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## Freedom And Comfort In Academically-related Political Discussions Among Economics And Political Science Faculty In A State Unive

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*University of Central Florida*



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FREEDOM AND COMFORT IN ACADEMICALLY-RELATED POLITICAL  
DISCUSSIONS AMONG ECONOMICS AND POLITICAL SCIENCE FACULTY IN  
A STATE UNIVERSITY SYSTEM: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

by

JOHN HILSTON  
B.S. Grove City College, 1996  
M.A. Cleveland State University, 1998

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements  
for the degree of Doctor of Education  
in the Department of Educational Research, Technology, and Leadership  
in the College of Education  
at the University of Central Florida  
Orlando, Florida

Summer Term  
2010

Major Professor: Rosa Cintrón

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## ABSTRACT

This investigation explored whether there was a relationship between comfort in discussing political views and faculty members' political party preferences. The questions of whether political comfort differed based on gender, religious affiliation, academic discipline, and/or institutional affiliation were also explored.

Both economics and political science faculty did not report comfort in discussing political views in the context of departmental committee service. Economics faculty either did not report on their colleagues' political views or they disagreed with their colleagues' political views. Political science faculty either did not report on their colleagues' political views or they agreed with their colleagues' political views. Also, this investigation found minimal ethnic and political diversity among the respondents.

With love and gratitude  
this work is dedicated to my family,  
for their love, support,  
and faith in my ability to accomplish this goal.  
I love you Dana, Alexa, Jimmy, Peter, and Elmo!

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# CHAPTER 1

## THE PROBLEM AND ITS CLARIFYING COMPONENTS

### Introduction

At the time of the present study, most faculty members defined their jobs as the complex combination of teaching, research, and service.

As late as 1869, Charles W. Eliot, on assuming the Harvard presidency, had asserted that “the prime business of American professors. . . must be regular and assiduous class teaching”. . . but thirty years later, on the eve of his retirement, was moved to declare that the appointment and promotion of professors at his institution depended as much on their “success as investigators” as on their teaching prowess. Reflected in this altered expectation was the arrival in the interim of the American research university. . . .(Metzger, 1987, p. 135)

Teaching, research, and service gradually became part of the mission of Harvard and many other universities. “In the last quarter of the nineteenth century. . . residents and professors grafted together the two ideals of research and teaching into an innovative structure called the university-college” (Cuban, 1999, p. 14). This movement roughly paralleled changes in writing instruction.

Before the 1870s, writing was taught as ancillary to speaking, and that, as a result, formal writing instruction was essentially training in handwriting. . . two new ideals of academic life, research and utilitarian service, shaped writing instruction into its modern forms. (Russell, 1991)

Teaching, research, and service have been included in most mission statements.

One such research mission, that of the University of Central Florida, provided a broad definition of research:

Basic and applied research, as well as creative activity, are integral parts of a quality education. UCF faculty members are scholar-teachers. As such, they create new knowledge, new points of view, and new means of expression in a broad range of academic, professional, and socially significant areas. Their

creativity fosters innovation as they convey their results, methods, values, and expressions to students, colleagues, and the public. (UCF Graduate Catalog, 2009)

The origin of research missions in universities dates back to the 19th century:

the emerging nineteenth-century [German] academic system organized both teaching and research around individual professorial chairs which, in theory at least, were to be given only to scholars of great distinction. . . without much interference from university bodies or government. (Mommsen, 1987, p. 65)

The “limited interference” aspect arises from the German traditions of “Lernfreiheit” and “Lehrfreiheit.” American universities adopted parts of the Lernfreiheit tradition. Lernfreiheit has been defined as “the freedom to teach. . . the absence of administrative presence in the learning situation” (Hamilton, 2002, p. 65). That said, “during the post-Civil War development of the modern university in the United States. . . the [American] professoriate chose not to accept the complementary German university tradition of Lehrfreiheit, the freedom to learn” (Hamilton, p. 65). Under the “Lehrfreiheit” tradition, university students in Germany retained significant control over their programs of study.

In the United States, academic freedom has come to be defined as follows:

Teachers are entitled to full freedom in research and in the publication of the results. . . are entitled to freedom in the classroom in discussing their subject, but they should be careful not to introduce into their teaching controversial matter which has no relation to their subject. Limitations of academic freedom because of religious or other aims of the institution should be clearly stated in writing at the time of the appointment. (American Association of University Professors, 1940)

Faculty at many institutions in the United States have been responsible for creating “new knowledge, new points of view, and new means of expression” (UCF Graduate Catalog, 2009). A balanced examination of competing ideas should be an essential part of any

faculty role, especially for faculty at colleges that strive to broaden “the range of scientific and cultural topics on which students can exercise discernment, logic, and balanced judgment” (Western Association of Schools and Colleges, 1994, pp. 3-4).

Faculty members regularly encounter competing perspectives.

The clash of competing ideas is an important catalyst, not only for the expansion of knowledge but also in students’ development of independent critical judgment. Recognizing this dynamic, many well-intentioned observers underline the importance of “teaching all sides of the debate” in college classrooms. Teaching the debates is important but by no means sufficient. It is also essential that faculty help students learn--through their college studies--to engage differences of opinion, evaluate evidence, and form their own grounded judgments about the relative value of competing perspectives. (Association of American Colleges and Universities, 2006)

For instance, political scientists have debated the relative merits of direct democracies and republics. Management theorists have argued about when and where to effectively use a “free-reign” management style. Educators have discussed the pros and cons of school vouchers, and economists have often disagreed about economic inequality and the general health of the economy.

The competition among ideas is relevant for faculty and students. If only selected or limited ideas are addressed, knowledge will remain incomplete. It is possible that time limitations and student grade standing might be determinants of whether certain discussions or segments of information are included in a class. It is also possible that parts of the subject matter, due to various constraints, might be treated in a sufficiently superficial manner so as to ignore fundamental conflicts.

However, if a professor did not teach students about school vouchers because he heard a more senior colleague speak vehemently against the idea, students would not

benefit from the knowledge available. If a researcher found evidence that contradicted the conventional wisdom of a particular discipline but was afraid to publish it, the literature would be weaker rather than stronger. Furthermore, the situation in which faculty may feel uncomfortable espousing certain academically germane stands on issues can be further compromised by the very structure and dynamics of the department. In an academic department, a “determined minority may have an impact far out of proportion to its numbers. A department is basically a small work group, and its members will often yield to the sentiments of a minority to avoid internal division” (Hamilton & Hargens, 1993, p. 621). Even when division is avoided, conflict may still be present. “Conflict in intergroup relations is often ideological” (Tucker, p. 200). “Serious conflict is often accompanied by feelings of fear, anxiety, or anger. . .” (Tucker, 1984, p. 218).

This ideological conflict may include a competition between political views. Different from a completely free exchange of ideas without consequence, this political ideological conflict takes place within a structure characterized by unequal power relationships. The structure of faculty governance gives senior faculty significant control over evaluation and retention of junior faculty. Some believe that “the tenure system acts against academic freedom” (McCart, 1991, p. 240).

The belief underlying these viewpoints is that either the administration will make working conditions so uncomfortable he or she will conform or resign, or that faculty will not undertake controversial projects because doing so will harm their chances for tenure and promotion. (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996, p. 27)

An important connection is established here between constrained expression in an academic role and the limitation it places on academic freedom. Comfort is identified as a possible measuring stick.

Tierney and Bensimon (1996) contended that those engaged in “controversial projects” will be made to feel uncomfortable. It is within this very discomfort that we find the roots of the threats to academic freedom. Given that openness to competing ideas requires an environment that comfortably fosters diversity of thought, the question then becomes, “Do academics embrace a broad spectrum of ideological positions?”. Most of the efforts to respond to this question focus broadly on political party affiliation and self-identified political positions.

A study conducted by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching in 1989 found that professors in the United States were more liberal in their ideological orientations than the general population (Carnegie Foundation, 1989). As recently as 2001, the results of a Brookings Institution survey of professional associations indicated that self-identified Democrats exceeded self-identified Republicans by ratios of 4:1 in economics and history, 5:1 in political science, and 47:1 in sociology (Brookings, 2001). A 2004-2005 UCLA survey found that 51.3% of American faculty members self-identified as far left or liberal, while 19.5% self-identified as far right or conservative. The remaining 29.2% self-identified as middle of the road (The Chronicle Almanac, 2008, p. 26).

Hamilton and Hargens (1993) stated that “the incidence of leftism has been considerably exaggerated” (p. 603). Ladd and Lipset (1975) have written that monolithic



liberalism is limited and only tends to occur at either elite institutions, such as Harvard or University of California-Berkeley, or within certain disciplines, e.g., the social sciences.

Hamilton and Hargens, in discussing a 1969 Carnegie Foundation study, reported

. . . a clear, but modest, relationship between quality of institution and the frequency of both liberal and leftist identifications. By 1984 that pattern was substantially changed. . . the high quality liberal arts colleges showed a striking opposite pattern with both liberal and leftist sentiments increasing over the fifteen years. This put them at "the top of the list" of combined liberal-left sentiment, well ahead of the prestigious research universities. (pp. 620-621)

While their interpretations were different, both researchers (Ladd, 1975; Hamilton, 1993) cited data from the Carnegie surveys (1969, 1989). There is, clearly, a need for more adequate information on the subject.

Up to the present, most studies of faculty political perspective have been focused on measuring faculty members' political orientations and party affiliation. This concern with academic freedom and the manner in which it might be impacted by the holding of non-hegemonic ideas requires that we consider whether individuals within the academy have or have not felt discomfort attributable to differences in ideology. This study was conducted to explore the comfort among faculty members in a state university system in discussing academically-related political views.

### Need for the Study

While several researchers have conducted research addressing faculty members' political views (Klein & Stern, 2005; Rothman, Lichter, & Nevitte, 2005a), this was the first study to address faculty members' perceptions of their comfort in discussing political

views with colleagues. For the purpose of this investigation, the level of ease of faculty members in these discussions was termed “political comfort.” One of the key assumptions that the researcher made in this study was that political comfort would enhance academic freedom.

Former U.S. Secretary of Education William J. Bennett (1986) expressed the following perspective on this topic:

For if you cannot hold or express or argue for an unorthodox view at a university without risk of penalty, either explicit penalty or social disdain, the university will collapse like a deck of cards, falling of its own weight. If we cannot protect the basic principle of academic freedom, then we cannot even begin to hope that our colleges and universities will evolve into a recognizable imitation of what they claim to be. (p. 21)

Young (1997) echoed this view, and added a warning about treating this important freedom responsibly:

The faculty must be able to accomplish their functions without discrimination or the fear of reprisal from forces that might be inside the institution but external to their work. . . Freedom and responsibility synergize each other, and the society that understands the potency in their relationship is better served by it. When all of society’s heretics are quieted, the academy is no longer free. (pp. 49-50)

It becomes apparent from even a perfunctory reading and comparison of the writings of Bennett and Young that they have disagreed on many issues. What is shown with these quotations is that the ideal of stronger academic freedom tends to unite individuals with otherwise varying world views.

### Statement of the Problem

In 1969, 83.9% of a combined sample of 2-year and 4-year baccalaureate faculty members agreed that “faculty are free to express relevant ideas in class;” by 1998, that number had dropped to 62.9% (Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006, p. 497). There has not been a clear explanation for why this perception of freedom dropped so much.

One possible explanation can be found in the literature related to marginalization. Organizations and associations tend to marginalize non-hegemonic thought.

While employees’ use of place as a discursive resource to contest the hegemony of the SMT was, at least in part, effective, it was also intensely problematic for them. . . What is more, they said, senior staff were reluctant to visit other parts of the college, leading those working at other sites to feel marginalized and alienated. . . (Brown & Humphreys, 2006, pp. 243-244)

This literature describes unequal power relationships among faculty and the marginalization of those that deviate from an accepted norm. While the AAUP (1940) holds that, “Teachers are entitled to full freedom in research and in the publication of the results. . . are entitled to freedom in the classroom in discussing their subject. . .,” very limited protection is afforded those in subordinate positions. This study explored whether the constraints imposed by the governance model of higher education limited the expression of political views associated with academic disciplines necessary for academic freedom.

Hauptli (2005) discussed the comfort that can be found in academic freedom, even by those who seek to constrain it:

Those who would restrict academic freedom should find comfort in the very academic freedom they would fight. If the views which they would restrict are

wrong, then the very academic freedom they rebel against will serve to expose such error.

Klein and Stern (2005) concluded, "Our results support the view that the social-sciences and humanities faculty are pretty much a one-party system. . . . Quite possibly, the academic environment, even in economics, keeps the minority voices muffled and fearful" (p. 14). Klein and Stern did not specify how or why one's political perspective would make one "muffled and fearful" in academic matters. Herein lies a reason for exploring the concept of political comfort.

In summary, a comprehensive review of the literature has indicated that a vast majority of professors identify with liberal viewpoints. Given this ideological imbalance, are conservative academics comfortable discussing and sharing their views? For that matter, are liberal faculty comfortable expressing their views? These questions merited investigation.

### Theoretical Framework--Political Comfort

The theoretical framework for this research is one that exists at the convergence of various conceptual understandings. Whereas the literature on academic freedom provided the general context of the study, the researcher sought to explore the degree to which faculty were comfortable in expressing academically-related political views. As those views are constrained, we can consider theories of marginalization as part of the framework. Alternatively, the literature on comfort will provide the conceptual tools for

understanding those situations in which faculty perceive expression to be unconstrained. For the purpose of this study, the theoretical framework was based on comfort.

Paterson and Zderad (1988) believed that comfort was an “umbrella under which . . . growth, health, freedom, and openness--could be sheltered” (p. 107). However, there are numerous interpretations of comfort ranging from notions of consolation to satisfaction to freedom from anxiety. It is precisely this latter interpretation that this study will use. This parallels the idea of “freedom from stress” that Bruner (1996) described as “the ‘resource’ required for a mind to operate effectively” (pp. 8-9).

In this study, comfort was defined according to Kolcaba (2003), who posited that “Comfort is the immediate experience of being strengthened by having needs for relief, ease, and transcendence met. . .” (p. 14). Kolcaba’s Comfort Theory has generally been applied to the practice of nursing. This investigation was focused specifically on Kolcaba’s sociocultural comfort context. Sociocultural comfort pertains “to interpersonal. . . and societal relationships including. . . education and support” (Kolcaba, p. 15).

The premise of the present study was that faculty members will function best when they are not anxious or, alternatively stated, when they perceive comfort. For the purpose of this investigation, the researcher merged this element of academic freedom with Kolcaba's theory on comfort to create a new variable of interest, political comfort. Within this study, political comfort referred to a faculty member's perception of an absence of anxiety while engaging in academically-related political discussions with colleagues.

### Assumptions

It was assumed that faculty members' perceptions of comfort are an important determinant of whether they will fully participate in an academic discussion with colleagues that involves an exchange of competing political viewpoints. This interaction is essential if there is to be a free "marketplace of ideas." Boswell, Cannon & Miller expressed the need for multiple views as follows:

The individual must learn to view the world through many different sets of eyes or perceptions. The individual's myopic view must be expanded to see the world from the different disciplines, individual, and community views rather than just one aspect" (Boswell, Cannon, & Miller, 2005, p. 6).

The benefit to the mind of sharing and exploring new ideas was further illustrated in the report of one doctoral student by Young (2007):

One woman, a Ph.D. student in the social sciences at a Midwestern university, told me recently that when she started reading conservative, libertarian, or otherwise heretical blogs, 'It was a whole perspective I had never been exposed to before in anything other than caricature.' When that's the norm, the harm is less to dissenters than to the life of the mind. It's not good for any group of people to spend a lot of time listening only to like-minded others.

Free trade in ideas can be beneficial for all, and true academic freedom is necessary for this exchange to take place.

It was assumed, in this study, that when comfort is perceived, marginalization is not perceived. It was also assumed that political comfort is closely related to academic freedom. The underlying assumption was that true academic freedom only exists where political comfort is perceived.

### Research Questions

The following research questions were explored:

1. Is there a relationship between political comfort and faculty members' political party preferences?
2. Does political comfort differ based on gender or religious affiliation?
3. Does political comfort differ based on academic discipline - specifically economics and political science?
4. Does political comfort differ based on institutional affiliation--specifically University of Florida, The Florida State University, and University of South Florida?

### Limitations of the Study

This study was limited to Florida Public Colleges and Universities that were classified as "Research I" under the 1994 Carnegie Classification System. Only faculty members in economics and political science were surveyed as to their perceptions of political comfort. States and institutions of higher learning have their own unique demographic characteristics. Therefore, the ability to generalize beyond the results of the current study was limited.

## CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

### Introduction

This chapter has been organized to provide a review of the literature and related research. Included is a brief history of the professoriate. Attention is also devoted to faculty marginalization, academic freedom, tenure, the tenure process, political freedom of expression, and the marketplace of ideas. Comfort theory and the political comfort of the American professoriate are explored. A body of research that addresses faculty politics, i.e., an overview of faculty politics studies and a review of the research and various findings of faculty politics researchers, are also reviewed.

### A Brief History of the Professoriate

The concept of the professoriate will be explored by reviewing its origin and briefly examining its development. This will assist readers in understanding the professoriate as it existed at the time of the proposed study. Over time, there have been a number of changes in the composition and training of the professoriate.

Eastern education had its beginnings in ancient times where it was governed by a strong authority which varied from one country to another. Whether the educational system was guided by the traditions of China, the caste system of India, the state of Persia, or the theology of Judaism, the main purpose was to train people to take their place in society (Painter, 1999). In Ancient Egypt, the priests were designated as the representatives of learning and the intellectual leaders of the people, and they were the



only ones who served in that role (Painter). Philosophers and teachers such as Plato, Socrates, and Aristotle played important roles in the history of Greek education. Plato called education “the business of the state” (Painter, p. 61). Greek society was dominated by these well-known male philosophers.

The monasteries of the Middle Ages were the places where knowledge was stored and preserved. The church thought of education as a part of its main operation, and most instruction was based in theology (Painter, 1999). The cathedral of Paris became a university which focused on theology. It was considered by many to be the most important center of learning in Europe (Painter).

Numerous universities were created in Germany in the 15th century based on the expanding interest in science. In the 16th century, the Reformation led to an explosion of interest in culture and higher learning. Still, the monarchical system dominated much of Europe, and the professoriate continued to be a fraternity composed largely of white Christian males while being exclusionary to most others (Painter, 1999).

In the United States, Harvard College was founded in 1636. Many other New England and Eastern colleges soon followed, and they retained many of the traditions of their European counterparts. Oberlin College, founded in 1833 in Ohio, had a unique goal: to provide equal education to everyone, even those of differing races, creeds, and genders. The Presbyterian-influenced college was the beginning of a more inclusive educational system in the U.S. that was strengthened by legal intervention and lobbying for public support (Goodchild & Wechsler, 1989). The Morrill Land-Grant Acts of 1862 and 1890 provided land that was to be used for the construction of colleges. This showed

how important the U.S. federal government believed higher education was to the development of the nation (Goodchild & Wechsler).

A number of court decisions and legislative acts, as well as significant cultural and societal changes, have increased the number of women, minorities, and individuals with disabilities who qualified and have been hired into the U.S. professoriate. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 provided opportunities to those who previously had limited access to the labor market. Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 set up the EEOC (Equal Employment Opportunity Commission). The EEOC aimed to prevent discrimination based on race, color, religion, sex, and/or national origin (United States Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 2004). Though diversity within academe has increased, blacks have continued to make up a very small percentage of most university faculties (Metzger, 1987).

More recently, the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) addressed a different kind of discrimination in the workplace. Originally passed in 1990, the ADA was updated as the Americans with Disabilities Amendments Act and signed into law by President George W. Bush in 2008. It stated in part that a disabled person who, “with or without accommodations,” can perform a job in an adequate manner should not be prevented from seeking or obtaining that job (Barton, 2009).

In 1980, 68% of U.S. college and university faculty members were white males, 23% were white females, 6% were minority males, and 3% were minority females (Aguirre, 2000). Throughout much of history, the professoriate has remained largely a fraternity of white males, and the professoriate has often been exclusionary to others

(Painter, 1999). By 2007, some shifts in these numbers were evident: 44.7% of U.S. college and university faculty members were white males, 32.1% were white females, 9.5% were minority males, 7.5% were minority females, .9% were race/ethnicity unknown males, .7% were race/ethnicity unknown females, 3.0% were nonresident alien males, and 1.5% were nonresident alien females (U.S. Department of Education, 2008b).

