. For example, tenured faculty are believed to belong to an overarching faculty culture while also belonging to a culture specific to the academic discipline to which the person belongs (Becher, 1992; Biglan, 1973a). Administrative cultures are also believed to shape faculty culture especially as it relates to decision making and governance (Rusico, 1985). When what had traditionally been a rigid boundary with few connections to other subcultures seems to have becomes a more porous boundary with greater connections with other subcultures this can create conflict both internal to the individual and the subculture. For example, as a department chair – an administrative duty- the individual might be forced to make administrative decisions that are at odds with the faculty culture to which the individual also belongs. The rigid boundary of academic discipline that defines a subculture might suddenly find itself in conflict with the introduction of NTTF. Therefore, the quantitative tool utilized in this present study must be able to recognize subcultures due to the fragmented nature of faculty culture. It must also be able to identify competing values both within and between individuals and within and between subcultures.

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Finally, the tool must be able to recognize that in ways two subcultures can overlap to varying degrees. The Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) is one such tool.

The OCAI questionnaire (see Appendix C) is based on the Competing Values Framework (CVF) developed by Cameron and Quinn (2011). It was originally created for higher education. Each culture is a combination of up to four different cultural types: Clan, Adhocracy, Hierarchy, and Market. The OCAI assumes that values are competing and the existence of multiple subcultures that overlap in cultural values. The individual completes a questionnaire that rate the person across the four cultural types. For example, an individual's cultural identify might show a seventy-five percent Adhocracy with the remaining 25% spread out among the other three cultural types. As previous stated, what researchers posit as being both culturally significant in faculty culture varies. What does not vary is that the influencing factors are demographical. By gathering substantial demographic information in combination with the OCAI a regression analysis is used to detect subcultures. Once this data is gathered, mean scores can be computed for each of the four organizational types on both the basis of the entire population and on the basis of subcultures which can then be compared to each other and the general population. Chi-squared goodness-of-fit tests can be performed to determine whether there exists a statistically significant difference between subcultures. What is beneficial from the OCAI as a management tool is that each questionnaire ask the individual to describe the culture as it is currently and the culture as the person would like to see it in five years. This provides an opportunity to note areas that might be problematic for individuals or subcultures indicated by the disparity between the perceived culture in its present state and the culture in its future state.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The overarching purpose of this research is to gain a better understanding of faculty culture in its entirety inclusive of multiple disciplines and across the spectrum of what it means to be faculty. This chapter describes the methodology used for this research study. This chapter includes sections that detail the research question and related hypothesis, the instrument used and the rationale for its use, the subjects of the study, and the procedures for implementation and analysis of data. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyze the data collected from the OCAI.

This study is quantitative in nature. This study of the cultural congruence of faculty at a large, public doctorate-granting university is a descriptive and inferential study using information from responses from faculty utilizing two sources: (1) the first part of the questionnaire will gather descriptive data from the participant, and (2) the second part of the questionnaire will have the participant answer questions utilizing the OCAI.

Research Questions

The purpose of this study is to understand the degree to which NTTF and TF cultures are different, and what causes these differences? The hypotheses examine the cultural congruence between tenured faculty and NTTF and determine the relationship, if any, among variables such as age, gender, race/ethnicity, years of service, fulltime versus part-time status, administrative responsibilities, and academic discipline.

Using this question, the following hypotheses were developed in order to better understand if relationships exist between tenured faculty and NTTF, as well as between faculty,

based upon select demographic variables of the participants in a large, doctoral-granting university. The hypothesis will be accepted at an alpha of .05.

Hypothesis One

There is a statistically significant difference between TF and NTTF as displayed by quadrant of the Competing Values Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI). This hypothesis used a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) to test the hypothesis that the means of both TF and NTTF are equal to each other.

Hypothesis Two

There is statistically significant difference between faculty, as displayed by the quadrant of the Competing Values OCAI based on age, gender, race/ethnicity, years of service, fulltime versus part-time status, administrative responsibilities, and academic discipline. This hypothesis used a MANOVA to test the hypothesis that the means of faculty are equal to each other on the before mentioned variables.

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Sample

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The population being studied for this research project consists of the teaching faculty of a large, public doctorate granting university in the southeastern United States. The reason this type of institution was chosen is due to its size, scope, and tracking methods of faculty. In 2014, this university had 22,252 undergraduates and 4,568 graduate students, along with 691 professional students, for a total fall enrollment of 27,511 (Retrieved from www.ecu.edu/ipar/). This university also tracks NTTF in an easy-to-identify manner utilizing the Delaware study. Employment status is broken down at the departmental level and is categorized as regular faculty who are tenured or tenure eligible; other regular faculty which are NTTF that the chair expects to remain as part of the permanent workforce of the department; and supplemental faculty which

are short-term, temporary staffing additions. A review of the Delaware report demonstrates that this university uses a large number of NTTF across multiple departments.

Instrumentation

OCAI

Each subject was asked to voluntarily complete the OCAI instrument (Appendix C). The OCAI consists of six key dimensions of the organizational culture with four alternatives (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Each of the six key dimensions is divided into four alternatives, which are labeled - A, B, C, D. The four alternatives are in two columns, named "now" and "preferred". Each participant was asked to rate the organization, which for the purpose of this research, is the academic department in which the individual works. Each participant was instructed that they have 100 points to divide up among the four alternatives on the basis of what the individual perceives to be the state of the organization, as it exists now. Next, the person was asked to do the same thing for the preferred column. The participant was instructed that the ranking for the preferred column should be where the person believes that the organization should be in five years for it to be very successful. Scoring the responses requires that each column be summed and divided by six. This was done for both the now and preferred columns.

Personal Data Questionnaire

Some of the main components of faculty culture is teaching, research advisement, administration, and public service (Finkelstein, 1984). While this describes a general overarching faculty culture it is a widely held belief that faculty is composed of many subcultures (Becher, 1992; Biglan, 1973a). A subculture is a subset of a larger group that interact regularly with one another, see the members of the group as distinct from other members of the larger group, share a set of problems, and take action on an individual and group basis of a collective understanding

that is unique to that group (Van Maanen & Barley, 1985). For example, in higher education

Tierney (1988) posits that the numerous subcultures of higher education include academic

discipline, managerial, professional staff, social groups of faculty and students, peer groups as

defined by special interest or physical proximity and office location which among faculty is often

arranged by academic discipline. Schein (1970) explains that understanding what makes a person

a member of a subculture is adherence to pivotal values but subcultures also possess peripheral

values which members are not required to follow to belong to the group and which can vary

greatly from individual to individual and from subculture to subculture. As there are most likely

multiple variables that make up a subculture detecting and mapping subcultures requires

gathering substantial demographic information and to then identity the statistical strength of a

variable. This can provide an indicator of pivotal and peripheral values.

The personal data questionnaire (see Appendix A) pulls almost all of its questions

directly from the Higher Education Research Institute (HERI) survey (Hurtado, Eagan, Pryor,

Whang, & Tran, 2011), with the exception of Question 12, which asks for years of service. The

HERI survey is a highly validated survey that had been in existence for a number of years and is

housed at the University of California at Los Angeles (UCLA). The HERI survey is far more

extensive in gathering personal data than the 22 questions being asked in this research. The

questions were handpicked, based on the relevance to what the questions might expose about the

differences between NTTF and TF culture. The questions also allow this research to

juxtaposition a well-established, validated survey with the OCAI, thereby allowing a cultural

profile to be built based upon both components.

Data Collection

Permission to use the Competing Values Framework was obtained upon permission of the dissertation committee and the Institutional Research Board (IRB) to move to the research stage. The survey was completed in November 2016. Additional information collected over and above the data normally collected by the Competing Values Framework are questions to determine age, gender, race/ethnicity, years of service, fulltime versus part-time status, TF versus NTTF, administrative responsibilities and academic discipline.

Procedures for Implementation

Both the instrument and overall content of the study were reviewed by the IRB. The survey was sent out to all faculty and staff at the university on the university listserv in an e-mail with an invitation to participate in the study. The invitation introduced the study, provided an estimated time of completion, and described the instrument, goals of the study, and advantages of participating in the study. The survey was attached to an e-mail as a link. Participants responded to the survey by using the link to fill out the survey. The link also had a consent form allowing the use of the data in the aggregate while assuring that no data will be shared in publication with personal identifiers. Reminders were sent out at both the two and four weeks mark after the initial survey was distributed but only to those faculty who had not completed it. Data is stored in a secure location on the personal computer of the researcher.

Data Analysis

A MANOVA was used to determine if a relationship exists between NTTF and tenured faculty, while considering such factors as age, gender, race/ethnicity, years of service, fulltime versus part-time status, administrative responsibilities, and academic discipline. A MANOVA was used because it provides information on the nature and predictive powers of the independent

measures. A MANOVA also assesses whether there is an overall difference between the two groups.

Descriptive analysis were used to organize and summarize the data gathered through the utilization of SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Science) software. SPSS reports the data in frequency distributions with means and standard deviation.

Summary

This chapter describes the research question and the hypotheses used to inform and guide the study. It defines the instruments, describes the population, and explained procedures for analysis of data. Chapter 4 presents a detailed analysis of the data gathered, as it relates to the research question and hypotheses.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

Hypotheses

The literature review documents research that supports the perception of NTTF as outsiders (Dolan, 2011; Meixner et al., 2010) and that questions the quality of instruction provided by NTTF (Benjamin, 2002; Jacoby, 2006; Jaeger & Eagan, 2009). The results of the quality of instruction research reiterated the theme that the NTTF group performed as well as, if not better in some instances, than tenured faculty when given the same support and resources. No prior research was uncovered that examines the cultural differences between NTTF and TF faculty. Hypothesis 1 (H1) asks how culturally different NTTF are from TF based on faculty status alone. Hypothesis 2 (H2) considers what other variables create differences in faculty culture.

Hypothesis One

There is a statistically significant difference between TF and NTTF as displayed by quadrant of the Competing Values Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI). This hypothesis used a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) to test the hypothesis that the means of both TF and NTTF are equal to each other.

Hypothesis Two

There is statistically significant difference between faculty, as displayed by the quadrant of the Competing Values OCAI based on age, gender, race/ethnicity, years of service, fulltime versus part-time status, administrative responsibilities, and academic discipline. This hypothesis used a MANOVA to test the hypothesis that the means of faculty are equal to each other on the before mentioned variables.

Methodology

Participants

Though the initial survey respondents totaled 397 faculty members, not all of these participants finished the study. Since participants were allowed to skip parts of the survey not applicable to their specific employment status, the number of respondents to each question varies. There are 10 participants who identified as having administrative responsibilities: one Dean and nine department chairs. A total of 62 individuals identified as part-time employees. Respondents were drawn from 72 different departments and 21 different colleges or non-academic areas. Of the 168 respondents who identified their gender, 45% are males and 55% are females. Seventeen percent of the 171 participants who identified their race are from racial and/or ethnic minority populations. The group ranged in age from 22 to 85 years old.

Procedure

Through a consultation with the Office of Institutional Planning and Research (IPAR) at East Carolina University, I obtained an e-mail list of employees who had taught at least one class in fall 2016. I emailed these individuals a request for participation that included a link to an anonymous survey collection instrument. This survey was administered using Qualtrics in late November through mid-December of 2016. Two reminders were later sent to recipients who had not completed the survey. The stated purpose of my research was to examine the differences in culture between TF and NTTF, and the variables that influenced these differences. The survey accomplished this through an assessment of cultural differences through the OCAI, and exploration of work place perceptions and actions. Survey completion was entirely voluntary.

Measures

Prior to their taking the survey, I provided prospective respondents with a standardized definition of the term "faculty" as a common frame of reference. For the purposes of the study, faculty are defined as anyone who taught at least one class in one semester in the last year. This definition was left intentionally broad for two reasons. First, the survey is meant to capture the diversity of those teaching in higher education to the fullest extent possible. Second, it is intended to overcome an individual's propensity to identify as either faculty or non-faculty based on the individual's definition of faculty.

Analyses

The independent variables analyzed for the purpose of this study included tenured status, race, part time vs. full-time status, and gender. The survey did, however, capture other data that are not used in the analysis. There are 86 departments represented in the study, with a minimum of one respondent and a maximum of 20 respondents per department. As the sample sizes are too small for statistical analysis, I removed this independent variable from the study. Likewise, I omitted data pertaining to survey questions about administrative responsibilities due to a scarcity of responses, with only ten participants providing answers on the topic. Age is not included, as there was no statistically significant difference between ages. Finally, due to the fact that none of the minority populations that responded are large enough to perform a statistical analysis (a combined total of only 29 respondents identified as belonging to minority groups), I established a single, all-encompassing minority category for the purposes of this study.

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OCAI Assessments and Results

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The OCAI assessment tool is a two-step questionnaire designed to measure the prominence of each of the four organizational culture types, as defined by Cameron and Quinn's

(2011) Competing Values Framework, within a given organization or group. Respondents answer questions that determine the balance of these four organizational culture types (Clan, Adhocracy, Market, or Hierarchy) according to their current experience. Next, respondents answer the questionnaire in terms of what they would prefer to see for their organization in the future. Scores from these assessments allow the researcher to establish an organizational culture profile and ascertain collective preferences and desire for change. The following sections outline the OCAI assessment scores within my study.

Dominant Characteristics: Now

This questionnaire indicates that TF perceive Hierarchy to be the existing dominant organizational characteristic, followed by Market, Clan, and Adhocracy. Adhocracy received a maximum score of 50. Among NTTF, the dominant characteristic proved to be Clan, followed by Hierarchy, Market, and Adhocracy. Adhocracy received a maximum score of 50, and Market a maximum score of 75. While there are differences in how NTTF and TF view the existing dominant characteristics of their organization, only Clan is statistically significant at the $p < .05$ level. The responses also indicate a statistically significant difference in male vs. female evaluations of Hierarchy at $p < .05$, and a marginal statistical significance is measured in male vs. female evaluations of Adhocracy at $p < .05$.

Dominant Characteristics: Preferred

Among TF participants, the OCAI assessment resulted in the following ranking of preferred culture types from most dominant to least: Clan, Adhocracy, Market and Hierarchy. Adhocracy received a maximum score of 80, whereas Hierarchy received a maximum score of 35. The preferred dominant characteristic among NTTF respondents is Clan, followed by Adhocracy, Market, and Hierarchy. Market received a maximum score of 60, and Hierarchy

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maxed out at 50. While NTTF and TF groups exhibited different preferential dominant characteristics, only their assessment of Market is statistically significant at $p < .05$. Responses are statistical significance at the $p < .05$ level for Clan culture and Market culture types within employment status, and for Market culture between genders.

