ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF: SALARIES AND ISSUES

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This chapter discusses salaries and related issues affecting nonfaculty employees of American colleges and universities—the majority of the academic workforce. Salaries, benefits, and working conditions vary with the type of employer—public vs. independent, and two-year vs. four-year, for example—reflecting institutional values and constraints.

The chapter addresses the following questions:

- What is the racial/ethnic and gender composition of the staff of higher education, and how has the composition changed over the past year?
- Where and to what extent are part-time staff used?
- Which occupations have expanded?
- Where has new hiring occurred?
- What are the trends in administrative salaries, and how do salaries differ by type of employer and level of position?
- How does performance appraisal or the evaluation of staff depend on the level of position?

CATEGORIES OF EMPLOYMENT

The National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), U.S. Department of Education, uses job categories established by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC). Colleges and universities regularly file reports on employment in higher education with NCES. This major source of data uses the following definitions of the job categories.[1]

Professional Positions

Administrative, executive, and managerial: Persons with primary responsibility for management of the institution or a customary subdivision. This chapter abbreviates the category as "executive."

Faculty: Persons conducting instruction, research, or public service as a principal activity and who hold academic-rank titles.

Instruction/Research Assistants: Students (typically graduate students) hired part-time to assist in instruction or research. This chapter calls the category "student assistants."

Other Professionals (support/service): Persons employed primarily to perform academic and

institutional support and student service activities, whose assignments require college graduation or experience to provide a comparable background. This chapter calls the category "support professional."

All executive and support professional positions are commonly referred to as administrators. NCES uses the term "professional" to designate those positions that require a college education or equivalent.

Nonprofessional Positions

Technical and paraprofessional: Persons whose assignments require specialized knowledge or skills, acquired through experience or academic work offered in two-year institutions or through equivalent on-the-job training.

Clerical and secretarial: Persons who carry out such activities.

Skilled crafts: Persons whose assignments typically require special manual skills and a thorough, comprehensive knowledge of the processes involved in the work.

Service/maintenance: Persons whose assignments require limited degrees of previously acquired skills and knowledge and who contribute to the welfare of personnel and students or to the care of institutional property.

This chapter uses the NCES term, "nonprofessional"—the term refers to a level of required knowledge, not an approach to work—to designate staff in these categories.

COMPOSITION

Between 1991 and 1993, total employment in higher education increased 2.3 percent to 2,602,612 according to the Fall Staff Survey for higher education institutions in the 50 states and the District of Columbia. In 1993, almost two-thirds (64.8 percent) of all job holders and seven-tenths (69.4 percent) of the full-time employees were not faculty members (Table 1).

Gender

Women were most prevalent in the secretarial/clerical category (88.4 percent) and formed the majority in two other categories—support professionals (60.8 percent) and technical and paraprofessional positions (60.2 percent). In contrast with men, women in full-time positions were more likely to be support professionals than faculty. Very few women filled positions in the skilled crafts (6.5 percent).

The data permit cautious comparisons between the gender patterns in 1991 and 1993.[2]

TABLE 1

EMPLOYMENT IN AMERICAN HIGHER EDUCATION BY EEO CATEGORY AND GENDER, 1993-94 (IN THOUSANDS)

	Full Time				Full-Time and Part-Time				
	Men	Women	Both	Category % of Total	Men	Women	Both	Category % of Total	Women as Percent of Both
Executive	80	58	138	7.7	83	61	144	5.5	42.4
Faculty	363	182	546	30.6	561	354	915	35.2	38.7
Student Assistants	-	-	-	0.0	120	82	203	7.8	40.6
Support Professional	143	213	356	19.9	167	259	425	16.3	60.8
Technical	59	84	143	8.0	73	111	184	7.1	60.2
Clerical	33	319	352	19.7	51	387	438	16.8	88.4
Skilled Crafts	58	3	61	3.4	60	4	64	2.5	6.5
Service	118	70	189	10.6	141	88	229	8.8	38.5
Total	854	929	1784	100.0	1256	1347	2603	100.0	51.7

SOURCE: National Center for Education Statistics, IPEDS Fall Staff Survey, 1993.

The gender composition of the academic workforce changed little between these years (percentage of women: 51.8 in 1991; 51.7 in 1993). The percentage of women in technical positions declined substantially—65.9 percent in 1991; 60.2 percent in 1993—but other shifts between the two years were small.

Race/Ethnicity

The racial composition of the full-time staff in each EEO category showed little change. In 1993, as in previous years, the higher-status categories tended to have higher percentages of whites.[3] Conversely, lower-status categories tended to have higher percentages of Blacks and Hispanics; the service category had the highest percentage of both groups. A change in treatment of nonresident aliens (NRAs) in the 1991 and 1993 NCES surveys obscures changes in racial and ethnic composition.[4] But, the data reveal few major shifts. The percentage of whites and of Hispanics in each category stayed constant to within about half of 1 percent. Among support professionals, the percentage of Blacks increased from 8.6 to 9.6 percent; the percentage of Asian Americans dropped from 5.4 to 4.5 percent..

Shifts in Employment by Category

Total full-time employment in higher education decreased by 1.6 percent between 1991 and 1993—a marked contrast to the 5.8 overall increase and the 21.6 percent increase in full-time support professionals posted between 1987 and 1991.[5] Only the faculty category showed even a slight gain (1.9 percent). The number of full-time employees holding "nonprofessional" positions declined 4.7 percent. In this climate, the 0.4 percent drop in full-time support professionals suggests a relative advantage for the category—men increased by 0.3 percent, while women dropped more precipitously.

The independent, not-for-profit sector continued to experience slight gains in full-time employment—0.8 percent between the two years. Full-time support professionals in this sector increased by 2.8 percent; men showed a 5.1 percent increase. But the full-time positions in each "nonprofessional" EEO category decreased (3.2 percent in the four categories combined).

TABLE 2

AMERICAN HIGHER EDUCATION FULL-TIME STAFF, 1993-94, PERCENTAGES OF EACH RACE IN THE EEO CATEGORY

	Black	Asian	Hispanic	White
Executive	8.9	1.6	2.6	86.2
Faculty	4.8	4.7	2.3	87.6
Support Professional	9.6	4.5	3.2	82.1
Technical	16.6	4.2	4.8	73.7
Clerical	16.4	2.4	5.7	74.7
Skilled Crafts	11.0	1.1	5.4	81.4
Service	32.0	2.1	9.1	55.8
TOTAL	12.5	3.5	4.2	79.1

NOTES:
(1) Data exclude Nonresident Aliens.
(2) American Indian and "Unknown" categories are not shown. Percentages are of the total staff in each EEO category.

SOURCE: National Center for Education Statistics, IPEDS Fall Staff Survey, 1993.

Part-Time Employment

The 11.9 percent increase in part-time employment to 819,102 employees between 1991 and 1993 more than counterbalanced the decrease in full-time workers.[6] The 27.2 percent increase in part-time faculty members accounted for most of this change. Excluding faculty, part-time positions increased only 1.7 percent over the two years—a noteworthy increase, given the decrease in full-time positions. There were remarkable shifts among the EEO categories. Part-time secretarial/clerical positions more than doubled to 86,079; part-time technical positions decreased by almost exactly the same amount.

The relative importance of part-time employment varied with the EEO category (Table 3). Part-timers made up 40.4 percent of the total faculty, but only 26.6 percent of the nonfaculty workforce (19.9 percent, excluding student assistants). Only 4.1 percent and 4.9 percent of the executive and skilled-crafts positions, respectively, were part-time. Women were more likely than men to be hired part-time in all EEO categories except for the secretarial/clerical.