While there have been multiple policy and structural interventions, these have not changed some of the fundamental attitudes and behaviors of the professoriate. For instance, there has been a tendency to marginalize non-hegemonic thought. A study of three distinct cohorts of workers in a recently merged U.K.-based College of Further Education examined how each cohort understood their group and their organization's identities.

While employees' use of place as a discursive resource to contest the hegemony of the [senior management team] was, at least in part, effective, it was also intensely problematic for them. . . What is more, they said, senior staff were reluctant to visit other parts of the college, leading those working at other sites to feel marginalized and alienated. . . (Brown & Humphreys, 2006, pp. 243-244)

Those that deviate from an accepted norm--including the political norm--may find themselves marginalized. The premise of the present study was that faculty members function best when they perceive comfort.

### Marginalization of Faculty and Climate

A history of marginalization exists in higher education. Throughout much of history, the professoriate has remained largely a fraternity of white males and has often been exclusionary of others (Painter, 1999). There have been a number of cases of

marginalization of females and ethnic/racial minorities. It will be demonstrated in this review of the literature that any deviation from the norm can lead to marginalization. For instance, organizations and associations have had a tendency to marginalize non-hegemonic thought.

Newly hired professors have said that policies to address issues of fair treatment could be valuable, but that they were not really sure the policies were being followed (Smith, 2007). Specifically, faculty of color have faced a number of issues in the academy. Baez (1998) stated that “the tenure process is stressful for all faculty members, and most faculty members would probably report hostility from colleagues and other negative experiences at their institutions” (p. 1). Some faculty of color identified “white liberals” who were unfair to minorities because they did not “meet their expectations” (Baez, p. 10). Baez also noted that one African-American full professor stated that some racism was present in the academic community, but that many of the people involved were “making a mountain out of a molehill” (p. 9).

One of the most important issues for faculty of color was the notion of being perceived as less qualified due to affirmative action hiring. The minority community has been sensitive to this issue and considered it as an unfavorable stigma (Baez, 1998). Some minority faculty members perceived racism in instances where their research was considered less valuable if it “challenged established theories of race, or if it was not published in mainstream journals” (Baez, pp. 12-13). An Asian-American faculty member expressed concern that faculty members who “fight back” might destroy their chances to achieve tenure (Baez, p. 22).

Female faculty members have also faced a number of issues in the academy. Those who have advocated policies that are family-friendly claim that the academic community has a lot of work to do to provide adequate support for faculty members who are raising families. However, faculty members who do not have children have expressed the belief that it is unfair to provide extra benefits to those who have children (Ward & Wolf-Wendel, 2004).

O'Connor and Yanus (2009) reported that, "Despite significant progress for the representation of women in government, this study confirms that the climate for women in political science and politics remains cool" (p. 115). Investigations in other fields have echoed this "chilly climate" concern. In a study that focused on women in science and engineering fields, Callister (2006) wrote:

There is a strong direct effect of department climate on outcomes suggesting that department climate is an important factor for universities to consider when attempting to improve faculty job satisfaction and intentions to quit. The second important finding of this study is that while gender influences job satisfaction and intention to quit (female faculty members report significantly lower levels of job satisfaction and higher intentions to quit), this relationship is completely mediated by department climate. This indicates that female faculty members are not inherently unsatisfied or unhappy with their jobs, but rather that it is likely that they value department climate, such that when they experience negative department climates they are more likely to experience lower job satisfaction and consider going elsewhere. . . Extrapolating from this, the evidence suggests that female faculty members may be more aware of and place more value on the quality of interactions that take place within departments. (pp. 373-374)

It is conceivable that a negative climate could foster other negative perceptions on the part of faculty members.

Aguirre (2000) stated that, "women faculty perceive the academic workplace as using gender as a status characteristic for allocating resources and opportunity" (p. 42).

Also, women and minority faculty members have indicated that they must be congenial and cooperative in order to be accepted (Aguirre, p. 57). It has been suggested by some that minority faculty try to prove “that they are equal to White faculty,” and that they do so by becoming overachievers (Aguirre, p. 72).

Individuals who have different racial or cultural backgrounds from the majority in an organization can experience marginalization (Diggs, Garrison-Wade, Estrada, & Galindo, 2009). Though marginalization of females and ethnic/racial minorities has been recognized as occurring, anyone who does not fit the prevailing model of faculty is at risk of being marginalized in the academy. Baez (1998) has indicated that all White colleagues and, most specifically, White males are seen as the “intentional or unintentional oppressors” (p. 9). Some of the literature reviewed recognized the possibility of such problems for Christian academics. One Christian academic, Copan (2003) wrote:

Western academics like to cite John Stuart Mill’s book *On Liberty* in favor of individual rights, but they often fall prey to the very error Mill condemns: the tyranny of opinion that makes “eccentricity a reproach”. Today a tyranny of opinion makes the eccentricity of Christianity a reproach. We should all – with mutual respect and civility and despite our disagreements – stand together against it. (p. 8)

Organizations and associations have tended to marginalize non-hegemonic thought.

There has also been a potential for marginalization of faculty members based on political-ideological perspective. Conservatives and liberals have occasionally differed in their views of faculty members. The conservative image describes the academy as a “vehicle for faculty to alter values in society” while the liberal humanist sees faculty as

involved in the introduction of “ideas into society that result in constructive social change” (Aguirre, 2000, p. 22). If political-ideological perspective becomes a consideration in the allocation of resources and opportunities, academic freedom can be weakened rather than strengthened.

### Academic Freedom

In the United States, academic freedom has come to be defined as follows:

Teachers are entitled to full freedom in research and in the publication of the results. . . are entitled to freedom in the classroom in discussing their subject, but they should be careful not to introduce into their teaching controversial matter which has no relation to their subject. Limitations of academic freedom because of religious or other aims of the institution should be clearly stated in writing at the time of the appointment. (American Association of University Professors, 1940)

Currently, “. . . individuals increasingly rely on segmented and differential definitions [of academic freedom] that reflect on their institutional, disciplinary, and individual viewpoints” (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996, p. 26).

A key assumption of the present study was that true academic freedom only exists where political comfort is perceived. Since curriculum development includes an evaluation of “the worth of, and priorities among, different types of knowledge. . . ” (Lucas, 1996, p. 124), it was posited that politically comfortable participation in the curriculum development process is an essential part of a faculty member’s academic freedom.

Furedy (1997) expressed concern about the state of academic freedom.

. . . [W]here avoidance of a “chilly climate” is the paramount consideration, there is no real academic freedom. It is subjectively assessed comfort that determines what can be said not only by faculty, but also by student members of the academic community. (p. 333)

In contrast to the present investigation, Furedy approached comfort as a negative factor.

He equated comfort with the avoidance of discomfort on the part of some.

Colleges and universities, and even societies, have been challenged to maintain a difficult balance between full freedom of expression and the mitigation of climates that are chilly for some individuals and groups. The premise of the present study was that faculty members function best when they are not afraid--when they perceive comfort.

Hanson (2007) issued the following scathing indictment of the academy:

“Hypocrisy runs rampant: many of those assuring students that America is hopelessly oppressive do so on an atoll of guaranteed lifelong employment, summers off, high salaries, and few audits of their own job performance”. However, some in the academy have disagreed with Hanson’s assessment. One of the main justifications for continuing the practice of granting tenure to educators has been that cited by Finkin (1996) who believed tenure was “. . . a means to guarantee academic freedom”.

### Tenure

In this study, the researcher examined whether tenure improves the political comfort of college faculty members. The decision on tenure has been a momentous one for individuals and institutions. It

determines whether the candidate will or will not retain his or her job, and it settles whether the institution will or will not have an employee for a term that



will end only when the employee decides to leave or retire (or dies).  
(Weingartner, 1996, p. 92)

“The AAUP took as its initial major task the protection of academic freedom in higher education. It was involved from the start with efforts to secure formally protected ‘job rights’, perceived in academe as tenure” (Ladd & Lipset, 1975, pp. 245-246). Contained in the 1940 Statement of Principles on Academic Freedom and Tenure was the following:

After the expiration of a probationary period, teachers or investigators should have permanent or continuous tenure, and their service should be terminated only for adequate cause, except in the case of retirement for age, or under extraordinary circumstances because of financial exigencies. (AAUP, 1940)

Typically, faculty members have been evaluated and tenure decisions have been made on the basis of teaching, research, and service. A primary activity in teaching has been classroom instruction. Many factors determine effective classroom instruction, and colleges and universities have typically looked for these factors when evaluating teaching. Knowledge of and expertise in the subject matter has been critical. Presentation, communication, and organization skills have also been important. Less frequently evaluated measures include: “willingness to evaluate and improve one’s own teaching; ability to communicate enthusiasm for the discipline; innovation, experimentation, and creativity in teaching; ability to establish and communicate course goals and requirements; and demonstration of personal and professional growth in teaching” (Chait, 2002, p. 50). Most institutions have also evaluated advising as a teaching activity. Roughly half have considered curriculum development. Around one-fourth have also evaluated development of new instructional techniques and supervision of research.

“For most institutions (98%), documentation of research activities involves publications in scholarly journals, books, technical reports, grant applications, inventions, patents, original artwork, and presentations of papers at national conferences” (Chait, 2002, p. 51). Some institutions have extended their definitions of research to include creative work and public performances (to cover arts and music studies), grant writing and directing, postdoctoral fellowships and academic awards, and textbook and pedagogical publications. At a large public research university, “Unquestionably the most important area of evaluation involves research and scholarship” (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996, p. 30).

Most institutions have defined service as “contributions to the general welfare of the university; public service, extension, or outreach; and professional and administrative activities” (Chait, 2002, p. 52). The most common form (100% of institutions) has been university service (Chait, p. 52). Typically, this has translated to serving on committees. Some institutions have extended their definitions of service to include service to the community using expertise (consulting), service to students (advising student organizations), and even service as a volunteer (civic activities). Service has typically been evaluated on the basis of leadership quality, time on task, and effort expended. Less common criteria include “contribution to the effective operation of the institution and favorable attention generated for the institution” (Chait, p. 53).

One commonly cited problem with the tenure process occurs when tenure evaluators use unstated factors or unclear criteria in arriving at decisions. The problem has not been with moving beyond the traditional ‘teaching, research, service’ triumvirate

of evaluation criteria. Rather, the problem has arisen when tenure denials are issued based on unpublished criteria. This can lead to lawsuits by unsuccessful candidates claiming “unfairness and impropriety” (AAUP, n.d., p.5).

Some institutions, such as St. Louis University, have adopted collegiality clauses. St. Louis defined collegiality as “working cooperatively and professionally with others” (Chait, 2002, p. 108). The American Association of University Professors (AAUP) has not supported the use of collegiality clauses as tenure criteria on the basis that they create “gray areas” open to individual interpretation. A number of universities such as Indiana University-Purdue University at Indianapolis (IUPUI) have experimented with having faculty members outside the university review course materials and syllabi. Others like the University of North Carolina-Charlotte (UNCC) have established peer review programs and included “collecting data on the value given to peer visits to classrooms in these review processes” (Chait, p. 109). While there is merit in collegiality and peer review programs, it is possible that these kinds of programs could have an impact on one’s perception of political comfort. As one example, a professor might opt to avoid a controversial topic such as school vouchers because he had heard the peer who was slated to observe his class speak vehemently against the idea.

The concept of academic tenure has provoked many different views from different individuals. Immerwahr (1999) found, in a 1999 survey, that 95% of corporate executives agreed that “tenure sometimes protects incompetent faculty” (p. 22). While this view may not matter to some, it is important because, in many cases, corporate executives often double as college trustees. And trustees have recently exhibited “a more

general activism” (Chait, 2002, p. 15). Of interest is that in the same survey, 74% of tenured professors held similar beliefs. Still, only “23% of faculty (versus 83% of business executives) believed that phasing out tenure would improve higher education” (Immerwahr, p. 22). The impact of tenure on political comfort was examined in this study.

### The Tenure Process

A typical tenure process at a research university would be described in the following manner. After completing an advanced degree, the successful candidate for a tenure-track faculty position will be selected from a highly qualified field of candidates in a nation-wide search. New tenure-track faculty members then face a five to seven year probationary period during which their professional activities (teaching, research, and professional service) are regularly reviewed by faculty members, chairpersons, and deans. At the end of the probationary period, applicants for tenure must submit to a comprehensive review of both their performance to-date and of their promise as continuing faculty members (Hauptli, 1996).

Specific criticisms of the tenure process include: “ambiguous and often contradictory criteria; conflicts between institutional rhetoric and realities of reward structures; clouded and clandestine review procedures; and unmitigated stress in the face of unreasonable expectations” (Chait, 2002, p. 17). Some have contended that “Minority faculty may also be more susceptible to taking on extra service burdens. . . .” (Tierney &

Bensimon, 1996, p. 117). The opportunity cost of this extra service is time not spent on research activities.

Critics of tenure say that, “. . . tenure neither protects nor advances the concept for which it was intended--academic freedom” (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996, p. 143).

The tenure system itself negatively affects faculty leadership in the early years. Tenure track faculty may exercise leadership before they are awarded tenure, but they do so at great peril. They are often afraid to discuss their work, and they have to create partnerships with senior faculty in order to evade resistance and create protection. (Kezar, Lester, Carducci, Gallant, & McGavin, 2007, pp. 14-16)

It is conceivable that some researchers will avoid promising but controversial research in order to avoid being marginalized.

### Political Freedom of Expression

Epistemology has been defined as “the branch of philosophy that deals with questions concerning the nature, scope, and sources of knowledge” (DeRose, 2005).

“Good scholarship in science (or, for that matter, in any intellectual endeavour) requires that personal conflicts between disputants be transcended by the conflict of ideas, so that the fundamental aim of the discussion can be epistemic rather than political” (Furedy, 1997, p. 299). Furedy elaborated as he explained that “political” can have multiple meanings:

a foe of the conflict-of-ideas principle. . . was the fear of offending one's peers. This caution was promulgated by the North American scientific granting system that provides funds almost exclusively on the basis of reviews by peers. . . More recently, a new threat to the conflict-of-ideas approach has arisen, and again that threat has been strongest in North America. I refer to political correctness (PC). . . Sensitivity to whether assertions create discomfort for certain people or groups has become a primary criterion for approval of grants to the point that there is a

proscription against the mere consideration of certain data (e.g., the observed statistical group difference in performance of IQ tests in North America between blacks and whites, let alone specific interpretations, i.e., those that stress genetic influences). (p. 299)

When political freedom of expression is limited, so is the ability to pursue new sources of knowledge. “For example, in North Africa, a professor of public health discovered that his country's infant mortality rate was higher than government figures indicated. He lost his job and was imprisoned” (Fuchs, 1969). The pursuit of truth is stifled and political comfort is reduced here because others, due to fear of imprisonment, will likely withhold information and statements that conflict with the governing authority even if that governing authority is promulgating false or misleading information. The stifling of the pursuit of truth by governing authorities is nothing new:

The reference is to Galileo's *sotto voce* (and probably apocryphal) assertion of the heliocentric theory. Under threat of torture, Galileo publicly denied the theory, but said under his breath "And yet it [the earth] moves." The significance of Galileo's whispered retort is that it represents the value of disinterestedness--that what should govern inquiry is the search for truth. In other words, no matter what an authority may say, even if that authority has power over life and death, it has no power over truth. (Furedy, 1997, p. 299)

Freedom to pursue truth is clearly important, and it may even necessitate a clash of diverse ideas. However, Hanson articulated a concern about relativism in the academy. He explained that some courses:

. . . are by design deductive. The student is expected to arrive at the instructor's own preconceived conclusions. The courses are also captives of the present--hostages of the contemporary media and popular culture from which they draw their information and earn their relevance.

The theme of all such therapeutic curricula is relativism. There are no eternal truths, only passing assertions that gain credence through power and authority. Once students understand how gender, race, and class distinctions are

used to oppress others, they are then free to ignore absolute “truth,” since it is only a reflection of one’s own privilege. (Hanson, 2007)

Velasquez, Andre, Shanks, and Meyer (1992) expressed a general concern with ethical relativism:

Also, it is argued, it may be the case that some moral beliefs are culturally relative whereas others are not. Certain practices, such as customs regarding dress and decency, may depend on local custom whereas other practices, such as slavery, torture, or political repression, may be governed by universal moral standards and judged wrong despite the many other differences that exist among cultures. Simply because some practices are relative does not mean that all practices are relative.

In theory, the goal of the academy has been to pursue new sources of knowledge and truth. While some academics may take solace in “truth” that matches their preconceived notions, the potential for the following exists: “There is no single, absolute truth, says the moral relativist, but many truths; in fact, there are as many truths as there are individuals with separate definitions as to what is the truth” (Kengor, 2008).

A practical problem with multiple “truths” lies in the following: In an academic department, a “determined minority may have an impact far out of proportion to its numbers. A department is basically a small work group, and its members will often yield to the sentiments of a minority to avoid internal division” (Hamilton & Hargens, 1993, p. 621). If “truth” is determined in an academic setting by a “determined minority”, it is posited that political comfort in that academic setting is damaged.

Also, if “truth” is determined by a “determined minority”, it may or may not be absolute truth. Lewis (2001) had this to say about the pursuit of absolute truth: “If you look for truth, you may find comfort in the end: If you look for comfort you will not get

either comfort or truth--only soft soap and wishful thinking to begin with and, in the end, despair” (p. 32).

### Overview of Faculty Politics Studies

It is important to note that some research issues have been salient for a period of time followed by a period of dormancy. While this phenomenon is difficult to quantify, it is fairly easy to explain. Topics of interest in any discipline are subject to periods of both saliency and dormancy.

Politics is dynamic. As such, the definitions of what constitutes Democrat and Republican are dynamic. For instance,

In the aftermath of the American Civil War the former Confederate states maintained a cohesive voting pattern nearly a century. It became known as "The Solid South" and was counted in the Democratic column for years. But as times, and party platforms, changed southern politics did too. Now for several decades the South has been solidly in the Republican camp. (Moyers, 2008)

One of the earlier studies of college faculty politics was sponsored by the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education. “In 1969, the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education sponsored a series of large scale, parallel national surveys of undergraduate and graduate students, faculty, and administrators” (Ladd & Lipset, 1975, p. 3). Ladd and Lipset analyzed data from these surveys along with that gathered in a 1972 survey of their own. They “attend[ed] to general characteristics of the ‘academic mind’, to the way professors conceptualize political life, and the relationship of their perspectives to broad currents within the intellectual stratum” (p. 5). They also “explore(d) sources of divisions within the professoriate” and “attend(ed) to some



specific issues which reflect both the underlying dimensions of conflict in faculty politics and the rapidly shifting context in which academic politics is acted out” (p. 6). The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, in its 1989 study, sought information about the following categories: “the goals of collegiate education; academic standards; attitudes about student life; teaching, research, and service; status of the profession; views of the institution; participation in decision-making; general observations” (Carnegie Foundation, 1989, p. xix).

Hamilton and Hargens (1993) “examined evidence on the political orientations of professors” (p. 603). They used data from several of the large Carnegie studies in their analyses. More recently, Klein and Stern (2005) measured the voting behavior of humanists and social scientists. They were fairly critical of the academy albeit not in a political, ideological manner.

Rothman, Lichter, and Nevitte (2005a) released a study on the politics and professional advancement of college faculty. They posed several questions:

First, do full-time faculty in four year colleges and graduate institutions have differentially liberal or left of center political views and Democratic Party preferences? Second, is there any evidence indicating that these liberal orientations are self-reinforcing? Do faculty who do not share the prevailing mindset find professional advancement more difficult? (Rothman, Lichter, & Nevitte, 2005a, p. 3)

The Rothman et al. (2005a) study raised some serious questions about the academy and received some criticism. One of the responses came from a group of University of Pittsburgh professors. “Hide the Republicans, the Christians, and the Women: A Response to ‘Politics and Professional Advancement among College

Faculty”” was published later in 2005 in the same online social science journal where the Rothman study initially appeared. Their main criticism of Rothman et al. was that other researchers were “unable to subject our alternative hypothesis to empirical assessment (or even to replicate the initial results of Rothman, Lichter and Nevitte) since they have refused to make their data available to the scientific community” (Ames, Barker, Bonneau, & Carman, 2005, p. 1).