Leadership Characteristics: Now

With respect to leadership characteristics present within their organization, TF participants perceive the dominant culture type to be Market, followed by Hierarchy, Clan and Adhocracy. Adhocracy receives a maximum score of 50. NTTF participants assessed the culture types differently, ranking Hierarchy culture as the most dominant, followed by Clan, Market, and Adhocracy. Adhocracy received a maximum score of 70. While there are differences in how NTTF and TF viewed the existing dominant leadership characteristics, only Market showed statistical significance at $p < .05$.

Leadership Characteristics: Preferred

Results from this portion of the survey assessment show that TF participants' preferred leadership type corresponded most strongly with Clan culture followed by Adhocracy, then Hierarchy, and Market. Market received a maximum score of 50, whereas Adhocracy received a maximum score of 80. Among NTTF, the preferred leadership type also favored the Clan culture followed by Hierarchy, Adhocracy, and Market. Market received a maximum score of 35, Adhocracy maxed out at 70, and Hierarchy maxed out at 75. While NTTF and TF populations showed some disparity in preferred leadership characteristics, these differences are statistically marginal. Marginal statistical significance also exists in Hierarchy between gender groups at $p <$ .05.

Management Style: Now

Among TF, management style is perceived as adhering most strongly to the Hierarchy culture type, followed by Clan, Market, and Adhocracy. Adhocracy received a maximum score of 40. Among NTTF, the rankings place Clan culture at the top, followed by Hierarchy, Market, and Adhocracy. Adhocracy received a maximum score of 50. While there is differences in how NTTF and TF viewed the management style, Clan and Hierarchy demonstrated statistical significance at the $p < .05$ level. Statistical significance exists also between genders at the $p < .05$ level in their perception of Market culture.

Management Style: Preferred

TF demonstrated highest preference for a management style characterized by Clan culture, followed by Adhocracy, Hierarchy, and Market, respectively. Adhocracy and Hierarchy each received scores maxing out at 50. Among NTTF, the preferred management style also fell within the Clan culture quadrant, followed by Adhocracy, Hierarchy and Market. The maximum score bestowed on Market culture by a NTTF respondent topped out at 40, while Hierarchy maxed out at 50. Although there are differences in NTTF's and TF's preferred management styles, no statistical significance exists. Statistical significance does exist between males and females in Market culture at the $p < .05$ level, whereas marginal statistical significance exists with race in Market the $p < .05$ level.

Organizational Glue: Now

Responses by TF showed that Hierarchy culture as organizational glue, with Clan, Market, and Adhocracy showing lesser influence. Maximum scores that TF respondents awarded to Adhocracy and Market culture are 50 and 70, respectively. Though their evaluations are weighted slightly differently, NTTF perceived organizational glue identically, with Hierarchy

serving as the dominant culture, followed by Clan, Market and Adhocracy. Adhocracy received a maximum score of 50 from respondents, whereas Market maxed out at 90. No statistical significance was discovered.

Organizational Glue: Preferred

Among TF, the preferred organizational glue proved to be Clan, Adhocracy, Hierarchy, and Market in descending order. Adhocracy and Market were allocated maximum scores of 50 and 70, respectively. Similarly, NTTF ranked Clan as their preferred organizational glue, followed by Adhocracy, Hierarchy, and Market. Among NTTF respondents, Adhocracy received a maximum score of 50, whereas Market maxed out at 90. Though there are minor differences in preference between TF and NTTF respondents, no statistical significance was discovered. Statistical significance was discovered for Market culture between genders at the $p < .05$ level.

Strategic Emphasis: Now

TF respondents perceived Hierarchy as the strongest cultural influence behind strategic emphasis, followed by Market, Clan, and Adhocracy in descending order. A maximum score of 50 was allocated to Adhocracy, whereas Market is assessed at a maximum score of 85. NTTF likewise ranked Hierarchy culture as most the dominant characteristic of strategic emphasis, with Clan, Market, and Adhocracy following. Adhocracy received a maximum score of 50. No statistical significance was discovered.

Strategic Emphasis: Preferred

The preferred strategic emphasis among TF proved to be Clan. Adhocracy, Hierarchy, and Market did not factor as heavily; Adhocracy and Hierarchy received maximum scores of 50. Among NTTF respondents, Clan also proved to be the preferred culture, followed by Adhocracy, Hierarchy, and Market. Market received a maximum score of 40, and Hierarchy received a

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maximum score of 55. No statistical significance was discovered between TF and NTTF groups. Statistical significance was discovered for race in the Clan culture evaluations, and Adhocracy for gender at $p < .05$. Marginal significance was discovered in Adhocracy in employment status, Market in gender at, and Hierarchy in employment status at the $p < .05$ level.

Criteria for Success: Now

TF view the organization's criteria for success as currently belonging primarily within Hierarchy culture, indicating lesser influence from Market, Clan, and Adhocracy cultures. Adhocracy received a maximum score of 70. Among NTTF, Clan culture is perceived to dominate criteria for organizational success, followed by Market, Hierarchy, and Adhocracy. Both Hierarchy and Adhocracy received a maximum score of 90 from NTTF respondents. While there are differences in how NTTF and TF viewed the criteria for success "now", only Clan demonstrated marginal statistical significance at the $p < .05$ level.

Criteria for Success: Preferred

The measure of the preferred criteria for success among TF is ranked as Clan, Hierarchy, Market, and Adhocracy. Market received a maximum score of 50. The preferred criteria for success among NTTF is ranked as Clan, Hierarchy, Market, and Adhocracy. Adhocracy received a maximum score of 50 and Market received a maximum score of 60. While there are differences in how NTTF and TF viewed the preferred criteria for success only Adhocracy demonstrated statistical significance the $p < .05$ level. Statistical significance is discovered in Clan in race and gender in Adhocracy at the $p < .05$ level.

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Workplace Assessment Results

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In addition to the OCAI assessment, I asked participants to evaluate how important they found research, teaching, and service to their profession. The scoring is calculated on a Likert-

type scale: (1) essential, (2) very important, (3) important, (4) somewhat important and, (5) not important. TF found service to be the least important component ($M = 2.32$, $SD = 1.06$), followed by research ($M =1.83$, SD = 1.313) and teaching ($M =1.28$, $SD = .667$). NTTF found research to be the least important component ($M = 3.11$, $SD = 1.313$), followed by service ($M = 2.13$, $SD = .978$) and teaching ($M = 1.28$, $SD = .742$). There is a significant effect for research, $t(174) = 7.606$, $p = .001$.

In terms of course load, responses showed there is very little difference between the number of courses being taught by TF ($M = 3.56$, $SD = 1.11$) and NTTF ($M = 3.61$, $SD = 1.39$). NTTF ($M = 41.41$, $SD = 41.68$) had a higher average classroom size than TF ($M = 35.60$, $SD = 31.01$). I also questioned participants about the types of courses they taught based on a set of predetermined classifications: undergraduate, general education, other undergraduate, undergraduate non-credit course, and graduate course. There is very little difference in course scope between the groups, with the exception of TF having a greater likelihood of teaching graduate courses ($M = .60$, $SD = .492$) than NTTF ($M = .22$, $SD = .416$). This is a significant effect, $t(175) = -5.50$, $p = .000$.

Finally, I asked faculty if they had engaged in any of a number of different professional development opportunities in the last two years. Results showed that only 11.6 % of TF had not engaged in professional development activities in the last two years, as opposed to 45.5% of NTTF who had not. On the whole, findings demonstrated that TF professionals engaged in more widespread development activities, and in greater numbers than NTTF (see Table 1).

The next group of questions focused on each of the professionals' publications and performances in the last two years using a continuous scale of 0 to 25. The greatest difference is found in the number of articles each group had published in academic or professional journals,

Table 1

Professional Development Statistics for TF and NTTF Populations

Professional Development	TF %	NTTF %
Workshops	26.30%	17.10%
Paid Sabbatical Leave	1.10%	0.00%
Travel Funds Paid by Institution	27.40%	3.70%
Internal Grants for Research	11.60%	7.30%
Training for Administrative Leadership	3.30%	9.70%
Incentives to Develop a New Course	7.40%	4.90%
Incentives to Integrate Technology into the Classroom	8.40%	2.40%
None	11.60%	45.51%

with TF (M =3.53, SD = 3.07) having published more than NTTF (M = 2.0, SD = 4.34). There is little difference in participants' reported publication of chapters in edited volumes, with TF reporting only marginally higher numbers of publications (M = 1.66, SD = 1.66) than NTTF (M = 1.52, SD = 5.43). Book, manual, or monograph publications are higher among NTTF (M = 1.35, SD = 4.6) than TF (M = .9286, SD = 1.21). In addition, NTTF (M = 1.45, SD = 5.56) led TF (M = .333, SD = .723) in patent applications or computer software publication. Findings indicate the largest statistical difference between NTTF and TF professionals in the exhibitions or performances category, with NTTF (M = 4.19, SD = 7.60), outperforming TF (M = 3.46, SD = 6.76).

Current Employee Workplace Interactions

The workplace interaction: now questionnaire is measured on a continuous scale from 0 to 25 based on the average number of times a respondent participated in a specified type of workplace interaction per semester. Calculating these responses yielded the finding that TF engage in more personal and professional interactions than NTTF. When I inquired about interactions within and between the two groups, I discovered that both groups are more likely to interact with peers within their own group than with those of a different group. As Table 2 indicates, TF proved more likely than NTTF to engage professionally outside of the department in publishing and service.

Preferred Employee Workplace Interactions

Workplace interaction: preferred is measured on a continuous scale from 0 to 25 based on the average number of times a respondent engaged in specified types of interaction per semester. A summary of the findings for the workplace interaction: preferred questionnaire revealed that both NTTF and TF desire fewer formal interactions such as meetings with the department chair,

Table 2

Summary of Current Employee Workplace Interactions

Question	Faculty	Mean	SD	SIG
Having regularly scheduled meetings with your department chair or dean?	NTTF	3.36	3.26	.459
	Tenured	4.08	4.17	
Attend department meetings?	NTTF	4.64	4.30	.033
	Tenured	4.95	3.15	
Are asked to serve on a committee?	NTTF	2.16	1.92	.188
	Tenured	3.40	2.84	
Have meaningful professional conversations with TF?	NTTF	6.55	5.75	.007
	Tenured	9.28	7.53	
Have meaningful personal conversations with TF?	NTTF	7.03	6.35	.080
	Tenured	9.29	7.76	
Have meaningful professional conversation with non-TF?	NTTF	9.91	6.71	.867
	Tenured	7.94	6.82	
Have meaningful personal conversations with non-TF?	NTTF	9.20	6.50	.367
	Tenured	8.02	6.97	
Publish in a professional or academic journal?	NTTF	.833	.810	.027
	Tenured	1.68	1.30	
Are required to do service as part of your job expectations?	NTTF	4.80	4.79	.052
	Tenured	7.18	6.39	

department meetings, and committee work than what they are currently experiencing. NTTF, however, had a slightly higher desire to meet with the dean or chair than is their current experience. As shown in Table 3, when asked about personal and professional interaction both within and between the groups, both groups demonstrated a desire to engage in more of this type of interaction. In terms of engaging professionally outside of the department in publishing and service both groups desire to do less service and more publishing work.

The next set of questions dealt with student interaction, growth, and development in the classroom. Answers to these questions are calculated on a Likert-type scale: (1) never, (2) occasionally, (3) regularly, (4) frequently, (5) and always. Overall, NTTF demonstrated a greater preference in student interaction, growth, and development than TF (see Table 4).

Part-Time Faculty

One of the findings of the previous research is that there is rarely a clear distinction between full time NTTF and part-time NTTF. This current study broke out part-time NTTF to see if there are differences in NTTF based on this variable. The first set of questions attempted to ascertain the professional aspirations of part-time faculty. The findings showed that 61% of part-time faculty would prefer to teach full-time and that 63% have sought a full-time teaching position. Fifteen percent of respondents reported they had a full-time career outside of academia, and 19% stated they had a full-time career at the university that did not involve teaching (see Table 5).

The second set of questions in Table 6 dealt with the factors motivating faculty to teach part-time. Responses are rated on a Likert scale ranging from: (1) strongly agree, (2) agree, (3) neither agree or disagree, (4) disagree, and (5) strongly disagree.

Table 3

Summary of Preferred Employee Workplace Interactions

Question	Faculty	Mean	SD	SIG
Having regularly scheduled meetings with your department chair or dean?	NTTF	3.83	2.83	.356
	Tenured	4.01	3.81	
Attend department meetings?	NTTF	4.19	3.06	.106
	Tenured	3.85	2.52	
Are asked to serve on a committee?	NTTF	2.19	2.34	.133
	Tenured	2.31	1.36	
Have meaningful professional conversations with TF?	NTTF	9.11	6.93	.426
	Tenured	10.65	7.32	
Have meaningful personal conversations with TF?	NTTF	8.44	6.77	.096
	Tenured	10.06	7.82	
Have meaningful professional conversation with non-TF?	NTTF	10.87	7.53	.559
	Tenured	9.56	6.89	
Have meaningful personal conversations with non-TF?	NTTF	9.43	7.39	.574
	Tenured	9.52	7.52	
Publish in a professional or academic journal?	NTTF	2.59	4.14	.248
	Tenured	2.62	2.60	
Are required to do service as part of your job expectations?	NTTF	3.92	4.70	.757
	Tenured	4.41	5.04	

Table 4

Student Interaction by Faculty Type

Question	Faculty	Mean	SD	SIG
Ask questions in class	NTTF	1.44	.963	.139
	Tenured	1.33	.769	
Support their opinions with a logical argument	NTTF	1.90	1.177	.108
	Tenured	1.74	1.014	
Seek solutions to problems and explain it	NTTF	1.90	1.161	.184
	Tenured	1.63	1.021	
Revise papers to improve their writing	NTTF	2.51	1.340	.662
	Tenured	2.30	1.371	
Evaluate the quality of information they receive	NTTF	2.00	1.134	.842
	Tenured	1.90	1.043	
Take risks for potential gains	NTTF	2.59	1.226	.433
	Tenured	2.65	1.269	
Seek alternative solutions to a problem	NTTF	2.25	1.204	.055
	Tenured	2.00	1.061	
Look up scientific research articles	NTTF	3.04	1.449	.225
	Tenured	2.43	1.309	
Explore their own topics, even though it is not required for class	NTTF	2.62	1.324	.284
	Tenured	2.53	1.191	
Accept mistakes as part of the learning process	NTTF	2.15	1.167	.958
	Tenured	1.96	1.131	
Send feedback on their academic work	NTTF	2.01	1.136	.741
	Tenured	1.77	1.048	
Integrate skills and knowledge from different sources and experiences	NTTF	1.83	1.000	.194
	Tenured	1.84	1.118	

Table 5

Part-Time Faculty Employment Goals

Question	Total	Yes	No
If given the choice, I would prefer to teach full-time at this institution.	62	38	24
Have you ever sought a full-time teaching position at this or another institution?	57	36	21
My full-time professional career is outside academia.	78	12	66
My full-time professional career is at ECU as something other than faculty.	74	14	60

Table 6

Motivating Factors among Part-Time Faculty

Question	Mean	SD
My part-time position is an important source of income for me.	3.40	1.51
Part-time teaching is a stepping-stone to a full-time position.	2.67	1.52
My part-time position provides benefits that I need.	4.67	.577
Teaching part-time fits my current lifestyle.	2.33	.577
Full-time positions are not available.	3.50	2.12
My expertise in my chosen profession is relevant to the course(s) I teach.	1.33	.577
Are given specific training before teaching	2.67	1.52
Rarely get hired into full-time positions	2.50	.707
Receive respect from students	1.67	.577
Are primarily responsible for introductory classes	2.00	1.41
Have no guarantee of employment security	2.33	.577
Are compensated for advising/counseling students	3.33	2.08
Are required to attend meetings	3.67	.577
Have good working relationships with the administration	2.33	1.15
Are respected by full-time faculty	3.33	1.52

The final question for part-time faculty asked the respondent to report the institutional resources available to them in their last teaching term. These percentages are based on the 62 total faculty members who identified as part-time employees (see Table 7).