Over the two years, the percentage that part-time positions contributed to the total increased consistently: in faculty, from 35.2 percent; in the positions excluding faculty and student assistants, from 16.0 percent.

Has the number of full-time-equivalent (FTE) staff changed? NCES calculates FTE by summing two terms: the number of full-time staff and the product of the number of part-time employees and a multiplier that estimates the ratio between the contributions of part-timers and full-timers. Using the NCES multipliers published in 1992,[7] the number of FTE did not change between 1991 and 1993 (+0.01 percent).[8]

Did the use of part-time staff vary by type of control and institutional degree level in 1993? Public and independent institutions showed no consistent difference in their use of part-time staff (Table 4). Two-year institutions were more likely than four-year institutions to use more part-time assistance. But public two-year and four-year institutions showed similar part-time percentages for staff *excluding faculty, but including student assistants*. The use of student assistants in four-year institutions compensated for higher use of part-time staff in other employment categories in the two-year institutions.

Did the percentage of part-time staff vary by region? Variation in part-time academic employment might follow regional economic patterns if institutions shifted to part-timers to remedy financial constraints. But the data do not support any simple hypothesis (Table 5).[9] The Rocky Mountain states—one of the healthiest regions in 1993—reported the highest use of part-time nonfaculty positions. New England—then experiencing major economic problems—had an average part-time employee level.[10]

Did some difference in institutional composition create differences in part-time percentages? In the regions with the highest (Rocky Mountains) and lowest (Southeast) rates, the differences in part-time percentages primarily reflected differences within one sector—public four-year institutions, where the part-time rates for staff, excluding faculty and student assistants, were 23.8 percent and 9.5 percent, respectively. Percentages of part-time employees were consistently higher across all EEO categories in the public four-year sector in the Rocky Mountain states.

New Hires

Hiring many people into an institution may indicate growth in the number of positions, the filling of vacated positions, or both. Even if the new hires simply represent "musi-

TABLE 3

PART-TIME STAFF IN AMERICAN HIGHER EDUCATION, 1993-94 BY EEO CATEGORY AND GENDER NUMBER (IN THOUSANDS) AND PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL IN CATEGORY

	Number			Percentage of Total		
	Men	Women	Both	Men	Women	Both
Executive	3	3	6	3.2	5.2	4.1
Faculty	198	172	370	35.2	48.6	40.4
Student Assistants	120	82	203	100.0	100.0	100.0
Support Professional	24	46	70	14.4	17.7	16.4
Technical	14	27	41	19.3	24.4	22.4
Clerical	18	68	86	35.6	17.6	19.7
Skilled Crafts	2	1	3	3.6	23.4	4.9
Service	23	18	41	16.0	20.4	17.7
TOTAL	402	417	819	32.0	31.0	31.5

SOURCE: National Center for Education Statistics, IPEDS Fall Staff Survey, 1993.

TABLE 4

PART-TIME EMPLOYEES BY SECTOR: AMERICAN HIGHER EDUCATION, 1993-94

	Percentage of Category that is Part-time		
	Faculty	Staff Other than Faculty	Staff Other than Faculty and Student Assistants
System Offices	42.4	13.6	12.7
Public 4-year	23.7	29.4	14.0
Independent 4-year	37.6	21.0	16.4
For-profit 4-year	65.3	39.1	25.1
Public 2-year	64.9	28.9	27.9
Independent 2-year	45.1	22.2	21.5
For-profit 2-year	49.9	19.1	16.7

NOTES:
(1) Institutions offering less than two-year degrees (independent and for-profit) are omitted from the table. Few staff are in these sectors.
(2) The label "4-year" implies that the institution grants bachelor's and higher level degrees.

SOURCE: National Center for Education Statistics, IPEDS Fall Staff Survey, 1993.

TABLE 5

PART-TIME EMPLOYEES BY REGION: AMERICAN HIGHER EDUCATION, 1993-94

	Percentage of Category that is Part-Time		
	Faculty	Staff Other than Faculty	Staff Other than Faculty and Student Assistants
U.S. Service Schools	0.2	3.6	2.0
New England	38.8	26.8	18.8
Mid-Atlantic	43.9	25.0	17.3
Great Lakes	43.5	32.1	19.3
Plains	32.2	29.9	18.6
Southeast	34.7	20.8	11.8
Southwest	41.2	27.8	16.7
Rocky Mountains	35.3	35.6	22.2
Far West	45.8	27.4	16.9
Outside 50 States and D.C.	32.9	10.6	--

NOTE: This table differs from others by including institutions that are outside the 50 states and the District of Columbia, in Puerto Rico, for example.

SOURCE: National Center for Education Statistics, IPEDS Fall Staff Survey, 1993.

cal chairs," high percentages imply opportunities to enter and move within a field. Conversely, a low percentage of new hires indicates an unfavorable economic climate. We present NCES data on new hires during the months prior to the 1993 staff survey as percentages of 1993 full-time employment in the respective categories.[11]

The data indirectly suggest a connection between growth in the number of full-time employees—measured from fall 1991 to fall 1993—and the percentage of new hires (Table 6). The two variables are related, though one variable relates to behavior over two years; the other, three months. The women faculty category showed the highest two-year increase and the highest percentage of new hires. The correlation coefficient between employee growth and new hires, measured for the 14 pairs defined by EEO category and gender, is R = 0.62 (probability = .017). The result, though not surprising, is not trivial given the relationships between funding and new hires described below.

Was there a strong relationship between hiring into one EEO category and hiring into others? We constructed a variable that combined the number of new hires in all four "nonprofessional" categories and found a significant correlation between this variable and hiring into each of the three professional EEO categories. The smallest correlation found (R=.414) was between new hires in the "nonprofessional" and executive categories.[12] Thus, whatever caused high or low turnover in one EEO category similarly affected the other categories.

We found a consistent relationship between the number of new faculty hires and

TABLE 6

COMPARISON OF THE INCREASE IN FULL-TIME STAFF IN AMERICAN HIGHER EDUCATION, FALL 1993 OVER 1991, WITH 1993 NEW HIRES, BY EEO CATEGORY (NUMBER IN THOUSANDS)

	Number in 1993			% Increase in Staff [1]			% New Hires [2]		
	Men	Women	Both	Men	Women	Both	Men	Women	Both
Executive	80	58	138	-3.4	2.7	-0.9	3.6	4.4	3.9
Faculty	363	182	546	-0.8	7.6	1.9	5.2	8.5	6.3
Support Professional	143	213	356	0.3	-0.9	-0.4	7.2	6.2	6.6
Technical	59	84	143	-3.3	-0.1	-1.5	6.2	6.5	6.4
Clerical	33	319	352	3.1	-5.9	-5.1	6.2	4.6	4.8
Skilled Crafts	58	3	61	-3.6	-7.8	-3.8	2.3	5.0	2.5
Service	118	70	189	-4.9	-8.9	-6.4	5.0	4.2	4.7
TOTAL	854	929	1,784	-1.7	-1.6	-1.6	5.3	5.9	5.6

[1] Percentage increase in full-time staff between Fall 1991 and Fall 1993. 1991 data were reconstructed to make institutional coverage consistent with 1993.

[2] Full-time positions filled prior to Fall 1993 were reported by institutions in IPEDS Fall Staff Surveys. They are shown here as a percentage of the 1993 full-time positions.

SOURCES: National Center for Education Statistics, IPEDS 1991 and 1993, and Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, Higher Education Staff Information (EEO-6) Survey, 1991.

the number of new staff hires. Faculty hiring had priority over "nonprofessional" employee hiring in almost every state during FY 1993 (Figure 1). [13] Executive new hires followed the rule even more closely; only in Hawaii were executives hired at a substantially higher rate than faculty. The rate of faculty hiring exceeded the rate for support professionals in most states, though the relationship was less clear-cut.