Zipp and Fenwick (2006) set out to learn more about faculty and discover if the majority had liberal leanings. Their goals for the study were to answer two questions: “(1) Have faculty become increasingly liberal? and (2) Are these liberal faculty pushing their agendas on their students?” (p. 305).

According to Gross and Simmons (2007), two sociologists whose results were released in September, 2007, conservatives have comprised a small minority within the American professoriate. “The study, arguably the best-designed survey of American faculty beliefs since the early 1970s, found that only 9.2 percent of college instructors are conservatives, and that only 20.4 percent voted for George W. Bush in 2004” (Glenn, 2007).

### Methodology Used in Faculty Politics Studies

The faculty study on which Ladd and Lipset drew

. . . most heavily, employed a questionnaire that was mailed to approximately 100,000 full-time college and university professors located at 303 schools around the country. The questionnaire solicited more than 300 items of information from each respondent, including social background, professional activities and achievements, and opinions on a broad range of political issues and controversies,

from those largely restricted to the campus to matters of national and international affairs. (Ladd & Lipset, 1975, pp. 3-4)

A total of 60,000 faculty members in more than 300 institutions responded to the 1969 Carnegie survey (Ladd & Lipset, 1975). Variations of political orientation associated with different academic disciplines, age, and religion were also described and analyzed.

The Carnegie Foundation survey (1989) “gathered information from more than 5,000 faculty members at all types of higher learning institutions” (p. xix). Hamilton and Hargens (1993) used “data from the 1969, 1975, and 1984 Carnegie surveys of faculty at U.S. colleges and universities” (p. 603).

Klein and Stern (2005) surveyed U.S. members in the following six nation-wide social science and humanities associations:

. . . American Anthropology Association, American Economics Association, American Historical Association, American Society for Political and Legal Philosophy, American Political Science Association, American Sociological Association. . . . All six associations are non-partisan; the main benefits of membership are reduced fees to academic conferences and journal subscriptions” (Klein & Stern, pp. 4-5).

This discipline-specific approach to data collection contrasted with the broad-based Carnegie surveys.

Like the Carnegie surveys, the data analyzed in the Rothman study came from a broad-based survey. “We tested the first hypothesis through cross-tabulation of political self descriptions, party affiliations, and social and political attitudes reported by a randomly-based national sample of American college faculty surveyed in 1999” (Rothman et al., 2005a, p. 3). Specifically, data were gathered in the 1999 North American Academic Study Survey (NAASS) of students, faculty and administrators at

colleges and universities in the United States and Canada. The questionnaire included a wide range of items. Specifically, questions sought information regarding demographics; attitudes toward social, political, and academic issues; and (for faculty) academic background, activities, and accomplishments (Rothman et al.).

It is important to clarify that the focus of the analysis in the Rothman et al., (2005a) study was college and university faculty in the United States. The United States sample included 1643 faculty members from 183 universities and colleges.

The sample of institutions was stratified by institution type according to the Carnegie classifications of doctoral, comprehensive, and liberal arts schools. The data set contains responses from 81 doctoral, 59 comprehensive, and 43 liberal arts institutions. Within each stratum, institutions were randomly selected from the universe of qualified institutions, with probability of selection proportional to size of faculty and student body combined. Full-time faculty members were then randomly chosen from each institution in numbers proportionate to its size. The response rate among the American faculty was 72%. (Rothman et al., pp. 3-4)

Criticisms of the work of Rothman et al. (2005a) by the Ames group centered on the research design and methodology of the Rothman study. “First, RLN are unclear as to whether they are measuring ‘professional success’, ‘professional advancement’, or ‘quality of institutional affiliation’. We believe that these terms connote rather distinct concepts, but RLN treat them as one and the same” (Ames et al., 2005, p. 5). Whether these concepts are one and the same or distinct probably depends on the individual academic. There are certainly many who have perceived professional success in the academic field as being affiliated with a prestigious institution. It is likely that those individuals would consider a move from a lower-tier institution to a higher tier institution

to be professional advancement. To be fair, however, there are others who would be less concerned about institutional reputation.

Second, it is unclear whether RLN's measure compares academic institutions within tiers or merely across tiers. If discrimination is really occurring, we would expect to find the negative relationship between faculty conservatism and institutional prestige both within and across tiers. However, if this relationship can only be observed across tiers, it is more likely to be a function of self selection, given that institutions differ more across tiers than within tiers in terms of mission, emphasis, and scholarly approach. (Ames et al., p. 6)

One of the main criticisms of the Klein and Stern (2005) study was that it focused too heavily on social science faculty at elite institutions. Therefore, Zipp and Fenwick (2006) sought a more "representative" sample of institutions and disciplines, including two-year colleges and fields like business and science. The authors assembled data on professors' political orientations from the 1989 and 1997 National Surveys of Faculty conducted by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (Zipp & Fenwick).

The Gross and Simmons (2007) survey drew responses from 1,417 full-time instructors at 927 colleges of all types. Gross and Simmons designed their sample to give weight to the 20 fields with the most undergraduate majors.

#### Findings of Faculty Politics Studies

According to Ladd and Lipset (1975), "Evidence that the dominant mood on the American campus is liberal to left and hence predisposed to favor politics dedicated to egalitarian social changes is clear and decisive. . . ." (pp. 25-26). In the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching survey (1989), it was found that American

professors were more liberal in their ideological orientations than the general population (Carnegie Foundation, 1989). In yet another study, Hamilton and Hargens (1993), stated that "the incidence of leftism has been considerably exaggerated" (p. 603).

Ladd and Lipset (1975) have written that monolithic liberalism is limited and only tends to occur at either elite institutions, such as Harvard and University of California - Berkeley, or within certain disciplines, e.g., the social sciences. Hamilton and Hargens, in discussing a 1969 Carnegie Foundation study, reported

. . . a clear, but modest, relationship between quality of institution and the frequency of both liberal and leftist identifications. By 1984 that pattern was substantially changed. . . The high quality liberal arts colleges showed a striking opposite pattern with both liberal and leftist sentiments increasing over the fifteen years. This put them at "the top of the list" of combined liberal-left sentiment, well ahead of the prestigious research universities. (pp. 620-621)

Klein and Stern (2005) surveyed 5,486 members of the above-mentioned six national academic associations. Respondents were asked for their voting histories as well as their views on several policy issues. A total of 1,678 (31%) completed the questionnaire. Across the humanities and social sciences, the authors estimated that self-identified Democrats outnumbered self-identified Republicans (7:1). In economics, the ratio was 3:1, and in anthropology, it was 30:1. "Our results support the view that the social-sciences and humanities faculty are pretty much a one-party system. . . . Quite possibly, the academic environment, even in economics, keeps the minority voices muffled and fearful" (Klein & Stern, p. 14). Klein and Stern did not fully explain what they meant by "muffled and fearful."

In the Rothman study, it is also important to consider the survey instrument. The NAASS instrument included three separate measures of political identification: (a) ideological self-designation on a left-right scale, (b) political party preference, and (c) a set of items on social and political attitudes (Rothman et al., 2005a).

As shown in Table 1, several facts are apparent. The U.S. public has been somewhat conservative, and there was very little change in that leaning between 1999 and 2004. Also, as a group, professors have been much more liberal than the U.S. public. No investigation or explanation was found in the review of faculty politics literature for the increase in the liberal/conservative gap between 1984 and 1999.

Table 1  
*Ideological Self-description of College Professors and General Public*

| Ideology*          | Professors    |            | U. S. Public |             |
|--------------------|---------------|------------|--------------|-------------|
|                    | Carnegie 1984 | NAASS 1999 | Harris 1999  | Harris 2004 |
| Left/Liberal       | 39%           | 72%        | 18%          | 18%         |
| Right/Conservative | 34%           | 15%        | 37%          | 33%         |

*Note.* \*Categories exclude “n = middle-of-the-road,” “n = independent,” and “n = other.” Reproduced with permission (Appendix A) from “Politics and Professional Advancement Among College Faculty,” by S. Rothman, S.R. Lichter, and N. Nevitte, (2005), *The Forum*, 3(1), p. 2. Copyright 2005 by Berkley Electronic Press

Table 2 (Rothman et al., 2005a) categorizes the survey responses by discipline. Only two disciplines, business and nursing, yielded numbers remotely approaching a liberal/conservative balance. However, every discipline area surveyed had more self-identified liberals than self-identified conservatives. Of interest is that sociology did not show any Republican responses among the 61 sociologists surveyed.

Table 2  
*Political Identification of College Professors by Field (%)*

| Descriptor           | Liberal* | Conservative* | Democrat+ | Republican+ | N    |
|----------------------|----------|---------------|-----------|-------------|------|
|                      | %        | %             | %         | %           |      |
| Field of Study       |          |               |           |             |      |
| All Faculty          | 72       | 15            | 50        | 11          | 1643 |
| Social Sciences      | 75       | 9             | 55        | 7           | 289  |
| Humanities           | 81       | 9             | 62        | 6           | 449  |
| Other                | 67       | 20            | 43        | 15          | 905  |
| Selected Departments |          |               |           |             |      |
| English Literature   | 88       | 3             | 69        | 2           | 87   |
| Performing Arts      | 84       | 16            | 63        | 2           | 31   |
| Psychology           | 84       | 8             | 63        | 7           | 68   |
| Fine Arts            | 83       | 8             | 55        | 4           | 36   |
| Theology/Religion    | 83       | 5             | 49        | 16          | 26   |
| Political Science    | 81       | 2             | 58        | 8           | 67   |
| Philosophy           | 80       | 5             | 62        | 11          | 26   |
| History              | 77       | 10            | 70        | 4           | 62   |
| Sociology            | 77       | 9             | 59        | 0           | 61   |
| Biology              | 75       | 17            | 56        | 13          | 59   |
| Communications       | 75       | 14            | 47        | 11          | 66   |
| Music                | 74       | 8             | 56        | 6           | 53   |
| Computer Science     | 74       | 26            | 43        | 21          | 44   |
| Mathematics          | 69       | 17            | 43        | 15          | 49   |
| Physics              | 66       | 11            | 48        | 5           | 37   |
| Linguistics          | 65       | 11            | 64        | 2           | 53   |
| Chemistry            | 64       | 29            | 41        | 25          | 52   |
| Education            | 61       | 29            | 55        | 7           | 88   |
| Economics            | 55       | 39            | 36        | 17          | 44   |
| Nursing              | 53       | 47            | 32        | 26          | 32   |
| Engineering          | 51       | 19            | 34        | 13          | 90   |
| Business             | 49       | 39            | 26        | 26          | 101  |

*Note.* \*Categories exclude middle-of-the-road; +excludes third parties and independents.  
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Table 3 (Rothman et al., 2005a, p. 7) displays the results of a survey of college professors on a variety of “hot-button” social, moral, and economic issues. With such vast majorities of professors identifying with the liberal viewpoints, a question arises as to whether conservative viewpoints can receive balanced coverage.

Table 3  
*Responses of College Professors to Attitude Items*

| Items   | Strongly Agree | Somewhat Agree | Somewhat Disagree | Strongly disagree | Don't Know |
|---|----------------|----------------|-------------------|-------------------|------------|
| Homosexual lifestyle as acceptable as heterosexual    | 44%            | 23%            | 17%               | 14%               | 2%         |
| Women's right to have abortion                        | 67%            | 17%            | 7%                | 7%                | 1%         |
| Accept extramarital cohabitation                      | 50%            | 25%            | 12%               | 11%               | 1%         |
| Government should guarantee employment                | 25%            | 41%            | 23%               | 11%               | 0%         |
| Government should reduce income gap                   | 38%            | 34%            | 17%               | 10%               | 0%         |
| Protect environment despite higher prices, fewer jobs | 48%            | 40%            | 9%                | 2%                | 1%         |

*Note.* Percentages may not total 100% due to rounding. Reproduced with permission (Appendix A) from “Politics and Professional Advancement Among College Faculty,” by S. Rothman, S.R. Lichter, and N. Nevitte, (2005), *The Forum*, 3(1), p. 7. Copyright 2005 by Berkley Electronic Press.

The Rothman survey data:

confirm the first hypothesis, which posits a predominance of liberal to left faculty on American college campuses. But is there any merit to the claim that homogeneity makes it more difficult for conservatives to enter and advance in the profession? That proposition is more difficult to test systematically. In addition to the finding that conservatives are underrepresented in college faculties, it is necessary to show that conservative academics are hindered in their career advancement, and that this disadvantage is not simply due to a lack of merit on their part. (Rothman et al., 2005a, p. 8)

Rothman's (2005a) second hypothesis was explored using multiple regression analysis that examined the independent effect of faculty social and political ideology on professional success when other variables as academic achievement were controlled. Table 4 presents the variables associated with the quality of school in which faculty teach. In Model I, political ideology was an independent variable. In Model II, party identification was an independent variable.

Listed are the regression coefficients that resulted from a multiple regression analysis. In both models, academic achievement was determined to be the most powerful predictor of the quality of a professor's institutional affiliation, which served as the dependent variable in both models. Political ideology in Model I and party identification in Model II were the second most powerful predictors. Institutional quality data were based on the U.S. News & World Report rankings of colleges and universities.

The second hypothesis is confirmed when socio-political orientation is operationalized in terms of ideological attitudes or party identification, although not as left-right self-designation. These results show that individual scholarly achievement is by far the most important factor in predicting the quality of a professor's institutional affiliation. But being a Republican or conservative significantly reduces the predicted quality of the college or university where he or she teaches, after taking scholarly achievement into account. In addition, the regressions uncovered some relationships that clearly warrant further research, principally the role of gender and religiosity in academic advancement. (Rothman et al., 2005a, p.12)

Any deviation from the norms of the academy can lead to marginalization. Organizations and associations also have displayed a tendency to marginalize non-hegemonic thought.

Table 4  
*Variables Associated with Quality of School in Which Faculty Teach (N = 1562)*

| Variables                 | Model I Coefficients |              | Model II Coefficients |              |
|---------------------------|----------------------|--------------|-----------------------|--------------|
|                           | Unstandardized       | Standardized | Unstandardized        | Standardized |
| Ideology index            | .084***              | .086         |                       |              |
| Republican                |                      |              | -2.547**              | -.073        |
| Independent               |                      |              | -.982                 | -.042        |
| Female                    | -1.743**             | -.069        | -1.692**              | -.067        |
| Black                     | 1.706                | .026         | 1.405                 | .021         |
| Asian                     | 1.333                | .025         | 1.246                 | .024         |
| Gay or lesbian            | 1.296                | .025         | 1.375                 | .026         |
| Married                   | .710                 | .028         | .601                  | .023         |
| Practicing Jewish         | 1.041                | .019         | 1.058                 | .020         |
| Practicing Christian      | -1.402*              | -.063        | -1.788***             | -.081        |
| Faculty achievement index | .433***              | .388         | .436***               | .391         |
| Constant                  | 46.959***            |              | 55.913***             |              |
| Adjusted R squared        | .197                 |              | .196                  |              |

*Note.* \*Significant at the .05 level; \*\*significant at the .01 level; \*\*\*significant at the .001 level. Historically Black colleges were excluded from this analysis. Reproduced with permission (Appendix A) from “Politics and Professional Advancement Among College Faculty,” by S. Rothman, S.R. Lichter, and N. Nevitte, (2005), *The Forum*, 3(1), p. 11. Copyright 2005 by Berkley Electronic Press.

The notion of whether comfort differs based on gender and/or religiosity was also investigated in the present study.

Ames et al. (2005) were critics of the Rothman study. They theorized that the reason for the lack of conservatives in the academy was “self-selection”.

In lieu of discrimination, [Ames et al.] posit self-selection as the reason political liberals are more likely than conservatives to teach at highly rated schools. They present three instances of potential self-selection. First, conservatives might “prefer to work in smaller, more rural areas” (their emphasis) with more compatible ideological climates. Second, they might choose to stay in the South and Midwest, regions from where conservatives are differentially drawn, but where fewer elite universities are located than, say, the Northeast. More provocatively, they argue that many conservatives may deliberately avoid top-tier universities because they object to the scientific method. (Rothman, Lichter, & Nevitte, 2005b, p. 3)

However, Rothman et al. found that ideology and party affiliation were statistically significant predictors of institutional quality when South and Midwest region variables were included in regression models, though the region variables made no independent contribution. Also, Ames et al. noted that many liberal arts colleges “of the highest quality” are located in small communities (p. 2). Rothman et al. responded in the following manner to the Ames et al. criticism of conservatives’ approach to the scientific method: “. . .within the academy the most prominent attacks on scientific method, as [Ames et al.] describe it, come not from the Christian right but from the ideological left, in the forms of postmodernism, deconstructionism, and some variants of radical feminism” (p. 5).

Zipp and Fenwick (2006) found that professors were more likely to identify themselves as left of center than as right of center. However, on a five-point scale of political orientation, professors made an overall move toward the middle between 1989 and 1997. They concluded that, "Despite little evidence for an overwhelmingly liberal faculty pushing its values on campus, the clamor continues to ring out. . . . Much of this outcry surely is based more on partisan politics than on dispassionate scholarly inquiry" (Zipp & Fenwick, p. 307).

Table 5 displays the political orientation of American professors as viewed by Gross & Simmons (2007). This indicates the dearth of self-identified conservative professors in many fields. Gross and Simmons also found “faculty members leaned sharply to the left on issues of gender, sexuality, and foreign policy”(Glenn, 2007). For

instance, three-quarters agreed that abortion should be legal "if a woman wants it for any reason" (Gross & Simmons, p. 47).

Table 5  
*The Political Orientation of American Professors*

| Field                        | Liberal | Moderate | Conservative |
|------------------------------|---------|----------|--------------|
| Physical/biological sciences | 45.2%   | 47.0%    | 7.8%         |
| Social sciences              | 58.2%   | 36.9%    | 4.9%         |
| Humanities                   | 52.2%   | 44.3%    | 3.6%         |
| Computer science/engineering | 10.7%   | 78.0%    | 11.3%        |
| Health sciences              | 20.5%   | 59.0%    | 20.5%        |
| Business                     | 21.3%   | 54.3%    | 24.5%        |
| Other                        | 53.4%   | 35.9%    | 10.7%        |

*Note.* Percentages may not total 100% because of rounding. Adapted with authors' permission from *The social and political views of American professors* by N. Gross and S. Simmons, (2007), p. 28. Retrieved December 19, 2007.

“Not all of Gross and Simmons’ numbers matched the left-liberal profile” (Glenn, 2007). Among those who expressed an opinion, only 50.7% supported affirmative action in college admissions, and 60% agreed with the statement that "the government should do more to help needy Americans, even if it means going deeper into debt" (Gross & Simmons, p. 43).

That was similar to the general population's belief. In a national survey conducted in 2007 by the Pew Research Center for the People and the Press, 54% of Americans agreed with the same statement. On another item, however, faculty members appeared significantly more conservative than the general public. Slightly less than half of faculty members agreed that “Business corporations make too much profit” compared with 67% of Americans. (Glenn)

Liberal-arts colleges have had the highest concentrations of left-of-center faculty members. Only 3.9% of instructors at liberal-arts colleges have referred to themselves as conservatives. Community colleges have had the smallest proportion of self-identified

liberals (37.1%) and the highest proportion of self-identified conservatives--19% (Glenn, 2007). According to Gross and Simmons (2007), "Elite, Ph.D.-granting institutions" (p. 29) were in a middle ground with 10.2% of faculty members identifying themselves as conservative. Glenn noted the contrast: "That pattern contrasts with the well-known studies conducted in the early 1970s by Everett Carl Ladd Jr. and Seymour Martin Lipset, which found that conservatives were rarest at the most elite institutions."

Faculty members have generally supported the idea of political openness on campuses. Gross and Simmons (2007) asked whether "the goal of diversity should include fostering diversity of political views among faculty members" (p. 69). A total of 68.8% agreed. Glenn (2007) noted that one participant in a symposium thought the percentage to be disturbingly low and wondered about the other 31%. When asked whether "professors are as curious and open-minded today as they have ever been, 79.9% of the total sample responded affirmatively, but 46.3% of self-identified conservative respondents disagreed (Gross & Simmons, p. 69).