Workplace Questionnaire Results: PT vs. FT

Survey respondents each answered questions evaluating the importance of research, teaching, and service to their careers. The defined Likert-type ratings are as follows: (1) essential, (2) very important, (3) important, (4) somewhat important, and (5) not important. Full-time faculty found teaching to be the most important (M =1.37, SD = .655), followed by service (M = 2.26, SD = 1.02), and research to be the least important component (M = 2.38, SD = 1.32). Part-time faculty is similar in that it found teaching to be most important (M = 1.40, SD = .799, followed by service (M = 2.26, SD = 1.03), and research as the least important component (M = 2.50, SD = 1.19). There is no statistically significant effect with research, teaching, and service.

In terms of course load, there proved to be very little difference between the number of courses being taught by full-time faculty (M = 3.75, SD = 1.30) and part-time faculty (M = 3.27, SD = 1.09). Full-time faculty (M = 40.31, SD = 42.14) had a higher average classroom size than part-time faculty (M = 34.62, SD = 22.05). Part-time faculty, however, consistently demonstrated a higher median score across course types: undergraduate, general education, other undergraduate, undergraduate non-credit, and graduate courses.

Professional training and development is measured according to the percentage of respondents who had participated in each activity over the last two years. It is discovered that part-time faculty are more likely to have engaged in professional development activity than full time faculty during this period of time, with only 6.3% having completed no professional development in the last two years vs. 43.5% of full time faculty. However, full time faculty who

Table 7

Percentage of Part-Time Faculty with Access to Campus Resources

Resource	Yes	No
Private Office	31.30%	68.66%
Shared Office	11.29%	88.71%
No Office	24.19%	75.81%
Personal Computer	45.16%	54.84%
Phone/Voicemail	40.32%	59.68%
Printing	46.77%	53.23%
Office Mailbox	46.77%	53.23%
Administrative Assistant	16.13%	83.87%
Graduate Assistant	14.52%	85.48%

did engage in professional development activities consistently did so as a higher rate than part-time faculty.

The next group of questions attempted to determine the number of pieces each group had published and the number of performances they had engaged in over the last two years based on a continuous scale of 0 to 25. Results showed that full-time faculty not only published at a higher rate, but that they are also involved in a greater number of exhibitions and/or performances. The greatest difference existed in publications in academic or professional journals, with full-time faculty (M =2.22, SD = 5.86) having published more than part-time faculty (M = .555, SD = 1.01). Full-time faculty (M = 1.61, SD = 5.85) published more than double the number of edited volumes published by part-time faculty (M = .666, SD = 2.00) on average. Likewise, full-time faculty (M = 1.44, SD = 5.88) exceeded part-time faculty (M = .111, SD = .333) in book, manual, or monograph publications. Full-time faculty patents or computer software (M = 1.38, SD = 5.89) also surpassed part-time faculty (M = .0.00, SD = 0.00) as did their numbers in exhibitions or performances, respectively (M = 1.38, SD = 5.89) and (M = .777, SD = 1.09), with statistical significance at .029 and .016, respectively.

The workplace interaction questionnaire was scored on a continuous scale from 0 to 25 to calculate the number of times respondents engage in a specified interaction during the course of a semester. A summary of the findings for workplace interaction demonstrated that full-time faculty engage in more personal and professional interactions overall than part-time faculty. Responses also showed that part-time faculty tend to engage less frequently with both TF and NTTF groups than full-time faculty (see Table 9).

Table 8

Professional Development Statistics for PT and FT Employees

Professional Development	PT %	FT %
Workshops	8.70%	16.10%
Paid Sabbatical Leave	0.00%	0.00%
Travel Funds Paid by Institution	21.80%	41.90%
Internal Grants for Research	6.90%	9.70%
Training for Administrative Leadership	3.30%	9.70%
Incentives to Develop a New Course	2.70%	3.20%
Incentives to Integrate Technology into the Classroom	2.40%	3.20%
None	6.30%	43.50%

Table 9

Workplace Interactions: Part-Time and Full-Time Employees

Question	Faculty	Mean	SD	SIG
Having regularly scheduled meetings with your department chair or dean?	FT PT	4.39 4.25	4.36 4.06	.886
Attend department meetings?	FT PT	4.63 5.04	2.57 4.43	.586
Are asked to serve on a committee?	FT PT	3.13 2.50	2.36 2.35	.262
Have meaningful professional conversations with TF?	FT PT	8.86 8.54	6.89 6.48	.840
Have meaningful personal conversations with TF?	FT PT	9.01 7.20	7.74 5.74	.299
Have meaningful professional conversation with non-TF?	FT PT	8.85 9.00	7.15 6.09	.929
Have meaningful personal conversations with non-TF?	FT PT	8.98 7.25	7.35 5.69	.297
Publish in a professional or academic journal?	FT PT	1.22 1.58	.911 1.61	.181
Are required to do service as part of your job expectations?	FT PT	6.75 4.41	6.08 3.68	.081

Findings from the preferred workplace interaction questionnaire included desire among full-time faculty for fewer formal workplace interactions such as meetings with the chair, department meetings, and serving committees. Conversely, part-time faculty consistently desired more formal workplace interactions. Both groups demonstrated a desire to engage in more interaction among themselves and with one another. In terms of engaging professionally outside of their department in publishing and service, both groups desired to do more publishing and less service (see Table 10).

The next set of questions dealt with student interaction, growth, and development in the classroom. These questions are asked on a Likert scale with corresponding scores as follows: (1) never, (2) occasionally, (3) regularly, (4) frequently, and (5) always. Overall, full-time faculty demonstrated higher numbers in student interaction, growth, and development than part-time faculty (see Table 11).

In conclusion, the principal purpose of examining the difference between FT and PT faculty is to gain a better understanding of the degree to which employment status affected faculty. What I discovered at the institution studied is that the groups are largely similar in their overall perspective and experience. Both groups valued teaching, service, and research in that order. Both groups taught a similar number of classes and at similar class levels. The one exception is that graduate classes are the near sole domain of FT faculty. This could likely be explained by the fact that generally only doctorates can teach at this level and this is traditionally the area in which many full time tenured faculty teach.

One of the questions of this research is the degree to which NTTF and PT faculty are professionals (Curtis & Jacobe, 2006). What I discovered at the institution studied is that in some ways PT faculty demonstrated a higher degree of professionalism than FT faculty. For

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Table 10

Preferred Workplace Interactions: Part-Time and Full-Time Employees

Question	Faculty	Mean	SD	SIG
Having regularly scheduled meetings with your department chair or dean?	FT PT	3.87 4.85	3.54 3.94	.224
Attend department meetings?	FT PT	3.87 3.85	2.11 3.61	.982
Are asked to serve on a committee?	FT PT	2.06 2.92	1.24 3.16	.047
Have meaningful professional conversations with TF?	FT PT	10.42 10.03	6.68 7.31	.796
Have meaningful personal conversations with TF?	FT PT	9.19 9.82	7.08 7.09	.689
Have meaningful professional conversation with non-TF?	FT PT	10.41 9.35	6.85 7.09	.490
Have meaningful personal conversations with non-TF?	FT PT	9.62 9.92	7.60 7.01	.853
Publish in a professional or academic journal?	FT PT	2.06 3.35	1.65 4.32	.028
Are required to do service as part of your job expectations?	FT PT	3.88 4.07	4.38 4.76	.850

Table 11

Student Interaction - PT vs. FT

Question	Faculty	Mean	SD	SIG
Ask questions in class	FT	1.46	.974	.290
	PT	1.29	.701	
Support their opinions with a logical argument	FT	1.91	1.15	.218
	PT	1.67	1.01	
Seek solutions to problems and explain it	FT	1.85	1.14	.217
	PT	1.61	1.04	
Revise papers to improve their writing	FT	2.47	1.36	.328
	PT	2.24	1.365	
Evaluate the quality of information they receive	FT	2.06	1.10	.160
	PT	1.78	1.08	
Take risks for potential gains	FT	2.69	1.26	.321
	PT	2.47	1.22	
Seek alternative solutions to a problem	FT	2.23	1.16	.186
	PT	1.96	1.11	
Look up scientific research articles	FT	2.82	1.43	.448
	PT	2.63	1.35	
Explore their own topics, even though it is not required for class	FT	2.69	1.24	.286
	PT	2.45	1.30	
Accept mistakes as part of the learning process	FT	2.16	1.16	.242
	PT	1.92	1.14	
Send feedback on their academic work	FT	1.93	1.12	.653
	PT	1.84	1.06	
Integrate skills and knowledge from different sources and experiences	FT	1.94	1.17	.094
	PT	1.63	.824	

example, one of the criteria of professionalism is continued education. In this current study, PT faculty participated in professional development activities more than FT faculty. The difference could be explained by the fact that FT faculty published at a far higher rate than PT faculty. While PT faculty might focus more on professional development it would appear that FT faculty focus more on publishing. The study also found that PT faculty would prefer to publish more than they currently do. It could be argued that both groups participate in on-going education but there are differences in how the groups go about it based on the opportunities available to them.

Another question is the degree to which PT faculty engage with students compared to FT faculty. What this current study discovered is that PT faculty consistently demonstrated lower levels of student interaction than full time faculty. Previous research (Benjamin, 2002; Jacoby, 2006; Jaeger & Eagan, 2009) reported a number of negative effects with students who had significant exposure to PT faculty though the effect seemed to exist more prominently in community colleges than four year institutions such as the one used in the current study. What was also discovered in the previous research is that when PT or NTTF are provided with the same resources this effect is negated.

An overarching question of NTTF specifically and PT faculty by extension is the degree of and desire for social interaction both within and without the group. What this current study discovered is that the amount of current interaction is lower for PT faculty than FT faculty. When you couple this finding with the fact that NTTF and TF faculty are having similar experiences in terms of social interaction, it points to the possibility that feelings of outsider status is not the product of NTTF but is in fact more the product of PT status. This is an important distinction because regardless of the occupation, PT employees having less social interaction in the workplace than FT staff, while certainly not ideal, is normal due to having less

opportunities. An encouraging sign as it relates to this is that both PT and FT staff desire more

interaction between the groups. One notable difference is that FT faculty desire less formal

interaction such as department meetings or one on ones with the department chair whereas PT

faculty desired more of this sort of interaction.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was two-fold: (1) to determine the cultural congruence between tenured and tenured track faculty and NTTF and (2) to determine the relationship, if any, among variables, such as age, gender, race/ethnicity, years of service, fulltime versus part-time status, administrative responsibilities, and academic discipline. As previously stated, the second question was narrowed based on the research gathered to examine gender, race, and fulltime vs. part-time status. The principal theoretical framework used for this research is the Competing Values Framework (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The OCAI is used to identify institutional culture.

Data were gathered through a questionnaire. The first portion of the questionnaire is the OCAI instrument. Each subject was asked to voluntarily complete the OCAI instrument. The second part of the survey (see Appendix A) pulled almost all of its questions directly from the Higher Education Research Institute (HERI) survey (Hurtado et al., 2011), with the exception of Question 12, which asks for years of service. The HERI survey is a highly validated survey that had been in existence for a number of years and is housed at the University of California at Los Angeles (UCLA). The HERI survey is far more extensive in gathering personal data than the 22 questions being asked in this research. The questions were handpicked, based on what the questions might expose about the differences between NTTF and tenured faculty culture.

I obtained an e-mail list of employees who had taught at least one class in fall 2016. These individuals were emailed a request for participation that included a link to an anonymous survey collection instrument and the survey was administered using Qualtrics in late November through mid-December of 2016. Two reminders were later sent. The stated purpose of my

research given was to examine the cultural differences between TF and NTTF, and the variables that influenced these differences. Survey completion was entirely voluntary. The data gathered were analyzed through SPSS.

Discussion

The purpose of the discussion section is to relate the findings of this study to existing literature and discuss whether or where the findings align with or diverge from those of previous studies. Hypothesis One examines the findings as they relate directly to the question of the relationship between TF and NTTF. Hypothesis Two explores the findings of faculty culture as they relate to differences between faculty on the basis of employment status, gender, and race. There is a sub-section for each of these variables that discusses the findings.

Hypothesis One

Hypothesis 1 (H1) suggested that there would be a statistically significant difference in organizational attitudes and preferences between TF and NTTF. Research revealed that this is the case. While there are statistically significant differences between the TF and NTTF groups, the two groups perceived the dominant culture of their departments similarly in their current state and had nearly identical preferences for a future organizational profile.

While this study does not ask the question of how the individual came to his or her understanding of faculty culture in its current state the near identical understanding by NTTF and TF of current culture is unlikely to be the product of happenstance. What is more pronounced is the fact that the groups are also very closely aligned in their ideal culture. This study posits that the knowledge of the current culture by NTTF may indicate cultural indoctrination of NTTF similar to that of TF at the department level as it is unlikely that such tacit knowledge could have been gained without accepting NTTF as part of the culture (Becher, 1992).

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In further support of this conclusion, NTTF do not just accept the department as it exists today. The group also supports a similar idea of the department in its ideal state. This finding stands in direct contradiction to a recurring theme in prior literature that often reported attitude differences and differing organizational preferences between the two groups. This is one of the more important findings of the study, because it calls into question the idea of NTTF as outsiders (Dolan, 2011; Meixner et al., 2010). What it does not do, or ask, is the question of whether NTTF at this particular institution see themselves as outsiders. This was by design as such a direct question would have most likely influenced the responses. Logically, there can only be one of two distinct possibilities as to this question.

First, at the institution studied NTTF are accepted as part of the overarching faculty culture. This is concurrent with more recent research. In 2013 (Kezar) could not find any differences in how NTTF were treated regardless of academic discipline. Kezar (2013) posited that in institutions that are more egalitarian that academic discipline has less of a role in defining culture. It may be possible that the overarching culture of the institution studied is one that is egalitarian, or one in which faculty culture is not as pronounced as the elite institutions studied by Becher (1992).