Should the number of new hires in public institutions depend on the state's appropriation level? We expected so, if new hires reflected a change in the number of employees rather than replacement. We compared new hires into each EEO category as a percentage of full-time employees with the percentage increase in that state's higher education appropriation.[14] Within the public sector, across the 50 states, there was no significant correlation between the appropriations increases—FY 1991 to FY 1993 and FY 1992 to FY 1993—and any of the new-hire percentages.[15] We deleted two-year institutions from the correlation calculations to eliminate the possibility that local funding obscured a relationship. But the coefficients still showed low significance.

The early 1990s were a difficult time for public institutions. Higher education appropriations declined in 23 states between FY 1992 and FY 1993; appropriations had decreased in 23 states—many the same—between FY 1991 and FY 1992. Would a substantial decrease in FY 1992 education funding disrupt the hiring patterns in FY 1993 expected from that year's funding? Would pent-up demand, regardless of funding, require hiring in FY 1993 to counteract consequences of the inability to hire in the previous year? We eliminated from our calculations the nine states where FY 1992 appropriations dropped by more than 3 percent. Correlations increased between the number of new hires and FY 1993 appropriation increases in the remaining 41 states, although the relationship was not strong.[16]

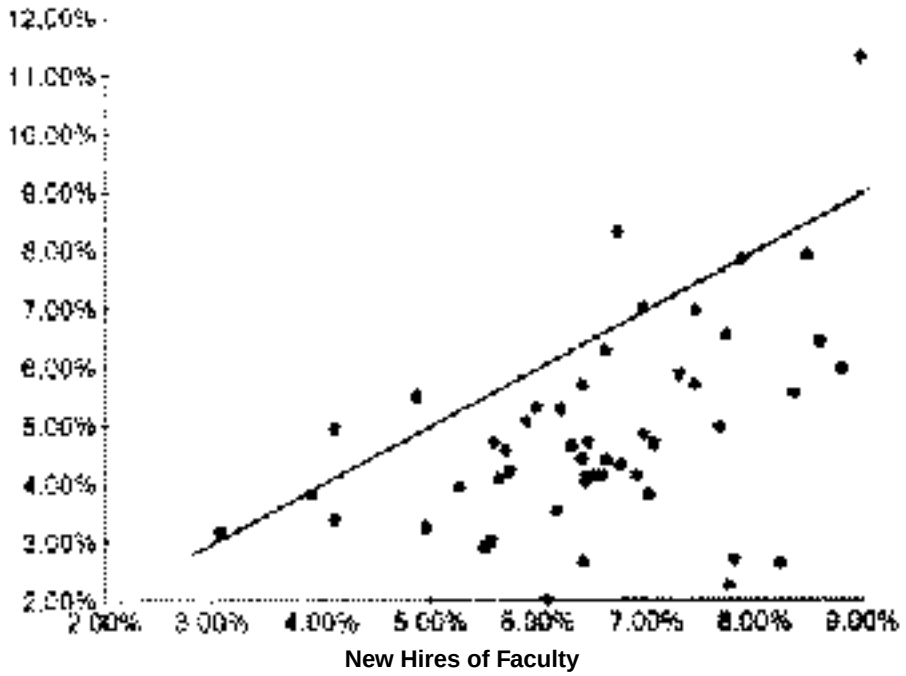
SALARIES

Annual Salaries of Administrators

The administrative compensation survey conducted by the College and University Personnel Association (CUPA) provides the most

FIGURE 1

NEW HIRES: NONPROFESSIONAL VS. FACULTY FY93 BY STATE (INCLUDES DC)



SOURCE: National Center for Education Statistics, IPEDS Fall Staff Survey 1993.

comprehensive and up-to-date data available on administrator salaries in American colleges and universities. For 1995-96, CUPA reported the salaries of 170 administrative positions in 1,384 institutions, by institutional category.[17]

CUPA provides salaries paid by institutional funds for 12-month positions that exist in the fall of the year. The reported salaries exclude benefits and external compensation, including earnings contributed by a foundation.

The median salary for all positions increased by 4.2 percent between 1994-95 and 1995-96; prior annual increases were 4.4 percent in 1994-95, 3.2 percent in 1993-94, and 3.3 percent in 1992-93. This year's increases varied little by institutional type: 4.1 percent for doctoral, baccalaureate, and two-year institutions and 3.5 percent for comprehensive institutions.[18]

Increases were uniform across positions within the academic organization. Positions in administrative offices stood out with an increase in the median salary of 4.9 percent. Increases ranged from 3.8 to 4.5 percent for the executive, academic, external affairs, and student services categories. The only noteworthy distinction was the difference between median salaries by type of control—5.9 percent at independent institutions; 3.9 percent at public institutions.[19]

The $201,240 median salary of the dean of medicine position was the highest in the survey, though it represented only a 0.9 percent increase over last year's figure.[20] The rank order of positions by their median salaries remained relatively constant.

The median salaries for senior officer positions increased significantly in 1995-96. The

median salary for the chief executive officer (CEO), normally the president, was $114,298, up 6.6 percent. Median salaries for the chief officers of the traditional divisions (normally vice presidents) were: $86,504 in academic affairs, up 6.2 percent; $82,027 in business, up 6.3 percent; $75,000 in development, up 4.9 percent; and $70,382 in student affairs, up 4.0 percent. These salaries maintained the same rank order as in previous years, but some types of institutions valued business positions more highly than academic positions. The salary of the chief business officer had pulled ahead of the chief academic officer in general baccalaureate institutions in 1994-95. This reversal occurred for all independent and all two-year institutions in 1995-96.[21]

Tables 7, 8, and 9 compare median salaries of selected administrative positions in 1981-82, 1991-92, 1994-95, and 1995-96. Each table represents one sector—public, independent, or religious institutions, respectively—and includes three groups of positions.[22] The first group includes the senior officers, the CEO, and the four chief officers of their divisions, as above. The second group includes eight deans for whom the data were available over the given years and for whom—except for the dean of arts and sciences—faculty disciplines correspond. The positions in the final group—heads of units of support professionals—were selected for representation across the academic, business, external, and student areas. The average across the positions forms a summary index for senior officers, deans, and support professionals. The average salary of the deans or support professionals is derived from a sample; its absolute value, therefore, does not typify all positions in the category. But *changes* in each average are meaningful.

The data reveal similarities across institutional sectors. The rank order of the salaries was relatively independent of type of control. The salary of the engineering dean, for example, was consistently the highest among the deans. It uniformly exceeded the salaries of all senior officers in each respective sector, except for the CEO. The chief officers for personnel, plant, and admissions led the other support professionals in salary, though their respective levels varied with the sector. Salaries passed a benchmark in 1995-96—the CEO salary in each sector exceeded $100,000 because of the 10.1 percent increase in the median salary at religious institutions (Table 9).[23]

Comparisons Across Institutional Sectors

Annual salary increases were greatest for senior officers and support positions in the religious sector, thereby reducing the uniformly wide gap between salaries at these institutions and the other two sectors.

Differences between the public and independent sectors depended on the position. Among deans, public institutions have paid slightly higher average median salaries than independent institutions. Salary levels for support professionals were also higher in the public sector, except for the physical plant and the admissions officers. In contrast, among senior officers the median salaries paid at independent institutions exceeded the corresponding median salaries at public institutions, except for the chief of student affairs. The 1995-96 median salary for CEOs at independent institutions was 32 percent higher than CEO salaries at public institutions. This difference was less than last year's, since independent CEOs only received a 2.6 percent salary increase while the increase for CEOs in the public sector was 5.8 percent.