#### Commentary on Faculty Politics Studies

In the foreword to Ladd and Lipset's 1975 work, Clark Kerr, Chairman of the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education and former President of the University of California, wrote "The authors find the dominant orientation of professors to be liberal, and they trace the causes of the orientation to the nature of intellectual activities that involve questioning of the status quo and a critical attitude toward conventional wisdom" (Ladd & Lipset, 1975, p. xi; Lipset, 1982, p. 144).

The late Senator Daniel Patrick Moynihan, a New York Democrat, expressed the view that, during the 1960s:

social scientists gained ‘quite extraordinary access to power’ which they employed for intellectually partisan objectives, ‘to promote social change in directions they deemed necessary and desirable.’ He sees the social scientist as suffering from a kind of split personality, on the one hand as a scholar genuinely committed to an objective pursuit of truth, but at the same time as a ‘passionate partisan of social justice and social change to bring it about. (Ladd & Lipset, 1975, p. 98)

There have been several studies since the 1970s that indicate left-liberal politics in the United States professoriate. A study by Klein and Stern (2005) has been called the “‘most careful’ of these studies by *The Nation*, which was nonetheless wary of the study's claims” (Gravois, 2007). Critics have cited the low response rate as diminishing the usefulness of the findings. Also, Klein and Stern did not specify how or why one's personal voting record would make one “muffled and fearful” in many academic matters.

Rothman et al. (2005a) believed

that ideology accounts for differences in professional standing. It is entirely possible that other unmeasured factors may account for those variations. That said, the results are consistent with the hypothesis that political conservatism confers a disadvantage in the competition for professional advancement. These results suggest that conservative complaints of the presence and effects of liberal homogeneity in academia deserve to be taken seriously, despite their self-interested quality and the anecdotal nature of the evidence previously presented. (p. 13)

Rosemary G. Feal, executive director of the Modern Language Association, said that the implication that liberal faculty members were keeping conservative scholars out was “. . . ‘rubbish’, and said that anyone who has been on dozens of search committees, as

she has, knows that. ‘It boggles my mind the degree to which this is rubbish’ ” (Jaschik, 2005).

Milov (2005) reported on the responses to the Rothman et al. study by two Harvard professors: One education professor, Reuben, indicated that:

she was skeptical of the argument that discrimination is to blame for the weak conservative voice on campus. ‘I would have assumed that there is a high degree of self-selection rather than discrimination,’ Reuben said. Reuben also said that she believed the abundance of liberals in academia could be due to the fact that as people become more educated, they tend to become more liberal”. (Milov, 2005)

Another Harvard faculty member, Kenan Professor of Government Harvey C. Mansfield was not surprised at Rothman’s findings.

‘Conservatives have a hard time in academia,’ Mansfield said. ‘Just look at my department. There are fifty professors, and two or three are Republicans. How is that possible?’ Mansfield. . . said he rejects the ‘liberals are smarter’ hypothesis. ‘That is ridiculous,’ Mansfield said. ‘All that would mean is that fewer conservatives go to graduate school, because there are no [academic] jobs for them.’ Mansfield offered another hypothesis for the bluish tint to the ivory tower. ‘Multiculturalism crowds out conservatives,’ Mansfield said. “They think they’ve done their duty by promoting women and minorities. Once they’re done doing that, they have nothing left for conservatives.’ (Milov, 2005)

Ames et al (2005) discussed the idea that conservatives may prefer to live in certain communities (rural) and regions (the South and Midwest) where there are fewer top-tier colleges and universities.

Just as Zipp and Fenwick have been critical of Klein and Stern, Klein and Stern offer the following critique of the Zipp and Fenwick (2006) study: “Unlike voting behavior, self-reported political orientation is slippery and relative. . . Why bother factoring in the politics of chemists? The humanities and social sciences are where politics is most relevant--and most lopsided” (Gravois, 2007).



Glenn (2007) reported on the response of Lawrence Summers, former president of Harvard University, to the new study. Summers praised the sophistication of the study but viewed the results differently than did Gross and Simmons.

‘The data in this paper surprised me in the opposite direction that it surprised the authors,’ said Mr. Summers, who is now a university professor at Harvard. ‘It made me think that there is even less ideological diversity in the American university than I had imagined.’ In his remarks, Mr. Summers concentrated on a subset of the data concerning elite, Ph.D.-granting universities. In humanities and social-science departments at those institutions, he pointed out, not a single instructor reported voting for President Bush in 2004.

In the August, 3, 2006 edition of the *San Francisco Chronicle*, columnist Debra J. Saunders wrote,

Imagine, if you would, that slightly more than half of the public voted Democratic in the last presidential election, yet some 80 percent of higher education's social scientists voted Republican. In that universe, you would expect the left to demand changes in university hiring practices so that academia would nurture greater diversity so as to better represent the American community. Then step back into the real world, where academia has become a solid bastion of the Left. . . I call that a near monopoly marketplace of ideas. (Saunders, 2006)

### Marketplace of Ideas

Economics provides an explanation of why idea competition is important. The “marketplace of ideas” is an analogy to the economic concept of a free market (Lisher, 2003). This concept holds that the truth, or the best policy, arises out of the competition of diverse ideas in free, transparent public discourse. This concept has also been used by educators in higher education who have linked the concept to academic freedom (Lisher, 2003).

The concept of the 'marketplace of ideas' has often been attributed to Justice Oliver Wendell Holmes' dissenting opinion in *Abrams v. U S* , 250 U.S. 616 (1919).

While Justice Holmes (1919) implied the idea in his dissenting opinion, he never used the term:

Persecution for the expression of opinions seems to me perfectly logical. If you have no doubt of your premises or your power and want a certain result with all your heart you naturally express your wishes in law and sweep away all opposition. . . But when men have realized that time has upset many fighting faiths, they may come to believe even more than they believe the very foundations of their own conduct that the ultimate good desired is better reached by free trade in ideas. . . that the best test of truth is the power of the thought to get itself accepted in the competition of the market, and that truth is the only ground upon which their wishes safely can be carried out. That at any rate is the theory of our Constitution. (Abrams v. U S)

The term "marketplace of ideas" was used in the 1967 Supreme Court decision *Keyishian v. Board of Regents*, where the Court stated, "The classroom is peculiarly the "marketplace of ideas." The nation's future depends upon leaders trained through wide exposure to that robust exchange of ideas which discovers truth "out of a multitude of tongues, [rather] than through any kind of authoritative selection." (Keyishian v. Board of Regents, 385 U.S. 589, 605-606 [1967]).

Even though 1967, in the Keyishian case, was the first time "marketplace of ideas" was mentioned by name, the concept of the classroom as a marketplace of ideas was not born in the 20th century. In the modern era, Thomas Jefferson provided his own explanation of the marketplace of ideas. Making reference to the University of Virginia, Jefferson said, "This institution will be based upon the illimitable freedom of the human

mind. For here we are not afraid to follow truth wherever it may lead, nor to tolerate any error so long as reason is left free to combat it" (Jefferson, 1905, p. 320).

Since the marketplace has been a critical area of study in economics, it is appropriate to consider some economic ideas. The opposite of competition is monopoly. In microeconomics, monopolies and near-monopolies have tended to have minimal incentive to innovate and improve. Competition has provided this incentive. Herein lies a benefit of having vigorous competition in the marketplace of ideas. When the marketplace of ideas has had broad and diverse competition, there has been greater incentive for participants in that marketplace of ideas to effectively innovate.

### Comfort Theory

This study sought to explore the degree to which faculty were comfortable in expressing academically-related political views. As those views were constrained, the theories of marginalization could also be considered. Alternatively, the literature on comfort provided the conceptual tools for understanding those situations in which faculty perceived expression to be unconstrained.

Comfort has been defined as “consolation in time of trouble or worry. . . feeling of relief or encouragement” (Merriam-Webster online, 2007). Paterson and Zderad (1988) believed that comfort was an “umbrella under which. . . growth, health, freedom, and openness--could be sheltered” (p. 107). Though worry is not entirely synonymous with fear, the words certainly can be linked. The definition of “anxious” appears to provide this link. Those who are anxious are “characterized by extreme uneasiness of

mind or brooding fear about some contingency: worried” (Merriam-Webster online, 2007). These emotions are not without impact. “Your emotions affect your brain’s ability to learn, think, and remember. Self-doubt, fear, etc., prevent your brain from learning, thinking, and remembering” (Smilkstein, 2003, p. 11).

The premise of the present study was that faculty members would function best when they were not afraid-- when they perceive comfort. “. . . educationally interesting theories of mind contain specifications. . . about the ‘resources’ required for a mind to operate effectively. These include. . . freedom from stress or from excessive uniformity” (Bruner, 1996, pp. 8-9). Des Jardin (2001) presented a different point of view in his statement that “Fear of retaliation may negatively affect political involvement”.

In this study, comfort was defined according to Kolcaba (2003) who posited that “Comfort is the immediate experience of being strengthened by having needs for relief, ease, and transcendence met in four contexts (physical, psycho-spiritual, sociocultural, and environmental)” (p. 14). Kolcaba’s Comfort Theory has generally been applied to the practice of nursing. The physical context pertains “to bodily sensations, homeostatic mechanisms, immune function, etc.” (Kolcaba, p. 15). The psychospiritual context pertains “to internal awareness of self, including esteem, identity, sexuality, meaning in one’s life, and one’s understood relationship to a higher order or being” (Kolcaba, p. 15). The environmental context pertains “to the external background of human experience (temperature, light, sound, odor, color, furniture, landscape, etc.)” (Kolcaba, p. 15). Application of the physical, psychospiritual, and environmental contexts of Kolcaba’s theory has typically been made within the practice of nursing.

The application of a nursing theory to a higher education situation presented a challenge. However, Kolcaba's (2003) sociocultural comfort context does pertain "to interpersonal. . . and societal relationships including. . . education and support" (Kolcaba, p. 15). The premise of the present study was that faculty members will function best when they are not anxious or, alternatively stated, when they perceive comfort. For the purpose of this investigation, the researcher has merged this element of academic freedom with Kolcaba's theory on comfort to create a new variable of interest, political comfort. Within this study, political comfort referred to a faculty member's perception of an absence of anxiety while engaging in academically-related political discussions with colleagues. Therefore, the researcher was able to move forward with the application of the sociocultural context of Kolcaba's Comfort Theory to this investigation of political comfort.

#### Political Comfort in the Academy

Throughout American history, peoples' perceptions of political comfort have been dynamic. There have been a myriad of circumstances at work in this regard. For instance, "anti-war protests by students have interrupted speeches by proponents of current national policies. Some protestors have sought to silence--rather than debate--positions with which they do not agree" (Association of American Colleges and Universities, 2006). Historic events and movements, elections and politics, business and economic conditions could all possibly have an impact on one's perception of political comfort.

These, along with other external and internal factors, provide the context in which higher education institutions and faculty have operated over time.

Shortly after the Bolshevik Revolution in Russia, a Red Scare took hold in the United States.

A nationwide fear of communists, socialists, anarchists, and other dissidents suddenly grabbed the American psyche in 1919 following a series of anarchist bombings. . . . During this time, colleges were deemed to be hotbeds of Bolshevism, and professors were labeled as radicals. The hunt reached down to public secondary schools where many teachers were fired for current or prior membership in even the most mildly of leftist organizations. (Burnett, n.d.)

Some issues and movements, such as this described Red Scare, go dormant as quickly as they arise. However, history has been known to repeat itself.

Another Red Scare was spearheaded by Wisconsin Senator Joseph McCarthy in the 1950s. “When the Red Scare began to target academia in the 1950s, several university professors were among those who fought powerful figures and accusations for their political independence--and their jobs” (Adamy, 1997). Following is the recollection of a University of Michigan faculty member in the 1950s:

Not long before the student protests of the 1960s gave the University its liberal reputation, the Ann Arbor campus was not a bastion of free speech. [Chandler] Davis, an instructor at the University in 1953, remembers when the national wave of McCarthyism began to affect students and faculty. ‘On occasion, the University would refuse to give permission to let speakers speak on campus because they were too radical,’ Davis said, recalling that in 1950, leftist speaker Herbert Phillips spoke in a local book store because the University would not give him permission to speak on campus. (Adamy, 1997)

Halberstam (2000) alluded to the irony of circumstances when “the forces of free speech. . . align behind people who are odious and pitted against people who are in some ways more politically sympathetic” (p. xi).

The Red Scares certainly impacted the perception of political comfort. The culture in a particular discipline also has the potential to impact whether a faculty member fully participates in an academic discussion.

In the 1950s and 1960s, the Department of Political Science at Yale University was staffed by intellectual luminaries including Robert Dahl, Charles Lindblom, Harold Lasswell, and Karl Deutch to name but a few, and not surprisingly it was regarded as one of the best in the nation. Although its leading academics wrote on diverse topics such as political theory, opinion polling and administrative science, they were all identified with the theory of pluralism which had evolved at Yale. . . (Merelman, 2003)

Since the department culture had coalesced around the theory of pluralism, it is entirely possible that dissent would have been uncomfortable. In an academic department, a “determined minority may have an impact far out of proportion to its numbers. A department is basically a small work group, and its members will often yield to the sentiments of a minority to avoid internal division” (Hamilton & Hargens, 1993, p. 621).

The events of the turbulent 1960s also impacted the perception of political comfort. Despite his lopsided loss in the U.S. presidential election of 1964, many consider the late Arizona Senator Barry Goldwater to be the founder of modern conservatism. “When Barry Goldwater spoke to the American Political Science Association two months before the 1964 election, he almost didn't have an audience. . . ever since then, academics have chosen to ignore Goldwater and what he represented” (Miller, 2002, p. 1).

Miller (2002), a national political reporter for the *National Review*, attempted to explain why Goldwater and conservatism were ignored by many academics.

This is partly because so few historians are themselves conservative. Many despise conservatism. Just as most biologists don't want to specialize in slime molds, hardly any modern historians want to spend their careers examining a subject they find so distasteful. (p.1)

Another perspective is offered as Historian Douglas Brinkley:

“. . . warns that traditional liberals have ‘too quickly dismissed conservative thought as if it were a kind of pathology.’ In fact, ‘the clamor at the gate’ from populists and fundamentalists is not just the sound of a hostile wrath. It is also a simple plea for admission" (Boyer, 1998).

Richard Hofstadter, a Columbia University professor and two-time Pulitzer Prize winner, was probably the most influential political historian of his day. Miller (2002) indicated that Hofstadter “viewed conservatives as quite literally, unhinged” (p. 2). Miller’s review of Hofstadter also included the following:

His most famous essay about the Right, from a 1963 lecture, was called "The Paranoid Style in American Politics." (It reached a wide audience when Harper's published it immediately prior to the 1964 election.) It diagnosed conservatives as suffering from a severe case of political paranoia, marked by "heated exaggeration, suspiciousness, and conspiratorial fantasy." (Among other things, it seems, they opposed the New Deal.) . . . Yet Hofstadter was not content merely to dismiss conservatives as demented. Instead, he placed them within an American tradition of irrational hatred that (he said) previously had manifested itself as anti-Masonism and anti-Catholicism. (Miller, 2002, p. 2)

One question to consider: how did the academy move from the Red Scares to liberal dominance? According to Victor Davis Hanson, Professor Emeritus (of Classics) at California State University, Fresno: “Colleges lost their way in the 1960s. . . . Students now get a ‘therapeutic curriculum’ instead of learning hard facts and inductive inquiry. The result: we can’t answer the questions of our time” (Hanson, 2007). Hanson attempted to explain the transition to a “therapeutic curriculum”:



Sometime in the 1960s--perhaps due to frustration over the Vietnam War, perhaps as a manifestation of the cultural transformations of the age—the university jettisoned the classical approach and adopted the therapeutic. . . So if, for a mere four years, the university could educate students to counter. . . sinister forces, the nation itself could be changed for the better. Colleges could serve as a counterweight to the insidious prejudices embedded in the core of America. (Hanson, 2007)

Ladd and Lipset (1975) had a different perspective on the conflict in academe in the 1960s:

It was, at the least, disconcerting for academics who had thought of themselves as left and progressive to be attacked as hypocrites by the student left and by some of their colleagues who variously led and followed the students in the call for a new “idea of the university”. The net effect of the intense politicization of academe in the 1960s. . . served to further fragment the professoriate. . .” (p. 214)

They appeared to lament the 1960s campus turbulence, and seemed to advance the view that the conflict of the 1960s in academe was about more than just national politics.

It is interesting to note that this traditional vs. progressive curricular debate has persisted for generations. In the mid-1980s, President Derek Bok of Harvard University wrote the following: “. . . since 1900. . . all of the fundamental issues have remained the same. . . . No permanent victories are ever won, nor are serious arguments ever conclusively defeated” (Cuban, 1999, p.86).

An AAUP survey highlighted a gap between the way conservatives and liberals have viewed higher education.

People who described themselves as liberal were more likely to say they had ‘a lot of confidence’ in colleges and universities. More than half of them said they had a lot of confidence, while less than a third of conservatives felt the same way. A question about whether people considered being a professor ‘very prestigious’ found a similar gap. Little surprise, then, that 49 percent of Republicans said

political bias was a problem in colleges, compared with just 27 percent of Democrats. (Smallwood, 2006)

The data in most of the studies have supported the possible veracity of the conclusion of

Rothman et al. (2005a):

Our results are consistent with the hypothesis that political conservatism confers a disadvantage in the competition for professional advancement. These results suggest that conservative complaints of the presence and effects of liberal homogeneity in academia deserve to be taken seriously. . . (p. 13).

There have also been a number of student complaints. For example,

While lecturing on James Joyce's rejection of the church, a professor drew two mountains with a valley between them on the chalkboard, explaining that Joyce's church believed one mountain was man and the other mountain was God. Next he drew a cross in the valley, touching both peaks - a visual metaphor (one student) knew from childhood - and explained that this was Christ on the cross connecting man to God. Then the professor broke into peals of mocking laughter. The rest of the class joined in. "My heart stopped," says the student. "If this were any other religion, the professor wouldn't get away with his remarks - it would be politically incorrect. But in the Bay Area, it is OK to laugh at Christianity and its God". (Weingarten, 2005)

Some of the literature reviewed alluded to the possibility of comfort problems for

Christian academics. The notion of whether political comfort differs based on religious affiliation was investigated in this study.

One of the most vocal proponents of academic reform has been author and activist David Horowitz. Pipes (2005) referenced a statement by Horowitz: "Universities are a left wing monolith these days. A conservative professor, or a Republican or evangelical Christian professor, is as rare as a unicorn." Horowitz has long advanced an "academic bill of rights" which stated:

No faculty shall be hired or fired or denied promotion or tenure on the basis of his or her political or religious beliefs. . . Exposing students to the spectrum of

significant scholarly viewpoints on the subjects examined in their courses is a major responsibility of faculty. Faculty will not use their courses for the purpose of political, ideological, religious or anti-religious indoctrination. (Academic Bill of Rights, n. d.)

Critics have charged that consideration of this type of legislation amounts to an attempt by conservative politicians to intimidate liberal professors.

Another approach to reform has been advanced by Stephen H. Balch, president of the National Association of Scholars. Balch's Property Rights approach "includes procedural expedients that preserve minority influence--for example, proportional voting on curriculum and hiring decisions through which dissenters can determine a fractional share of the outcomes" (Balch, 2004, p. 5). Balch also suggested that:

Formally recognizing the value of intellectual pluralism in adversarial fields, and deliberately multiplying the institutional sites wherein it can flourish, may be the best remaining course. The most direct way of doing that would be to allow distinct schools of thought within adversarial fields to organize themselves in a state of partial independence from their rivals, with some significant control over hiring and tenure decisions affecting their members. (p. 5)

He offered this caution about a Property Rights approach:

The principal danger would be the development of an ideological quota system, with political groups seeking their piece of the academic action through crude political struggle. Unfortunately, at many colleges and universities such a system already exists, albeit with participation limited to a very restricted range of parties. . . It would also help immensely if senior administrators began again to make clear that the university's mission was serving the cause of truth, not the activist vindication of external movements, interests, and claims. (Balch, pp. 5-6)

For some, according to Metzger (1987), change "brought a new freedom, a new vitality, a new social relevance to the academy; for others, it represented the debasement of academic standards. . . the creation of intellectual chaos in the name of educational reform" (p. 127). Metzger was not describing a current conflict or, for that matter, a

debate about the changes of the 1960s academy. He was referring to the post-Civil War academy in the United States.