First, both groups see the academic department as placing the highest emphasis on Hierarchy. NTTF faculty generally scored this lower than TF faculty. In a Hierarchy culture, leaders focus on monitoring, coordinating, and organizing and the culture is partially defined by respect for position, rules, and power. This type of organization has well-defined laws, rules, policies and a clearly defined hierarchy. Problems are solved through the application of rules, a clear delineation of individual duties and responsibilities, and a strict adherence to authority. At the institution studied NTTF see the department as less restrictive and controlling than TF.

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Conversely, NTTF score the department higher in Clan than TF. The Clan culture espouses the values of loyalty and a shared vision. Rules are often communicated verbally through close social interaction. Problem solving is often a group activity that places a heavy focuses on organizational values and teams are allowed to act autonomously (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). What the Clan culture espouses with its emphasis on group interaction is the opposite of how NTTF report being treated when self-reporting as outsiders.

NTTF also placed less of an emphasis on Market than TF. What was discovered in this current study could be explained by the fact that the TF participants place a stronger emphasis on competition than NTTF which could be due to the competition for tenured faculty to publish (Newfield, 2007). Cameron and Quinn (2011) state that the effect of one quadrant is most keenly felt is the opposite quadrant as these represent fundamentally opposite views. Since Market is the opposite of Clan this would have a direct effect on Clan.

A second possibility is that NTTF at the institution studied as a group predominately feel that they are outsiders. Once again, this is not known as that question was not asked directly. The current study and previous research give us some clues. Cameron and Quinn (2011) describe professional contractual employees as experiencing hostile work environments similar to many studies surrounding NTTF. The people in that study principally worked in the private sector in tech companies and view themselves as guns for hires. In OCAI parlance, these would seem to be Market cultures. That is a very different culture than the one discovered in this current study. Results from the current study would seem to indicate that faculty prefer a more congenial workplace than the private sector does, given faculty emphasis on Clan and the preferred de-emphasis on Hierarchy and Market.

It is possible that NTTF are experiencing feelings of outsider status for other reasons. While NTTF might experience an unfriendly department they may be experiencing the same thing TF are experiencing and perhaps even with less intensity than TF are experiencing it. This current study's findings would support the latter interpretation. This is not to say that faculty are inherently unfriendly but the demands on TF make friendliness less of a priority. Since NTTF are not exposed to the same competitive demands it is likely TF appear as cold and aloof. This study would seem to indicate that is not a product of culture but rather one of necessity. Faculty in this study want more social interaction within and between groups. Perhaps structure, different obligations, and work demands are inhibiting interaction currently. A final explanation for feelings of outsider status could be variables other than tenure status, and this will be looked at in depth when examining hypothesis two.

There are a number of other points worth noting in these findings that extend beyond the notion of NTTF are outsiders and more to what is perhaps the changing nature of faculty culture. First, there is an overarching perception of faculty as being strongly focused on intellectual creativity (ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report, 2003). In this study both NTTF and TF consistently saw creativity as the least meaningful cultural aspect of the department in its current state. A reflection of this is the fact that TF and NTTF respondents scored Adhocracy no higher than 50 in four of the six questions. Since Hierarchy is the opposite of Adhocracy, and Hierarchy is the dominant cultural trait, this would lower the Adhocracy score.

Previous studies of faculty culture looked only at the variables that traditionally defined faculty. Becher (1992), for example, focused on academic discipline. However, universities have multiple stakeholders, goals and cultures (Bartell, 2003; Sporn, 1999). While historically faculty often focused on academic freedom and autonomy, whereas administrators focus on controls and

processes (ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report, 2003) the boundaries between faculty and other cultures in the institution are often porous. One of the ideas that drove this study is that what it means to be faculty might be changing. At a minimum, there is not a singular answer for what defines faculty culture but rather a number of variables that can provide a cultural profile. While it is an opportunity for further study it is possible that in some institutions faculty culture is being more strongly influenced by factors outside of the historical drivers of faculty culture. For example, Selingo (2013) states that beginning the 1970s there was an ever increasing demand for accountability in higher education. That NTTF and TF see Hierarchy in a similar light could indicate that the emphasis in higher education today has shifted at least somewhat from one of creativity to one of bureaucracy which places a greater emphasis on control, consistency, efficiency, and effectiveness so as to better meet the increased demand of accountability.

Finally, when asked about the department in a preferred state, the two groups reported identical culture rankings overall five out of six times. In all six questions, both TF and NTTF listed Clan as the most preferred characteristic of the department. TF are shown to find Adhocracy the second most desirable trait five times, whereas NTTF viewed it as second four times. NTTF chose Hierarchy as the third most desirable trait four times, while TF viewed it as the third most desirable trait twice. Finally, TF and NTTF identified Market at the least desirable trait four times. There are three general interpretations to be drawn from how both groups rate their preferred organizational structure. First, both TF and NTTF desire an academic department that is an informal, more familial workplace. This is a significant finding because regardless of how TF and NTTF view the organization now, neither group wants a highly competitive workplace. As both groups want a workplace with more social interaction with each other and

between the groups it creates an opportunity to improve group cohesion. Second, TF demonstrated a slightly higher desire to value creativity over control than NTTF but the numbers are similar. This finding is interesting in that one might suspect TF to have a much higher desire for creativity than TF due to the historical focus of TF on publishing (Newfield, 2007). Finally, both TF and NTTF tended to look least favorably at competition in the department. It would seem that both TF and NTTF both see current competition as problematic in terms of how the department should function.

The next area examined is workplace engagement and interaction. Both TF and NTTF ranked teaching as the most important activity. Not surprisingly, the groups flip flopped on research and service with TF finding research to be the second most important activity, whereas NTTF valued it as third. One of the recurring trends in the literature is the finding that TF often teach more desirable, upper-level courses with smaller class groups, while NTTF often teach large freshmen courses as well as night, on-line, and weekend courses. This study revealed very little difference in the size of the classrooms or the types of courses being taught by both groups, with the exception that TF tended to teach more graduate courses. This difference could be explained by the department's stipulation that graduate programs be taught by professionals with a terminal degree. The finding that classes are handed out in a more egalitarian manner at this institution than in the ones that are often marked with feelings by NTTF of being outsiders supports the notion put forth by Kezar (2012) that this aspect of an institution most likely affects culture. It was also discovered that both TF and NTTF are more likely to engage in personal and professional interactions within their respective peer groups than outside it, but that they favored more interactions between both groups than they currently experienced. Finally, both groups desire less service and more opportunities to publish. Overall, there is great deal of similarity in

the type and amount of work the two groups are doing. Finally, both groups want more social interactions, and both groups support more research opportunities.

One of the greatest disparities uncovered by the study is found in the groups' experience of professional development opportunities. Roughly half of all TF had engaged in some form of professional development in the last two years, but only around ten percent of NTTF had done the same. When NTTF are engaged in professional development activities, the group did so at a higher frequency than TF. This would indicate that for those NTTF who have professional development opportunities, the group is apt to use them. It was not surprising to learn that TF published more in professional journals than NTTF. However, I did not foresee this would be the only area in which TF did considerably more than NTTF. NTTF led TF in books published, patents and software, and exhibitions and performances. It is unclear as to what is driving this difference. It would appear that there are groups among NTTF that adhere to performance based initiatives for reasons this research did not uncover.

Finally, this study supports previous research that NTTF are highly dedicated teachers (Kezar, 2013) as NTTF engage in more interaction with students than TF. This does not necessarily reflect a higher quality of instruction of TF over TF, which is an often cited criticism of NTTF by TF (Dolan, 2011; Meixner et al., 2010). However, previous research has shown that student interaction has a positive effect on learning, graduation rates, and retention (Kuh, 2003). This is an opportunity for further research.

Hypothesis Two

Hypothesis two (H2) suggests that there is a statistically significant difference between faculty on the basis of employment status, gender, and race so a considerable amount of analysis was performed on all three groups. The reasons for this are several-fold. First, a consistent

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professional consideration and point of contention for NTTF involves the tenuous nature of NTTF employment. There are no previous studies that were uncovered that examined the issue of differences in full time vs. part-time employment in how this affected culture. A review of the literature uncovered no research that attempted to determine the degree to which each of these factors affected an individual's cultural and workplace perspectives. This study was designed to address how each status affects the professional experience of non-tenure track faculty.

Second, there is a considerable amount of research on the status of women and minorities in higher education, including a reasonable amount of research involving NTTF. It is well known that women and minorities are represented at disproportionately higher rates in the ranks of NTTF. What is missing in extant research is the intersection of NTTF status with gender and minority identities and culture. How much of the difference between types of faculty experience can be attributed to faculty status or employment status versus gender and minority status? This second hypothesis examines the possibility that what has been laid at the feet of tenured or employment status in an effort to explain conflict and differences between TF and NTTF is, in fact, more reflective of the differences in equity among faculty based upon race and gender.

Full-Time vs. Part-Time

Findings from the OCAI assessment showed that FT employees ranked Hierarchy as the current, dominant characteristic of the department now, whereas PT employees ranked it as the dominant characteristic for only four of the six core aspects of organizational culture. This is likely due to the fact that previous research has shown that contractual employees can avoid the more onerous hierarchical aspects of an organization (Barley & Kunda, 2004). Having to attend fewer meetings, as but one example, would make the organization seem less hierarchical. The second and third most prominent designations are consistently Clan and Market, though FT

employees and PT employees disagreed in their respective rankings depending on the question, with FT placing a stronger emphasis on competition. This is most likely due to FT employees experiencing more pressures to perform in areas such as publishing or service. Both FT and PT faculty saw Adhocracy as least representative of their organization, ranking it last for five of the six key aspects of organizational culture. While being a PT employee might grant the employee a greater degree of independence than a FT employee, there is a consistent understanding by all faculty of the importance of control, efficiency, and effectiveness by the department. Overall, responses provided by FT and PT employees seemed to reaffirm the TF and NTTF employees' depiction of an organizational culture possessing a dominant focus on management and control, with the least concern for creativity. Once again, the groups are far more similar than dissimilar.

In terms of the FT and PT employees' preferred vision for how the academic department should orient itself culturally, there is near complete similarity between the groups. For five out of six questions, the two groups ranked their cultural preferences identically. Each group picked Clan as their most ideal culture type in all six questions. What shall be shown is that regardless of the FT or PT sub-group, the ideal organization is nearly identical. Such a high level of cultural congruence speaks to a uniformity in vision that is unlikely to be happenstance. This indicates a strong shared cultural identity. Most important, as it relates to this study, NTTF (whether FT or PT) are not the outsiders in the institution studied that previous research indicates they were in other institutions at least not in terms of the measurement of cultural acceptance.

Respondents were provided a questionnaire with a separate set of questions aimed specifically at part-time employees. These focused on existing incentives to teach part-time and resources available to them as a group. Seventy-four respondents answered the questions. Responses indicated that 61% of part-time faculty would prefer to teach full- time and that 63%

of part-time employees had sought a full-time position. Roughly 40% of respondents indicate that they are holding part-time positions out of choice.

When motivating factors are examined it is clear that part-time faculty strongly believe that their expertise fits well into the courses being taught, that students respect them, and that as a group they are often responsible for introductory classes. Contrary to my expectations, the group also felt that teaching part-time fit their current life style, and 39% had no aspirations toward full-time employment. At the same time, the group overall did not believe their positions held employment security. The majority (61%) would have preferred full time employment. Part-time employees demonstrated the strongest feeling that their jobs did not provide them with the benefits they needed, as PT employment does not provide benefits at the institution studied. A considerable amount of current research proposes that NTTF, and PT faculty in particular, are not treated with respect by TF or administrators (Kezar, 2013). The part-time faculty surveyed in the course of the present study neither agreed or disagreed with this perspective on TF, and generally held the opinion of a good working relationship with the administration.

There are a number of areas where findings from this study align with previous research. In terms of support resources for PT professionals, approximately 75% of PT faculty reported they did not have an office, 59% had no work phone, 55% had no personal computer provided to them, and 53% did not have access to printing. This lack of investment in staff support from the institution for PT employees carried over into professional development. Only 6.3% of FT faculty had received no professional development the last two years, but 43.50% of the PT faculty had not participated in professional development over the same period. PT faculty in this study engage in personal and professional interactions with faculty more than FT faculty. This is

possibly due to the fact that the group needs personal and professional relationships to succeed to a far greater degree than FT faculty due to the lack of institutional support.

What was unexpected is that both FT and PT faculty meet with the chair or dean, and attend meetings over the course of a semester at about the same rate. At the institution where the study was conducted, it would appear that department chairs make a conscious effort to interact with PT faculty. This finding supports the idea of an egalitarian institution. When asked what FT and PT faculty would prefer in terms of workplace interaction, there are some notable differences. FT faculty indicate they prefer fewer internal department meetings and meetings with the department chair, while PT faculty desire more of these types of interactions. The feelings of vulnerability over employment might be creating a sense of the importance of creating a close relationship with the department chair. This aligns with the research of Barley and Kunda (2004) that contractual employees often seek out a close relationship with the hiring manager. PT faculty might also be using relationships as a substitute for material support. Both FT and PT professionals desire more personal and professional interaction within their own group as well as with the other group. When examining the groups' interaction with students, responses are marginally different in a way that could be most likely explained by the possibility that FT faculty generally engage with more classes and more students than PT faculty.

Gender

Statistical significance is discovered throughout the OCAI questionnaire in terms of gender appraisal of the Hierarchy, Market, and Adhocracy culture types. There is marginal statistical significance shown between the two genders for the Clan culture type. In terms of how the participants saw the organization, both males and females ranked Hierarchy as the dominant cultural characteristic. Males ranked it first five times, and females ranked it first six times.

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While overall Hierarchy is viewed by both males and females as the dominant cultural characteristic of the department, females perceive the organization to be far more controlling than males did. For example, in Dominant Characteristics "Now" the mean for Hierarchy is 23.80 for men, whereas the female mean is 34.61 at $p < .05$ (see Table 1). Both males and females identified Adhocracy as the least dominant characteristic of the department. Males reported this five times and females six times. The means are comparable.

The gender groups show the most divergence in their evaluation of the Clan and Market culture types. Males considered Clan the second most dominant culture characteristic four times. Females ranked it second twice. For management style, the female mean for Clan is 26.36, and the male mean is 32.36. The male mean for Clan exceeds 30 three times, while the maximum female mean is 27.20. Females rank Market first once and never lower than third. Males rank it second twice, third three times, and fourth once. These results indicate that, overall, female's perceive departmental culture as more rigid, less friendly and as more competitive than their male counterparts. The significance of this is amplified when considering that Market is the opposite quadrant of Clan. Of all of the sub-groups studied, it is gender that account for the largest differences in the culture that the faculty is experiencing.