Until this year, independent sector salary increases were uniformly higher than increases in the public sector over each time interval, except for deans before 1991-92. But 1995-96 increases for senior officials—where salary differences have been particularly great—were the same in the two sectors. Moreover, public-sector deans received higher increases this year than the independent deans, increasing the spread between the sectors.

The Increasing Gap

During the 10 years ending in 1991-92, salary increases for the average of five senior positions exceeded increases for the average for support positions for each institutional type: public—78 vs. 63 percent; independent—90 vs. 71 percent, and religious—86 vs. 61 percent. The range of salaries therefore generally increased at all types of institutions, in dollar terms and as a percentage of salary.

Business and industry show the same growing disparity between the salaries of executives and other workers. The pay of business CEOs grew four times faster than the pay of the average worker in the last decade. Until 1994, no executive was paid more than seven

TABLE 7

MEDIAN SALARIES OF SELECTED ADMINISTRATIVE POSITIONS, PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS, 1981-82 THROUGH 1995-96 (DOLLARS IN THOUSANDS)

	Salary				Percent Increase		
	1981-82	1991-92	1994-95	1995-96	1981-82 to 1991-92	1991-92 to 1994-95	1994-95 to 1995-96
Senior							
CEO, Institution	52.0	93.5	103.0	109.0	79.8	10.2	5.8
Chief Academic	43.0	76.2	85.5	89.8	77.2	12.2	5.0
Chief Business	40.5	71.6	78.9	83.6	76.8	10.2	6.0
Chief Development	36.5	65.0	72.5	74.8	78.1	11.5	3.2
Chief Student Affairs	37.8	66.2	72.9	76.0	75.1	10.1	4.3
Average 5 Senior	42.0	74.5	82.6	86.6	77.6	10.8	4.9
Deans							
Arts and Sciences	42.2	72.4	79.5	82.8	71.6	9.8	4.2
Business	39.2	71.6	78.6	82.6	82.7	9.8	5.1
Education	44.0	74.4	82.4	85.4	69.1	10.8	3.6
Engineering	48.1	90.2	101.5	114.5	87.5	12.5	12.8
Fine Arts	40.7	70.8	76.5	77.2	74.0	8.1	0.9
Nursing	37.5	68.9	75.0	79.7	83.7	8.9	6.3
Sciences	37.3	65.7	74.4	75.8	76.1	13.2	1.9
Social Work	46.6	87.4	92.2	102.1	87.6	5.5	10.7
Average 8 Deans	41.9	75.6	82.9	88.2	80.3	9.8	6.3
Support							
Director, Ed. Media Service	27.2	43.3	47.9	47.6	59.2	10.6	-0.6
Chief/Personnel*	32.2	54.6	59.6	60.6	69.6	9.2	1.7
Chief/Physical Plant*	30.0	53.1	57.0	60.0	77.0	7.3	5.3
Bursar	23.9	40.1	45.2	45.8	67.8	12.7	1.3
Dir. Publications	25.6	39.3	44.1	44.5	53.5	12.2	0.9
Chief/Admissions*	31.1	47.8	51.2	53.9	53.7	7.1	5.3
Registrar	28.7	46.5	49.2	52.0	62.0	5.8	5.7
Dir. Foreign Students	24.8	38.2	40.2	42.5	54.0	5.2	5.7
Dir. Alumni Affairs	24.5	41.4	44.7	45.5	69.0	8.0	1.8
Average 9 Support	27.6	44.9	48.8	50.3	63.0	8.6	3.0

**Title was Director in 1981-82; Chief Officer, afterwards.*

NOTE: Data for 1991-92 and following years include only those institutions reporting their total budget.

SOURCES: CUPA, Administrative Compensation Surveys *of respective years.*

times the salary of the lowest-paid worker at socially responsible Ben & Jerry's. But the company gave up the policy in that year, fearing that it could attract a replacement for Ben Cohen only by raising the CEO pay level.[24]

By one count, the average compensation (salary and bonuses) for business CEOs rose by 18 percent to $1.65 million in 1995; corporate profits grew 15 percent and white-collar professionals averaged a 4.2 percent increase

TABLE 8

MEDIAN SALARIES OF SELECTED ADMINISTRATIVE POSITIONS, INDEPENDENT INSTITUTIONS, 1981-82 THROUGH 1995-96 (DOLLARS IN THOUSANDS)

	Salary				Percent Increase		
	1981-82	1991-92	1994-95	1995-96	1981-82 to 1991-92	1991-92 to 1994-95	1994-95 to 1995-96
Senior							
CEO, Institution	57.5	113.6	140.0	143.6	97.6	23.2	2.6
Chief Academic	42.5	77.9	90.0	95.0	83.3	15.5	5.6
Chief Business	40.0	76.1	89.4	97.6	90.3	17.5	9.2
Chief Development	37.1	71.6	82.8	88.1	93.0	15.6	6.4
Chief Student Affairs	33.4	59.8	71.5	72.6	79.0	19.6	1.5
Average 5 Senior	42.1	79.8	94.7	99.4	89.5	18.7	4.9
Deans							
Arts and Sciences	45.0	73.7	85.1	86.4	63.8	15.5	1.5
Business	47.5	80.6	89.6	92.4	69.7	11.2	3.1
Education	40.7	54.4	70.1	74.9	33.7	28.9	6.8
Engineering	52.0	93.0	109.0	112.4	78.8	17.2	3.1
Fine Arts	40.0	59.3	69.4	72.1	48.3	17.0	3.9
Nursing	35.0	65.0	72.1	69.5	85.7	10.9	-3.6
Sciences	29.2	56.9	65.5	69.7	94.9	15.1	6.4
Social Work	50.7	78.5	100.0	110.0	54.8	27.4	10.0
Average 8 Deans	42.5	70.2	82.6	85.9	65.1	17.7	4.0
Support							
Director, Ed. Media Service	21.0	32.6	36.1	38.3	55.2	10.7	6.1
Chief/Personnel*	26.4	48.0	54.1	55.9	81.8	12.7	3.3
Chief/Physical Plant*	27.8	49.4	59.2	61.0	77.7	19.8	3.0
Bursar	20.0	34.9	38.2	39.4	74.5	9.5	3.1
Dir. Publications	21.0	37.1	40.1	39.5	76.7	8.1	-1.5
Chief/Admissions*	27.5	50.5	55.6	59.0	83.6	10.1	6.1
Registrar	23.6	38.6	42.9	45.0	63.6	11.1	4.9
Dir. Foreign Students	21.4	32.6	36.2	37.6	52.3	11.0	3.9
Dir. Alumni Affairs	21.7	36.1	41.7	43.5	66.4	15.5	4.3
Average 9 Support	23.4	40.0	44.9	46.6	71.0	12.3	3.7

**Title was Director in 1981-82; Chief Officer, afterwards.*

NOTE: Data for 1991-92 and following years include only those institutions reporting their total budget.