### Summary

Those who do not fit the prevailing model of faculty, including conforming to political ideology expectations, are at risk of being marginalized in the academy. Organizations and associations do tend to marginalize non-hegemonic thought. If political-ideological perspective is a consideration in the allocation of resources and opportunity, then academic freedom and political comfort will be weaker rather than stronger.

Most of the current studies on faculty political identification have employed quantitative methodologies. Views and commentary have been presented from those who believe (a) that the political imbalance in the academy is due to self-selection and (b) that the political imbalance in the academy is a serious issue. Most researchers have found at least some liberal tilt in the politics of college faculty, e.g., Klein & Stern (2005), Rothman, Lichter, & Nevitte (2005a).

It is difficult at best to predict how society and the academy will evolve and how these changes will impact political views and/or comfort. Because of these difficulties, the researcher refrained from forecasting future trends in this investigation. There have not been any research studies in which it has been attempted to predict future trends in college faculty political views and/or comfort.

It appears that the significant knowledge gap in this line of inquiry can be reduced to a single word: Why? Why does this liberal tilt exist? It may be that more liberals than conservatives have chosen academic careers. This reason is known as self-selection.

Balch (2004) concluded:

Our universities would be wise to make the cause of intellectual diversity their own. Pledged to virtually every other kind of diversity, they must not neglect the one type that--when appropriately conceived and pursued--goes to the very heart of their mission. (p. 6)

Or, Klein and Stern (2005) may have been correct in their explanation, "Our results support the view that the social-sciences and humanities faculty are pretty much a one-party system. . . . Quite possibly, the academic environment, even in economics, keeps the minority voices muffled and fearful" (p. 14). Klein and Stern did not specify how or why one's personal voting record would make one "muffled and fearful" in many academic matters. Herein rested the reason for exploring the concept of political comfort. Chapter 3 contains a discussion of the methods and procedures used in the collection of data for the present study.

## CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

### Introduction

In this study, it was assumed that a balanced examination of competing ideas is a necessary part of the pursuit of truth. A comprehensive review of the literature indicated that the majority of professors have typically identified with liberal viewpoints. Given this ideological imbalance, there is a question as to the comfort level of academics in discussing and sharing their views. It is this primary question that was investigated in this study.

### Research Questions

The following research questions were explored:

1. Is there a relationship between political comfort and faculty members' political party preferences?
2. Does political comfort differ based on gender or religious affiliation?
3. Does political comfort differ based on academic discipline--specifically economics and political science?
4. Does political comfort differ based on institutional affiliation--specifically University of Florida, The Florida State University, and University of South Florida?

### Dependent and Independent Variables

In this study, comfort in discussing political views was the dependent variable. Gender, party affiliation, subject matter, and religious self-identification were independent variables.

### Population

This study was limited to Florida Public Colleges and Universities that were classified as “Research I” under the 1994 Carnegie Classification System. Research I universities offer:

a full range of baccalaureate programs, are committed to graduate education through the doctorate, and give high priority to research. They award 50 or more doctoral degrees each year. In addition, they receive at least \$15.5-million a year in federal support” (Carnegie, 1994).

Florida Research I universities included the University of Florida, Florida State University, and the University of South Florida (Carnegie, 1994).

The University of Florida (UF) is located in Gainesville, Florida. UF offers “First-professional, Doctor's, Master's, Bachelor's, Associate's” degrees, and the total enrollment is 51,474 (U.S. Department of Education, 2008). As of 2004, library holdings included 4,288,118 units of print material and 71,336 serials (U.S. Department of Education). In 2008, UF employed 12,277 people. This total included 3,087 faculty members, and 841 were tenure-track assistant professors (UF Factbook, 2008).

The Florida State University (FSU) is located in Tallahassee, Florida. FSU offers “First-professional, Doctor's, Master's, Bachelor's, Associate's” degrees, and the total

enrollment is 38,682 (U.S. Department of Education, 2008). As of 2004, Library holdings included 3,483,573 units of print material and 62,093 serials (U.S. Department of Education). In 2008, FSU employed 6,129 people (FSU Factbook, 2008). Included in this employment number were 2,150 faculty members, of whom 319 were tenure-track assistant professors (FSU Institutional Research, 2008).

The University of South Florida (USF) is located in Tampa, Florida. USF offers “First-professional, Doctor's, Master's, Bachelor's, Associate's” degrees, and the total enrollment is 46,189 (U.S. Department of Education, 2008). As of 2004, Library holdings included 2,209,358 units of print material and 42,049 serials (U.S. Department of Education). In 2008, USF employed 13,207 people, of whom 1,944 were faculty members (*Chronicle of Higher Education*, n.d.). Included in the faculty were 343 tenure-track assistant professors (USF Office of Decision Support, 2008).

The perceptions of economics and political science faculty members within the three Research I universities were investigated in this study. The University of Florida (UF) has described its economics program in the following manner:

First, economics majors acquire general business skills that are useful for many different jobs. The preparation is less specific than other business-related majors, but this gives students the flexibility to select from a variety of careers, which include finance, insurance, management, and marketing. This general business background is ideal for students who wish to pursue advanced training in business through an MBA program. Second, economics also has become increasingly important in legal analysis. Thus, economics is a popular major for pre-law students because of the rigor of economic analysis. (UF Economics Department, n.d.)

UF's Economics Department is located in the Warrington College of Business Administration. The department employs 18 full-time economics faculty members. Of the



18, there are two tenure-track assistant professors (one male and one female). (UF Economics Department, n.d.). As of Fall 2008, UF's economics department served 653 students (UF Factbook).

The University of Florida (UF) Political Science Department's mission is:

to educate students who have political interests and concerns into politically literate citizens capable of understanding their own governments and political processes, other governments, and the interactions among governments. The Undergraduate major is not intended solely a pre-professional program to train either attorneys or political scientists, nor one designed simply to produce 'good citizens'. It is intended to develop students' frames of reference and their critical and analytical skills to understand better their political world. (UF Political Science Department, n.d.)

UF's Political Science Department is located in the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences. The department employs 37 full-time political science faculty members, 11 of whom are tenure-track assistant professors. Among the tenure-track assistant professors, there are five males and six females (UF Political Science Department, n. d.). As of Fall 2008, UF's Political Science Department served 1,274 students (UF Factbook).

Florida State University (FSU) described its economics program as

providing training in and practice with an analytical approach to thinking and problem solving that gives you a unique advantage in any career you choose. Indeed, we think economics gives you an advantage even in your daily activities and enables you to make better choices, better decisions, and avoid some of the pitfalls that arise from illogical and incomplete thinking. (FSU Economics Department, n. d.)

FSU's economics department is located in the College of Social Sciences and Public Policy (FSU Economics Department, n. d.). The department employs 30 full-time economics faculty members, 12 of whom are tenure-track assistant professors. Among the tenure-track assistant professors, there are eight males and four females (FSU

Institutional Research, 2008). As of Fall 2008, FSU's economics department served 498 students (FSU Institutional Research).

Florida State University (FSU) has described its political science program in the following manner:

The major in political science offers a solid undergraduate education in the liberal arts and sciences. Such study prepares the graduate for a variety of careers by emphasizing the acquisition of skills in communication and analysis; and by encouraging independent thought, tolerance, and informed interest in current affairs. It is also an excellent preparation for graduate study in political science, law or the other social sciences. (FSU Political Science Department, n. d.)

FSU's political science department is located in the College of Social Sciences and Public Policy (FSU Political Science Department, n.d.). The department employs 27 full-time political science faculty members, 10 of whom are tenure-track assistant professors. Among the tenure-track assistant professors, there are 8 men and 2 women (FSU Institutional Research, 2008). As of Fall 2008, FSU's political science department serves 1,301 students (FSU Institutional Research).

The University of South Florida (USF) has described its economics program in the following manner: "Economics offers a clear, logical way of thinking about complicated business problems and contemporary social issues such as unemployment, inflation, pollution, and crime" (USF Economics Department, n.d.). USF's economics department is located in the College of Business Administration. The department employs 16 full-time economics faculty members, three of whom are tenure-track assistant professors. Among the tenure-track assistant professors, there are two males and

one female (USF Economics Department, n.d.). As of Fall 2008, USF's economics department served 71 students (USF Infocenter, 2008).

The University of South Florida (USF) has described its political science program as:

providing students with a detailed study of the institutions and processes of American Government, foundations in Political Theory, as well as an examination of the international system and foreign political systems through the study of International Relations and Comparative Politics. (USF Government and International Affairs Department, n.d.)

At USF, political science is studied in the Government and International Affairs Department of the College of Arts and Sciences. The department employs 27 full-time political science faculty members, seven of whom are tenure-track assistant professors. Among the tenure-track assistant professors, there are five males and two females (USF Government and International Affairs Department, n.d.). As of Fall 2008, USF's Government and International Affairs Department served 1,140 students (USF Infocenter).

### Study Methodology

A researcher-developed online survey (Appendix B) was used to gather data in this quantitative study. Using the survey, data were collected via SurveyMonkey, whose service has been described as a "Powerful Survey Designer. . . Using just your web browser, create your survey with our intuitive survey editor. Select from over a dozen types of questions (multiple choice, rating scales, drop-down menus, and more. . . )." (SurveyMonkey, n. d.).

There are both advantages and disadvantages to conducting online surveys. Advantages include cost-savings, ease of editing/analysis, faster transmission time, easy use of preletters, higher response rates, more candid responses, and potentially quicker response time with a wider magnitude of coverage (Colorado State University, n.d.). Some of the disadvantages related to online surveys include potential problems related to (a) demographic limitations related to the sample, (b) lower levels of confidentiality, layout and presentation issues, (c) the need for more instruction and orientation to the computer online system in order for respondents to complete the questionnaire, (d) technical problems with hardware and software, and (e) response rates that tend to be higher during the first few days (Colorado State University, n. d.). Shannon, Johnson, Searcy, and Lott (2002) offered the following view regarding online surveys:

. . . The majority of these professionals' responses (n=32, 91.5%) described specific types of groups that have access to technology. Specific samples identified included listservs, professional memberships, alumni groups, "in house" employee groups, and University professors. The remaining three respondents simply indicated that samples had to be small and clearly defined.

The researcher in this study concluded that the benefits of an online survey outweighed the potential pitfalls for the research. The population surveyed in this study was a fairly small (N = 155) group of university professors.

### Data Collection

A link to the survey was e-mailed to full-time economics and political science faculty members categorized as assistant, associate, and full professors at the University of Florida, Florida State University, and the University of South Florida. Participants

received a brief explanatory email message that contained a link to the survey (Appendix C). Faculty email addresses were initially accessed by visiting the three institutions' departmental websites. Before the surveys were sent, telephone calls were made to the economics and political science department chairs at the three institutions to verify that all full-time faculty members were correctly listed on the departmental website.

Surveys were e-mailed to faculty members with the titles of Assistant Professor, Associate Professor, and Professor. "Most newly-minted PhDs are hired as assistant professors, promoted to associate upon achieving tenure. . . ." (University of California-Berkeley, n. d.).

### Instrumentation

Because political comfort is a new concept, a tested survey instrument did not exist. Therefore, a survey instrument designed by the researcher, and based on the literature reviewed, was used. The survey instrument contained 24 items designed to elicit the views of respondents.

Many of the questions used a Likert-type scale to ascertain the extent to which respondents agreed or disagreed with a particular statement. "A Likert scale measures the extent to which a person agrees or disagrees with the question. The most common scale is 1 to 5. Often the scale will be 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = not sure, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree" (University of Northern Iowa, n.d.). "Not sure" was removed as a potential response to the political comfort research questions.

Section 1 of the survey began with several questions regarding the participant's position at the university. Research Question 3, "Does political comfort differ based on academic discipline--specifically economics and political science?" was explored by asking respondents to reveal their subject matter expertise of either economics or political science (Section 1, item 1). Since surveys were emailed to faculty members with the titles of Assistant Professor, Associate Professor, and Professor, the next item (Section 1, item 2) asked about the participant's academic rank. Participants were then asked to reveal their years of teaching experience at the college level (Section 1, item 3).

The next question asked participants about their tenure status (Section 1, item 4). Those faculty members who have been awarded tenure were directed to move to section 2. Non-tenured participants were asked in section 1 - item 5 to state the number of years remaining on their "tenure clock". A typical "tenure probationary period in their unit. . . 7 years" (University of Florida, 2007, p. 3).

In Section 2, several questions were posed in regard to politics and religion. Since party platforms have changed over time, several issue questions were asked in order to better describe Democrat and Republican respondents. A similar approach was taken by Klein and Stern (2005). Though they asked many more issue questions than were posed in this survey, they did inquire about the following issues: "Government ownership of industrial enterprises. . . . Government production of schooling (k through 12). . . . Redistributive policies (transfer and aid programs and tax progressivity). . . ." (Klein & Stern, 2005, p. 9).

This survey included items addressing the role of government (Section 2, item 1), school vouchers (Section 2, item 2), and income inequality (Section 2, item 3).

Democrats have generally favored an expanded role for government. The official platform of the Democratic National Committee in 2008 stated, “. . . the government should ensure that health insurance is affordable. . . ” (The 2008 Democratic National Platform, 2008, p. 10). Democrats have generally opposed school vouchers. “Most Democrats have traditionally opposed vouchers as a threat to the stability of public schools” (Strauss & Turque, 2008). Also, Democrats have often favored income redistribution as a means of addressing income inequalities. The 2008 Democratic Platform stated, “We will provide access to home visits to low-income expectant first-time mothers” (The 2008 Democratic National Platform, p. 49).

In contrast, Republicans have generally favored limited government. Their 2008 platform stated, “Republicans oppose. . . a government-run universal health care system” (Republican Platform, 2008, p. 37). Republicans have also generally supported school vouchers. The 2008 platform stated, “We support choice in education for all families, especially those with children trapped in dangerous and failing schools, whether through charter schools, vouchers or tax credits for attending faith-based or other non-public schools, or the option of home schooling” (Republican Platform, p. 44). Republicans have tended to be “gleeful at the prospect of running against what they call ‘an income redistribution scheme’ ” (Lambro, 2007). Section 2, item 4, “Given only these choices, I would be most likely to vote for candidates from the following party” offered respondents two choices: Democrat and Republican.

Three items were used to explore Research Question 2, “Does political comfort differ based on gender or religious affiliation?” Survey participants were asked to reveal their gender (Section 4, item 1). Participants were also asked to self-identify their religious affiliation and how often they attended religious activities (Section 2, items 5 and 6).

The religious life of Florida follows that of the rest of the USA. The State is predominantly Christian with Roman Catholics and Baptists each making around one-third of the total. The other religions of the world such as Judaism and Islam are also represented. (World InfoZone, 2009)

In regard to the United States population as a whole, 25.1% self-identified as Catholic, 15.8% self-identified as Baptist, 35.1% self-identified as Christian (other than Catholic and Baptist), 1.2% self-identified as Jewish, .6% self-identified as Muslim, 7.2% self-identified as other, and 15% self-identified as not religious (Kosmin & Keysar, 2009, p. 5). These religion and gender questions were explored because Rothman, Lichter, and Nevitte (2005a) found that their “regressions uncovered some relationships that clearly warrant further research, principally the role of gender and religiosity in academic advancement” (p. 12).

Section 3 included eight questions that were used to gather data related to Research Question 1 which asked “Is there a relationship between political comfort in discussing political views and faculty members’ political party preferences?” Most faculty members defined their work as a complex combination of teaching, research and service. Respondents were asked if “I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views with colleagues in the context of my teaching (Section 3, item 1), research



(Section 3, item 3), (university) service (Section 3, items 5 and 6), and informally (Section 3, item 7).” Respondents were also asked whether they were comfortable discussing their political views in the classroom (Section 3, item 2) and whether they were comfortable discussing their political views in academic publications (Section 3, item 4).

Respondents were queried as to whether they agreed or disagreed with the following statement: My political views are generally similar to those of my colleagues (Section 3, item 8). This survey item merely sought to explore the following scenario: In an academic department, a “determined minority may have an impact far out of proportion to its numbers. A department is basically a small work group, and its members will often yield to the sentiments of a minority to avoid internal division” (Hamilton & Hargens, 1993, p. 621). This item was included to test for differences in comfort based on the extent to which participants perceived their political views to be similar to those of their colleagues.

Since Research Question 4 explored differences in political comfort based on institutional affiliation, respondents were requested to reveal institutional affiliation--specifically, University of Florida, The Florida State University, and University of South Florida (Section 4, item 2). Several demographic questions were included on the survey in order to better describe the population. Participants were asked to reveal their age (Section 4, item 3) and race (Section 4, item 4). The race “category includes blacks, whites, persons of Latino or Asian origin or descent, and indigenous Americans (Eskimos, Native Hawaiians, Native Americans)” (HR Guide, 1999).

### Pilot Study

As part of the development of the survey instrument, a pilot study was conducted. The instrument was reviewed by a panel of current and former colleagues of the researcher. The instrument was determined to meet the needs of the study after several modifications were considered.

One participant, a political libertarian, suggested a space to self-identify as a libertarian. Some consideration was given to asking about political parties other than Democrat and Republican, but “there is a precedence of focusing on D to R in both the Lipset tradition of scholarship and in the voter registration work referenced earlier” (Klein & Stern, 2005, p. 8).

Another participant suggested the elimination of the “neither agree nor disagree” choice. The researcher accepted this suggestion, in part. Respondents were “forced” to definitively answer, or to skip, the political comfort questions, because definitive responses to these questions are essential for the effective development of the study’s dependent variable. The “neither agree nor disagree” or “not sure” response will only be removed, however, when posing the political comfort research questions. The researcher believed that a “not sure” response may be useful in the other items where it appears.

### Methodological Challenges and Advantages

Each U.S. state and each institution of higher learning has its own unique demographics. As such, it was impossible to generalize these results to other situations. Despite this limiting factor, Florida is very demographically diverse and “as the 2000

(U.S. presidential) election showed, Florida is now an important swing state” (Zogby, 2004). In other words, Florida has become, in many ways, a bellwether for the United States as a whole.

A major methodological challenge of this line of inquiry is that the data points are human-generated and based on perceptions. Because times and perceptions change, data need to be regularly re-generated. Whereas perception surveys present challenges, they also present opportunities. “Persons from diverse backgrounds enjoyed answering questions about their own comfort. They related to each question because each was meaningful to their daily experiences” (Kolcaba, 2003, p. 76). Cultural differences arising from differences in national origin and/or ethnicity may or may not impact whether a faculty member fully participates in an academic discussion. This study of culture was beyond the scope of this investigation.

Another possible challenge was survey instrument clarity. Flesch Reading Ease for the survey instrument was 34.7. The Flesch Reading Ease measure “rates text on a 100-point scale; the higher the score, the easier it is to understand the document. For most standard documents, aim for a score of approximately 60 to 70” (Microsoft Word, 2003). Clearly a doctoral dissertation is not a “standard document.” The Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level is 10.9. The clarity of the survey instrument was confirmed by the participants in the pilot study.

Still another challenge existed. It was important to address the question, “What are the ‘threats to validity’? For one, it's possible that there isn't sufficient statistical power to detect a relationship even if it exists” (Trochim, 2006). To negate this concern,

it was important that the statistics be used properly. Pearson chi-square statistics were considered because

Likert scale questions have a range of answers that is discrete, not continuous. The chi-square statistic is designed for use in a multinomial experiment, where the outcomes are counts that fall into categories. The chi-square statistic determines whether observed counts in cells are different from expected counts. . . . Rather than doing a t-test, we can run a chi-square statistic. Since the chi-square statistic assumes a discrete distribution rather than a normal distribution, the results will be statistically valid and can be used as scientific proof. (University of Northern Iowa, n. d.)

Ultimately, Fisher's Exact test, an adaptation of the chi-square test for independence, was used because the structure of the data yielded fewer than 80% of the cells with expected cell counts greater than five--a critical assumption for the Chi-Square test for tables beyond 2x2. Fisher's Exact test only generates a probability value, so there are no test statistics associated with it as in most other inferential procedures.

Reliability was another factor that merited investigation. Therefore, Cronbach's alpha was calculated. Cronbach's alpha is a measure of reliability which is used when measures have items that are not scored simply as right or wrong such as attitude scales (Ary, Jacobs, & Razavieh, 1996). This commonly used reliability coefficient is an indicator of internal consistency. Aiken (1996) reported that perception instruments often have coefficients of reliability below .60; some reach .70; very few reach a level of .80, with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient above .90 having been found to be rare. Cronbach's alpha for this instrument was .71.