Male and female participants demonstrated nearly identical preferences when it came to reporting their cultural ideals for the organization. Both groups express a preference for a Clan culture type in all six areas of the key cultural criteria. Adhocracy ranks second five times, and Market is ranked last four times. For five of the six questions pertaining to their preferred culture types, males and females showed identical rankings for the culture traits they hoped their department would adopt. The emerging profile of results proved to be nearly identical when analyzed according to the participants' gender, as when they are analyzed according to NTTF

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and TF status or full-time or part-time employment status. Once again, the faculty ideal culture seems to be well understood. What is not understood are the factors preventing this ideal culture from being realized by the department. This is an area for future research.

Race

The OCAI questionnaire revealed statistical significance in how Caucasian and minority participants perceived Clan culture within the organization now. Both Caucasians and minorities saw Hierarchy as the dominant characteristic of the organization, with minorities ranking this culture type at the top of all six key aspects of organizational culture. Both racial groups perceived Adhocracy to be the least dominant cultural characteristic in all six key aspects. The most frequently reported ranking of culture types placed Hierarchy at the top, followed by Market, Clan, and Adhocracy, in that order. This ordering occurred for five out of the six culture aspects among Caucasians, and for four out of six among minorities. A closer examination of the data demonstrates that while the ordering is similar between the two groups, there is variance in the degree of perceived dominance of a given character type. For example, while not statistically significant, Caucasians report higher mean scores for the Clan culture type than minorities in all six key culture aspects. Likewise, minorities report higher mean scores for Hierarchy in five of the six key culture aspects and for Market in four of the six.

Limitations of the Study

The one major limitation is that data are obtained from a single public doctorate-granting university in the southeastern United States. Research conducted across multiple institutions or institutions of a different type as defined by the Carnegie Classification might yield different results. Additionally, the research is based on participants' perspectives, which are self-reported through a survey.

Implications/Recommendations for Research

It was my belief based on previous research that discontent demonstrated by NTTF and PT faculty had been defined predominately through two recurring themes. First is the prevailing perspective that these groups are outsiders (Dolan, 2011). The degree of cultural congruence between these groups and their peers is high, both in how they currently perceive the department, and in their demonstrated preferences for the type of culture they would like the department to adopt. So much similarity when combined with statistical significance cannot be explained away as happenstance. While further research would be required to determine how this transpired, the implication of the results is that both NTTF and PT employees who participated in the study have been accepted into faculty culture at the departmental level at the university studied. As previously stated, this is not necessarily reflective of NTTF feelings of acceptance at the institution studied. This provides an opportunity for further research in determining if cultural congruence is reflective of feelings of NTTF as outsiders.

Previous research (Becher, 1992) places a strong emphasis on academic discipline and tenure as the driver of faculty culture. It describes faculty culture in two distinct ways that paint a picture of a culture that is very rigid in terms of who it accepts as members and is outwardly hostile to those who do not belong to the group. It attempts to explain through academic discipline why faculty culture is both extremely inclusive to tenured faculty and why it so extremely exclusive to those who are not viewed as being part of the tribe. While Becher (1992) did not focus on NTTF, the present study attempts to explain outsider status through the lens of tenure. The present study indicates that being faculty serves as an inclusive force for both NTTF and TF in terms of cultural identity. Tenure is not the divisive force that explains away voices of dissension and dissatisfaction among NTTF and PT faculty that could lead to different sub-

cultures. Further research is required, but such a singular focus on tenure as the sole driver of faculty culture fails to recognize the heterogeneous nature of both faculty and colleges and universities. Faculty are identified and self-identify in ways other than by tenure and academic discipline. Other factors can account for cultural differences or feelings of exclusion. Exploring these factors is an opportunity for further research.

Unlike the current research, Becher's (1992) studies were performed at elite institutions; further study might consider examining how institution type affects faculty culture, since the experiences describes by NTTF in this research are markedly different from those reported by Becher. Colleges and universities run a broad gamut of cultures, which affects how faculty perceive and interact with the department and with each other. While NTTF faculty may be treated as outsiders at some colleges and universities, this type of exclusive environment either did not exist at the institution studied, or it did not exist to the degree to which the issue is often publicized. The most likely conclusion, given the research responses, is that both NTTF and NTTF experience a high degree of cultural acceptance at the institution of study. This, in itself, provides an opportunity for further research because it raises the unanswered question as to what is causing this.

The second recurring theme from the literature review suggests that NTTF and PT faculty experience discontentment due to the lack of professional resources made available to them. The PT faculty participating in this study confirmed that they are provided little in terms of technical utilities or human resources. PT faculty also expressed concern with job security and benefits, and the group reported receiving far fewer opportunities for professional development. While these findings align with prior research, one finding that did not is the claim made by around 40% of part-time faculty that the part-time employment schedule fits their current lifestyle.

While literature consistently points to part-time employment as a less desirable option than full-time employment, there is no current research that examines part-time employment as a lifestyle choice. Part-time faculty also expressed belief that their expertise aligns with the courses being taught, that students respect them, and that as a group they are often responsible for introductory classes. Generally, they demonstrated indifference in their relationship with TF group (meaning these interactions are cast in neither a positive or negative light), while they expressed having a positive perspective on interaction with administration. The group attended department meetings at about the same rate as full-time faculty. A lack of resources, a lack of opportunities for personal and professional interaction, and a lack of job stability and benefits create a marginal degree of discontent in NTTF and PT faculty at the institution studied, but not to the extent that is often portrayed in current articles or previous research. Regardless of the severity of these issues, the findings of this study provide an opportunity for researchers to give further consideration to how resources could be better allocated to all faculty regardless of tenured or employment status if for no other reason than previous research has shown that when provided with similar resources NTTF and PT faculty perform as teachers at a level comparable to TF.

Perhaps the most important finding, and in turn the most important opportunity for further research, is one that demonstrated that at the institution studied the greatest predictor of cultural incongruence is neither tenure nor employment status. It is gender. It is possible that feelings of being an outsider that have been laid at the feet of the exclusive nature of faculty in general, but especially as it relates to tenure, employment status, and research, is in fact a modern manifestation of sexism. As previous research has shown, being NTTF or PT increases the level of insecurity a faculty experiences while decreasing the level of equity and power a faculty might possess if tenured. What this means is that populations that are already vulnerable to

discrimination become even more vulnerable under those conditions. It is likely that they form sub-cultures that emphasize cultural elements that, while divergent from the cultural norms of faculty in general, are seen as norms that protect the group. For example, the greater emphasis placed on Hierarchy could be explained through seeing rules that treat people equally as being more beneficial than a friendly work environment (Clan) where power is derived through long standing social networks that have historically excluded them. The greater emphasis placed on Market than faculty culture in general could be explained by a sense that achievement, and fair competition, are far more beneficial to outsiders as standards of performance that insiders. These ideas of possible causes for observed differences are speculative. The idea that employment or tenure status is the relevant cause of feelings of exclusion may have been misidentified for decades and creates an interesting opportunity for further research.

The findings of this study challenges previous research and oft-held beliefs about NTTF and PT faculty on three levels. First, while the study acknowledges that NTTF and PT faculty may be outsiders in some institutions of higher education, the assumption that NTTF and PT employees unanimously experience outsider status across the spectrum of institutions of higher education is subject to error. We know from previous research that how NTTF are treated varies by institution from friendly, to indifferent, to hostile and that variables such as academic discipline and institution type most likely affect this (Kezar, 2013). The degree to which this is true is not known, but this finding provides an opportunity for further research as to how institution type and academic discipline affects the faculty experience. Second, it is fundamentally incorrect to assume that a group that constitutes the majority of those teaching in higher education today are affected in terms of cultural acceptance because of variables often associated with them such as tenure, employment status, or resource allocations, based on the

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current research. These factors, though often quoted in previous research, had a minimal effect on cultural congruence in the institution studied. Third, it is possible that previous research has missed the degree to which historically vulnerable populations are affected by tenure and employment status.

In conclusion, based upon both previous research, and this current research, there are seven variables that appear to hold significant sway over faculty culture: institution type, administrative duties, academic discipline, tenure status, employment status, race, and gender. This current study was only able to examine the last four variables. This has been described at length. The idea of what institutional type means extends culturally beyond Carnegie classifications. An interesting area of study would be to examine whether institutions are highly fragmented culturally (Martin, 1992) or there exists some cultural archetypes in higher education. An area that appears to have not been studied is the degree to which the administrative duties of department chairs or deans influences the culture of these faculty. What is known is that the department chair is often influential in the department culture (Kezar, 2013), and that that department chairs are coming under increasing influence to adapt to an ever changing environment with an increased focus on accountability (Selingo, 2013). Administrative culture is having an effect on faculty culture, and perhaps it is this effect being demonstrated in this current study's finding that Hierarchy is the dominant characteristic of the department, but further research is required.

Implications/Recommendations for Practice

It is not within the purview of this study to propose the kind of cultural identity that deans, department chairs, and other leaders should try to adopt as an organization. Leadership must decide its own ideals based upon the relative strength and weakness of each of the four

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cultural profiles and seek buy in from faculty if leadership wants to try to implement change. We do know that department chairs, as well as department faculty, can influence culture (Kezar, 2013). The OCAI assessment tool allows management the opportunity to see how the culture of the organization exists in its current state and how the employees see it in its ideal state (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). By comparing the value sets, managers are able to ascertain the cultural profile their organization embodies and attempt to make changes. Before beginning this analysis, I will provide a brief examination of the four types of organizational culture.

Clan culture is a very friendly environment that is similar to an extended family. Leaders are looked upon as mentors, or even parent figures. The organizational glue is loyalty and tradition. The organization places a strong emphasis on morale, teamwork, consensus, and human resource development. Success is defined as sensitivity to the feelings of others and concern for the welfare of people.

The opposite of the Clan culture type is the Market culture type. This style of organization places its focus on results, encourages competition among its members, and is goal oriented. Leaders themselves are highly competitive and highly driven individuals focused on results. The organizational glue is winning; in essence, any behaviors or endeavors that enhance the organization's success and reputation is valued. This organization thrives on achievement of measurable goals, growth, and the knowledge that it is the best in its field. Success is defined as domination of the market through competitiveness.

The Hierarchy culture refers to an organizational culture typified by a formal and structured workplace. The leaders in this type of organization are good managers and organizers. The organizational glue relies on certainty of outcomes through formal rules and regulations. The

organization thrives on job security and predictability. Success is defined as stability, namely behaviors that facilitate efficient, consistent operations (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

The opposite of Hierarchy is Adhocracy. This organization focuses on being an entrepreneurial, creative workplace. Leaders are innovators and risk takers. The organizational glue is experimentation and innovation. This organization thrives on creating cutting-edge products and services. Success is defined as being an acknowledged pioneer in the field through creativity, individual initiative and freedom.

Organizations with a high degree of cultural congruence frequently perform better than organizations that demonstrate cultural incongruence (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). This does not mean that the organization must be congruent throughout the entirety of the organization, but rather congruent within each sub-unit, even if each sub-unit possesses very different roles in the overarching organization. Cameron and Quinn (2011) also argue that the culture needs to fit the needs of the environment in which it operates. When this is not the case, the organization will struggle. It is the imperative of management to change the organization to best match the environment in which it operates to be successful. This begins with analysis of the cultural elements in which the organization is strongest and weakest.

Participants studied for the purpose of this research consistently ranked Hierarchy as the strongest attribute of their organization. The relatively high numbers associated with this culture characteristic indicate a strong hierarchical culture with a significant degree of cultural congruence. Adhocracy is consistently listed as the weakest cultural elements. The organization would appear to place the least emphasis on creativity, experimentation, risk-taking, and innovation. Cameron and Quinn (2011) assert that differences of ten points or more speak to the relative strength or weakness of a cultural attribute. In the participants' assessment of their

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organization's dominant characteristics, there is almost a 20-point difference between Hierarchy and Adhocracy. Participants therefore considered Hierarchy to be a strong cultural attribute of the organization studied, while inversely Adhocracy is seen as weak. There are a number of possible reasons for this as well the possibility for concern which could be addressed with further research. First, the rise of higher education administrators could be playing a role in affecting faculty culture with a stronger emphasis being placed by faculty on what has historically been the venue of administration. It could also speak to a strong administrative culture at the institution studied that has made its way into faculty culture. Further study is required. Regardless of the cause of this preference for control over creativity, for those faculty that see the role of faculty as being intellectually creative, this type of culture could stifle this.

Cultural congruence is important not only within a given organization, but reflects on how the organization compares to other institutions within its industry. As shown by Appendix D, the typical OCAI profile of U.S. educational institutions is one in which Hierarchy is dominant and Adhocracy is weakest. On the whole, the findings yielded by the participant group in this current study align with the general industry consensus. As with Hierarchy and Adhocracy, Market and Clan culture types are assessed similar to the industry paradigm. Clan most often scored second to Hierarchy among this participant group, while Market is most consistently ranked third. Overall, it is perceived that the organization tends to place almost as much emphasis on a friendly workplace as it does rules and regulations. While different from the industry now, this is not necessarily a negative or positive attribute. Management must carefully consider whether this difference is one that fits the organization's goals, and the environment in which the organization operates.

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While organizational leadership must look closely at the environment in which it operates to determine its ideal state, Cameron and Quinn (2011) do offer some general advice. Top managers tend to have higher Clan scores. While Hierarchy did come in first for the managerial assessment in this study, the relatively even scoring of Hierarchy and Clan in leadership characteristics could have the potential for strong managerial performance. The comparatively even status with which faculty judged Hierarchy and Clan also speaks to a strength in organization and administration. Over time, organizations typically increase their emphasis on Hierarchy and Market culture. For this reason, it is often more difficult to shift an organization's cultural philosophy and practice to Clan and Adhocracy culture than it is shift it toward Hierarchy and Market culture. If the organization studied believed that it should move more in the direction of a Clan culture type, as is indicted by the preferences they demonstrated in the OCAI, it is in a good position to do so given their current profile.

It is within the purview of management to make decisions that can influence the cultural direction of the organization, and given the findings of this study, an argument could be made that faculty should be more culturally aligned with Adhocracy due to the creative nature of teaching and research. This idea is borne out by Cameron & Quinn's (2011) assertion that organizational effectiveness in higher education is at its highest when the culture emphasizes both Hierarchy and Adhocracy. However, if the organization in this study wanted to move in the direction of a stronger Adhocracy culture, it would most likely have a difficult time doing so for multiple reasons. First, the score differentials between Hierarchy and Adhocracy are often quite large in the participants' assessments of the organization's current culture. Second, Adhocracy is the polar opposite of Hierarchy within the OCAI model, thereby requiring the organization to effectively reverse course in its strongest cultural attribute. Third, research has shown that it is

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more difficult to move an organization towards Clan and Adhocracy cultures since they tend to naturally drift to Hierarchy and Market models over time (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). In terms of preferred dominant culture characteristics, faculty placed Adhocracy as second most preferred and Hierarchy last. A similar, strong disparity between Adhocracy and Hierarchy also appeared in participant responses to their preferred organization glue and strategic emphasis. In terms of preferred leadership characteristics, while Adhocracy placed second, the demonstrated levels of preference are almost dead even with Hierarchy at third. Adhocracy had a stronger showing in second place in management style preferred, but the numbers are still relatively close. When examining criteria for success preferred, Hierarchy scores higher than Adhocracy. All of these scores indicate the difficulty of a change in culture to one with a greater emphasis on Adhocracy.