SOURCES: CUPA, Administrative Compensation Surveys *of respective years.*

in the same year.[25] The *Los Angeles Times* analyzed the average pay received by CEOs for the years 1992 through 1994 at 618 large and mid-size firms. Direct compensation, including salary, bonuses, and stock options averaged $2.3 million per year. But, the analysis concluded, the large variation in CEO pay was irrational. About 31 percent of the variation came from difference in the company size; adding "company performance" to the regres-

TABLE 9

MEDIAN SALARIES OF SELECTED ADMINISTRATIVE POSITIONS, RELIGIOUS INSTITUTIONS, 1981-82 THROUGH 1995-96 (DOLLARS IN THOUSANDS)

	Salary				Percent Increase		
	1981-82	1991-92	1994-95	1995-96	1981-82 to 1991-92	1991-92 to 1994-95	1994-95 to 1995-96
Senior							
CEO, Institution	45.0	88.3	98.0	107.9	96.2	11.0	10.1
Chief Academic	33.0	60.0	68.0	75.0	81.8	13.3	10.3
Chief Business	31.4	58.2	66.5	69.9	85.4	14.3	5.1
Chief Development	31.2	55.3	62.5	67.0	77.2	13.0	7.2
Chief Student Affairs	26.1	48.1	54.1	59.3	84.3	12.5	9.6
Average 5 Senior	33.3	62.0	69.8	75.8	85.9	12.6	8.6
Deans							
Arts and Sciences	36.6	66.4	70.0	75.0	81.4	5.4	7.1
Business	36.2	63.2	72.6	71.9	74.6	14.9	-1.0
Education	30.6	45.0	50.7	55.5	47.1	12.7	9.5
Engineering	42.4	69.0	74.4	90.0	62.7	7.8	21.0
Fine Arts	29.2	36.2	48.4	51.0	24.0	33.7	5.4
Nursing	33.0	49.4	58.7	63.8	49.7	18.8	8.7
Sciences	28.1	40.3	47.7	50.9	43.4	18.4	6.7
Social Work	25.4	60.9	47.7	36.3	139.8	-21.7	-23.9
Average 8 Deans	32.7	53.8	58.8	61.8	64.6	9.2	5.1
Support							
Director, Ed. Media Service	17.7	27.8	32.1	34.3	57.1	15.5	6.9
Chief/Personnel*	22.5	38.0	41.7	45.0	68.9	9.7	7.9
Chief/Physical Plant*	21.8	39.9	45.0	47.4	83.0	12.8	5.3
Bursar	19.9	28.6	30.5	32.7	43.7	6.6	7.2
Dir. Publications	18.8	29.7	33.0	34.8	58.0	11.1	5.5
Chief/Admissions*	23.5	37.6	42.0	45.0	60.0	11.7	7.1
Registrar	19.8	33.2	36.4	38.0	67.7	9.6	4.4
Dir. Foreign Students	20.0	28.0	31.7	32.4	40.0	13.2	2.2
Dir. Alumni Affairs	18.0	30.5	34.8	35.7	69.4	14.1	2.6
Average 9 Support	20.2	32.6	36.4	38.4	61.2	11.6	5.5

**Title was Director in 1981-82; Chief Officer, afterwards.*

NOTE: Data for 1991-92 and following years include only those institutions reporting their total budget.

SOURCES: CUPA, Administrative Compensation Surveys *of respective years.*

sion equation increased its explanatory power only to 35 percent.[26] One possible explanation for high CEO salaries may apply to academe and business. The external board, responsible for setting the executive's pay, is often composed of other business CEOs who are accustomed to high pay levels.[27]

Tables 10, 11, and 12 present the salary increases between 1991-92 and 1994-95 and between 1994-95 and 1995-96 for each sector.

TABLE 10

MEDIAN SALARIES OF SELECTED SUPPORT POSITIONS, PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS, 1991-92 THROUGH 1995-96 (DOLLARS IN THOUSANDS)

	Salary			Percent Increase	
	1991-92	1994-95	1995-96	1991-92 to 1994-95	1994-95 to 1995-96
Average 9 Support Chief/Directors	44.9	48.8	50.3	8.6	3.0
Less Managerial					
Asst. to CEO (institution)	53.9	58.7	59.7	8.9	1.7
Associate Director Personnel	43.9	47.3	47.8	7.7	1.1
Data Base Administrator	45.7	48.1	46.8	5.3	-2.7
Mgr. Landscape/Grounds	32.9	35.3	37.1	7.3	5.1
Staff Accountant-High	31.1	34.4	34.9	10.6	1.5
Associate Bursar	33.0	37.3	36.9	13.0	-1.1
Associate Director Admissions	35.8	38.0	39.3	6.1	3.4
Academic Advisor	28.4	29.9	31.4	5.3	5.0
Assistant Registrar	30.2	32.1	33.4	6.3	4.0
Average 9 Less Managerial	37.2	40.1	40.8	7.8	1.7

NOTE: Data include only those institutions reporting their total budget.

SOURCES: CUPA, Administrative Compensation Surveys *of respective years.*

The list of support positions in colleges and universities includes "less managerial" positions, a practice begun in last year's *NEA Almanac*.[28] The averages for the positions selected in the public and religious sectors showed higher percentage increases among the higher salaried positions. In 1995-96, senior positions surpassed the "less managerial" slots by 3.2 percent in the public sector, and by 5.0 percent in the religious institutions (Tables 7 and 9). In contrast, the "less managerial" positions (Table 11) in the independent sector received on average higher percentage increases in 1995-96 than any other group (Table 8).

Public Community Colleges

CUPA reports on salaries in three undifferentiated sectors—public, independent, and religious. The large number of community colleges in the CUPA survey led us to ask how their presence affected our conclusions about the public sector.[29] Table 13 gives the median salaries of our standard set of positions and the percentage difference in median salary between the two- and four-year colleges for each position.[30] The percentage difference, both this year and last, tended to be lower for lower median salaries. Salaries in the "less managerial" support-professional group were nearly identical; the two-year group showed higher median salaries in two selected positions.

Salary structures differed for deans in two- and four-year institutions. The median salary range in two-year colleges was only $6,300 (tighter even than last year); four-year-institutions reported a $37,800 range. Also, in contrast with the four-year institutions, the chief academic officer had a higher median salary than all two-year college deans, including deans not listed in Table 13. Taken together, these results suggest closer adherence to a "scale" in the community colleges.

Does separating public institutions into two groups affect our comparisons between the public and independent sectors? Not for the CEO—the median salary for independent sector CEOs ($143,600, Table 8) exceeded the

TABLE 11

MEDIAN SALARIES OF SELECTED SUPPORT POSITIONS, INDEPENDENT INSTITUTIONS, 1991-92 THROUGH 1995-96 (DOLLARS IN THOUSANDS)

	Salary			Percent Increase	
	1991-92	1994-95	1995-96	1991-92 to 1994-95	1994-95 to 1995-96
Average 9 Support Chief/Directors	44.0	44.9	46.6	12.3	3.7
Less Managerial					
Asst. to CEO (institution)	42.7	45.1	50.0	5.6	10.9
Associate Director Personnel	36.7	41.5	41.6	13.1	0.2
Data Base Administrator	44.5	45.4	46.6	2.0	2.6
Mgr. Landscape/Grounds	32.9	36.6	36.5	11.2	-0.3
Staff Accountant-High	30.1	32.2	35.0	7.0	8.7
Associate Bursar	27.2	31.2	35.7	14.7	14.4
Associate Director Admissions	32.7	36.7	38.9	12.2	6.0
Academic Advisor	26.2	28.7	30.6	9.5	6.6
Assistant Registrar	25.0	27.0	27.0	8.0	0.0
Average 9 Less Managerial	33.1	36.0	38.0	8.9	5.4

NOTE: Data include only those institutions reporting their total budget.

SOURCES: CUPA, Administrative Compensation Surveys *of respective years.*

four-year public sector CEO median by 18 percent. But the rank order of salaries changed for the four chiefs of the major divisions. The independent-sector chiefs averaged $88,300; more than the $81,000 average for the entire public sector, but less than the $91,000 average in the *four-year* public institutions. Separating the other groups resulted in even greater disparities between four-year publics and the independent sector. So, except for the CEO, who reached an informal cap in the public sector, public four-year-institution salaries tended to surpass the respective salaries in the independent sector.