## Response Rates

Another methodological challenge was the potential for low response rates. Because politics and political comfort are charged issues, some may prefer to avoid participating in these kinds of surveys. To improve the response potential, the researcher followed an example from Schaefer and Dillman (1998):

In a survey of university faculty, an electronic mail survey that used no paper or stamps, but did use individually addressed e-mails and a pre-notice. . . achieved a 58% response rate. This response rate was the same as that obtained by a four-contact paper mail strategy.

The text of the pre-notice letter is included in Appendix B (Dillman, 2000, p. 157).

The first contact was a *pre-notice e-mail* (see Appendix C), which was sent to all population members on January 15, 2010. The second contact, also made via e-mail, was the *request for participation mailing* (see Appendix C). This message was sent on January 20, 2010, five days after the pre-notice e-mail and discussed the study and the benefits of participation. It also included the hyperlink to the questionnaire. Two weeks after the competency questionnaire mailing, on February 3, 2010, all population members received a *questionnaire reminder* (see Appendix C) via e-mail. This contact was intended to reinforce the importance of the study and the recipient's response and contained the questionnaire hyperlink. Almost two weeks later, on February 16, 2010, the researcher sent the *final contact* (see Appendix C). This contact was sent via e-mail, stating the upcoming deadline and giving the questionnaire link. All population members received a total of four contacts. From the first contact until the response deadline, the data collection process took almost 30 days.

### Confidentiality, Anonymity, and Problem Resolution

All responses were anonymous, and there was no identifying information associated with any response. “SurveyMonkey” did not maintain the Internet Protocol addresses of the participants. To ensure privacy, all responses were encrypted.

There were negligible risks involved with participation. Participants were informed that submission of the survey indicated voluntary participation in the study. Participants were also informed that they did not need to respond to any questions that they did not wish to answer. Email addresses of the research advisor and researcher, as well as the U.S. Mail address of the University of Central Florida Institutional Review Board, were provided in the event that participants had questions or concerns about the study.

### Analysis of the Data

Descriptive statistics and Fisher’s Exact test were computed to examine the relationship among variables. Analysis of the data was organized around the four research questions which guided the study.

Since party platforms have changed over time, several issue questions were asked in order to better describe Democrat and Republican respondents. Data obtained about respondents’ perceptions of the role of government, school vouchers, and income inequality (Section 2, items 1-3) were used in arriving at these descriptions. Descriptive statistics were calculated, and data were reported in tabular form with supportive

narrative statements. Descriptive statistics were also calculated and presented in tabular form for item 4 in Section 2 as to respondents' political preferences.

Responses to items in Section 3 of the survey provided the data to answer Research Question 1 as to whether there was a relationship between political comfort in discussing political views and faculty members' political party preferences. Fisher's Exact test was computed to determine whether a significant relationship existed between comfort and political party preference. Descriptive statistics were calculated and data were reported in tabular form for the political comfort items related to teaching (Section 3, item 1), research (Section 3, item 3), and service (Section 3, items 5 and 6). Descriptive statistics were also analyzed for item 8 in Section 3 as to whether respondents' political views were generally similar to those of their colleagues.

For Research Question 2, which inquired as to whether political comfort differed based on gender (Section 4, item 1) or religious affiliation (Section 2, item 5), Fisher's Exact test was calculated to determine whether a significant relationship existed between comfort and gender. Fisher's Exact test was also calculated to determine whether a significant relationship existed between comfort and religious self-identification. Descriptive statistics were calculated and data were reported in table form for gender and religious self-identification.

For Research Question 3, as to differences in political comfort based on academic discipline, specifically economics and political science, Fisher's Exact test was calculated to determine whether a significant relationship existed between comfort and academic

discipline. Descriptive statistics were calculated and data were reported in tabular form for these academic discipline questions.

Fisher's Exact test was also calculated in order to answer Research Question 4 as to whether political comfort differed based on institutional affiliation, specifically University of Florida, Florida State University, and University of South Florida. Descriptive statistics were calculated using data from survey item 2 in Section 4, and data were reported in tabular form for this institutional affiliation question.

Demographic information was used to better describe the population. Descriptive statistics were calculated for demographic variables related to respondents' age (Section 4, item 3) and race (Section 4, item 4). The results of the analysis were displayed in tabular form and discussed in accompanying narratives.

#### Authorization

The proposal and instrumentation for the research study was submitted to the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of the University of Central Florida for approval. The research was approved as being Exempt Human Research (see Appendix D).

#### Originality

The initial Turnitin.com similarity index for this investigation was 40%. However, 4% was subtracted from the initial score when the List of References was excluded. Another 23% was subtracted from the initial score when quoted material and citations were excluded. When matches with generic statements were removed, a 4%-6%



actual similarity score range was established. This range was well below the 10% maximum score allowed by the research advisor.

### Summary

This research utilized a survey instrument developed as part of this study. The researcher sought to understand whether there is any truth to the following statement:

. . . colleges are now hostile environments for economic and cultural conservatives. Only a comparatively narrow spectrum of views is really welcome on campus. If you stray from the liberal consensus you will soon find yourself without allies, without tenure, and eventually without a position. (Zinsmeister, 2002, p. 18)

Specifically, the clear focus of this investigation was to define the concept of political comfort and study its impact as a stand-alone dependent variable.

The population surveyed was a fairly small (N = 155) group of university professors. The analyses of the data for the four research questions are presented in Chapter 4. Conclusions drawn from the data analysis and resulting recommendations are contained in Chapter 5.

## CHAPTER 4 ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

### Introduction

A comprehensive review of the literature has indicated that a vast majority of university professors have identified with liberal viewpoints. Given this ideological imbalance, are conservative academics comfortable discussing and sharing their views? For that matter, are liberal faculty comfortable expressing their views? These questions merited investigation.

This chapter presents the research findings organized by the four research questions which guided the study. The institutional and personal demographic characteristics of respondents are also displayed and discussed.

### Description of the Population

The data for this study were collected during January and February of 2010. Participation in the survey was voluntary, and responses were considered to reflect respondents' perceptions of political comfort. A total of 68 (43.9%) useable surveys were returned from an original population of 155 professors of economics and political science at The Florida State University (FSU), University of Florida (UF), and University of South Florida (USF).

Table 6 presents demographic data for survey respondents. Response percentages for demographic variables were calculated using the actual number of responses for each item. The number of male respondents ( $n = 53$  or 81.5%) exceeded the number of female

respondents (n = 12 or 18.5%). This disparity between male and female respondents differed from that of the surveyed population. Male professors constituted 64.4% of the surveyed population whereas female professors constituted 35.6%. This indicates a higher response rate from the males who were surveyed.

The number of political science faculty responses (n = 40 or 64.5%) exceeded the number of economics faculty responses (n = 22 or 35.5%). This disparity between political science and economics respondents differed from that of the surveyed population. Political science professors constituted 58.7% of the surveyed population whereas economics professors constituted 41.3%. This indicates a higher response rate from the political science professors who were surveyed.

The majority of respondents (76.7%) were older than 35 years of age. A total of 17 (28.3%) of the respondents were 36 to 45, but only five (8.3%) were 46 to 55 years of age. A total of 19 (31.7%) of the respondents were 56-65, and only five (8.3%) were older than 65 years of age. Only 14 respondents (23.3%) were 35 years of age or younger.

The majority of respondents (n = 38 or 59.4%) were tenured faculty members. A total of 26 (40.6%) of the respondents were not tenured.

Table 6  
*Institutional Demographics*

| Descriptors           | University of Florida |       | Florida State University |       | University of South Florida |       |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|-------|--------------------------|-------|-----------------------------|-------|
|                       | <i>n</i>              | %     | <i>n</i>                 | %     | <i>n</i>                    | %     |
| Gender                |                       |       |                          |       |                             |       |
| Female                | 7                     | 29.2  | 5                        | 17.9  | 0                           | 0.0   |
| Male                  | 17                    | 70.8  | 23                       | 82.1  | 13                          | 100.0 |
| Total ( <i>N</i> =65) | 24                    | 100.0 | 28                       | 100.0 | 13                          | 100.0 |
| Department            |                       |       |                          |       |                             |       |
| Economics             | 7                     | 29.2  | 12                       | 48.0  | 3                           | 23.1  |
| Political Science     | 17                    | 70.8  | 13                       | 52.0  | 10                          | 76.9  |
| Total ( <i>N</i> =62) | 24                    | 100.0 | 25                       | 100.0 | 13                          | 100.0 |
| Age                   |                       |       |                          |       |                             |       |
| 35 and Younger        | 4                     | 17.4  | 10                       | 38.5  | 0                           | 0.0   |
| 36-45                 | 8                     | 34.8  | 5                        | 19.2  | 4                           | 36.4  |
| 46-55                 | 1                     | 4.3   | 3                        | 11.5  | 1                           | 9.1   |
| 56-65                 | 9                     | 39.1  | 7                        | 26.9  | 3                           | 27.3  |
| 65 and Older          | 1                     | 4.3   | 1                        | 3.8   | 3                           | 27.3  |
| Total ( <i>N</i> =60) | 23                    | 99.9  | 26                       | 99.9  | 11                          | 100.1 |
| Tenure Awarded        |                       |       |                          |       |                             |       |
| No                    | 10                    | 41.7  | 12                       | 42.9  | 4                           | 33.3  |
| Yes                   | 14                    | 58.3  | 16                       | 57.1  | 8                           | 66.7  |
| Total ( <i>N</i> =64) | 24                    | 100.0 | 28                       | 100.0 | 12                          | 100.0 |

Note. Percentages may not equal 100% due to rounding.

Table 7 presents information related to the ethnicity and religion of the respondents. Respondents were professors of economics and political science at The Florida State University (FSU), University of Florida (UF), and University of South Florida (USF). Data were not disaggregated by institution in order to better protect the anonymity of respondents.

Table 7  
*Repondents' Religious and Ethnic Demographics (N=67)*

| Descriptors                 | Frequency | Percentage |
|-----------------------------|-----------|------------|
| <b>Religious Preference</b> |           |            |
| Christian (Catholic)        | 11        | 16.4       |
| Christian (Baptist)         | 3         | 4.5        |
| Christian (Other)           | 16        | 23.9       |
| Judaism                     | 5         | 7.5        |
| Islam                       | 0         | 0.0        |
| Other                       | 3         | 4.5        |
| Not Religious               | 29        | 43.3       |
| Total                       | 67        | 100.1      |
| <b>Ethnicity</b>            |           |            |
| Black                       | 3         | 4.7        |
| White                       | 57        | 89.1       |
| Hispanic                    | 0         | 0.0        |
| Asian                       | 1         | 1.6        |
| Native American             | 0         | 0.0        |
| Other                       | 3         | 4.7        |
| Total                       | 64        | 100.1      |

Note. Percentages may not total 100% due to rounding.

With regard to religion, 29 (43.3%) of the survey respondents indicated they were not religious. Respondents indicating they were Christian (Other) totaled 16 (23.9%), Christian (Catholic) respondents totaled 11 (16.4%), Jewish respondents totaled five (7.5%), Christian (Baptist) respondents totaled three (4.5%), and respondents from other religions totaled three (4.5%). None of the respondents indicated they were Muslim.

With regard to ethnicity, 57 (89.1%) of the survey respondents indicated they were white. There were three (4.7%) Black respondents and one (1.6%) Asian

respondent. All other minorities totaled three (4.7%). No respondents indicated they were Hispanic or Native American.

### Description of the Political Parties

Because party platforms have changed over time, several issue questions were asked in order to better describe Democrat and Republican respondents. Data were obtained regarding respondents' views on the role of government (Section 2, item 1), school vouchers (Section 2, item 2), and income inequality (Section 2, item 3). Overall, 52 (81.3%) respondents indicated a political preference for Democrats whereas 12 (18.7%) indicated a preference for Republicans. Table 8 displays respondents' views by political affiliation.

Among the Democrats, 28 (54.9%) strongly agreed or agreed that "Government should be more involved in the economy." Twenty (39.2%) neither agreed nor disagreed, and 3 (5.9%) disagreed or strongly disagreed. A total of 23 Democrats (44.2%) neither agreed nor disagreed regarding the statement "School voucher programs should be expanded." Nineteen (36.5%) disagreed or strongly disagreed, and 10 (19.2%) agreed or strongly agreed. Also, a total of 29 Democrats (56.9%) agreed or strongly agreed regarding the statement "Economic inequality should be solved through income redistribution in the United States." A total of 14 (36.5%) neither agreed nor disagreed, and eight (15.7%) disagreed or strongly disagreed.

Table 8  
*Respondents' Views by Political Affiliation (N=64)*

| Respondents' Views   | Democrat |       | Republican |       |
|--|----------|-------|------------|-------|
|  | n        | %     | n          | %     |
| Government should be more involved in the economy.                                       |          |       |            |       |
| Strongly Disagree  | 1        | 2.0   | 7          | 58.3  |
| Disagree   | 2        | 3.9   | 4          | 33.3  |
| Neither Agree nor Disagree   | 20       | 39.2  | 0          | 0.0   |
| Agree  | 18       | 35.3  | 1          | 8.3   |
| Strongly Agree   | 10       | 19.6  | 0          | 0.0   |
| Total  | 51       | 100.0 | 12         | 100.0 |
| School vouchers should be expanded.  |          |       |            |       |
| Strongly Disagree  | 9        | 17.3  | 0          | 0.0   |
| Disagree   | 10       | 19.2  | 0          | 0.0   |
| Neither Agree nor Disagree   | 23       | 44.2  | 0          | 0.0   |
| Agree  | 9        | 17.3  | 3          | 25.0  |
| Strongly Agree   | 1        | 1.9   | 9          | 75.0  |
| Total  | 52       | 99.9  | 12         | 100.0 |
| Economic inequality should be solved through income redistribution in the United States. |          |       |            |       |
| Strongly Disagree  | 1        | 2.0   | 6          | 50.0  |
| Disagree   | 7        | 13.7  | 2          | 16.7  |
| Neither Agree nor Disagree   | 14       | 27.5  | 2          | 16.7  |
| Agree  | 24       | 47.1  | 2          | 16.7  |
| Strongly Agree   | 5        | 9.8   | 0          | 0.0   |
| Total  | 51       | 100.1 | 12         | 100.1 |

Note. Percentages may not total 100% due to rounding.

Among the Republicans, 11 (91.6%) strongly disagreed or disagreed that “Government should be more involved in the economy;” and only one (8.3%) agreed. None of the Republican respondents strongly agreed or neither agreed nor disagreed on

this item. All 12 Republicans (100%) agreed or strongly agreed regarding the statement “School Voucher programs should be expanded.” Also, a total of eight Republicans (66.7%) disagreed or strongly disagreed regarding the statement “Economic inequality should be solved through income redistribution in the United States” Of the remaining four respondents, two (16.7%) agreed and two neither agreed nor disagreed. None of the Republican respondents strongly agreed with this statement.

#### Research Question 1

Is there a relationship between political comfort and faculty members’ political party preferences?

The relationships between each of the political comfort variables in Section 3 of the survey were compared to the political affiliation of the respondents using Fisher’s Exact test. This adaptation of the chi-square test for independence was used because the structure of the data yielded fewer than 80% of the cells with expected cell counts greater than five. This is a critical assumption for the Chi-Square test for tables beyond 2 x 2. Fisher’s Exact test only generates a probability value. Unlike most other inferential procedures, there are no test statistics associated with it. The results of the analysis are displayed in Table 9. Of the eight variables for which data were analyzed, only “My political views are similar to those of my colleagues” was significantly related to political preference ( $p < .01$ ).



Table 9  
*Fisher's Exact Test Between Political Comfort and Political Preference*

| Variables  | <i>P</i> |
|--|----------|
| Comfort with teaching context                            | .99      |
| Discussing political views in class                      | .09      |
| Discussing political views in research                   | .99      |
| Discussing political views in publications               | .73      |
| Discussing political views in departmental committees    | .79      |
| Discussing political views in university-wide committees | .63      |
| Discussing political views with colleagues               | .16      |
| Political views are similar to colleagues                | .01**    |

Note. \*  $p < .05$  \*\* $p < .01$

Among the Democrats, 28 (53.9%) neither agreed nor disagreed in response to the statement “My political views are generally similar to those of my colleagues.” A total of 19 (36.5%) agreed or strongly agreed whereas five (9.6%) disagreed or strongly disagreed. Among the Republicans, nine (75%) disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement “My political views are generally similar to those of my colleagues.” A total of two Republicans (16.7%) neither agreed nor disagreed, and only 1 (8.3%) agreed with the statement. None of the Republican respondents strongly agreed with the statement. These results are illustrated in Table 10.

Table 10  
*Respondents' Similarity of Views by Political Preference*

| Respondents' Views  | Democrat |       | Republican |       |
|---|----------|-------|------------|-------|
|   | n        | %     | n          | %     |
| My political views are generally similar to those of my colleagues. |          |       |            |       |
| Strongly Disagree   | 1        | 1.9   | 5          | 41.7  |
| Disagree  | 4        | 7.7   | 4          | 33.3  |
| Neither Agree nor Disagree  | 28       | 53.9  | 2          | 16.7  |
| Agree   | 18       | 34.6  | 1          | 8.3   |
| Strongly Agree  | 1        | 1.9   | 0          | 0.0   |
| Total   | 50       | 100.0 | 12         | 100.0 |

Note. Percentages may not total 100% due to rounding.

### Research Question 2

Does political comfort differ based on gender or religious affiliation?

The relationships between each of the political comfort variables in Section 3 of the survey were compared to gender using Fisher's Exact test. In the consideration of the eight variables as they related to gender, "Discussing political views in class" ( $p < .01$ ) and "Political views are similar to colleagues" ( $p = .03$ ) were found to be significant.

Table 11 displays the results of the analysis of the relationship between political comfort and gender.

Table 11  
*Fisher's Exact Test Between Political Comfort and Gender*

| Variables  | <i>P</i> |
|--|----------|
| Comfort with teaching context                            | .19      |
| Discussing political views in class                      | .01**    |
| Discussing political views in research                   | .40      |
| Discussing political views in publications               | .75      |
| Discussing political views in departmental committees    | .85      |
| Discussing political views in university-wide committees | .23      |
| Discussing political views with colleagues               | .11      |
| Political views are similar to colleagues*               | .03*     |

Note. \*  $p < .05$  \*\* $p < .01$

Among the females, 10 (83.3%) disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement “I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views in the classroom”. A total of two (16.7%) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement. Among the males, 47 (88.7%) disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement “I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views in the classroom. A total of six (11.3%) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement. These results are illustrated in Table 12.

Table 12  
*Respondents' Classroom Comfort in Discussing Political Views by Gender (N = 65)*

| Respondents' Views   | Female |       | Male |       |
|--|--------|-------|------|-------|
|  | n      | %     | n    | %     |
| I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views in the classroom. |        |       |      |       |
| Strongly Disagree  | 9      | 75.0  | 17   | 32.1  |
| Disagree   | 1      | 8.3   | 30   | 56.6  |
| Neither Agree nor Disagree   | 0      | 0.0   | 0    | 0.0   |
| Agree  | 1      | 8.3   | 4    | 7.6   |
| Strongly Agree   | 1      | 8.3   | 2    | 3.8   |
| Total  | 12     | 100.0 | 53   | 100.1 |

Note. Percentages may not total 100% due to rounding.

Among the females, eight (66.7%) agreed with the statement “My political views are generally similar to those of my colleagues”. Four (33.3%) chose “Neither Agree nor Disagree” regarding the statement. None of the female respondents strongly agreed, disagreed, or strongly disagreed with the statement. Among the males, 25 (47.2%) chose “Neither Agree nor Disagree” in response to the statement “My political views are generally similar to those of my colleagues”. A total of 16 (30.2%) disagreed or strongly disagreed, whereas 12 (22.6%) agreed or strongly agreed. These results are illustrated in Table 13.

Table 13  
*Respondents' Similarity of Political Views by Gender (N = 65)*

| Respondents' Views  | Democrat |       | Republican |       |
|---|----------|-------|------------|-------|
|   | n        | %     | n          | %     |
| My political views are generally similar to those of my colleagues. |          |       |            |       |
| Strongly Disagree   | 0        | 0.0   | 6          | 11.3  |
| Disagree  | 0        | 0.0   | 10         | 18.9  |
| Neither Agree nor Disagree  | 4        | 33.3  | 25         | 47.2  |
| Agree   | 8        | 66.7  | 11         | 20.8  |
| Strongly Agree  | 0        | 0.0   | 1          | 1.9   |
| Total   | 12       | 100.0 | 53         | 100.1 |

Note. Percentages may not total 100% due to rounding.