There is a considerable amount of mixed messaging in terms of how the faculty studied view Hierarchy and Adhocracy. A closer examination of the data exposes two themes. The faculty participants in this study favor greater organizational focus on creativity when considering prospective dominant characteristics or organizational glue. When asked about their preferences in areas of organizational leadership, management, and criteria for success, Hierarchy and Adhocracy are given roughly the same emphasis, reflecting a desire for pragmatism and strong organization in addition to creativity.

One of the more significant, yet subtle, findings of this study relates to faculty perspective of the Market culture within their organization. While the general consensus among participants speaks overtly to the desire for less competition and more equality in treatment among faculty members, the move away from Hierarchy culture speaks to the same desire implicitly. A Hierarchy culture, one that emphasizes rules, tends to reward the more powerful people in the organization who create and enforce those rules. These individuals are most

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inclined to navigate the rules with a greater competency and knowledge than an individual on the fringe of the culture. Market is the only culture type that consistently drops in status between existing and preferred iterations of organizational culture. Participant responses in this case would seem to imply an organization that places a low value on competitiveness, which stands in stark contrast to Becher's (1992) research that paints a picture of a highly competitive culture among faculty reinforced through a long, arduous indoctrination process, and a strict adherence to the "tribe" to which the faculty had dedicated their life.

When it comes to NTTF and PT faculty there is no denying that institutional support can be perceived as an indicator of outsider status (Dolan, 2011). Pay rates, access to organizational resources, and support can all indicate the degree to which a given group is, or feels it is, part of an organization's culture. Institutions often hire NTTF and PT faculty when a given resource is limited or unavailable altogether. In other words, employees cannot be offered offices when there are no offices available to give them. Likewise, a NTTF can't be paid at the same rate as TF when the reason for hiring them is the lack of finances available to hire additional tenured faculty. NTTF status therefore does not automatically reflect a lower cultural status intrinsic to the label, but rather can reflect the resource limitations many institutions in higher education face today. The argument that it is not a sign of some intentional slight, but rather one of practical consideration, is supported by the finding that the faculty in this study saw the preferred state of the department as being nearly identical regardless of the sub-group. In other words, all groups want the same thing in the culture of the department despite the fact that all groups did not have access to the same resources. Cultural acceptance can exist despite resource disparity.

This does not mean that department chairs and deans should not be aware of and actively address these perceived slights. Academic leaders should be proactive in adopting strategies of

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inclusivity regardless of race, gender, employment, or tenured status. All faculty should be invited to departmental and college meetings. Training and mentoring of new faculty should be equally available to all faculty as standard operating procedure. An honest, open conversation with NTTF or PT faculty before hiring them as to the limits in pay, benefits, and other resources would do a great deal to set realistic expectations of the resources available. In other words, good leadership doesn't cost a thing but the rewards of it can be substantial.

Conclusion

I have come to believe two things as a product of this research as it relates to faculty culture. First, faculty culture can be looked upon based on certain core beliefs such as academic freedom and dual governance. It can also be looked upon operationally and categorical through seven variables, which are race, gender, tenure status, employment status, institution type, academic discipline, and administrative duties. Is this an exhaustive list? No. Is it correct? I cannot say. Further research is required. I feel it adds to literature in two ways; though in both ways it tends to lend itself more to quantitative research. That focus is in itself important because historically much of the research on culture has been done qualitatively.

First, previous research tends to focus on one or two variables as a way to understand faculty culture. Becher (1992) is probably one of the more extreme examples in the view that academic discipline and tenure drive cultural acceptance as faculty. These are most likely dominant factors at the elite institutions examined in that research. It is unlikely that they are the only factors that drive faculty culture. Considering the complexity and diversity of organizations of higher education it is likely that a multitude of variables come into play in what constitutes faculty culture at a particular institution. Second, the degree to which each of these variables is influential in a particular culture most likely varies. This is why there is an inherent danger to

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emphasizing a single element of what constitutes faculty culture because it could likely misrepresent the faculty culture at another institution. On the other hand, we cannot measure or understand faculty culture quantitatively by examining every possible variable. In quantitative research, there has be some selectivity. The construct that I propose, while imperfect, strives to provide a reasonable balance based upon previous and current research between an over reliance on one or two variables while theoretically measuring the relative weight of a reasonable number of variables that influence faculty culture. There is the likelihood as described by Martin (1992) that faculty culture is highly fragmented. This model does not dispute that possibility. If anything, it embraces it. Why? Fragmentation does not mean an endless array of possibilities. It can also represent degrees of influence. If there are an endless array of possibilities such a model would fail when utilized across multiple institutions. That would add to the body of literature.

As previously stated, this research did not ask the question of the people that responded to the survey of their feelings of being an outsider. It does makes the reasonable claim that it is unlikely that a high degree of cultural similarity exists between two groups if one group views itself as outsiders as such groups often form sub-cultures (Lesch, 2000). Culture is one of many possible reasons that NTTF or PT faculty could feel that they are outsiders. Being an outsider suffers from the same assumptions about faculty culture as people tend to look at one or two variables to explain it. Similar to culture, it is likely that a multitude of variables affect this and the degree of the affect varies per institution. There are most likely multiple reasons that feelings of exclusion exists among faculty. Culture is only one possible explanation. Another example is that women faculty at the institution studied are experiencing a significantly different culture then men. Further research needs to be done to examine the question of is the relatively new problem of NTTF feelings of exclusion an age-old problem of sexism and racism wearing a new

mask? Yet another possible reason for feelings of being an outsider has to do with a lack of resources provided to NTTF and PT faculty which has been shown to negatively affect student performance. The irony of NTTF and PT faculty is that they often are hired because the department lacks resources. This does not mean that department chairs should not do everything possible to provide as many resources as possible, and have honest conversations with the faculty going into the job as to resource limitations. Some of the feelings of exclusion could be countered by department chairs that make it a point to include NTTF and PT faculty to the fullest extent possible.

Finally, outsider status is not automatically a sentence of cultural exclusion. In many ways, the negativity surrounding NTTF and PT faculty is a self-inflicted wound. That means it is treatable and manageable if leadership makes a conscious effort. The diversity of cultures in higher education provides opportunities to find the kind of leadership and institutions that embrace diversity and inclusion in every sense of the term. Clearly, there is work to be done at every institution of higher education but by gaining a better understanding of the variables that are influencing feelings of exclusion there exists the possibility of intentionality by leadership and faculty in creating an environment that is inclusive to all faculty.

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APPENDIX A: INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL

EAST CAROLINA UNIVERSITY
University and Medical Center Institutional Review Board Office
4N-70 Brody Medical Sciences Building· Mail Stop 682
600 Moye Boulevard · Greenville, NC 27834
Office **252-744-2914** · Fax **252-744-2284** · **www.ecu.edu/irb**

Notification of Initial Approval: Expedited

From: Social/Behavioral IRB

To: Dean Smith

CC: David Siegel

Date: 7/26/2016

        UMCIRB 16-000774

Re: A COMPARISON OF NON-TENURE TRACK FACULTY CULTURE WITH TENURE
        FACULTY CULTURE AT THE DEPARTMENTAL LEVEL AT A FOUR YEAR PUBLIC
        INSTITUTION

I am pleased to inform you that your Expedited Application was approved. Approval of the study and any consent form(s) is for the period of 7/26/2016 to 7/25/2017. The research study is eligible for review under expedited category # 7. The Chairperson (or designee) deemed this study no more than minimal risk.

Changes to this approved research may not be initiated without UMCIRB review except when necessary to eliminate an apparent immediate hazard to the participant. All unanticipated problems involving risks to participants and others must be promptly reported to the UMCIRB. The investigator must submit a continuing review/closure application to the UMCIRB prior to the date of study expiration. The Investigator must adhere to all reporting requirements for this study.

Approved consent documents with the IRB approval date stamped on the document should be used to consent participants (consent documents with the IRB approval date stamp are found under the Documents tab in the study workspace).

The approval includes the following items:

Name	Description
Dean Smith Research E-mail Recruitment Script.docx	Recruitment Documents/Scripts
Dean Smith Spring 2016-04-14-16.docx	Study Protocol or Grant Application
Dean Smith Survey Cover Letter 07 13 16.docx	Consent Forms
The Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument and Personal Data Questionaire.docx	Surveys and Questionnaires

The Chairperson (or designee) does not have a potential for conflict of interest on this study.

IRB00000705 East Carolina U IRB #1 (Biomedical) IORG0000418
IRB00003781 East Carolina U IRB #2 (Behavioral/SS) IORG0000418

APPENDIX B: PERSONAL DATA QUSITONNAIRE

Faculty Culture Survey

Q1 INSTRUCTIONS: The purpose of this research is to learn more about faculty at East

Carolina University. For the purpose of this research, faculty is anyone that teaches at least one

class per semester regardless of rank or title. All information gathered is confidential. The

questionnaire is divided into three parts. Section one is the Organizational Culture Assessment

Instrument. Section two is questions to help gain a better understanding of who our faculty are at

East Carolina University. Section three is for part-time faculty only.

Q2 SECTION ONE The Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument

INSTRUCTIONS: The OCAI had six sections which are divided into Current and Preferred.

The Current section is meant to capture how you see your academic department in its current

state. The Preferred section is meant to capture how you see your academic department in its

ideal state. In each of these sections you are given four alternatives. You have 100 points to

assign among the alternatives.

Q3 Dominant Characteristics: Now Please distribute 100 points among the following:

_____ The organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves. (1)

_____ The organization is a very dynamic entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks. to write Choice 2 (2)

_____ The organization is very results oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement oriented. (3)

_____ The organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do. (4)

Q4 Dominant Characteristics: Preferred Please distribute 100 points among the following:

_____ The organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves. (1)

_____ The organization is a very dynamic entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks. to write Choice 2 (2)

_____ The organization is very results oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement oriented. (3)

_____ The organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do. (4)

Q5 Organizational Leadership: Now Please distribute 100 points among the following:

_____ The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify mentoring, facilitating, or nurturing. (1)

_____ The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify entrepreneurship, innovating, or risk taking. (2)

_____ The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify a no-nonsense, aggressive, results-oriented focus. (3)

_____ The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify coordinating, organizing, or smooth-running efficiency. (4)

Q6 Organizational Leadership: Preferred Please distribute 100 points among the following:

_____ The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify mentoring, facilitating, or nurturing. (1)

_____ The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify entrepreneurship, innovating, or risk taking. (2)

_____ The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify a no-nonsense, aggressive, results-oriented focus. (3)

_____ The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify coordinating, organizing, or smooth-running efficiency. (4)

Q7 Management of Employees: Now Please distribute 100 points among the following:

_____ The management style in the organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus, and participation. (1)

_____ The management style in the organization is characterized by individual risk taking, innovation, freedom, and uniqueness. (2)

_____ The management style in the organization is characterized by hard driving competitiveness, high demands, and achievement. (3)

_____ The management style in the organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability,, and stability in relationships. (4)

Q8 Management of Employees: Preferred Please distribute 100 points among the following:

_____ The management style in the organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus, and participation. (1)

_____ The management style in the organization is characterized by individual risk taking, innovation, freedom, and uniqueness. (2)

_____ The management style in the organization is characterized by hard driving competitiveness, high demands, and achievement. (3)

_____ The management style in the organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability,, and stability in relationships. (4)

Q9 Organization Glue: Now Please distribute 100 points among the following:

_____ The glue that holds the organization together is loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to this organization runs high. (1)

_____ The glue that holds the organization together is commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being cutting edge. (2)

_____ The glue that holds the organization together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment. Aggressiveness and winning are common themes. (3)

_____ The glue that holds this organization together is forma rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is important. (4)

Q10 Organization Glue: Preferred Please distribute 100 points among the following:

_____ The glue that holds the organization together is loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to this organization runs high. (1)

_____ The glue that holds the organization together is commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being cutting edge. (2)

_____ The glue that holds the organization together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment. Aggressiveness and winning are common themes. (3)

_____ The glue that holds this organization together is forma rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is important. (4)

Q11 Strategic Emphasis: Now Please distribute 100 points among the following:

_____ The organization emphasizes human development. High trust, openness, and

participation persist. (1)

_____ The organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges.

Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued. (2)

_____ The organization emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretch

targets and winning in the Marketplace are dominant. (3)

_____ The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth

operations are important. (4)

Q12 Strategic Emphasis: Preferred Please distribute 100 points among the following:

_____ The organization emphasizes human development. High trust, openness, and

participation persist. (1)

_____ The organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges.

Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued. (2)

_____ The organization emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretch

targets and winning in the Marketplace are dominant. (3)

_____ The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth

operations are important. (4)

Q13 Criteria for Success: Now Please distribute 100 points among the following:

_____ The organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges.

Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued. The organization defines success

on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people. (1)

_____ The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth operations are important. (2)

_____ The organization defines success on the basis of having the most unique or newest products. It is a product leader and innovator. (3)

_____ The organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low-cost production are critical. (4)

Q14 Criteria for Success: Preferred Please distribute 100 points among the following:

_____ The organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued. The organization defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people. (1)

_____ The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth operations are important. (2)

_____ The organization defines success on the basis of having the most unique or newest products. It is a product leader and innovator. (3)

_____ The organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low-cost production are critical. (4)

Q15   SECTION TWO   INSTRUCTIONS: All faculty answer these questions.

Q16   1. What is your tenured status at this institution?

❍ Tenured (1)
❍ Tenured Track (2)
❍ Not on Tenured Track (3)

Q17 Are you currently serving in an administrative position as: (Mark all that apply.)

❑ No (1)
❑ Chancellor (2)
❑ Provost (3)
❑ Dean (4)
❑ Department Chair (5)
❑ Non-Academic Administrator (6)
❑ Other (7) _____

Q18 Identify how important each of the following are to you personally.

	Essential (1)	Very Important (2)	Important (3)	Somewhat Important (4)	Not Important (5)
Research (1)	O	O	O	O	O
Teaching (2)	O	O	O	O	O
Service (3)	O	O	O	O	O

Q19 How many courses are you teaching this term?