Four-year public institutions showed consistently higher annual salary increases than community colleges (Table 14). Moreover, within both public-sector groups, the higher salaried positions received higher percentage increases. "Less managerial" support professionals in two-year institutions—the category with the lowest average salary—showed a *decrease* in median salary between 1995 and 1996.

Gender Differences

Women generally earned lower median salaries than men in the same position. Table 15 compares salaries within institutions grouped by highest degree offered. If salaries were independent of gender, women's salaries would be higher than men's in about half the positions. Instead, in two-year institutions—the group most favorable to women—only 23 percent of the positions favored women. Comprehensive institutions were the least favorable; only 11 percent of the median salaries favored women. Women's salaries appeared least discrepant in the academic category.

TOTAL COMPENSATION

American School & University annually surveys administrative compensation for "schools" (primarily public school districts) and colleges.[31] These surveys combine public and independent institutions, but they separate community colleges from "four-year" colleges and universities. In addition to "professor," the

TABLE 12

MEDIAN SALARIES OF SELECTED SUPPORT POSITIONS, RELIGIOUS INSTITUTIONS, 1991-92 THROUGH 1995-96 (DOLLARS IN THOUSANDS)

	Salary			Percent Increase	
	1991-92	1994-95	1995-96	1991-92 to 1994-95	1994-95 to 1995-96
Average 9 Support Chief/Directors	32.6	36.4	38.4	11.6	5.5
Less Managerial					
Asst. to CEO (institution)	39.4	38.4	42.0	-2.5	9.4
Associate Director Personnel	31.0	36.0	36.3	16.1	0.8
Data Base Administrator	30.3	33.8	36.3	11.6	7.4
Mgr. Landscape/Grounds	26.9	29.3	29.0	8.9	-1.0
Staff Accountant-High	24.8	29.1	30.3	17.3	4.1
Associate Bursar	29.1	27.4	27.4	-5.8	0.0
Associate Director Admissions	27.8	30.0	30.9	7.9	3.0
Academic Advisor	25.8	29.3	29.6	13.6	1.0
Assistant Registrar	21.5	24.6	26.0	14.4	5.7
Average 9 Less Managerial	28.5	30.9	32.0	8.3	3.6

NOTE: Data include only those institutions reporting their total budget.

SOURCES: CUPA, Administrative Compensation Surveys *of respective years.*

AS&U survey covers seven postsecondary administrative positions: president; the chief academic, business, development, facilities, and purchasing officers; and the director of data processing. *AS&U* reported average salary increases of 3.2 and 3.6 percent for four- and two-year colleges, respectively, in 1995-96, down slightly from previous years. The journal sent the 1995 survey to 1,000 two- and four-year institutions, but the low rate of return (12 percent) makes CUPA's information about national administrative salaries more dependable.

The *AS&U* survey provides useful information on benefits, not included in the CUPA survey. The most frequent benefits reported for the eight positions were professional development opportunities and association or club membership. In addition, many officials received tuition for dependents, financial planning, supplemental health and life insurance, annual physical examinations, and deferred compensation. For each position, respondents listed the average pension or retirement benefit to be received as a percentage of the individual's final earnings. Two-year college presidents averaged 44.4 percent; colleagues at four-year institutions averaged 30.5 percent. The retirement-contribution percentage varied little by position within each sector. Almost half of the institutions offered post-retirement medical or health insurance plans—more likely partial than full coverage in the four-year sector; the reverse in the two-year sector.

Housing benefits were most prevalent for presidents and available to some chief academic officers, although at least one business officer and one development officer in each sector received that perquisite (Table 16). The percentage of presidents receiving housing benefits increased over the past three years; no trend was evident for chief academic officers.

SPECIAL CASES

Librarians

The annual survey of job placements of new Master of Library Service degree recipi-

TABLE 13

MEDIAN SALARIES OF SELECTED ADMINISTRATIVE POSITIONS COMPARISON OF PUBLIC COMMUNITY COLLEGES ("2-YEAR") AND OTHER PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS ("4-YEAR"), 1995-96 (DOLLARS IN THOUSANDS)

	2-Year	4-Year	% Difference
Senior			
CEO, Institution	95.5	121.5	27.2
Chief Academic	73.0	101.7	39.3
Chief Business	70.4	95.2	35.2
Chief Development	56.8	82.1	44.5
Chief Student Affairs	64.6	84.9	31.4
Average 5 Senior	72.1	97.1	34.7
Deans			
Arts and Sciences	60.1	88.7	47.6
Business	57.6	95.0	64.9
Education	61.1	86.3	41.2
Engineering	60.3	122.2	102.7
Fine Arts	58.0	85.6	47.6
Nursing	54.8	95.7	74.6
Sciences	59.7	84.4	41.4
Social Work	- -	103.5	- -
Average 7 Deans*	58.8	94.0	59.8
Support			
Director, Ed. Media Service	42.2	49.8	18.0
Chief/Personnel	55.6	63.3	13.8
Chief/Physical Plant	50.6	67.0	32.4
Bursar	37.8	46.9	24.1
Dir. Publications	40.0	45.4	13.5
Chief/Admissions	46.8	55.9	19.4
Registrar	44.6	55.0	23.3
Dir. Foreign Students	38.3	42.8	11.7
Dir. Alumni Affairs	34.6	46.1	33.2
Average 9 Support Directors	43.4	52.5	20.9
Less managerial			
Asst. to CEO (institution)	43.2	65.0	50.5
Associate Director Personnel	45.1	48.4	7.3
Data Base Administrator	46.4	47.4	2.2
Mgr. Landscape/ Grounds	30.7	38.0	23.8
Staff Accountant-High	34.3	34.9	1.7
Associate Bursar	33.0	37.5	13.6
Associate Director Admissions	34.0	40.1	17.9
Academic Advisor	34.2	30.5	-10.8
Assistant Registrar	33.8	33.3	-1.5
Average 9 Less Managerial	37.2	41.7	12.1

TABLE 13 (CONTINUED)

** Averages exclude Dean, Social Work. Since the 2-year institutions had only two such deans, CUPA did not report the data.*

NOTES:
(1) Each sector includes system offices in addition to individual institutions for that group.

(2) Data include only those institutions reporting their total budget.

SOURCE: Special reports from the CUPA Administrative Compensation Survey, 1995-96.

ents, conducted by the American Library Association, sensitively measures changes in the labor market. This year's survey of the 1995 status of 1994 graduates documents the continued increase in nontraditional jobs, reflecting increased reliance on electronic information.[32] At least one new graduate will have the title "Cybarian." The survey noted a slight decrease in the percentage of graduates in temporary or nonprofessional positions from an unusually high 19.8 percent in the 1994 survey to 16 percent in 1995.

The average starting salary for permanent, full-time positions in 1995 was $28,086, up 3.8 percent from 1994. The increase exceeded the inflation rate for just the second time in the last six years. The average salary for women rose 3.8 percent to $28,065; men's salaries gained 2.3 percent to average $28,182. The average starting salary in college and university libraries was $27,441, less than the overall average but greater than the $25,567 average for public libraries.

At the other end of the career spectrum, an Association of Research Libraries (ARL) report expressed concern over the impending retire-

TABLE 14

INCREASE FROM 1994-95 TO 1995-96 IN MEDIAN SALARIES OF SELECTED ADMINISTRATIVE POSITIONS COMPARISON OF PUBLIC COMMUNITY COLLEGES ("2-YEAR") AND OTHER PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS ("4-YEAR") (DOLLARS IN THOUSANDS)

	2-Year			4-Year		
Level of Positions	94-95	95-96	% Increase	94-95	95-96	% Increase
Average 5 Senior	69.4	72.1	3.9	93.2	97.1	4.2
Average 7 Deans	57.7	58.8	2.0	90.0	94.0	4.4
Average 9 Support Directors	42.8	43.4	1.5	50.9	52.5	3.1
Average 9 Support-Less Managerial	37.4	37.2	-0.6	40.8	41.7	2.3

NOTE: See notes to Table 13. This table summarizes Table 13 for comparison with data of 1994-95.