In the analysis of religious affiliation, the two religion variables were collapsed into a single variable to improve the validity of the test. The three Christian subpopulations were combined into one group, all the non-Christian religions were combined into a second, and the Not Religious category was left as a third. Table 14 displays the results of the analysis using the Fisher's Exact test between political comfort and the combined religion variable. None of the variables were significantly related.

For religious attendance, the weekly responses were combined into one group, the monthly responses were combined into a second, and the responses of Rarely/Never and Only on Holidays were combined into a third. Table 15 displays the results of the analysis between the political comfort variables and religious attendance and indicates that none of the variables were significantly related to religious attendance.

Table 14  
*Fisher's Exact Test Between Political Comfort and Religion*

| Variable   | <i>P</i> |
|--|----------|
| Comfort with teaching context                            | .51      |
| Discussing political views in class                      | .54      |
| Discussing political views in research                   | .93      |
| Discussing political views in publications               | .32      |
| Discussing political views in departmental committees    | .46      |
| Discussing political views in university-wide committees | .98      |
| Discussing political views with colleagues               | .70      |
| Political views are similar to colleagues                | .42      |

Note: \*  $p < .05$  \*\* $p < .01$

Table 15  
*Fisher's Exact Test Between Political Comfort and Religious Attendance*

| Variable   | <i>P</i> |
|--|----------|
| Comfort with teaching context                            | .23      |
| Discussing political views in class                      | .40      |
| Discussing political views in research                   | .69      |
| Discussing political views in publications               | .27      |
| Discussing political views in departmental committees    | .13      |
| Discussing political views in university-wide committees | .84      |
| Discussing political views with colleagues               | .21      |
| Political views are similar to colleagues                | .12      |

Note. \*  $p < .05$  \*\* $p < .01$

### Research Question 3

Does political comfort differ based on academic discipline--specifically economics and political science?

The relationships between each of the comfort variables in Section 3 of the survey were measured against academic department using Fisher's Exact test. Of the eight variables, the following four were significant: "I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views with colleagues in the context of my teaching" ( $p = .02$ ), "I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views with colleagues in the context of my service on departmental committees" ( $p = .01$ ), "I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views with colleagues in the context of my service on university-wide committees" ( $p < .01$ ), and "My political views are generally similar to those of my colleagues" ( $p < .01$ ). Table 16 displays the results of the analysis of the relationship between political comfort and academic discipline.

Table 16  
*Fisher's Exact Test Between Political Comfort and Academic Discipline*

| Variables  | <i>P</i> |
|--|----------|
| Comfort with teaching context                            | .02*     |
| Discussing political views in Class                      | .63      |
| Discussing political views in research                   | .80      |
| Discussing political views in publications               | .81      |
| Discussing political views in departmental committees    | .01*     |
| Discussing political views in university-wide committees | .01**    |
| Discussing political views with colleagues               | .47      |
| Political views are similar to colleagues                | .01**    |

Note: \*  $p < .05$  \*\* $p < .01$

Among the economics faculty, 17 (70.9%) agreed with the statement “I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views with colleagues in the context of my teaching”. A total of seven economics faculty members (29.1%) disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement. Among the political science faculty, 22 (55%) disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement “I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views with colleagues in the context of my teaching.” A total of 18 (45%) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement. Economics faculty respondents, more than political science respondents, reported that they would be comfortable in discussing their political views with their colleagues in the context of their teaching. These results are presented in Table 17.

Table 17 *Comfort in Discussing Political Views in Context of Teaching by Departmental Affiliation (N = 64)*

| Respondents' Views   | Economics |       | Political Science |       |
|--|-----------|-------|-------------------|-------|
|  | n         | %     | n                 | %     |
| I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views with colleagues in the context of my teaching |           |       |                   |       |
| Strongly Disagree  | 1         | 4.2   | 9                 | 22.5  |
| Disagree   | 6         | 25.0  | 13                | 32.5  |
| Neither Agree nor Disagree   |           |       |                   |       |
| Agree  | 16        | 66.7  | 12                | 30.0  |
| Strongly Agree   | 1         | 4.2   | 6                 | 15.0  |
| Total  | 24        | 100.1 | 40                | 100.0 |

Note. Percentages may not total 100% due to rounding.

Among the economics faculty, 14 (58.3%) disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement “I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views with



colleagues in the context of my service on departmental committees.” A total of 10 economics faculty members (41.7%) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement. Among the political science faculty, 28 (71.8%) disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement “I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views with colleagues in the context of my service on departmental committees.” A total of 11 (28.2%) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement. Overall, neither economics or political science faculty reported comfort in discussing political views in the context of departmental committee service. Political science faculty members, however, more frequently disagreed that they were or would be comfortable discussing their political views with colleagues in the context of service on departmental committees than did economics faculty. These results are shown in Table 18.

Table 18  
*Comfort in Discussing Political Views in Context of Departmental Committee Service by Departmental Affiliation (N = 63)*

| Respondents' Views   | Economics |       | Political Science |       |
|--|-----------|-------|-------------------|-------|
|  | n         | %     | n                 | %     |
| I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views with colleagues in the context of my service on departmental committees |           |       |                   |       |
| Strongly Disagree  | 2         | 8.3   | 16                | 41.0  |
| Disagree   | 12        | 50.0  | 12                | 30.8  |
| Neither Agree nor Disagree   | 0         | 0.0   | 0                 | 0.0   |
| Agree  | 9         | 37.5  | 7                 | 18.0  |
| Strongly Agree   | 1         | 4.2   | 4                 | 10.3  |
| Total  | 24        | 100.0 | 39                | 100.1 |

Note. Percentages may not total 100% due to rounding.

Among the economics faculty, 12 (50%) disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement “I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views with colleagues in the context of my service on university-wide committees.” A total of 12 (50%) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement. Among the political science faculty, 32 (82.1%) disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement “I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views with colleagues in the context of my service on university-wide committees.” Seven faculty members (17.9%) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement. Whereas economics faculty were evenly divided in regard to their comfort in discussing political views with colleagues in the context of their service on university-wide committees, political science faculty disagreed strongly with the comfort question in this context. These results are displayed in Table 19.

Table 19  
*Comfort in Discussing Political Views in Context of University-wide Committee Service by Departmental Affiliation (N = 63)*

| Respondents' Views  | Economics |       | Political Science |       |
|---|-----------|-------|-------------------|-------|
|   | n         | %     | n                 | %     |
| I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views with colleagues in the context of my service on university-wide committees |           |       |                   |       |
| Strongly Disagree   | 2         | 8.3   | 17                | 43.6  |
| Disagree  | 10        | 41.7  | 15                | 38.5  |
| Neither Agree nor Disagree  |           |       |                   |       |
| Agree   | 11        | 45.8  | 4                 | 10.3  |
| Strongly Agree  | 1         | 4.2   | 3                 | 7.7   |
| Total   | 24        | 100.0 | 39                | 100.1 |

Note. Percentages may not total 100% due to rounding.

Among the economics faculty, 11 (45.8%) chose “Neither Agree nor Disagree” regarding the statement “My political views are generally similar to those of my colleagues.” A total of 10 (41.7%) disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement and three (12.5%) agreed with the statement. None of the economics faculty strongly agreed with the statement. Among the political science faculty, 17 (42.5%) chose “Neither Agree nor Disagree” regarding the statement “My political views are generally similar to those of my colleagues.” A total of 17 (42.5%) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement, and six (15%) disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement. Republican respondents reported more frequently that their political views were not similar to those of their colleagues than did the Democrat respondents. These results are illustrated in Table 20.

Table 20  
*Respondents' Similarity of Political Views by Departmental Affiliation (N = 64)*

| Respondents' Views   | Economics |       | Political Science |       |
|--|-----------|-------|-------------------|-------|
|  | n         | %     | n                 | %     |
| My political views are generally similar to those of my colleagues |           |       |                   |       |
| Strongly Disagree  | 1         | 4.2   | 5                 | 12.5  |
| Disagree   | 9         | 37.5  | 1                 | 2.5   |
| Neither Agree nor Disagree   | 11        | 45.8  | 17                | 42.5  |
| Agree  | 3         | 12.5  | 16                | 40.0  |
| Strongly Agree   | 0         | 0.0   | 1                 | 2.5   |
| Total  | 24        | 100.0 | 40                | 100.0 |

Note. Percentages may not total 100% due to rounding.

#### Research Question 4

Does political comfort differ based on institutional affiliation--specifically University of Florida, Florida State University, and University of South Florida?

The relationships between each of the political comfort variables in Section 3 of the survey were compared by institution using Fisher's Exact test. For each of the eight variable combinations, crosstab tables were generated to support the  $p$ -values from Fisher's Exact test. Of the eight variables, "I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views with colleagues informally" ( $p = .01$ ) was significant. Table 21 displays the results of the analysis of the relationship between comfort and institutional affiliation.

Table 21  
*Fisher's Exact Test Between Political Comfort and Institution*

| Variable   | $P$  |
|--|------|
| Comfort with teaching context                            | .51  |
| Discussing political views in class                      | .08  |
| Discussing political views in research                   | .18  |
| Discussing political views in publications               | .58  |
| Discussing political views in departmental committees    | .81  |
| Discussing political views in university-wide committees | .49  |
| Discussing political views with colleagues               | .01* |
| Political views are similar to colleagues                | .35  |

Note: \*  $p < .05$  \*\* $p < .01$

Among the University of Florida (UF) faculty members, 23 (95.9%) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement "I am or would be comfortable discussing my political

views with colleagues informally.” Only one (4.1%) disagreed with the statement. None of the UF faculty members strongly disagreed with the statement.

Among the Florida State University (FSU) faculty members, 26 (92.9%) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement “I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views with colleagues informally.” Two (7.1%) disagreed with the statement. None of the FSU faculty members strongly disagreed with the statement.

Among the University of South Florida (USF) faculty members, nine (69.3%) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement “I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views with colleagues informally.” Four faculty members (30.8%) disagreed. None of the USF faculty members strongly disagreed with the statement. These results are illustrated in Table 22.

Table 22  
*Comfort in Discussing Political Views with Colleagues by Institution (N = 65)*

| Respondents Views   | University of Florida |       | Florida State University |      | University of South Florida |       |
|---|-----------------------|-------|--------------------------|------|-----------------------------|-------|
|   | N                     | %     | n                        | %    | N                           | %     |
| I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views with colleagues informally |                       |       |                          |      |                             |       |
| Strongly Disagree   | 0                     | 0.0   | 0                        | 0.0  | 0                           | 0.0   |
| Disagree  | 1                     | 4.2   | 2                        | 7.1  | 4                           | 30.8  |
| Neither Agree nor Disagree  |                       |       |                          |      |                             |       |
| Agree   | 10                    | 41.7  | 20                       | 71.4 | 7                           | 53.9  |
| Strongly Agree  | 13                    | 54.2  | 6                        | 21.4 | 2                           | 15.4  |
| Total   | 24                    | 100.1 | 28                       | 99.9 | 13                          | 100.1 |

Note. Percentages may not total 100% due to rounding.

### Ancillary Analyses Based on Tenure Variable

Though the tenure variable had been included only as a demographic variable in the study, an additional Fisher's Exact test was performed to determine any relationships between the political comfort variables in Section 3 of the survey and respondents' tenure status. Table 23 displays the results of the analysis. Of the eight variables, only "My political views are similar to those of my colleagues" ( $p = .02$ ), was significant. In other words, tenure did not necessarily promote increased political comfort.

Table 23  
*Fisher's Exact Test Between Political Comfort and Tenure Status*

| Variable   | <i>P</i> |
|--|----------|
| Comfort with teaching context                            | .84      |
| Discussing political views in class                      | .94      |
| Discussing political views in research                   | .98      |
| Discussing political views in publications               | .49      |
| Discussing political views in departmental committees    | .22      |
| Discussing political views in university-wide committees | .56      |
| Discussing political views with colleagues               | .62      |
| Political views are similar to colleagues                | .02*     |

Note. \*  $p < .05$  \*\* $p < .01$

Table 24 presents the analysis of data related to the similarity of views between tenured and non-tenured faculty. Among the non-tenured faculty, 13 (50%) neither agreed nor disagreed regarding the statement. A total of 11 (42.3%) agreed and two (7.7%) strongly disagreed with the statement.

In regard to the views of tenured faculty, none disagreed or strongly disagreed, and 18 (45%) neither agreed nor disagreed that their political views were similar to those of their colleagues. A total of 13 (32.5%) tenured faculty members disagreed or strongly disagreed, and nine (22.5%) agreed or strongly agreed that their political views were similar to those of their colleagues.

Table 24  
*Respondents' Similarity of Political Views by Tenure Status (N = 66)*

| Respondents' Views  | Nontenured |       | Tenured |       |
|---|------------|-------|---------|-------|
|   | N          | %     | n       | %     |
| My political views are generally similar to those of my colleagues. |            |       |         |       |
| Strongly Disagree   | 2          | 7.7   | 3       | 7.5   |
| Disagree  | 0          | 0.0   | 10      | 25.0  |
| Neither Agree nor Disagree  | 13         | 50.0  | 18      | 45.0  |
| Agree   | 11         | 42.3  | 8       | 20.0  |
| Strongly Agree  | 0          | 0.0   | 1       | 2.5   |
| Total   | 26         | 100.0 | 40      | 100.0 |

## CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### Introduction

This chapter has been organized to include a summary and discussion of findings related to each research question. Implications for future research as well as recommendations are presented. A conclusion then completes the chapter.

### Summary and Discussion of Findings

#### Research Question 1

Is there a relationship between political comfort and faculty members' political party preferences?

The relationships between each of the political comfort variables in section 3 of the survey were compared to the political affiliation of the respondents using Fisher's Exact test. Of the eight variables, only "My political views are similar to those of my colleagues" was significantly related to political preference ( $p < .01$ ).

Democrats outnumber Republicans by more than 4:1 among the survey respondents. Therefore, it was not surprising that Republican respondents reported more frequently that they differed with their colleagues' political views than did the Democrat respondents.

However, it was difficult to draw any firm conclusions regarding the perceptions of Republican respondents because there were so few Republican respondents.

Politically, 81.3% of respondents indicated a preference for Democrats whereas 18.7%



indicated a preference for Republicans. Among non-tenured faculty members, this disparity increased. A total of 88.5% of non-tenured respondents indicated a preference for Democrats whereas 11.5% indicated a preference for Republicans.

### Research Question 2

Does political comfort differ based on gender or religious affiliation?

The relationships between each of the political comfort variables in section 3 of the survey were compared to gender, religious beliefs, and frequency of attending religious services using Fisher's Exact test. Of the eight variables, "I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views in the classroom" ( $p < .01$ ) and "My political views are similar to those of my colleagues" ( $p = .03$ ) were significantly related to gender. None of the variables were significantly related to either religion-oriented variable.

Across all respondents, male and female, 86.4% disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement "I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views in the classroom". This was not surprising as the definition of academic freedom includes the following principle: "Teachers. . . should be careful not to introduce into their teaching controversial matter which has no relation to their subject" (American Association of University Professors, 1940).

Male faculty members were more reserved in assessing the similarity of their political views to those of their colleagues than were females. In other words, there were more "Neither Agree nor Disagree" responses to the statement "My political views are

generally similar to those of my colleagues” among the males than there were among the females. This may or may not indicate more political discussion among females than among males.

The males were also more divided regarding whether they agreed with their colleagues’ views than were the females. This finding makes sense considering the differences in male/female faculty political identification. A total of 78% of male faculty respondents indicated a preference for Democrats, whereas 22% of male faculty respondents indicated a preference for Republicans. Also, a total of 91.7% of female faculty respondents indicated a preference for Democrats, but only 8.3% of female faculty respondents indicated a preference for Republicans.

### Research Question 3

Does political comfort differ based on academic discipline--specifically economics and political science?

The relationship between each of the political comfort variables in section 3 of the survey was measured considering academic department using Fisher’s Exact test. Of the eight variables, “I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views with colleagues in the context of my teaching” ( $p = .02$ ), “I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views with colleagues in the context of my service on departmental committees” ( $p = .01$ ), “I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views with colleagues in the context of my service on university-wide

committees” ( $p < .01$ ), and “My political views are generally similar to those of my colleagues” ( $p < .01$ ) were significant.

Economics faculty respondents reported more willingness to discuss political views in the context of teaching than did political science faculty respondents. This may or may not be due to differences in the culture of the disciplines.

Neither economics nor political science faculty reported comfort in discussing political views in the context of departmental committee service. Political science faculty members more frequently disagreed with the political comfort question as it applied in the departmental committee service context than did economics faculty. Comparatively speaking, even though both economics and political science faculty did not report comfort in discussing political views in the context of departmental committee service, political science faculty reported less comfort in this context than did economics faculty. Some departmental committee service may have nothing to do with politics. When politics is salient, it may or may not be the case that some faculty members are uncomfortable expressing themselves due to perceptions of an environment that might be hostile to their views.

Also, whereas economics faculty were evenly split on discussing political views in the university-wide committee context, political science faculty disagreed strongly with the comfort question in this context. The literature did not create any expectations related to this context. It is certainly possible that these narrow dissertation research questions do not capture some of the complexity of workplace relationships. It is also

possible that some individuals may not--as a personal preference--engage in political speech outside of very familiar social settings.

Economics faculty either did not report on their colleagues' political views or they disagreed with their colleagues' political views. Political science faculty either did not report on their colleagues' political views or they agreed with their colleagues' political views. This finding makes sense considering the differences in economics/political science faculty political identification. A total of 68% of economics faculty respondents indicated a preference for Democrats whereas 32% of economics faculty respondents indicated a preference for Republicans. A total of 90.5% of political science faculty respondents indicated a preference for Democrats whereas only 9.5% political science faculty respondents indicated a preference for Republicans.

#### Research Question 4

Does political comfort differ based on institutional affiliation--specifically University of Florida, The Florida State University, and University of South Florida?

The relationship among the universities was explored for each of the political comfort variables in section 3 of the survey using Fisher's Exact test. Of the eight variables, only "I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views with colleagues informally" ( $p = .01$ ) was significant. Large majorities of faculty members at all three institutions reported comfort in discussing political views informally with colleagues. The percentages were similar at the University of Florida (95.9%) and The Florida State University (92.9%), and somewhat smaller at the University of South

Florida (69.3%). Based on the literature reviewed, these numbers were surprising. One possible explanation for the smaller comfort percentage among the University of South Florida respondents – relative to University of Florida and The Florida State University respondents--is the brief research tradition of the University of South Florida, as compared with the longer research tradition at University of Florida and The Florida State University. It is possible that a longer tradition of research at a university goes hand-in-hand with an increased perception of academic freedom and, therefore, political comfort. However, given the exploratory nature of the study, the small sample size, and the unique variable of interest, the conclusions that might be drawn here are very limited.

In discussing this finding, it is interesting to note that at the University of Florida, 86.4% of respondents indicated a preference for Democrats, and only 13.6% of respondents indicated a preference for Republicans. At The Florida State University, 78.6% of respondents indicated a preference for Democrats, and 21.4% of respondents indicated a preference for Republicans. At University of South Florida, 75% of respondents indicated a preference for Democrats, whereas only 25% of respondents indicated a preference for Republicans. Given the relative lack of diversity in the respondents in terms of political preference, one might question whether less diversity of political views could contribute to greater comfort in discussing those views.

### Significant Findings of the Study

The findings of this study yielded some interesting data points related to the professors who responded to the survey. Only 23.3% of respondents were 35 years of age or younger, and only 3.2% were younger than 30 years of age. With regard to religion, 43.3% of the survey respondents indicated they were not religious. The next highest self-identified religion was Christian (Other) with a total of 23.9% of responses. None of the respondents indicated they were Muslim. With regard to ethnicity, 89.1% of the survey respondents indicated they were white. Respondents indicating they were black totaled 4.7%, Asian respondents totaled 1.6%, and all other minorities totaled 4.7%. None of the respondents indicated they were Hispanic or Native American. Whereas these demographic data are surprising, it would be difficult at best to accurately estimate or predict--based on names and information on a university website--the demographic makeup of a population of faculty members prior to conducting a formal study.