O Zero (1)
O One (2)
O Two (3)
O Three (4)
O Four (5)
O Five (6)
O Six or more (7)

Q20   5. If you are teaching at least one course, check all course types that apply:

❑ Undergraduate course required for major (1)
❑ General Education course (2)
❑ Other Undergraduate course (3)
❑ Undergraduate non-credit course (4)
❑ Graduate Course (5)

Q21. What is the average size of your class?

_____ Click to write Choice 1 (1)

Q22 Have you engaged in any of the following professional development opportunities at your

institution over the past two years? (Check all that apply.)

❑ Paid workshops outside the institution focused on teaching (1)
❑ Paid sabbatical leave (2)
❑ Travel funds paid by the institution (3)
❑ Internal grants for research (4)
❑ Training for Administrative leadership (5)
❑ Received incentives to develop new course (6)
❑ Received incentives to integrate technology into your classroom (7)
❑ None (8)

Q23 How many of the following have you published in the last two years?

_____ Articles in academic or professional journals (1)

_____ Chapters in edited volumes (2)

_____ Books, manuals, or monographs (3)

_____ Other, such as patents, or computer software (4)

Q24 How many exhibitions or performances in the fine or applied arts have you presented in the last two years?

_____ Exhibitions or Performances (1)

Q25 How often in a semester do you do the following? (List the average number of occurrences.)

_____ Having regularly scheduled meetings with your department chair or dean? (1)

_____ Attend department meetings? (2)

_____ Are asked to serve on a committee? (3)

_____ Have meaningful professional conversations with tenured faculty? (4)

_____ Have meaningful personal conversations with tenured faculty? (5)

_____ Have meaningful professional conversation with non-tenured faculty? (6)

_____ Have meaningful personal conversations with non-tenured faculty? (7)

_____ Publish in a professional or academic journal? (8)

_____ Are required to do service as part of your job expectations? (9)

Q26 How often in a semester would you prefer to do the following? (List the average number of occurrences.)

_____ Having regularly scheduled meetings with your department chair or dean? (1)

_____ Attend department meetings? (2)

_____ Are asked to serve on a committee? (3)

_____ Have meaningful professional conversations with tenured faculty? (4)

_____ Have meaningful personal conversations with tenured faculty? (5)

_____ Have meaningful professional conversation with non-tenured faculty? (6)

_____ Have meaningful personal conversations with non-tenured faculty? (7)

_____ Publish in a professional or academic journal? (8)

_____ Are required to do service as part of your job expectations? (9)

Q27 In your interactions with undergraduates, how often do you encourage them to:

	Always (1)	Frequently (2)	Reguarly (3)	Occasionally (4)	Never (5)
Ask questions in class (1)	○	○	○	○	○
Support their opinions with a logical argument (2)	○	○	○	○	○
Seek solutions to problems and explain it (3)	○	○	○	○	○
Revise papers to improve their writing (4)	○	○	○	○	○
Evaluate the quality of information they receive (5)	○	○	○	○	○
Take risks for potential gains (6)	○	○	○	○	○
Seek alternative solutions to a problem (7)	○	○	○	○	○
Look up scientific research articles (8)	○	○	○	○	○
Explore their own topics, even though it is not required for class (9)	○	○	○	○	○

Accept mistakes as part of the learning process (10)	○	○	○	○	○
Send feedback on their academic work (11)	○	○	○	○	○
Integrate skills and knowledge from different sources and experiences (12)	○	○	○	○	○

Q28 Your gender:

○ Male (1)
○ Female (2)
○ Prefer not to identify (3)
○ Other (4)

Q29 Your race:

○ White/Caucasian (1)
○ African American/Black (2)
○ American Indian/Alaska Native (3)
○ Asian American/Asian (4)
○ Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander (5)
○ Mexican American/Chicano (6)
○ Other Latino (7)
○ Multi-racial (8)
○ Prefer not to identify (9)
○ Other (10)

Q30 What is your current age?

_____ Click to write Choice 1 (1)

Q31 SECTION THREE INSTRUCTIONS: Part-time faculty answer these questions. These

questions are for part-time faculty only.

Q32 If given the choice, I would prefer to teach fulltime at this institution.

○ Yes (1)
○ No (2)

Q33 Have you ever sought a fulltime teaching position at this or another institution?

○ Yes (1)
○ No (2)
○

Display This Question:

If 2. Have you ever sought a fulltime teaching position at this or another institution?   Yes Is
Selected

Q34. How long ago did you pursue a fulltime position?

❍ Currently seeking a position (1)
❍ Within the last year (2)
❍ 1 to 2 years ago (3)
❍ 3 to 5 years ago (4)
❍ More than 5 years ago (5)
Q35 My fulltime professional career is outside academia.

❍ Yes (1)
❍ No (2)
Q36 My fulltime professional career is at ECU as something other than faculty.

❍ Yes (1)
❍ No (2)
Q37 In considering your reasons for teaching part-time at this institution, please indicate your

agreement with the following statements:

	Strongly Agree (1)	Agree (2)	Neither Agree or Disagree (3)	Disagree (4)	Strongly Disagree (5)
My part-time position is an important source of income for me. (1)	○	○	○	○	○
Compensation is not a major consideration in my decision to teach part-time. (2)	○	○	○	○	○
Part-time teaching is a stepping-stone to a full-time position. (3)	○	○	○	○	○
My part-time position provides benefits that I need. (4)	○	○	○	○	○
Teaching part-time fits my current lifestyle. (5)	○	○	○	○	○
Fulltime positions are not available. (6)	○	○	○	○	○
My expertise in my chosen profession is relevant to the course(s) I teach. (7)	○	○	○	○	○
Are given specific training before teaching (8)	○	○	○	○	○
Rarely get hired into fulltime positions (9)	○	○	○	○	○
Receive respect from students (10)	○	○	○	○	○

Are primarily responsible for introductory classes (11)	○	○	○	○	○
Have no guarantee of employment security (12)	○	○	○	○	○
Are compensated for advising/counseling students (13)	○	○	○	○	○
Are required to attend meetings (14)	○	○	○	○	○
Have good working relationships with the administration (15)	○	○	○	○	○
Are respected by fulltime faculty (16)	○	○	○	○	○

Q38 Mark all institutional resources made available to you in your last term as part-time faculty.

❑ A private office (1)
❑ A shared office (2)
❑ No office is provided (3)
❑ A personal computer (4)
❑ A phone/voicemail (5)
❑ Printing (6)
❑ Office mailbox (7)
❑ Administrative Assistant (8)
❑ Graduate Assistant (9)

APPENDIX C: UNITED STATES GENERAL OCAI PROFILE
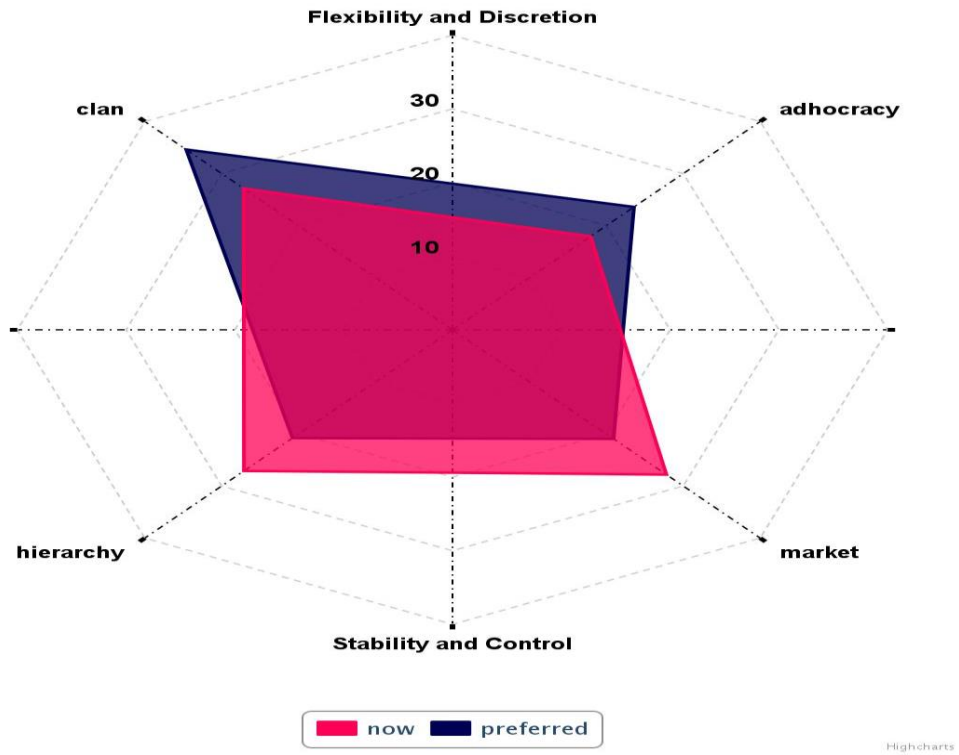
Note. Based on 23,400 participants.

1. Dominant Characteristics Now

A

The organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves.

B

The organization is a very dynamic entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks.

C

The organization is very results oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement oriented.

D

The organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do.

Total

2. Organizational Leadership Now

A

The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify mentoring, facilitating, or nurturing.

B

The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify entrepreneurship, innovating, or risk taking.

C

The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify a no-nonsense, aggressive, results-oriented focus.

D

The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify coordinating, organizing, or smooth-running efficiency.

Total

3. Management of Employees Now

A

The management style in the organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus, and participation.

B

The management style in the organization is characterized by individual risk-taking, innovation, freedom, and uniqueness.

C

The management style in the organization is characterized by harddriving competitiveness, high demands, and achievement.

D

The management style in the organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships.
Total

4. Organization Glue Now
A
The glue that holds the organization together is loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to this organization runs high.
B
The glue that holds the organization together is commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being on the cutting edge.
C
The glue that holds the organization together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment. Aggressiveness and winning are common themes.
D
The glue that holds the organization together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is important.
Total

5. Strategic Emphases Now
A
The organization emphasizes human development. High trust, openness, and participation persist.
B
The organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued.
C
The organization emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretch targets and winning in the Marketplace are dominant.
D
The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth operations are important.
Total

6. Criteria of Success Now
A
The organization defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people.
B
The organization defines success on the basis of having the most unique or newest products. It is a product leader and innovator.
C

The organization defines success on the basis of winning in the
Marketplace and outpacing the competition. Competitive Market
leadership is key.
D
The organization defines success on the basis of efficiency.
Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low-cost production are
critical.
Total

The Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument – Preferred

1. Dominant Characteristics Preferred
A
The organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended
family. People seem to share a lot of themselves.
B
The organization is a very dynamic entrepreneurial place.
People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks.
C
The organization is very results oriented. A major concern is
with getting the job done. People are very competitive and
achievement oriented.
D
The organization is a very controlled and structured place.
Formal procedures generally govern what people do.
Total

2. Organizational Leadership Preferred
A
The leadership in the organization is generally considered to
exemplify mentoring, facilitating, or nurturing.
B
The leadership in the organization is generally considered to
exemplify entrepreneurship, innovating, or risk taking.
C
The leadership in the organization is generally considered to
exemplify a no-nonsense, aggressive, results-oriented focus.
D
The leadership in the organization is generally considered to
exemplify coordinating, organizing, or smooth-running
efficiency.
Total

3. Management of Employees Preferred

A
The management style in the organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus, and participation.
B
The management style in the organization is characterized by individual risk-taking, innovation, freedom, and uniqueness.
C
The management style in the organization is characterized by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands, and achievement.
D
The management style in the organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships.
Total

4. Organization Glue Preferred

A
The glue that holds the organization together is loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to this organization runs high.
B
The glue that holds the organization together is commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being on the cutting edge.
C
The glue that holds the organization together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment. Aggressiveness and winning are common themes.
D
The glue that holds the organization together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is important.
Total

5. Strategic Emphases Preferred

A
The organization emphasizes human development. High trust, openness, and participation persist.
B
The organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued.
C
The organization emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretch targets and winning in the Marketplace are dominant.
D
The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth operations are important.
Total

6. Criteria of Success Preferred

A

The organization defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people.

B

The organization defines success on the basis of having the most unique or newest products. It is a product leader and innovator.

C

The organization defines success on the basis of winning in the Marketplace and outpacing the competition. Competitive Market leadership is key.

D

The organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low-cost production are critical.

Total

A Worksheet for Scoring the OCAI
NOW Scores
1A 1B
2A 2B
3A 3B
4A 4B
5A 5B
6A 6B
Sum (total of A responses) Sum (total of B responses)
Average (sum divided by 6) Average (sum divided by 6)
1C 1D
2C 2D
3C 3D
4C 4D
5C 5D
6C 6D
Sum (total of C responses) Sum (total of D responses)
Average (sum divided by 6) Average (sum divided by 6)

PREFERRED Scores
1A 1B
2A 2B
3A 3B
4A 4B
5A 5B
6A 6B
Sum (total of A responses) Sum (total of B responses)
Average (sum divided by 6) Average (sum divided by 6)
1C 1D
2C 2D
3C 3D

4C 4D
5C 5D
6C 6D
Sum (total of C responses) Sum (total of D responses)
Average (sum divided by 6) Average (sum divided by 6)

An Example of How Culture Ratings Might Appear
NOW   PREFERRED

NOW		PREFERRED	
A	55	A	35
B	20	B	30
C	20	C	25
D	5	D	10
Total	100	Total	100

<u>Scoring:</u>
<u>Scoring the OCAI is very easy. It requires simple arithmetic calculations. The first step is to add together all A responses in the Now column and divide by six. That is, compute an average score for the A alternatives in the Now column. You may use the worksheet on the next page to arrive at these averages. Do this for all of the questions, A, B, C, and D. Once you have done this, transfer your answers to this page in the boxes provided below.</u>
<u>Fill in your answers here from the previous page</u>

NOW   PREFERRED

NOW	PREFERRED
A	A
B	B
C	C
D	D
Total	Total

APPENDIX E: EDUCATION OCAI PROFILE
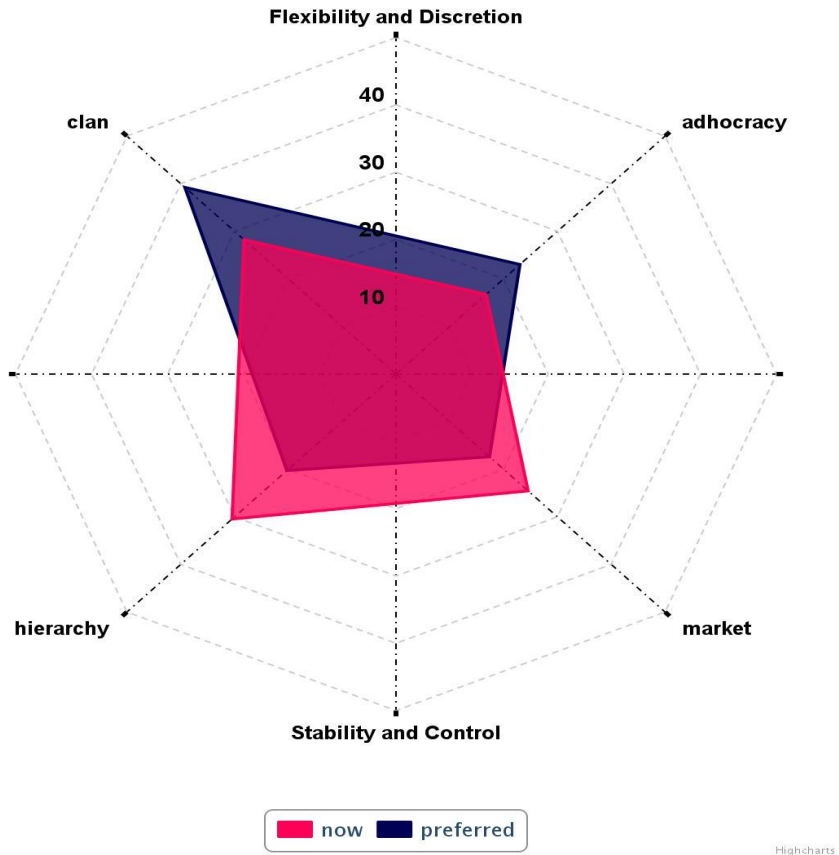
Note. Based on 3,271 participants.