SOURCE: Special reports from CUPA Administrative Compensation Surveys, 1994-95 and 1995-96.

TABLE 15

NUMBER OF POSITIONS WITH MEDIAN SALARY GREATER FOR WOMEN THAN FOR MEN, BY POSITION CATEGORY AND INSTITUTIONAL TYPE, 1995-96

	Doctoral Institutions		Comprehensive Institutions		Baccalaureate Institutions		Two-year Institutions	
	N [1]	Women's Salary Greater than Men's [2]	N [1]	Women's Salary Greater than Men's [2]	N [1]	Women's Salary Greater than Men's [2]	N [1]	Women's Salary Greater than Men's [2]
Executive	3	0	3	0	3	0	4	0
Academic	40	9	37	7	28	6	34	10
Administrative	49	6	46	5	36	8	39	9
External Affairs	17	4	17	1	17	0	13	2
Student Services	36	4	37	2	36	6	27	6
TOTAL	145	23	140	15	120	20	117	27

[1] N is the number of cases that could be compared in each group. CUPA reported a median only if more than three salaries were known.

[2] The number of positions in the given category with women's median salary greater than men's.

SOURCE: CUPA, Administrative Compensation Survey, 1995-96.

ment of many librarians.[33] The population of librarians, notes the report, grew older between 1990 and 1994, although the average age had not changed between 1970 and 1990. This change, in part, reflected a demographic shift among M.L.S. students—in 1994, 50 percent of the student population was 35 or older.

TABLE 16

PRESIDENTS AND CHIEF ACADEMIC OFFICERS RECEIVING SELECTED BENEFITS AS A PERCENTAGE OF THOSE REPORTING

	Two-Year Colleges			Four-Year Colleges		
	Number Reporting	Car (%)	Housing (%)	Number Reporting	Car (%)	Housing (%)
Presidents						
1992-93	52	44	17	108	77	66
1993-94	44	61	25	82	79	72
1995-96	130	73	32	115	76	76
Chief Academic Officers						
1992-93	52	6	0	105	10	4
1993-94	43	12	0	81	17	4
1995-96	130	5	2	115	11	4

SOURCE: American School & University, 1993, 1994, and 1996.

Institutional Advancement

In 1995, the Council for Advancement and Support of Education (CASE) surveyed the characteristics of its members, mostly directors in development, alumni affairs, and other advancement positions.[34]

The profile of the surveyed population changed only slightly since CASE's last survey in 1990. The average advancement salary in 1995 was $53,262; and increases have continued to exceed inflation. The 1995 mean salary in independent institutions was slightly higher than that in publics—$53,411 versus $53,080, reversing the 1990 result. Salaries in the top bracket (above $90,000) surged from 1.9 percent in 1990 to 9.2 percent in 1995. The percentage of women in advancement, after growing in the 1980s, has levelled off and declined slightly from 54.7 percent to 53.6 percent between 1990 and 1995. The salary gap between men and women, the survey found, remained constant at $13,000 between these two surveys.

The number of minority professionals increased from 4.5 percent to 5.6 percent between 1990 and 1995. The number of Black respondents decreased from 3.3 percent to 2.5 percent, but the numbers of Hispanics and American Indians increased, respectively, from 0.3 percent to 1.1 percent and from 0.2 percent to 1.5 percent. An additional academic degree, a CASE regression analysis found, was worth $3,405 in annual salary. But only 8.1 percent of the respondents held a doctorate, and just one of eight was pursuing an advanced degree

EVALUATION OF ADMINISTRATIVE PERFORMANCE

A long-standing reason for performance evaluation has been the need for accountability internal and external to the institution. Increasing demand for formal administrator evaluation in the 1980s arose from recognition of the need to balance faculty evaluation with administrator evaluation, the need to protect personnel decisions from legal challenge, and acceptance of management principles that valued evaluation and feedback. Performance appraisal and professional development, argued Peter Seldin, were parts of a single process—appraisals reinforced positive behavior and identified areas of needed improvement.[35]

The concerns of some opponents of formal administrative evaluation are technical—they claim that no existing appraisal techniques are satisfactory. Evaluation, others argue, inevita-

bly disintegrates into a political process. The diversity of programs and roles, say still others, invalidates uniform systems.[36] Last, different campus groups may emphasize different evaluation criteria if they disagree on the relative importance of the components of a job. Some studies, for example, attributed differences in the evaluation of education deans by central administrators and faculty members to their divergent rankings of evaluation criteria. Research-oriented faculty placed greatest weight on communication skills; they wanted a spokesperson for the unit who could obtain additional resources without intruding on faculty roles. Central administrators, in contrast, measured a dean's success in terms of attracting and retaining good faculty, representing the best interests of the institution, and achieving affirmative action goals.[37]

Administrators, of course, are always evaluated; the results are used in personnel decisions, such as pay increases, promotions, and terminations. The issue is not whether to evaluate; it is the degree of structure and formality in the evaluation. To the extent that the system is formal, the process and criteria are subject to criticism. Key requirements of formal evaluations are:

- relevance: linking the institutional welfare to performance standards, and linking critical elements of the position to the evaluation.
- sensitivity: distinguishing good performance from poor.
- reliability: consistency in judgment by the evaluators.
- freedom from contamination: minimizing the effect of external variables over which the administrator has no control, such as financial support.
- practicality in implementing the system.
- acceptability by parties to the process.[38]

Successful evaluation systems are hard to achieve. Some requirements may be mutually contradictory. Sensitivity, for example, may require a process too long to be practical. Some systems assume capabilities rarely found in evaluators—the ability to coach and motivate, not judge, for example. Performing leadership and evaluative activities simultaneously may complicate the supervisor's task since leadership may affect performance, as well as its appraisal. Research on leadership shows significant relationships between three variables: the length of the supervisor-subordinate relationship, the amount of "leadership attention" received by the subordinate, and the supervisor's performance rating.[39] For all the difficulties, however, some aspects of formal evaluation are common sense—that staff should know the criteria used in the evaluation, for example—even if they are not followed in informal settings.

Some guidelines issued by governing boards and some collective bargaining agreements help to resolve ambiguity by specifying an evaluation process. The Florida Board of Regents specifies the promotion process for librarians at Florida International University (FIU). The FIU process lists responsibilities of the staff member, colleagues, supervisor, library director, promotion committee, provost, and president. Promotion recommendations require detailed documentation of the candidate's job performance, dependability, initiative, and professional attitude. Four letters of evaluation from professional colleagues must accompany the recommendation.[40]

How prevalent is systematic administrative evaluation? In a 1986 survey, 66 percent of 371 chief liberal arts academic officers reported formal evaluation of their administrative performance.[41] In a 1991-92 survey of small, independent colleges in the Middle States region, 68 percent of the 82 responding institutions reported regular evaluations of their administrators. But only 38 percent of the 82 reported the existence of germane written materials, and only 12 of the 19 colleges that provided documents specified the evaluation criteria. Five of the 12 evaluated abilities and results; four used only results.[42]

Adopting appropriate performance criteria communicates their importance to the institution. If college officials want personnel to learn how to cope with stress, for example, they may ask how well the administrator manages time.[43]

Administrative evaluation appears to be more institutionalized in the public schools than in higher education. But the K-12 level devotes far more attention to evaluating teachers than administrators. A 1993 survey found that 79 percent of state education agencies

legally mandated the evaluation of school personnel.[44] The greater the state funding, the higher the probability of a state mandate. More than half the responding states offered guidelines on teacher evaluation, but 36 percent or fewer, depending on the employment category, provided guidelines for evaluating professional support personnel.