Politically, 81.3% of respondents indicated a preference for Democrats whereas 18.7% indicated a preference for Republicans. Among non-tenured faculty members, this disparity increased. A total of 88.5% of non-tenured respondents indicated a preference for Democrats, whereas 11.5% indicated a preference for Republicans. These findings are similar to previous faculty politics studies.

To better describe “Republican” and “Democrat” party preference, respondents were asked several issue questions. The vast majority of Republican respondents (91.6%) strongly disagreed or disagreed that “Government should be more involved in the economy.” All Republican respondents (100%) agreed or strongly agreed regarding the

statement “School Voucher programs should be expanded.” Also, most Republican respondents (66.7%) disagreed or strongly disagreed regarding the statement “Economic inequality should be solved through income redistribution in the United States.” The majority of respondents were aligned with the 2008 Republican national party platform.

The Democrat respondents were more heterogeneous in their responses to issue questions. A majority of Democrat respondents (54.9%) strongly agreed or agreed that “Government should be more involved in the economy,” but 39.2% of Democrat respondents chose “Neither Agree nor Disagree.” A total of 44.2% of Democrat respondents chose “Neither Agree nor Disagree” regarding “School voucher programs should be expanded,” but 36.5% disagreed or strongly disagreed, and 19.2% agreed or strongly agreed. The Democrat Party has generally opposed school vouchers.

Also, a majority of Democrats (56.9%) agreed or strongly agreed regarding the statement “Economic inequality should be solved through income redistribution in the United States.” A total of 36.5% of Democrat respondents, however, chose “Neither Agree nor Disagree” and 15.7% of Democrat respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed.

Research Question 1 sought information regarding whether there was a relationship between political comfort and faculty members’ political party preferences. Of the eight political comfort variables, only “My political views are similar to those of my colleagues” was significantly related to political preference ( $p < .01$ ). Republican respondents reported more frequently that their political views differed from those of their colleagues than did the Democrat respondents. However, it is difficult to draw any

firm conclusions regarding the perceptions of Republican respondents because there were so few Republican respondents.

Research Question 2 sought information regarding whether political comfort differed based on gender or religious affiliation. Of the eight variables, “I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views in the classroom” ( $p < .01$ ) and “My political views are similar to those of my colleagues” ( $p = .03$ ) were significantly related to gender. Across all male and female respondents, 86.4% disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement “I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views in the classroom.” Male faculty members, though more reserved in assessing the similarity of their political views to those of their colleagues than females, were more divided regarding whether they agreed with their colleagues’ views than were females. None of the variables were significantly related to either religion-oriented variable.

Research Question 3 sought information regarding whether political comfort differed based on academic discipline--specifically economics and political science. It is important to review here that of the eight variables, four were significant: “I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views with colleagues in the context of my teaching” ( $p = .02$ ), “I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views with colleagues in the context of my service on departmental committees” ( $p = .01$ ), “I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views with colleagues in the context of my service on university-wide committees” ( $p < .01$ ), and “My political views are generally similar to those of my colleagues” ( $p < .01$ ).



Economics faculty respondents reported more willingness to discuss political views in the context of teaching than did political science faculty respondents. Both economics and political science faculty did not report comfort in discussing political views in the context of departmental committee service. A higher percentage of political science faculty members disagreed with the political comfort question in the departmental committee service context than did economics faculty.

Though economics faculty were evenly divided in regard to discussing political views in the university-wide committee context, political science faculty disagreed strongly with the comfort question in this context. The literature does not point to a reason for this disparity. Economics faculty either did not report on their colleagues' political views or they disagreed with their colleagues' political views. Political science faculty either did not report on their colleagues' political views or they agreed with their colleagues' political views.

Research Question 4 sought information regarding whether political comfort differed based on institutional affiliation--specifically University of Florida (UF), The Florida State University (FSU), and University of South Florida (USF). Of the eight variables, only "I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views with colleagues informally" ( $p = .01$ ) was significant. Large majorities of faculty members at all three institutions reported comfort in discussing political views informally with colleagues. The proportion was similar at UF (95.9%) and FSU (92.9%), and was a bit less at USF (69.3%).

### Implications for Future Research

The findings of this investigation indicate that Democrats outnumber Republicans 4:1 among the survey respondents. Further research could examine why there are so many more Democrats than Republicans among college faculty members. The ratio of Democrats to Republicans could be examined among those admitted to graduate study. This could then be compared to the Democrat to Republican ratio among doctoral recipients seeking academic jobs.

It is difficult to predict how society and the academy will evolve and how these changes will impact political views and/or comfort. Because of these difficulties, the researcher refrained from speculating on the future in terms of trends. No researchers have attempted to predict trends in the political views and/or comfort of college faculty. Because this is the first study to investigate political comfort, data from the general population and other professions do not exist. Therefore, at this point, these findings stand alone and cannot be compared with political comfort in other settings.

The researcher has attempted in this study to develop and test a survey instrument that would assess university faculty members' comfort in academic discussions related to politics. For the purpose of this investigation, the level of ease of faculty members in these discussions was termed "political comfort." One of the key assumptions that the researcher made in this study was that political comfort would enhance academic freedom.

Further study could be initiated related to the measurement of academic freedom. An "Academic Freedom of the Colleges" index could be built by aggregating the comfort

measures. For that matter, the instrument developed for this study might be used to examine political comfort in other sectors of higher education such as community colleges, proprietary colleges, and private liberal arts colleges. It would also be interesting to see if the results were similar based on a statewide or even a national population of public research universities.

Some evidence in this study indicated that tenure did not necessarily promote increased political comfort. Exploration of the relationships between tenure and academic freedom, and tenure and political comfort might yield some interesting results.

Several qualitative studies could also be undertaken. With regard to religion, 43.3% of the survey respondents indicated they were not religious. In regard to the United States population as a whole, 15% self-identified as not religious (Kosmin & Keysar, 2009). A qualitative study would provide religious and not religious respondents more opportunity to expand on the impact of their world views on their professional lives. Another qualitative study might describe some of the political comforts (or discomforts) of faculty members with an emphasis on communication. It is possible that one might be “muffled and fearful” in academic matters due to poor communication or misunderstandings.

Still other areas of research could be initiated related to students, their perceptions regarding the politics of their professors, the pressure to conform with professors’ political views, and the positive and negatives associated with pressure to conform. Quantitative and qualitative studies could also be undertaken to examine whether and how political views might impact teaching. Though peer review has its critics, subject

matter experts could examine course materials, syllabi, and textbooks for evidence of bias that could impact students.

### Conclusion

This study represents the first investigation of faculty members' political comfort. In this investigation the researcher explored the relationship, if any, between comfort in discussing political views with colleagues and faculty members' political party preferences. The questions of whether political comfort differed based on gender, religious affiliation, and/or institutional affiliation were also explored.

The theoretical framework for this research was one that existed at the convergence of various conceptual understandings. Though the literature on academic freedom provided the general context of the study, the researcher sought to explore the degree to which faculty were comfortable in expressing academically-related political views. As those views were constrained, theories of marginalization were considered as part of the framework. Additionally, the literature on comfort provided the conceptual tools for understanding those situations in which faculty perceived expression to be unconstrained. For the purpose of this study, the theoretical framework was based on comfort.

Minimal ethnic and political diversity was found among the respondents in the present study. With regard to ethnicity, a large majority (89.1%) of the survey respondents were white. Black, Asian and all other minorities equaled approximately 10% of respondents, and no Hispanic or Native Americans were identified. In regard to

political preference, 81.3% of respondents indicated a preference for Democrats and only 18.7% indicated a preference for Republicans. It was difficult to draw any firm conclusions regarding the perceptions of Republican respondents because there were so few Republican respondents.

Male faculty members, though more reserved in assessing the similarity of their political views to those of their colleagues than females, were more divided regarding whether they agreed with their colleagues' views than were females. None of the variables were significantly related to either religion-oriented variable.

Economics faculty respondents reported more willingness to discuss political views in the context of teaching than did political science faculty respondents. Both economics and political science faculty did not report comfort in discussing political views in the context of departmental committee service. A higher percentage of political science faculty members disagreed with the political comfort question in the departmental committee service context than did economics faculty.

Though economics faculty were evenly divided in regard to discussing political views in the university-wide committee context, political science faculty disagreed strongly with the comfort question in this context. The literature does not point to a reason for this disparity. Economics faculty either did not report on their colleagues' political views or they disagreed with their colleagues' political views. Political science faculty either did not report on their colleagues' political views or they agreed with their colleagues' political views. Large majorities of faculty members at all three institutions reported comfort in discussing political views informally with colleagues.

Given the exploratory nature of the study, the small sample size, and the unique variable of interest, the conclusions that might be drawn from this investigation are limited. An important question remains though: Why is inclusiveness and diversity preached by many in the academy whereas some aspects and areas of the academy remain decidedly non-diverse? Whereas legislative remedies have been proposed, those tend to be fraught with unintended consequences. The best solutions to the academy's challenges will probably come from within the academy. Therefore, further study is certainly needed and warranted. Investigation can and should be done related to academic freedom, tenure, and political comfort.

APPENDIX A  
PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE/ADAPT TABULAR DISPLAYS

--- On **Mon, 8/24/09**, Neil Gross <[neilgross@mac.com](mailto:neilgross@mac.com)> wrote:

From: Neil Gross <[neilgross@mac.com](mailto:neilgross@mac.com)>  
Subject: Re: Permission...  
To: "John HILSTON" <[jhilston82@bellsouth.net](mailto:jhilston82@bellsouth.net)>  
Date: Monday, August 24, 2009, 3:00 PM

no problem...

On 24-Aug-09, at 12:00 PM, John HILSTON wrote:

I'd appreciate permission to use a table from the following study:

Gross, N. & Simmons, S. (2007). The social and political views of American professors. Retrieved December 19, 2007 from  
[http://www.wjh.harvard.edu/~ngross/lounsbury\\_9-25.pdf](http://www.wjh.harvard.edu/~ngross/lounsbury_9-25.pdf)

I'm working on a dissertation at University of Central Florida in Orlando, FL.

Let me know if you need any other info.

Thanks much,

john Hilston

Neil Gross  
Editor, *Sociological Theory*, a journal of the American Sociological Association  
Associate Professor  
Department of Sociology  
University of British Columbia  
6303 NW Marine Drive  
Vancouver BC V6T 1Z1  
Office: (604) 827-5511  
Cell: (604) 312-4062  
[neilgross@mac.com](mailto:neilgross@mac.com)



**From:** Avi Warner [mailto:awarner@bepress.com]  
**Sent:** Monday, November 02, 2009 1:32 PM  
**To:** Hilston, John  
**Subject:** Re: Permission...

Dear John Hilston,

Thank you for writing. The permission you have requested would be fine. Please consider this email to use the tables in your dissertation.

Thank you,

Avi

Avi Warner  
Editorial Project Manager  
Berkeley Electronic Press  
Phone: (510) 665-1200 Ext. 153  
awarner@bepress.com  
www.bepress.com/journals

bepress: 10 years of accelerating and enhancing the flow of scholarly ideas

On Sun, Nov 1, 2009 at 1:09 PM, Hilston, John <hilstonj@brevardcc.edu> wrote:  
I'd appreciate permission to use Tables 1-4 (pgs 4, 6, 7, and 11) from the following study:

Rothman, S., Lichter, S.R., & Nevitte, N. (2005). Politics and professional advancement among college faculty. *The Forum*, 3(1), Article 2. Retrieved July 28, 2006 from <http://www.bepress.com/forum/><<http://www.bepress.com/forum/>>

I'm working on a dissertation at University of Central Florida in Orlando, FL.

Thanks much,

john hilston

APPENDIX B  
SURVEY INSTRUMENT

**1. We'd like to start with a few questions about your position at the University:**

**1. What is your subject matter expertise?**

Economics

Political Science

**2. What is your academic rank?**

Assistant Professor

Associate Professor

Professor

**3. I have been teaching at the college level for \_\_\_\_\_ years.**

**4. I have been awarded tenure at my institution.**

No

Yes

**5. I will be considered for tenure in \_\_\_\_\_ years.**

Next

**2. Now we will ask some questions related to politics and religion:**

**Please select the choices that most closely reflect your views.**

**1. Government should be more involved in the economy.**

Strongly Disagree  Disagree  Neither Agree nor Disagree  Agree  Strongly Agree

**2. School Voucher programs should be expanded.**

Strongly Disagree  Disagree  Neither Agree nor Disagree  Agree  Strongly Agree

**3. Economic inequality should be solved through income redistribution in the United States.**

Strongly Disagree  Disagree  Neither Agree nor Disagree  Agree  Strongly Agree

**4. Given only these choices, I would be most likely to vote for candidates from the following party:**

Democrat  Republican

**5. The religion I most closely identify with is:**

Christian (Catholic)  Christian (Baptist)  Christian (other than Catholic or Baptist)  Judaism  Islam  Other  I am not religious

**6. How often do you attend religious activities?**

More than once per week  Once per week  2-3 times per month  Once per month  Only on major holidays  Rarely/never

**3. Now we will ask some questions regarding your perceptions of comfort in the academic setting:**

**Please select the choices that most closely reflect your views.**

**1. I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views with colleagues in the context of my teaching.**

Strongly Disagree

Disagree

Agree

Strongly Agree

**2. I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views in the classroom.**

Strongly Disagree

Disagree

Agree

Strongly Agree

**3. I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views with colleagues in the context of my research.**

Strongly Disagree

Disagree

Agree

Strongly Agree

**4. I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views in academic publications.**

Strongly Disagree

Disagree

Agree

Strongly Agree

**5. I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views with colleagues in the context of my service on departmental committees.**

Strongly Disagree

Disagree

Agree

Strongly Agree

**6. I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views with colleagues in the context of my service on university-wide committees.**

Strongly Disagree

Disagree

Agree

Strongly Agree

**7. I am or would be comfortable discussing my political views informally with colleagues.**

Strongly Disagree

Disagree

Agree

Strongly Agree

**8. My political views are generally similar to those of my colleagues.**

Strongly Disagree

Disagree

Neither Agree nor Disagree

Agree

Strongly Agree

**4. We will now finish with a few demographic questions:**

**1. What is your gender?**

Female

Male

**2. I am employed by:**

University of Florida

Florida State University

University of South Florida

**3. My age is:**

**4. My race is \_\_\_\_\_.**

Black

Caucasian  
(White)

Hispanic

Asian

Native  
American

Other

**5. Comments and/or Feedback**

Prev

Done

## Faculty Views Questionnaire

Thank you for completing our survey!

Done

APPENDIX C  
REQUESTS FOR SURVEY PARTICIPATION



## Pre-request for Participation in UCF Survey

Dear faculty member,

A few days from now you will receive an email request to fill out a brief online questionnaire for my doctoral research that will address the notion of political comfort among college faculty members.

I am writing in advance because we have found many people like to know ahead of time that they will be contacted. Completing this survey should take no more than 10 minutes of your time.

Thank you for your time and consideration. It's only with the generous help of people like you that this research can be successful.

Sincerely,

John Hilston  
Doctoral Candidate  
University of Central Florida  
(407) 617-3549

## Request for Participation in UCF Survey

Dear faculty member,

Please participate in an online survey that John Hilston, a University of Central Florida doctoral candidate, is using to collect data for his dissertation. The survey examines political comfort among college faculty members. Completing this survey should take no more than 10 minutes of your time. By clicking the link below and submitting the survey, you are consenting to voluntarily participate in the study. If the link does not work, please copy and paste it into the address line of your browser.

[https://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=mObILVm2h3LAz3Q1F7CSCg\\_3d\\_3d](https://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=mObILVm2h3LAz3Q1F7CSCg_3d_3d)

Your responses will be anonymous and there will be no identifying information associated with them. To ensure privacy, all responses will be encrypted. We are using a host provider that does not maintain the Internet addresses of respondents. There are negligible risks involved with participation. If you decide to take part in the study, you do not have to answer any questions that you do not wish to answer; simply skip to the next question.

If you have any questions about this study, please contact John Hilston at [jhilston82@bellsouth.net](mailto:jhilston82@bellsouth.net) or Dr. Rosa Cintrón at [rcintron@mail.ucf.edu](mailto:rcintron@mail.ucf.edu). Thank you in advance for participating in this survey. Your time and help are greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

John Hilston  
Doctoral Candidate  
University of Central Florida  
(407) 617-3549

If you have any questions about your rights as a participant in a research project, you can contact: UCF IRB - Office of Research & Commercialization; 12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501; Orlando, FL 32826-3246.

## Second Request for Participation in UCF Survey

From: Hilston, John  
Sent: Wed 2/3/2010 12:12 PM  
To: jhilston82@aol.com  
Subject: Dissertation Survey...

Dear Professor:

Two weeks ago, you received an email requesting your participation in a survey regarding the political comfort of college faculty.

If you have already responded, thank you so much for sharing your views. I am especially grateful for your participation since it is only through the participation of higher education professionals like yourself that this study is possible.

If you have not yet completed the survey, please do so by clicking on this link (or copy and pasting the link into your web browser):

[https://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=mObILVm2h3LAz3Q1F7CSCg\\_3d\\_3d](https://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=mObILVm2h3LAz3Q1F7CSCg_3d_3d)

It will take less than 10 minutes of your time to complete the survey. If you are experiencing difficulty, please contact me via email at hilstonj@brevardcc.edu or jhilston82@aol.com.

Sincerely,

John Hilston  
Associate Professor of Economics  
Brevard Community College - Palm Bay  
(321) 433 - 5327

Final Request for Participation in UCF Survey

From: Hilston, John  
Sent: Tuesday, February 16, 2010 2:31 PM  
To: 'jhilston82@aol.com'  
Cc: 'Rosa Cintron-Delgado'  
Subject: Last Chance...

Dear Professor:

Over the past several weeks, I have sent several emails inviting you to participate in a research study being conducted as part of my doctoral dissertation. The purpose of the study is to examine the political comfort of college faculty. If you have already responded, thank you so much for sharing your views.

The study will end soon. This is the last attempt I will make to encourage your participation. You may complete the survey by clicking this link to submit your responses electronically (or copy and pasting the link into your web browser):

[https://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=mObILVm2h3LAz3Q1F7CSCg\\_3d3d](https://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=mObILVm2h3LAz3Q1F7CSCg_3d3d)

The study population is quite small. Therefore, your response is critical to producing valid results.

All responses to the questions are confidential. In fact, responses are encrypted for maximum security. If you feel you have been contacted by mistake or that you are not qualified to respond to the survey, I understand.

Thank you again for your consideration of this request.

Sincerely,

John Hilston  
Associate Professor of Economics  
Brevard Community College - Palm Bay  
(321) 433 - 5327

APPENDIX D  
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD (IRB) APPROVAL



University of Central Florida Institutional Review Board  
 Office of Research & Commercialization  
 12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501  
 Orlando, Florida 32826-3246  
 Telephone: 407-823-2901 or 407-882-2276  
 www.research.ucf.edu/compliance/irb.html

**Approval of Exempt Human Research**

**From: UCF Institutional Review Board #1  
 FWA00000351, IRB00001138**  
**To: John Hilston**  
**Date: January 12, 2010**

Dear Researcher:

On 1/12/2010, the IRB approved the following activity as human participant research that is exempt from regulation:

Type of Review: Exempt Determination  
 Project Title: FREEDOM OF POLITICAL EXPRESSION AMONG  
 ECONOMICS AND POLITICAL SCIENCE FACULTY IN  
 FLORIDA COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES: AN  
 EXPLORATORY STUDY  
 Investigator: John Hilston  
 IRB Number: SBE-10-06658  
 Funding Agency:  
 Grant Title:  
 Research ID: N/A

This determination applies only to the activities described in the IRB submission and does not apply should any changes be made. If changes are made and there are questions about whether these changes affect the exempt status of the human research, please contact the IRB. When you have completed your research, please submit a Study Closure request in iRIS so that IRB records will be accurate.

In the conduct of this research, you are responsible to follow the requirements of the Investigator Manual.

On behalf of Joseph Bielitzki, DVM, UCF IRB Chair, this letter is signed by:

Signature applied by Joanne Muratori on 01/12/2010 01:50:38 PM EST

IRB Coordinator

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