APPENDIX F: STATISTICAL RESULTS

Table F1

Results of the Dominant Characteristics: Now Assessment by Culture Type

Culture	Clan			Adhocracy			Market			Hierarchy		
Test	MD	SD	SIG	MD	SD	SIG	MD	SD	SIG	MD	SD	SIG
Tenured	26.85	22.58	.044	13.15	12.48	.102	26.95	20.18	.188	33.05	26.99	.085
N-Tenure	34.07	24.70		16.17	11.86		23.22	16.83		26.54	22.3	
Full Time	14.45	12.37	.095	26.67	19.26	.949	31.07	26.15	.220	34.62	20.32	.485
Part Time	14.64	11.67		23.51	15.43		28.16	22.08		43.84	22.58	
Male	33.30	24.50	.220	17.17	12.37	.058	17.17	12.37	.058	23.89	21.72	.017
Female	27.10	21.04		13.04	12.09		13.04	12.09		34.61	26.45	
Caucasian	38.41	19.46	.978	14.80	12.05	.498	14.80	12.05	.498	29.91	24.45	.569
Minority	31.84	14.64		16.84	13.96		16.84	13.96		33.42	29.77	

Table F2

Results of the Dominant Characteristics: Preferred Assessment by Culture Type

Culture	Clan			Adhocracy			Market			Hierarchy		
Test	MD	SD	SIG	MD	SD	SIG	MD	SD	SIG	MD	SD	SIG
Tenured	36.21	19.84	.197	28.52	14.12	.920	24.09	17.50	.013	11.16	9.48	.194
N-Tenure	40.30	22.24		28.29	16.87		18.29	12.55		13.10	10.32	
Full Time	34.62	20.23	.003	28.04	14.82	.359	24.40	16.95	.003	12.93	10.84	.822
Part Time	43.87	22.25		26.04	14.85		17.50	12.50		12.58	10.19	
Male	37.03	20.59	.611	27.17	12.63	.238	24.98	18.13	.009	10.80	9.68	.212
Female	38.64	20.04		30.00	17.38		18.64	12.75		12.71	9.98	
Caucasian	38.41	19.46	.158	29.29	15.23	.925	20.94	14.69	.392	11.34	9.15	.085
Minority	31.84	14.64		28.94	13.59		23.94	11.12		15.26	10.06	

Table F3

Results of the Leadership Characteristics: Now Assessment by Culture Type

Culture	Clan			Adhocracy			Market			Hierarchy		
Test	MD	SD	SIG	MD	SD	SIG	MD	SD	SIG	MD	SD	SIG
Tenured	25.10	21.69	.193	14.84	13.05	.908	32.47	28.43	.037	27.57	23.52	.313
N-Tenure	29.82	26.43		15.07	13.46		24.01	24.46		31.08	22.32	
Full Time	25.97	23.03	.750	14.52	12.44	.754	27.18	25.25	.699	32.32	25.76	.377
Part Time	27.09	24.15		15.12	13.88		28.72	28.89		29.04	20.99	
Male	27.30	23.55	.567	16.31	13.76	.399	24.14	21.37	.074	32.23	22.78	.312
Female	25.33	20.83		14.57	12.85		31.45	29.59		28.63	23.09	
Caucasian	26.16	22.23	.332	15.47	13.69	.819	28.56	27.23	.825	29.79	23.19	.438
Minority	21.05	14.48		14.73	9.49		30.00	20.74		34.21	23.70	

Table F4

Results of the Leadership Characteristics: Preferred Assessment by Culture Type

Culture	Clan			Adhocracy			Market			Hierarchy		
Test	MD	SD	SIG	MD	SD	SIG	MD	SD	SIG	MD	SD	SIG
Tenured	40.10	18.80	.313	25.42	14.00	.786	12.47	10.91	.225	22.00	15.46	.458
N-Tenure	40.90	20.44		22.84	14.03		11.29	10.09		24.95	14.59	
Full Time	36.80	19.16	.377	24.73	15.11	.075	13.63	13.49	.317	24.82	15.93	.256
Part Time	42.12	20.98		22.51	13.47		11.46	10.02		23.88	14.71	
Male	38.68	19.63	.312	24.07	13.50	.450	13.68	10.87	.657	23.55	16.01	.055
Female	40.86	17.62		25.03	14.25		10.55	10.07		23.54	14.32	
Caucasian	41.40	19.14	.438	24.46	13.69	.075	11.76	10.47	.571	22.36	13.58	.176
Minority	33.42	8.17		26.31	10.38		15.26	10.86		25.00	11.05	

Table F5

Results of the Management Characteristics: Now Assessment by Culture Type

Culture	Clan			Adhocracy			Market			Hierarchy		
Test	MD	SD	SIG	MD	SD	SIG	MD	SD	SIG	MD	SD	SIG
Tenured	25.52	20.15	.004	13.24	9.96	.077	23.60	22.37	.249	37.63	26.76	.014
N-Tenure	35.56	24.95		16.29	12.79		19.78	21.40		28.36	22.19	
Full Time	28.93	22.82	.430	14.02	11.38	.136	21.31	21.75	.879	35.72	27.07	.221
Part Time	31.69	22.86		16.69	12.27		20.80	22.10		30.80	24.33	
Male	32.36	22.98	.072	16.05	11.58	.221	18.55	15.37	.047	33.02	23.26	.708
Female	26.36	19.90		13.86	11.35		25.29	25.80		34.46	26.00	
Caucasian	29.11	21.44	.309	14.96	11.53	.697	21.72	22.11	.501	34.19	25.44	.929
Minority	23.94	17.29		16.05	10.48		25.26	15.31		34.78	20.71	

Table F6

Results of the Management Characteristics: Preferred Assessment by Culture Type

Culture	Clan			Adhocracy			Market			Hierarchy		
Test	MD	SD	SIG	MD	SD	SIG	MD	SD	SIG	MD	SD	SIG
Tenured	44.26	18.65	.712	22.10	12.23	.545	14.42	15.03	.352	19.21	12.57	.796
N-Tenure	45.36	21.09		23.35	15.13		12.56	10.72		18.71	12.66	
Full Time	41.82	19.76	.088	23.14	14.14	.458	14.96	15.58	.217	20.07	15.54	.671
Part Time	47.01	20.09		21.61	11.90		12.25	10.97		19.11	12.78	
Male	43.61	19.58	.949	21.71	12.01	.176	16.25	16.36	.027	18.42	12.68	.424
Female	43.80	17.65		24.56	14.68		11.68	11.05		19.94	11.94	
Caucasian	45.00	18.49	.030	23.27	13.55	.836	12.92	11.41	.064	18.80	12.24	.194
Minority	35.26	15.13		23.94	10.48		18.15	12.04		22.63	10.05	

Table F7

Results of the Organizational Glue: Now Assessment by Culture Type

Culture	Clan			Adhocracy			Market			Hierarchy		
Test	MD	SD	SIG	MD	SD	SIG	MD	SD	SIG	MD	SD	SIG
Tenured	27.73	26.58	.453	13.06	12.21	.082	20.71	19.66	.723	38.48	30.23	.073
N-Tenure	30.68	25.31		16.47	13.74		21.75	19.15		31.08	23.09	
Full Time	27.52	25.84	.731	13.96	12.71	.263	22.34	19.99	.376	36.16	27.18	.523
Part Time	30.64	25.04		16.20	13.32		19.67	18.14		33.46	27.18	
Male	30.92	26.93	.280	15.34	12.15	.663	20.89	17.39	.960	32.84	25.76	.215
Female	26.69	23.58		14.46	13.52		20.75	19.22		38.08	28.29	
Caucasian	29.64	25.57	.132	14.51	12.92	.185	20.40	18.55	.232	35.42	27.14	.948
Minority	20.52	15.97		18.68	12.11		25.78	16.68		35.00	26.35	

Table F8

Results of the Organizational Glue: Preferred Assessment by Culture Type

Culture	Clan			Adhocracy			Market			Hierarchy		
Test	MD	SD	SIG	MD	SD	SIG	MD	SD	SIG	MD	SD	SIG
Tenured	43.87	20.27	.871	26.58	15.16	.441	14.38	11.24	.413	15.16	11.39	.135
N-Tenure	44.39	22.01		24.81	15.28		12.98	11.07		17.80	11.91	
Full Time	42.38	20.51	.378	26.05	15.85	.532	14.55	11.41	.206	17.00	14.14	.704
Part Time	45.24	15.85		24.59	13.22		12.37	10.55		17.79	11.76	
Male	42.67	21.54	.470	23.34	12.12	.489	16.25	11.29	.005	15.73	11.81	.631
Female	44.94	19.17		26.95	14.69		11.52	9.99		16.57	10.76	
Caucasian	44.52	20.14	.268	25.85	13.90	.623	13.62	11.00	.262	15.99	11.59	.151
Minority	39.21	14.45		24.21	11.32		16.57	8.34		20.00	9.42	

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Table F9

Results of the Strategic Emphasis: Now Assessment by Culture Type

Culture	Clan			Adhocracy			Market			Hierarchy		
Test	MD	SD	SIG	MD	SD	SIG	MD	SD	SIG	MD	SD	SIG
Tenured	21.84	18.60	.139	18.89	14.71	.696	25.21	20.78	.240	34.09	26.07	.991
N-Tenure	26.56	23.42		18.06	13.38		21.30	23.27		34.05	26.69	
Full Time	23.28	20.83	.668	19.48	14.38	.756	25.17	22.29	.162	32.04	25.58	.314
Part Time	24.67	20.72		18.79	14.50		20.40	21.19		36.12	26.83	
Male	24.86	19.99	.479	20.26	13.61	.171	19.67	16.31	.081	35.19	24.77	.866
Female	22.72	18.99		17.34	17.34		25.40	24.23		34.52	26.63	
Caucasian	23.16	19.06	.905	18.73	13.85	.886	23.27	21.61	.517	34.82	26.10	.601
Minority	22.63	12.28		19.21	11.21		20.00	9.86		38.15	25.61	

Table F10

Results of the Strategic Emphasis: Preferred Assessment by Culture Type

Culture	Clan			Adhocracy			Market			Hierarchy		
Test	MD	SD	SIG	MD	SD	SIG	MD	SD	SIG	MD	SD	SIG
Tenured	38.21	17.36	.570	28.57	11.07	.254	16.25	14.10	.234	16.95	10.45	.087
N-Tenure	39.93	19.97		26.46	15.30		13.90	10.85		19.93	12.48	
Full Time	38.16	17.46	.414	29.00	13.38	.058	15.76	13.19	.340	17.21	10.63	.058
Part Time	40.40	19.94		25.08	11.92		13.93	11.08		20.58	12.61	
Male	37.76	18.28	.509	25.46	11.40	.035	17.35	14.50	.063	19.68	12.23	.232
Female	39.40	16.78		29.23	12.53		13.75	10.93		17.60	10.09	
Caucasian	40.38	17.46	.048	27.64	12.37	.835	14.28	10.84	.118	17.80	11.17	.193
Minority	32.10	10.45		28.15	6.91		18.42	8.98		21.31	9.25	

Table F11

Results of the Criteria for Success: Now Assessment by Culture Type

Culture	Clan			Adhocracy			Market			Hierarchy		
Test	MD	SD	SIG	MD	SD	SIG	MD	SD	SIG	MD	SD	SIG
Tenured	23.93	22.52	.062	15.42	14.88	.287	29.31	22.33	.401	31.57	22.93	.582
N-Tenure	30.98	22.27		13.73	14.21		27.76	22.36		27.51	19.16	
Full Time	27.61	25.50	.774	15.00	14.74	.664	27.58	21.83	.721	29.79	21.70	.336
Part Time	26.47	24.29		13.95	14.31		30.48	23.20		29.51	20.73	
Male	24.32	23.19	.435	15.26	13.82	.773	29.40	19.28	.300	30.98	20.08	.973
Female	27.20	23.91		13.05	11.87		29.20	24.66		30.82	22.02	
Caucasian	26.20	24.12	.558	13.97	13.08	.287	29.57	22.84	.296	30.42	21.25	.323
Minority	22.89	12.50		17.36	10.84		24.47	13.21		35.26	19.75	

Table F12

Results of the Criteria for Success: Preferred Assessment by Culture Type

Culture	Clan			Adhocracy			Market			Hierarchy		
Test	MD	SD	SIG	MD	SD	SIG	MD	SD	SIG	MD	SD	SIG
Tenured	42.42	21.60	.250	18.92	14.44	.045	17.54	11.36	.820	21.10	15.17	.912
N-Tenure	46.34	23.59		14.82	12.24		17.97	13.59		20.85	15.10	
Full Time	42.52	20.82	.192	17.98	14.33	.221	17.92	12.41	.798	21.52	15.70	.524
Part Time	47.25	25.40		15.32	12.00		17.41	12.00		20.00	13.99	
Male	40.46	20.69	.107	19.86	14.98	.048	18.75	12.25	.314	20.92	15.82	.779
Female	45.81	21.85		15.71	11.99		16.89	11.53		21.57	14.37	
Caucasian	44.96	21.25	.013	16.72	11.94	.186	17.85	12.74	.288	20.45	14.60	.115
Minority	32.36	12.17		20.52	9.84		21.05	7.91		26.05	12.97	

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