British universities began to employ systematic staff appraisal as a condition of a 1987 salary settlement. Appraisals pertained to academic and "service" departments, for example, institutional accounting. A 1993 national phone survey and intensive case studies at three universities determined the effects of the mandate.[45] Staff, the study found, were initially skeptical about the appraisals, but they generally received the process well, and some found it beneficial. Staff members felt that annual interviews were too frequent, but they also expressed concern over the lack of follow up on the appraisals. Self appraisal and staff evaluation of department heads, the study found, were effective tools. But, the study concluded, staff appraisal had little demonstrable impact on the universities.

A 1990-91 pilot study assessed the University of Minnesota's two-part approach to administrator evaluation.[46] First, the staff member developed and the supervisor approved a goals statement. A year-end report on accomplishment of those goals followed. Second, colleagues rated and gave comments on the staff member's job performance. The staff member identified the leadership behaviors to be evaluated from a standard list and named the raters. After the pilot, 87 percent of the 31 responding participants said that the colleague review process added fairness to a process based only on self- and supervisor-ratings. As supervisors, 81 percent preferred adding the ratings of colleagues and the self-evaluation to their own observations. Overall, 71 percent recommended the process.

SUMMARY

Almost two-thirds of the employees of American higher education held nonfaculty jobs, according to the most recent data. Women outnumbered men in support-professional and technical positions, while continuing to dominate the secretarial category.

The support-professional category expanded far more rapidly than any other category prior to 1991, but the differential expansion ceased between 1991 and 1993.

Part-time employment has become more important in recent years, particularly for faculty, but also for nonfaculty. The rate of part-time employment at two-year institutions is higher than at senior institutions.

The number of new hires and increases in staffing were strongly related, but the correlation between the number of new hires and increases in state appropriations was surprisingly weak, even in senior public institutions.

Administrator one-year salary increases in 1995-96, averaging 4.2 percent, were relatively uniform across institutional and organizational categories. The ordering of median salaries by position tended to stay constant over the years, but for an increasing number of institutional groups the chief business officer had a higher median salary than the chief academic officer.

The median 1995-96 salary of the CEO in each sector surpassed $100,000. The range of administrator salaries increased consistently; higher salaried positions received higher percentage increases than lower level positions. Salaries were greater in public four-year institutions than in the independent sector, except for the CEO.

More librarians entering the job market in 1994 accepted nontraditional positions. The increase in starting salaries exceeded the inflation adjustment for the previous year.

The salaries for professionals in advancement positions increased faster than inflation in recent years. Men earned an average of $13,000 more than women in both 1990 and in 1995.

Slightly more institutions are adopting formal structures for the evaluation of administrative performance. But opposition to formal evaluation continues, and there is little evidence that a formal process improves the institution.

NOTES

[1] Definitions are paraphrased from the IPEDS form for the 1993 Fall Staff Survey.

[2] Through 1991, the EEOC administered the fall survey of staff, with its EEO-6 report. NCES took responsibility for surveying staff of postsecondary

institutions in 1993 as part of its IPEDS work. NCES has endeavored to maintain consistency in the series, but some shifts in institutional coverage and interpretation may be unavoidable.

[3] Montgomery and Lewis, 1994.

[4] In the administration by EEOC in 1991, NRAs were included in the totals but were then reported separately with a different definition and aggregation. In 1993, as administered by NCES, NRAs had their own category. The change had no consequence in the results to the extent that racial composition of the NRA is the same as that of others in each category and / or that the contribution of NRA is relatively small. The above table excludes NRAs.

[5] Montgomery and Lewis, 1996.

[6] The instructions on the IPEDS survey were to define part-time status in terms of the person, not the position. If the person worked full-time (as defined by the institution) but split time between jobs in two categories, the person should be counted as full-time in the category with the primary assignment.

[7] U.S. Department of Education, 1992, 354. The multipliers were 0.333 for faculty, 0.462 for executive and support professionals, and 0.409 for the "nonprofessionals." We assume that each part-time student assistant contributed 0.333 to the number of FTE positions.

[8] Omitting student assistants from the comparison leads to a slight decline (0.07 percent) in FTE positions between 1991 and 1993.

[9] This table expands coverage beyond "America" to include the outlying areas such as Puerto Rico. The "U.S. Service Schools" count separately the military academies such as West Point.

[10] Economic conditions are from Zumeta, 1995.

[11] The new hires counted employees who were included in the payroll for the first time between July 1 and September 30, 1993, that is, those primarily associated with FY 1993.

[12] The correlation between executive and "nonprofessional" new hires was significant at the 0.01 level. The other new-hire correlations with "nonprofessional" were significant at the 0.001 level. The coefficients were 0.453 for faculty and 0.581 for support professionals.

[13] "Nonprofessional" employees were hired at a substantially higher rate than faculty in only two states: Virginia, "nonprofessional" employees—11.4 percent, faculty—9.0 percent, and Idaho, 8.3 percent vs. 6.7 percent.

[14] *Chronicle of Higher Education*, 1992 and 1993.

[15] Further, no curvilinear relation between funding and new hires was apparent.

[16] The correlation coefficients between the annual percentage increase in state appropriations and the rate of new hires in public senior institutions were, for faculty, $R = 0.340$ ($p = .029$) and, for "nonprofessional" employees, $R = 0.292$ ($p = .064$).

[17] CUPA, 1996a. CUPA fine-tunes the selection and definition of positions each year, but consistency in most titles allows for trend analysis. This year's 42 percent response rate represents a slight decrease from recent years.

[18] *Ibid.*, 1996a.

[19] *Ibid.*

[20] Beginning in 1991-92, CUPA's aggregations across all categories of institution require institutions to have reported enrollment for one aggregation or budget for another. The all-institution data presented here use the institutions reporting a budget level.

[21] *Ibid.*

[22] CUPA changed the label of private-independent institutions to private-nonreligious in 1992-93; this chapter uses the designation "independent."

[23] The chief physical plant officer is on top in the independent and religious institutions and close to it in the public sector.

[24] Salas, 1994.

[25] Byrne, 1996.

[26] Crystal, 1995.

[27] Salas, *op cit*.

[28] Montgomery and Lewis, 1996.

[29] CUPA, 1996b.

[30] Results for each group include system offices and individual institutions. The CUPA data mix institutions and systems within each sector, including the public sector, as presented earlier. As counted by the number of CEOs, there were 252 institutions and 50 systems in the community college group, 356 institutions and 55 systems in the four-year group.

[31] Agron, 1993; Agron, 1994; and Agron, 1996. The magazine omitted a survey for 1994-95.

[32] Zipkowitz, 1995.

[33] Wilder, 1995. The report was based on two unpublished data sets from ARL salary surveys.

[34] Williams, 1996. The 1995 survey was the fourth in 13 years. CASE received responses from 969 members, a 64.6 percent return rate.

[35] Seldin, 1988.

[36] *Ibid.*

[37] Matczynski *et al.*, 1989.

[38] *Ibid.*

[39] Markham *et al*., 1991.

[40] Menendez, 1990.

[41] Lynch *et al*., 1986.

[42] Thorpe, 1995.

[43] See for example Gmelch and Chan, 1995.

[44] Stronge and Tucker, 1995.

[45] Haslam *et al*., 1993.

[46] Bland *et al*., 1994.

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